Mt. San Antonio College

Salary and Leaves Committee

2008-09 SABBATICAL REPORT

by

Jason Chevalier

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2008-09

In the fall of 2006, I began studies at Claremont Graduate University to obtain a doctorate in music. After completing one semester in a highly specialized program focused principally on early music (900-1400 A.D.), it became apparent that this type of study would result in only a limited increase in my effectiveness an Instrumental Director or Department Chair. I decided to pursue a degree that would help me to increase my skill set immediately, as well as one that would prepare me to serve as an administrator in the future. This realization prompted a switch to Capella University, where I am pursuing a Ph.D. in Leadership in Higher Education. If granted a sabbatical leave, it is my intention to finish the doctoral coursework at Capella University, complete and pass the comprehensive examination, and begin working on a dissertation. Though the sabbatical leave occurs over fall and spring semesters, it is necessary to take classes over four quarters to meet all of the requirements of the program and fulfill the sabbatical unit requirements. The following course study plan includes 38 quarter-units over the school year. These courses are offered every quarter, but should a change of plan be necessary, the sabbatical committee will be contacted immediately to inform them of the need for adjustment.

Summer 2008

(All course descriptions obtained from www.capella.edu, retrieved on November 9, 2007)

Human Resources in Higher Education (4 units)

A generation ago, the study of human resources (HR) typically focused on five areas: 1. Selection. 2. Training and development. 3. Organizational development. 4. Labor relations. 5. Compensation.

Today, many organizations outsource a number of these traditional functions. Compensation systems and training are two commonly outsourced functions. For situations in which the HR function has diminished or has changed to a department that oversees contracted workers, other tasks have been added or emphasized, such as legal compliance or litigation avoidance. Will discuss and apply basic concepts, guiding principles, assessment designs and methods, and critical issues related to the assessment movement in higher education.

Assessment in Higher Education (4 units)

This course is designed to provide you with the theory and the application of assessment principles and techniques necessary for the higher education leader. The quality of teaching and learning in higher education is often guided by the use of various assessment practices. In addition, higher education leaders must recognize that assessment now plays a key role in the accreditation process. This course offers a comprehensive examination of the connection between assessment strategies and higher education practices both in and out of the classroom and from the perspective of various higher education stakeholders. You will discuss and apply

basic concepts, guiding principles, assessment designs and methods, and critical issues related to the assessment movement in higher education.

The Politics of Higher Education (4 units)

The U.S. system of higher education is generally regarded as being the finest in the world. However, most informed observers would also agree that it is in crisis. Arguments rage about whether the traditional roles and functions of our colleges and universities are even relevant to a global economy in an information age. At the same time, our higher education institutions face severe financial pressures as they compete with other equally worthwhile causes for their share of increasingly scarce resources.

Fall 2008

Curriculum Development (4 units)

This course explores the historical and theoretical perspectives of curriculum development culminating in discussions of transformative curriculum and other post-millennial curriculum trends. You will have the opportunity to develop your own definition of curriculum and connect it to your profession. This course will give you the opportunity to design, implement, and assess curricula based on these perspectives.

This is a project-based course that encourages learners to participate in reflective activities leading to the design and development of transformative curriculum. Throughout the course, you will work on a final project for which you will develop a transformative curriculum or design a curriculum framework that you will deliver both as a presentation and a written report.

The Future of Teaching and Learning: Issues for the Educational Leader (4 units)

School leaders are expected to articulate and build consensus for a vision of high performance for every student. The school leader must be aware of the rapidly increasing body of research about teaching and learning in relation to the future so he or she can develop and exercise stewardship of a vision that will lead an educational institution into the future.

Advanced Study in Research Methods (4 units)

Learners in this course explore quantitative and qualitative research methodologies that are often used in educational research. Learners analyze and evaluate the characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of specific quantitative and qualitative research methodologies and designs as well as their philosophical foundations. Learners apply appropriate statistical analysis software such as Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to selected quantitative research methodologies.

Winter 2009

Comprehensive Exams (4 Units)

Learner will be required to write three examination papers in the following areas and achieve a passing grade for continuation in the program:

1. Research methods
A question within this theme should be used to illustrate the learner's familiarity with research methods and how they are applied at the dissertation level. The question should be related to the learner's specialization and address issues such as evaluating different designs for appropriateness or selecting a research method and research design, based on a specific research question.

2. Integration and synthesis of relevant theory and research
The question in this theme should be used to illustrate that the learner has a sound understanding of the important work done in his or her field of study. A typical question might require the learner to explain how a general theory corresponds to a specific issue in the learner's area of specialization.

3. Application of relevant theory and research to a real-life situation
The question in this theme should be used to apply relevant theory and research in the learner's specialization in order to solve problems in real-life situations. In this question there may be no single or best answer; the learner should demonstrate mastery using the critical thinking approach.

Spring 2009

Dissertation Research 1 (5 units)

This course is intended for learners who have completed all required core and advanced courses and the comprehensive examination. This course is the first of a series of four courses designed to assist students in the development and successful completion of their dissertation.

Summer 2009

Dissertation Research 2 (5 units)

This course is intended for learners who have completed all required core and advanced courses, comprehensive examination, and Dissertation I. This course is the second of the four courses required for completion of the dissertation.

Benefit to Mt. San Antonio College and the Music Department

My studies at Capella University, combined with serving as Department Chair, have already had a positive impact on Mt. SAC:

- In August 2007, we had our first-ever department-wide meeting. This meeting was the first ever in our department that included full- and part-time faculty. Additionally, this was also the first time that faculty were assembled in subject areas and given the

opportunity to discuss curriculum, teaching strategies, and to request supplies and equipment to improve their teaching. This meeting was the result of a project for a leadership class.

- In 2006-07, I led discussions for the creation of a Music Counselor. This position has developed into the Music Bridge program, which has received funding from the Basic Skills monies for a coordinator. We look forward to formally starting the Music Bridge in Summer 2008.
- In 2005-06, I was given responsibility for developing and synthesizing the Music Dept SLOs. The process was successful and helped us to further refine and develop our program for music majors. My continued involvement in this process has resulted in my participation in the Institutional Effectiveness Committee.

Again, the course work at Capella has strengthened my personal leadership, given me insight into curriculum development, and provided an understanding of the history and requirements of shared governance. Given the opportunity to take a sabbatical, my skills will continue to develop so that I can continue to have a positive impact on the Music Department. Some areas that need further development in our area are:

Distance-learning opportunities

Even though this study plan does not have a specific focus on distance education, by completing a program that is conducted primarily online, I feel confident that this experience will help me to gain the skills required to develop such a program. The Department would be able to increase offerings if such classes existed in our curriculum.

As the backgrounds, needs and expectations of our students continue to change, Colleges will have to continue to shift from "teacher-centered focus to learner-centered focus… (with) education becoming an anytime, anyplace activity" (Peterson, 1997). With ever-increasing numbers of learning centers, including proprietary colleges, it is projected that competition for students will become more dramatic in the future (Peterson, 1997). By offering quality, asynchronous course offerings, we will be able to capture even more students in our Department.

Expanded coordination between full- and part-time faculty

Our Department-wide meeting in August 2007 was an exciting start to for our Dept. By bringing faculty together as a team, discussing how we can improve as educators, and providing time to analyze and discuss our required curriculum, we were able to begin the makings of a "high-performing team" (Bolman, 2003). Lee Bolman (2003) states that a "high-performing team" is one that can "shape purpose in response to a demand or an opportunity placed in their path, they translate common purpose into specific and measurable performance goals, they are of manageable size and have the right mix of expertise, they develop a common commitment to working relationships, and they hold themselves collectively accountable." With the realization that part-time faculty will continue to play ever-increasing roles within our College, it is important to include them in all of these discussions and continue the progress that has started.

Department-wide program design

By utilizing faculty, members of IT, and College resources to design media-rich, cutting-edge programs for use by faculty in our large general education courses, like *History of Rock, Music Appreciation,* and *History of Jazz,* the Department could generate a large cost saving to our institution. Carol Twigg (2005) studied quality and costs and suggests that by redesigning (principal) courses on a macro level, implementing best practices for active learning (continuous assessment, regular quizzes, increased student participation, etc.), and combining this with powerful technological interaction (online tutorials, online course-management systems, and shared tutorials), that savings of over 30 percent can be had. By targeting just the biggest collection of classes, significant savings can be garnered and student success increased. I imagine a large number of our newest members of the faculty would take part in such a program.

Future leadership opportunities

The primary reason for pursuing this degree is to obtain the skills and certification required for success in administration. Having attended the ACCCA (Association of California Community College Administrators) *Admin 101* conference this past summer, I discovered that the community college system is undergoing a shortage of administrators, especially executive leaders. The Community College Leadership Development Initiative (CCLDI) calls this a "crisis in slow motion." With increasing problems, diminished resources, and sometimes-contentious confrontations, the tenure in leadership positions has decreased and the pool of those willing to assume such responsibilities has diminished (CCLDI, 2001). It is my desire to complete this program to prepare myself for an administrative role at Mt. SAC, should the opportunity present itself, so that I can continue to contribute to the institution, but from a different position.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

SABBATICAL REPORT

Overview

The *sabbatical year*, as practiced in academia, is a reinterpretation of practices ordained 3,500 years ago in Leviticus 25, where the Israelites were instructed to neither sow nor prune their fields for an entire year, as the land was to rest "as a sabbath to the Lord". Over the course of the 2008-09 academic year, I was able to both rest and cultivate new knowledge that will benefit both the College and myself.

Last year, I participated in a yearlong, study sabbatical that included five quarters of academic work through Capella University. Activities undertaken were in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with an emphasis in Leadership in Higher Education, which included coursework, a comprehensive exam, two semesters of dissertation preparation, and an initial draft of my dissertation proposal. The following essay will describe these activities in greater detail and highlight how these activities will add value to both Mt. San Antonio College and myself.

Coursework

As outlined in my sabbatical proposal, coursework taken included the following classes:

1. Human Resources in Higher Education (4 units)

2. Assessment in Higher Education (4 units)

3. The Politics of Higher Education (4 units)

4. Curriculum Development (4 units)

5. The Future of Teaching and Learning: Issues for the Educational Leader (4 units)

6. Advanced Study in Research Methods (4 units)

Overall, these courses were interesting and beneficial, both as an educator as well as someone seeking to learn more about the role of leadership in the academy. The classes that were most inspirational and applicable to my role at Mt. SAC were those in assessment and curriculum. Taking these classes provided a historical and theoretical context for understanding Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs), as well as the assessment activities currently being imposed on our institution. Though the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC) mandates SLOs, campus faculty should know that assessment is *principally* for the advancement of teaching and learning with the end result being an improved institution. What follows is my understanding of the need for and the benefits of assessment.

Assessment and Accreditation

Assessment has taken numerous forms and definitions, including: 1) the processes used to determine an individual's mastery of complex abilities, generally through performance, 2) large-scale testing programs, including those implemented by federal entities or required by states for K-12 examination, and 3) special kind of program evaluation, to gather evidence and improve curricula and pedagogy (Ewell, 2002). A working definition of assessment is the systematic collection, review, and use of information about programs to improve student learning (Palomba & Banta, 1999). However, this information must be shared with faculty if we are to *really* improve student learning and institutional effectiveness. These contrasting expectations highlight a bifurcated concern within assessment, improvement versus accountability.

For policy makers, the main concern has been accountability; they want proof that the educational experience of students results in the attainment of the professed goals of the institution (Schmidtlein & Berdahl, 2005). This desire for accountability was a result of the "widespread dissatisfaction" (Wright, 2002, p. 243) with higher education that followed

published reports like *"A Nation at Risk"* (US Department of Education, 1983). The Department of Education "established new criteria for recognition of accrediting bodies, calling for a focus on 'educational effectiveness'" (Wright, p. 243). This concern is exemplified in requirements from accrediting agencies, including an extensive array of student learning outcomes for every course at most California community colleges (ACCJC, 2009), including Mt. SAC.

Though the states have backed off from their initial desire of increased control and mandates, regional accrediting bodies have increasingly incorporated assessment initiatives throughout their procedures (Ewell, 2007; Palomba & Banta, 1999). In combination with being charged with overseeing assessment activities, accrediting bodies also have seen their reach and status increase to the point of being a surrogate for state legislatures, functioning as overseers of higher education (Ewell, 2002). Prior to the 1980s, institutions received accreditation through identification of resources and processes. This input-focused approach is no longer satisfactory to a skeptical public.

Since accreditation has moved mainstream, however, the focus on improvement seems lost for some. Many colleges added assessment to their activities as an external control device, but it can be far removed from the heart of teaching and learning. This has resulted in institutions *doing assessment* versus improving practice and learning (Ewell, 2002, p. 16). In his case study of the State University of New York (SUNY), Blacklaw (2008) stated that faculty engagement is highly dependent upon the faculty's understanding that assessment activities are for the betterment of teaching and learning. "Where the faculty believe that the process is designed as a means for administrators to evaluate faculty or for an external agency to evaluate the institution… the participation is virtually non-existent or perfunctory" (p. 117). For Mt. SAC, if

improvement is to take place within the institution, our approach to SLOs should be for pedagogical and instructional improvement, not just compliance for accrediting purposes.

Comprehensive Exam

The second component of my sabbatical was the comprehensive exam process, which tests the knowledge and understanding of students within a major or discipline. For Capella University, the comps process is a written exam with three questions. Candidates have four weeks and a maximum of 50 pages, excluding front and end matter, to answer the questions to the satisfaction of two anonymous readers. Those students who fail to pass any part are given two additional weeks for review and resubmission. After that period, any student who fails to pass is removed from the program. Fortunately, I passed on the first submission. Questions given reflect the studies, emphasis, and specialization of candidates while fitting within the following guidelines:

1. Research methods

   A question within this theme should be used to illustrate the learner's familiarity with research methods and how they are applied at the dissertation level. The question should be related to the learner's specialization and address issues such as evaluating different designs for appropriateness or selecting a research method and research design, based on a specific research question.

2. Integration and synthesis of relevant theory and research

   The question in this theme should be used to illustrate that the learner has a sound understanding of the important work done in his or her field of study. A typical question might require the learner to explain how a general theory corresponds to a specific issue in the learner's area of specialization.

3. Application of relevant theory and research to a real-life situation

   The question in this theme should be used to apply relevant theory and research in the learner's specialization in order to solve problems in real-life situations. In this question there may be no single or best answer; the learner should demonstrate mastery using the critical thinking approach (Capella, 2009).

The specific questions I was given, which correspond to the above headings, are the following:

1. A wide range of research designs are available for use in educational research. It is imperative that the research methodology be selected based upon the characteristics of the study, as opposed to the preferences of the researcher (Creswell, 2002). Compare and contrast quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method research designs. Using this work as a foundation, propose and defend a research design for studying the extent to which California colleges and universities incorporate Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award components and other Total Quality Management principles into their self-assessment practices.

2. Leaders of colleges and universities employ many different strategies for measuring institutional effectiveness. In the current accountability environment, institutions are increasingly expected to show evidence of effectiveness, particularly in the area of student learning. From a review of the literature, compare and contrast different approaches to assessing the impact of the higher education experience on learners. Analyze the strengths and weaknesses of various approaches within the community college context.

3. When Paul Ramsden (1998) likened leading academic staff to "herding cats," he illustrated just one of the unique challenges faced by senior administrators in navigating the many institutional cultures and subsystems in the college or university environment. As independent scholars and entrepreneurs, members of the faculty do not always respond to the same "carrots and sticks" that may be effective in corporate environments. Review the literature on institutional cultures in higher education and their relationship to faculty motivation and satisfaction. Based on this review, propose a set of best practices for providing leadership for the orientation, effectiveness, and retention of faculty in the community college.

My responses to the above questions are found in the attached appendix. The comps process was both stressful and rewarding. In the process of answering the questions, I found a wonderful book on improving student success, *Student Success in College: Creating Conditions that Matter* (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005), which focuses on student engagement. I used this information at our department back-to-school meeting to help faculty assess their level of student engagement as well as encourage them to continue to find new ways to reach out to our unique students. The following is information I gleaned from studies on the topic of student engagement.

Student Engagement

High-stakes testing, accountability, and accreditation continue to dominate the educational landscape, to the point that the pressures upon institutions of learning are higher today than when the accountability movement initiated (Kuh et al., 2005). Coupled with these forces is the changing composition of the student body. The sheer variety of college students is increasing, with more first-generation, low-income, and students from historically under-represented groups in attendance (Middaugh, 2007). Now, more than ever, there is heightened demand to improve how colleges teach. Such concerns led a team of researchers to conduct an analysis of the *National Survey of Student Engagement* (NSSE, 2004). The researchers identified 20 institutions whose combination of higher-than-predicted graduation rates and better-than-expected student engagement scores set them apart from their peers. The resultant work, *Student Success in College: Creating Conditions that Matter* (Kuh et al., 2005), is similar in design to the business-based book, *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap...And Others Don't* (Collins, 2001). Both of these texts examine institutions that cumulatively set themselves apart from others through their vision, leadership, commitment, and success.

NSSE, which was administered at 850, four-year institutions with various backgrounds and included over 620,000 student respondents, was designed to provide rich information that participating institutions could use to improve the quality of their undergraduate education (NSSE, 2004). The research team utilized a qualitative method for their study and the outcomes focused on two specific variables: student engagement and graduation rates (Kuh, et al., 2005). The team mined and analyzed the data and found six-overarching categories, referred to as Documenting Effective Educational Practices, common to all of the distinguished institutions: a "living" mission and "lived" educational philosophy, an unshakeable focus on student learning,

environments adapted for educational enrichment, clearly marked pathways to student success, an improvement oriented ethos, and a shared responsibility for educational quality and student access. One should note that these colleges were not necessarily the "best" in every category, rather, they rose above what was expected and had outstanding student engagement and graduation rates (Kuh et al., 2005). These institutions vary greatly in size, composition of student body, Carnegie classification, and the like, yet all exceed their peers in these important areas.

Engagement includes two components that are important contributors of student success. The fist variable is the amount of time a student invests in their studies and other educational experiences and the second variable is the way in which institutions allocate time and resources towards creating learning opportunities and safety nets that benefit students (Kuh et al., 2005). The universities that were recognized as DEEP institutions had clearly developed cultures and they utilized their resources to support and encourage student development. Two particular strategies were identified as leading towards student success, alignment and sustainability (Kuh et al., 2005).

By aligning leadership, faculty, and support services towards the unshakable goal of student success, powerful changes took place at the DEEP institutions. What is more, their practices were rooted in the institutional culture and focused on sustainability. The combination of high-engagement and high-graduation rates indicated that these institutions were able to add value to the quality of their students' educational experience (Kuh, et al., 2005). One should also note that the factors of alignment and sustainability are also common to the best practices of student assessment approaches. Though the NSSE survey was focused on four-year institutions, a similar survey has been developed for community colleges. In 2001, the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE) was developed by the Community College Leadership

Program at the University of Texas at Austin to measure student engagement, as a key indicator of institutional quality. Their 2008 report has important information on student effort, academic challenge, and support, which states that high expectations plus high support are essential for student success (CCSSE, 2008). Key findings include the following:

- Student Effort:
  - Seventy-one percent of students surveyed indicate that their college encourages them to spend significant amounts of time studying, either "quite a bit" or "very much;" however, 67% of full-time students spend 10 or fewer hours preparing for class in an average week.
  - Twenty-four percent report that they always came to class prepared.

- Academic Challenge:
  - About half (49%) of survey respondents report that they often or very often worked harder than they thought they could to meet an instructor's standards; 11% said they never did so.
  - Twenty-nine percent of full-time students report that they have written four or fewer papers or reports of any length during the current school year.
  - Sixty-eight percent indicate that their exams are relatively to extremely challenging, while 9% find them relatively to extremely easy.

- Support for Learners
  - Fewer than half (45%) of community college students report that the college provides the financial support they need to afford their education. Further, when asked about factors that would be most likely to contribute to their dropping out of classes or leaving college, the same percentage (45%) cite "lack of finances."

By including engagement criteria in our SLO procedures, Mt. SAC could add value to the usefulness of our SLO activities.

<div align="center">Dissertation</div>

The third component of my study sabbatical was the dissertation—an original, scholarly work that fills a void in the existing literature on a specific topic. The form and requirements of dissertations have greatly evolved from the first American example, a six-page, handwritten dissertation on the Hippocratic proverb "Brevis vita, ars longa" by James Morris Whiton (Yale, 1861). My dissertation will be written in a standard five-chapter model:

1. Introduction and Statement of the Problem

2. Literature Review

3. Methodology

4. Data Analysis and Results

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

As California's state leadership is slashing the funding of higher education due to the ongoing recession, I decided to discover how California's community colleges are planning to deal with these issues through the development and integration of their strategic planning efforts. Specifically, my goal is to discover how and to what extent strategic planning is implemented on California community college campuses. Though in the early stages of my dissertation writings, I did want to include some aspects of the document here as an example of my sabbatical work. What follows is the introduction and background material, along with the statement of the problem and the purpose of the study.

Introduction to the Problem

The Nation, in general, and the state of California, in particular, face what has been termed the "great recession" (Economist, 2009), the worst fiscal climate facing our country since the Great Depression (LA Times, 2009). Unable to meet its financial obligations, the state of California issued IOUs in the summer of 2009, while the legislature and governor cut over $7 billion dollars from the educational sector (LA Times, 2009). Such dire conditions have put a strain on the students, faculty, and administration of California's higher educational system, which could instigate a precipitous drop in the success and quality of the state's highly-respected educational enterprise.

Organized under the *Master Plan for Higher Education in California* (1960), which established the clearly differentiated roles of the University of California (UC), the California State University (CSU), and the California Community Colleges (CCC), California's higher educational system has been a model of success, with the premier institutions of the UC ranking in the top tier of institutions of their type both in the nation and the world (US News and World Report, 2009). Functioning as a counterbalance to the UC institutions are the California Community Colleges, open-door institutions that educate over 2.5 million students annually, which serve as the largest educational and workforce training system in the nation (CCCCO, 2009).

Even though the California Community College System has been able to educate millions of students at a fraction of the cost (23%) of that spent per full-time student in the UC System (LAO, 2007), with increased competition for limited resources in Sacramento, college administrators will have to transform their institutions into organizations that not only endure, but flourish in an antagonistic environment (Marshall, 2007). To function effectively in such conditions, leaders will have to implement best practices of management to satisfy the needs of shareholders and stakeholders.

Over the last forty years, the business community adopted numerous management approaches, including Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI), Total Quality Management (TQM), Program Review, Management By Objective (MBO), and Strategic Planning (SP) (Mintzberg, 1994). Some of these management trends were also incorporated into the administrative offices of higher education and even into the expectations of accreditors, who expect to see evidence of planning and implementation of change strategies (Dooris, Kelley, & Trainer, 2002). Congress has even created an award to recognize exemplary educational

institutions that display innovation and performance excellence, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) (Baldrige, 2009).

Presented by the President of the United States, the MBNQA is given to those institutions that have demonstrated excellence in the following seven areas: leadership; strategic planning; customer and market focus; measurement, analysis, and knowledge management; workforce focus; process management; and results (NIST, 2009). Picking up on the importance of strategic planning, accreditors are increasingly concerned that organizations undertake strategic planning, including the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC), which oversees the accreditation process for the California Community Colleges. Whereas most institutions have practiced ongoing traditional planning, strategic planning is different in that its foci are increased efficiency and alignment with the environment (Bryson, 1995; Clagett, 2004; Rowley, Lujan, Dolence, 1997; Trainer, 2004).

George Keller (1983) stated in his seminal work *Academic Strategy*, "With strategic planning and thoughtfully constructed alterations in governance, colleges and universities can be both more efficient and more effective" (p. x). By improving how institutions are managed and working towards to a professionalized approach in governance, leaders will be able to mitigate the loss of funding while shaping and exploiting their environment (Marshall, 2007; Rowley, Lujan, Dolence, 1997). Though benefits of strategic planning abound in the literature, the process is deliberately disruptive and is therefore prone to fail (Bryson, 1995).

Every institution has a strategy in place, be it expressed or implied, and it appears in patterns that lie across its purposes, actions, resource allocation and/or programs (Bryson, 1995). These patterns exist, even if they are not very good. Through strategic planning, institutions create statements of intentionality, even though what may be realized is a combination of that

which is intended combined with practices that emerge along the way (Mintzberg, 1994). With higher education in California suffering cuts of 11 to 20 percent over a two-year period, drastic measures are needed and insightful leadership is required.

It is evident that "business as usual" is no longer acceptable for college leaders. The tax-paying public, business leaders, laypersons serving on governing boards, and students who are paying more for their education and receiving less services will demand heightened efficiency and improvement (Gardner, 1995). As governments are increasingly called to cut perceived waste and balance budgets, coupled with a conservative ethos of tax avoidance, college presidents will have to do more with less (Rowley, Lujan, Dolence, 1997). Three conditions compel change in traditionally static higher education, "a major crisis, outside pressure, or a vigorous and farsighted leader" (p. 9). The fiscal crisis of this period, coupled with an increasingly skeptical public, compels leaders to improve their efficiency or face ongoing, systemic atrophy.

Background of the Study

Even though it is clear that business managers, quality experts, and accreditors have embraced strategic planning, it is not known how strategic planning is realized on California community college campuses. Traditional planning, including short- and long-range planning, has been a part of college campuses for decades. What needs to be determined, however, is how and to what extent strategic planning is implemented on CCC campuses. Do institutions survey their internal and external environments, seeking to capitalize on opportunities and minimize threats, or do they simply continue those practices that have been in place for years. A knowledge gap exists regarding the implementation of strategic planning initiatives on CCC campuses.

A review of available dissertations on the subject of strategic planning in California Community Colleges proved to be limited to only ten dissertations (ProQuest, 2009), with just two works focusing solely on the strategic planning efforts of these institutions. The first work, by Neil Soder (1986), is an examination of the factors and forces working for and against the development of strategic planning at four CCC campuses. Though comprehensive in scope, the work was written before quality improvement efforts reached their zenith and prior to the writing of many of the seminal works on the subject were penned. The second dissertation, by Gustavo Valadez-Ortiz (1994), focuses solely on administrative perceptions of strategic planning at two community colleges in the northern part of the state. Written during a similar period of fiscal upheaval, with budget cuts and retrenchment, this work provides a glimpse into the strategic practices that were implemented 15 years ago at two colleges, but fails to include perceptions of those outside the administrative ranks. The present study will not only survey administrators, but also institutional researchers and faculty for a richer description and understanding of planning practices at eight CCC campuses in the southern region of the state. It is worth noting that both sample dissertations were written with a descriptive-comparative case study methodology, as is this study.

Statement of the Problem

Though much has been written about the need for strategic planning in higher education, including in the expressed and implied expectation of accrediting bodies, it is not clear how these practices have been implemented on CCC campuses. The goal of this work is to discover how and to what extent strategic planning is implemented on California Community College campuses. In a climate of decreasing funding and retrenchment, this work sought to discover how planning initiatives resulted in a transformed institution, one prepared to confront and

exploit an increasingly hostile fiscal environment, with budgetary expenditures aligned to strategic planning efforts.

Traditional planning, including short- and long-range planning, has been a part of college campuses for decades. What this work will determine, however, is how and to what extent strategic planning is implemented on California community college campuses. Do institutions survey their internal and external environments, seeking to capitalize on opportunities and minimize threats, or do they simply continue those practices that have been in place for years. Ultimately, strategic planning is about purpose, meaning, values, and virtue, allowing institutions to focus discussions on those items that are truly important (Bryson, 1995). Such meaningful discussion helps institutions clarify their mission, relevancy, and fulfill a unique niche. Without such clarity and focus, institutions could be easily shuttered to increase efficiency and reduce duplication.

The Master Plan (1960) that codified California's higher educational system sought to avoid unnecessary duplication and increase efficiency. Rowley, Lujan, and Dolence (1997) warn leaders that, "if it ultimately makes no difference where one goes to obtain a higher education, then consolidation will become a viable option for legislatures and state systems to reduce costs and concentrate resources" (p. 48). With strategic planning, however, institutions can develop a deep understanding of their strengths and capabilities, opportunities that exist within their environment, and work to minimize weaknesses and threats they face, thus ensuring their survival.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to discover how and to what extent strategic planning is enacted on California Community College campuses and how these processes drive program

development and budgetary decision making. Additionally, this work sought to add to the body of knowledge available to community college leaders a rationale for undertaking strategic planning as well as identifying those factors that are central to the process of strategic planning.

Most institutions have crafted mission statements, realizing the importance of their centrality to institutional success and its relationship to stakeholders (Berg, Csikszentmihalyi, & Nakamura, 2003; Velcoff & Ferrari, 2006), but without creating a systemic plan for its implementation, Senge (1990) suggests it "ends up painting lovely pictures of the future with no deep understanding of the forces that must be mustered to move from here to there" (p. 12). Experts suggest that through the creation and implementation of a strategic plan, one that is endorsed and championed by leaders, the structure of an organization can shift, resulting in changed behavior of the participants and the reorientation of the institution to succeed in the face of trying economic times.

STATEMENT OF BENEFIT AND VALUE FOR THE COLLEGE

The College will benefit from my sabbatical experience through my growth as a leader and through the acquisition of additional pedagogical knowledge for use in the classroom. Having transitioned out of my traditional role as band director for the College and into that of lecturer, the courses taken on curriculum design and assessment techniques will continue to improve the development of my classes as well as our department's SLO efforts. The courses on human resources, politics, and the future of teaching and learning will help me to have a greater appreciation for the depth of activities that transpire on our campus while simultaneously helping me to break down "silo thinking," which occurs within our department.

STATEMENT OF BENEFIT AND VALUE FOR THE FACULTY MEMBER

In addition to all of the benefits listed above, undertaking advanced studies for a year with the removal of teaching responsibilities has resulted in intellectual growth and the rejuvenation of my spirit. Having a whole year for personal development is a generous gift and through it, I have been able to greatly expand my knowledge base, increase my ability to focus, and reaffirm my value of students and my role within the educational enterprise of the College. After reflecting upon on the mission of Mt. SAC, which is to welcome all students and to support them in achieving their personal, educational, and career goals in an environment of academic excellence (Mt. SAC, 2009), I discovered that this sabbatical year allowed me to achieve my personal, educational, and career goals through academic success and rigor. Thank you for this opportunity.

APPENDIX

Comprehensive Exam

References

Unofficial Transcripts

Comprehensive Examination Written Responses

Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Learner 200901-AA

Leadership in Higher Education

School of Education

Capella University

February 23, 2009

QUESTION 1

A wide range of research designs are available for use in educational research. It is imperative that the research methodology be selected based upon the characteristics of the study, as opposed to the preferences of the researcher (Creswell, 2002). Compare and contrast quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method research designs. Using this work as a foundation, propose and defend a research design for studying the extent to which California colleges and universities incorporate Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award components and other Total Quality Management principles into their self-assessment practices.

Creswell, J.W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Every age has sought innovative approaches to answering ongoing questions about knowledge and how it may be acquired (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Through scholarly research, inquiry may be satisfied to further general knowledge, as well as the continued development of a discipline, person, or peoples. Scholastic questions are resolved through systematic procedures via two epistemological paradigms, positivism and interpretivism (Morrison, 2007). These orientations have resulted in supporting research methodologies, the quantitative and qualitative approaches, which provide the structures that enable scholars to collect and analyze data, as well as present their findings. This paper will compare a limited number of the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method research designs, to establish a basic understanding of their functionality, contrasts, and usefulness. Additionally, the writer will select the methodology that best answers the following question: to what extent do California colleges and universities incorporate Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award components and other Total Quality Management principles into their self-assessment practices.

<div align="center">Research Development</div>

Research is a systematic approach to inquiry for the advancement of knowledge and wisdom through critical and self-reflective discovery (Morrison, 2007). The simple process of posing a question, collecting data, analyzing that data, and presenting an answer for public critique comprise the basic elements of research. The research process in academia involves six steps, including identifying a research problem, reviewing the literature, specifying a purpose, collecting data, analyzing and interpreting data, and reporting and evaluating research (Creswell, 2008). Though these six steps are fixed, how individuals collect, analyze, and interpret data can be done in numerous ways, which have evolved through common practice over generations and are referred to as research methodologies.

Two different research methods provide the formal structure for investigation. Referred to as the quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, they express diverse philosophical and scholastic traditions rooted in the natural and social sciences. The structures that undergird the quantitative and qualitative approaches are based upon differing epistemologies. Epistemology is the study of knowledge as a discreet entity and how it is acquired (Nel & Com, 2007). The two epistemological positions reflected in scholarly research are positivism and interpretivism. In positivism, or empiricism, knowledge is obtained through experience, which is associated with the scientific method and quantitative research (Morrison, 2007). Interpretivism, which is antithetical to positivism and associated with phenomenology, is the study of structured experiences, including thought, emotion, and memory, and is associated with qualitative research methods (Stanford, 2008). These bifurcated approaches provide the portals through which research questions may be answered.

Quantitative research, which began in the late 19th century and has been employed to conduct research and experimental studies, has its roots in statistical procedures, tests and measurements, and research designs (Creswell, 2008). Interpretations in quantitative analysis are based upon amounts, frequency, and magnitude (Thomas, 2003). In contrast, qualitative research, especially in education, is a more recent phenomenon, with early developments beginning in the late 1960s, though qualitative research in anthropological studies have been conducted since the 19th century (Bernard 2002; Creswell, 2008). Rooted in scientific and psychological experiments, quantitative research seeks to analyze objective facts that can be expressed numerically (McMillan, 1992). Qualitative research, including ethnography—the study and recording of a particular human society and their way of life, seeks to identify how people experience and interpret their environments (Handwerker, 2006; Merriam-Webster, 2008;

Thomas, 2003). Though both approaches seek to answer questions, the qualitative approach, with its recent development and emphasis on textual expression, has a diminutive stature in the larger world of the academe.

With its derivation and communication in words and humanistic, sociological orientation, qualitative approaches have come under scrutiny for their interpretive, subjective, and localized outcomes. Additional concerns from within the qualitative research world are also immerging due to critiques of validity and the use of overly artistic literary styling (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002). What is more, educational research in particular has been highly scrutinized for lacking methodological rigor and producing outcomes that are essentially fiction (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002; Macpherson, Brooker, & Ainsworth, 1999). These ideological clashes have resulted in a schism between the positivists and the interpretivisits, the empiricist and the phenomenologist, and between quantitative and qualitative researchers (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Bernard, 2002; Pring, 2000). The next sections will provide examples of these contrasting approaches, as well as present some mixed methodology designs, which include characteristics of both the quantitative and qualitative designs into a single study.

Quantitative Research Designs

Quantitative research, with its positivist orientation, has its roots in scientific discovery. Seeking to obtain answers that are objective, verifiable, valid, generalizable, and with controlled bias, quantitative research has been the traditional approach to research for the last 100 years (McMillan, 1992; Morrison, 2007). This section will examine three approaches that fall within the quantitative fold—experimental and correlational designs, as well as meta-analysis.

Experimental Design

McMillan (1992) states that experimental research includes two essential characteristics: "direct manipulation of the independent variable and control of extraneous variables" (p. 165), meaning that the researcher is able to contain the amount and degree to which the subject(s) receive(s) the independent variable. Because the experiment is controlled, the researcher can measure the difference between the treatment group and the control group to determine the effect of the independent variable. By keeping external influences to a minimum, the researcher strengthens internal validity. By randomly assigning individuals to the control and treatment groups, one can insure that the difference between the groups is a result of chance versus systematic bias (Bernard, 2002). Though the gold standard of research design, this approach does have its limitations.

Experimental research does have some problems associated with it. First, it is expensive to conduct experiments and difficult, especially in education, to maintain control over extraneous variables. Secondly, there are numerous threats to validity. Internal threats to validity include issues with testing, instrumentation, regression, and selection. External threats include the interaction of selection, setting, and history with treatment (Creswell, 2008). Besides experimental designs in quantitative analysis, non-experimental designs, such as correlational studies, exist.

Correlational Design

Correlational design is another quantitative, multi-subject design, which determines the association among variables (Thompson, Diamond, McWilliam, Snyder & Snyder, 2005; Creswell, 2008). Unlike experimental designs, which include pre- and post-tests to determine the effect of the independent variable, in correlational designs, the data is collected just once. Correlational studies allow researchers to collect information on two variables to determine their

relationship, including covariance, and also to make predictions based upon known information. Though these studies do not indicate causation, they do reveal correlation and causal inferences that could be utilized to collect data that lead to an experiment to determine causation (Thompson et al., 2005). Using a statistical analysis tool, like *SPSS,* will reveal varied levels of relationship.

The relationship between the two measured variables is called the correlation coefficient, which has a range of -1.00 to +1.00. A score of zero indicates no relationship between the two variables and +1.00 indicates a perfect, positive correlation, where as one variable increases in intensity so does the other. A -1.00 indicates a perfect, negative relationship, where the variables move in opposition. These relationships can be linear or curvilinear and can be charted on a scatterplot. The variables can also be utilized to make predictions about an unknown variable, as long as sufficient data exists for the known variable. The accuracy of the prediction increases with the increasing correlation of the predictor and criterion variables (Wiersma, 1991). As is the case in all research, measuring accurate data will lead to accurate results. An additional way to measure association between variables is through meta-analysis, which analyzes measures of central tendency and association among variables from existing studies.

Meta-Analysis

A meta-analysis is the compiling of all the quantitative studies on a specific topic to assess quantitatively the size and scope of effect (Bernard, 2002). Given the term meta-analysis in 1977 by Mary Smith and Gene Glass, who conducted a comprehensive analysis of the effectiveness of psychotherapy, this design compiles all of the existing research on a particular subject into a single study. Conducting a meta-analysis includes five different steps: 1) problem formation, similar to the development of research questions in a primary study, 2) data

collection, including identifying the population of works to be sampled, the sampling mechanism, and the application of that mechanism to primary studies, 3) data evaluation, including the coding of study features and effect sizes, 4) data analysis and interpretation, including effect size and study data, and 5) presentation of results (Harwell & Maeda, 2008). Though the implications for such a study can be promising, problematic features exist within the design.

Two common weaknesses endemic to meta-analyses are the failure of some researchers to include enough data to allow readers to evaluate the veracity of inferences and issues of quality and validity in the initial research documents (Thomas, 2003). Since meta-analyses include the coding and analysis of numerous studies with different approaches and methodologies, those studies executed with shoddy precision will skew the outcome data of the meta-analysis. In contrast to these three quantitative research designs, the next section will examine two prevalent qualitative approaches to research.

Qualitative Research Designs

Qualitative research involves the collection, codification, and interpretation of written material and observation. Though the focus in qualitative design is on natural observation and textual analysis, these studies must also be performed with precision. In interpretative designs, the outcomes should be credible, reflexive, dependable, confirmable, and transferable (Malterud, 2001). Five characteristics common to all qualitative approaches include: 1) natural setting, versus the controlled environment used in experimental research, 2) researcher as participant, 3) subject-based communication, meaning the participants have a voice, 4) subject intentionality, or communicating the thoughts of the participants as they expressed them, and 5) a pragmatic

approach (Chesebro & Borisoff, 2007). Though a number of qualitative approaches exist, this paper will examine two approaches more closely, action research and grounded theory.

Action Research

Action research, specifically participatory action research (PAR), is an applied approach to research that seeks to empower people to take action to improve their lives (Park, 1993). By moving beyond interpretation and analysis to action, PAR transcends bounded case studies and encourages change and improvement (Creswell, 2008; Macpherson, Brooker, & Ainsworth, 1999). Common features of participatory action research include: 1) an egalitarian relationship between researcher and participants, where some participants are involved with the researcher in the design process from its inception to final presentation, 2) used in communities that have been traditionally exploited or oppressed for the emancipation of their constraints 3) focused on achieving positive social change within a community, towards self-development and self-determination (Creswell, 2008; Thomas, 2003). The design and implementation of this approach is inherently flexible, able to change as the situation and participants' needs necessitate. Additionally, by having the community at every meeting regarding the study, the results lead to increased knowledge on the part of the participants, rather than just the researcher, and the empowerment of peoples who have lived under duress (Park, 2003). Specific steps can be taken to implement this procedure within a community.

Steps in conducting action research include: 1) determine if this approach is best suited to the situation, 2) identify the problem, 3) locate resources to help address the problem, perhaps an external change agent like a community development agency or service organization, 4) identify the information needed, 5) implement the data collection, 6) analyze the data, 7) develop an action plan, and 8) implement the plan and reflect (Creswell, 2008; Park, 1993). Two difficulties

associated with PAR that can hamper the outcomes are the degree of researcher engagement and the competencies of the participants (Thomas, 2003).

Researchers in PAR must be connected with the community where they are conducting the investigation. The more closely they are associated with the participants, the richer and clearer the information they will glean. However, this closeness can result in a degree of engagement that is too close and can damage the objectivity that is required in such experiments (Thomas, 2003). Researchers also need to be aware of the competencies of participants: do the researcher and participants have the language, knowledge, and requisite understandings to engage in a mutually beneficial undertaking. Any lapses may need to be addressed within the study. A less interpretive and more formally structured qualitative research design is grounded theory.

Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is another qualitative approach to research, though with positivist leanings, which requires the researcher to develop theories through clearly formatted procedures (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Created by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the late 1960s, this approach has three different designs, systematic, emerging, and constructivist, with the systematic being the most structured and the constructivist the least (Creswell, 2008). Common practice for all grounded theory designs include the following: 1) data collection and analysis are an interrelated process, 2) concepts are the basic unit of analysis, 3) categories must be developed and related, 4) sampling procedures executed on theoretical grounds, 5) analysis makes use of constant comparison—to limit bias and increase precision and consistency, 6) patterns and variations must be noted, and 7) the process leads to a theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Though systematic and thoughtful in design, limitations exist within this method.

Some limitations in grounded theory are the result of researcher error. Researchers must be able to remove themselves from the equation, recognize and avoid bias, obtain valid and reliable data, and think imaginatively and abstractly (Thomas, 2003). Additional problems with grounded analysis, in particular, and qualitative analysis, in general, include the "two great sins" (Bernard, 2002, p. 473). The first great sin is one of excessive analysis, including extensive jargon, ornate writing, and indirect communication. The second sin is the avoidance of analysis through the extensive use of quotation, leaving a loosely connected string of comments without the necessary contextualization and analysis to render meaning from the texts (Bernard, 2002). Even though the demarcation line between quantitative and qualitative approaches is clear, in some circles, that line is seen as unnecessary and the result of indoctrination and bias. Many researchers have found success marrying these two approaches into one comprehensive or mixed method design.

Mixed Methodology

As mentioned earlier in this text, an impenetrable wall seems to exist between the quantitative/qualitative divide, with positivists championing the former and interpretivists the later. What has come to the fore over the last two generations, especially in the behavioral and social sciences, is the mixed methods research design, a procedure for combining elements of the quantitative and qualitative designs into a single study (Creswell, 2008). Though researchers had been combining quantitative research techniques since the 1930s, it was the work of Donald Fiske and Donald Campbell in 1959 in multitrait, multi-method approach that brought the technique to the fore and generated heightened interest in other researchers to do the same (Creswell, 2008; Fiske & Campbell, 1987). In the 1970s, the works of Siber (1973) and Jick (1979), led to the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell, 2008). These

later studies focused on the positive implications of triangulation—the use of multiple inquiries for the convergence of different data on the same phenomenon. The three points of the triangle are two different data sources and a single phenomenon being explored (Creswell, 2008). The mixed method designs are increasingly popular in higher education.

As can be imagined, purists reject this hybrid approach to research, but for an increasing number of scholars, combining the various research methodologies helps to create a vivid presentation of results. Realizing that both the qualitative and quantitative approaches seek to fulfill a singular goal, to understand phenomena clearly through systematic procedures, a blending of the designs seems promising (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Initially, most educational research was conducted quantitatively until the 1980s (McMillan, 1992). However, because educational research takes place in unique cultures and situations, the qualitative approach, which "celebrates the uniqueness" of the educational environment, has been increasingly accepted within education for the last generation (Pring, 2000, p. 258). Should researchers seek to combine these approaches in mixed method designs, tremendous gain is possible through the myriad resources available.

The mixed method approach offers numerous advantages to researchers: 1) heightened flexibility, 2) more opportunities for collaboration, 3) prospects for both empirical accuracy and descriptive precision, and 4) ability to answer the researcher's questions as well as communicate the participants' voice (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Four different types of mixed method designs are available to researchers: triangulation, embedded, explanatory, and exploratory designs.

In triangulation design the researcher collects equal amounts of quantitative and qualitative data, analyzes and compares the data independently, which leads to an interpretation

based on how the contrasting approaches affirm or negate each other (Creswell, 2008). In embedded design the researcher selects a primary approach (either quantitative or qualitative) and collects data from the secondary approach to support the data. Both data sets are collected and analyzed simultaneously and the secondary source is used to strengthen the results of the primary data source (Creswell, 2008). Explanatory and exploratory mixed method designs work through similar systematic stages, yet with a key difference. In the explanatory design, quantitative analysis is the primary focus, with the qualitative work secondary. In exploratory design the reverse is the case, with qualitative primary and quantitative data collection secondary (Creswell, 2008). The four approaches to mixed method designs provide a number of creative options for researchers to collect and analyze data, using numerous resources to support or challenge their emerging theories. Even though the research designs presented here are not exhaustive, what is clear is that researchers have numerous options for picking the methodology that will best help them answer their research question.

Best Approach For This Study

Creswell (2008) outlines three suggestions for choosing a research methodology: 1) match your approach to your research problem, 2) fit the approach to your audience, and 3) relate the approach to your experiences (pp. 62-63). Using these three suggestions as a guide, the best approach to studying the extent to which California colleges and universities incorporate Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) components and other Total Quality Management (TQM) principles into their self-assessment practices is the grounded theory research design. Initially, the meta-analysis approach seemed best able to answer this research question. However, after scouring existing dissertations and works on the use of quality principles in higher education, what became clear is that there is a dearth of empirical studies on

this topic (Winn & Cameron, 1998). Though having additional empirical studies may be beneficial, having no real statistical training, an aversion to numbers and charts, a rich background in the arts, and a desire to be true to myself, the qualitative approach seems the most appropriate vehicle for this researcher.

The systematic approach of grounded theory aligns with the positivist tradition, yet allows room for interpretation and theory development. A benefit of grounded theory is the freedom to utilize various sources for data collection, including observations, interviews, government documents, and "anything that may shed light on questions under study" (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). As each California community college has a research office, strategic plan, and self-assessment documents, copious amounts of existing data is accessible and available for review. The gist of this dissertation proposal is to assess how California community colleges incorporate the MBNQA criteria into their self-assessment practices. The MBNQA criteria are composed of a number of factors leading towards institutional success.

The seven requirements through which organizations are judged in MBNQA are: 1) leadership, 2) strategic plan, 3) customer focus, 4) measurement, analysis, and knowledge, 5) workforce focus, 6) process management, and 7) results (Baldrige National Quality Program, 2008). By comparing these figures against data from strategic plans and self-assessment documents prepared for the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC) and the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC), themes will emerge leading to categorization. After analyzing the categories, a core theme will emerge, which leads to theory development explaining the extent to which California colleges and universities incorporate Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award components and other Total Quality Management principles into their self-assessment practices. Only one community college in the
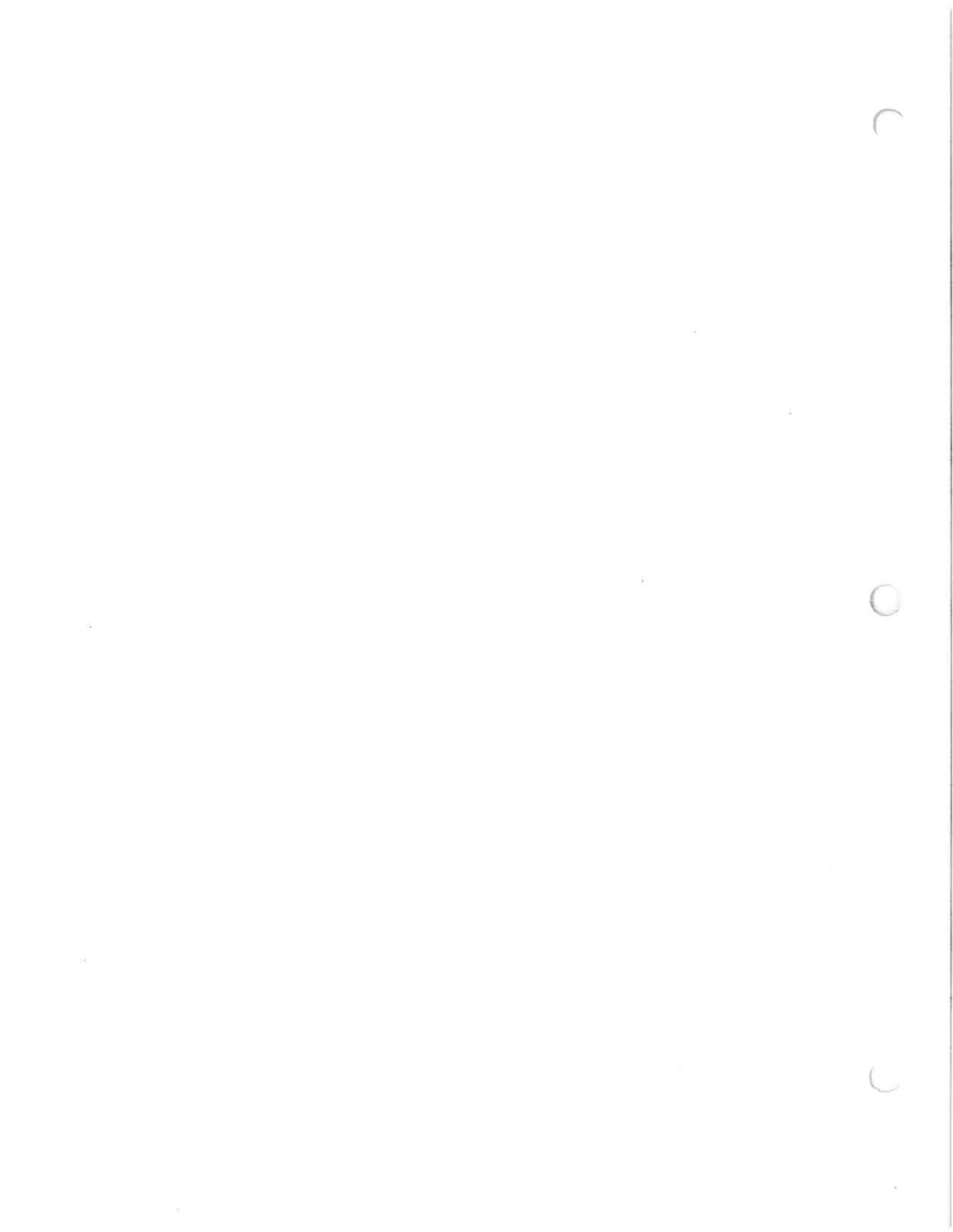
country has won this prestigious honor. In 2005, Richland Community College, part of the Dallas County Community College District in Texas, won the prestigious Malcolm Baldrige award, along with the 2005 Texas Award for Performance Excellence. By comparing the core theme and theory that will emerge from the California community college study with materials prepared by Dallas Community College, as a benchmarking institution, the theory can be challenged for veracity and validity. Though the existing data is significant and should provide enough information for a theory to immerge, what should be done if additional data sources are required?

To be selected as a MBNQA recipient, participants complete a lengthy self-assessment, something that could take months or longer (Dew & Nearing, 2004). A self-assessment short form exists that can be completed quickly, giving administrators and faculty an early indication of their institutional competencies and weaknesses. If this short form is used as a survey instrument to gauge administrators' perception of the institutionalization of MBNQA characteristics at their institution, then more rich data will be available for the development of a sufficiently grounded theory. Used appropriately, this survey could be an appropriate part of the proposed study and used for collecting frequency counts. However, if it becomes clear that increased emphasis must be placed on the survey and the accompanying statistical analysis, it may be better to utilize a mixed method approach, especially the explanatory design, to properly explore the quantitative information gleaned from the survey.

Two problems not mentioned above would give this researcher pause before undertaking a mixed method design. To properly execute an explanatory design, the researcher must be fully conversant in both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies and significant resources may be required to collect large amounts of data (Creswell, 2008). What is more, the conventional

wisdom on mixed method designs is that since the researcher is compiling and preparing both a qualitative and quantitative dissertation, the timeline to completion can be prohibitively lengthy (Fitzpatrick, Secrist, & Wright, 1998; S. Long, personal communication, November 11, 2008). However, by matching my approach to the research problem, appropriately addressing my audience, and relating the approach to my experiences, an appropriate methodology will emerge (Creswell, 2008).

Conclusion

Institutions of higher learning have focused on the development of scholars and the advancement of knowledge and wisdom through research for hundreds of years (Lucas, 2006). The need for such undertakings today are just as important, especially within the educational setting. In an era of large budget deficits, where administrators are increasingly called to justify their expenditures to weary and cash-strapped legislatures, and external accreditors want to see evidence of success and best practice, it is imperative that quality research be undertaken in the educational sector. During this period of retrenchment, quality research activities should find and test best practices that help institutions improve, including looking to the business world as an example.

Educational researchers should seek to conduct outstanding studies that answer pertinent questions, which can be utilized to strengthen our institutions and disciplines. Unfortunately, the National Academy of Science evaluated educational research in particular and found that, on the whole, they embody "methodologically weak research, trivial studies, (have) an infatuation with jargon, and a tendency toward fads with a consequent fragmentation of effort" (Thompson et al., 2005, p. 184). Educational researchers need not avoid qualitative methods, but we must raise the level of scholarship in the discipline.

The purpose of this paper was to identify, compare, and contrast a number of the approaches within the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodology research designs, and to encourage researchers to conduct quality studies. Additionally, the writer proposed that the best approach to answer the question, to what extent do California colleges and universities incorporate Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award components and other Total Quality Management principles into their self-assessment practices, is through the grounded theory methodology.

QUESTION 2

Leaders of colleges and universities employ many different strategies for measuring institutional effectiveness. In the current accountability environment, institutions are increasingly expected to show evidence of effectiveness, particularly in the area of student learning. From a review of the literature, compare and contrast different approaches to assessing the impact of the higher education experience on learners. Analyze the strengths and weaknesses of various approaches within the community college context.

Kuh, G.D.; Kinzie, J.; Schuh, J.H.; Whitt, E.J. (2005). *Student success in college: Creating conditions that matter.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Huba, M.E. & Freed, J.E. (1999). *Learner-centered assessment on college campuses: Shifting the focus from teaching to learning.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

The U.S. News and World Report "World's Best Colleges" rankings indicate that 20 of the top 50 universities in the world are found in the United States (U.S. News, 2008). Beyond having a large proportion of the best universities, the American system of higher education is also roundly admired for its universal approach (Altbach, 2005). Though the system has obvious merit, the increasing lack of resources and concern for relevance on the part of its citizenry has created tension from within and outside the system. The increasing importance of higher education's position in the context of the country's economic well being, coupled with limited resources on the part of states, has resulted in an environment of accountability in higher education, whereby institutions must prove they are meeting the demands of the public and fulfilling their mission (Schmidtlein & Berdahl, 2005). To address these concerns educators, researchers, and accrediting agencies have sought to codify educational best practices and implement assessment devices to measure student success.

This report will give an account of the conditions that led to the accountability movement, the response on the part of educators to document best practices for undergraduate education, and the role of accrediting agencies in the early stages of assessment. Following is an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of three approaches of assessment strategies utilized in higher education. Lastly, the document examines the recent research being generated on student engagement, which may be a better indicator of student success and achievement, and provides implications for all of these practices on community college campuses.

An Environment of Accountability

The thirty-year period following World War II, 1945-1975, proved to be what historians considered the golden age of higher education, as it was characterized by tremendous expansion, support, and a focus on common academic standards (Geiger, 2005). With the return of

servicemen from Europe and Japan, supported by the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (the GI Bill), the entering of the baby-boom generation teens, and an influx of community college students, colleges and universities grew in dramatic fashion. The meteoric rise in population was coupled with thoughtful development on the part of states and with tremendous financial support from both the states and external entities (Lucas, 2006). Following the Sputnik crises of 1957, the federal government, in conjunction with the National Science Foundation, the National Aeronautical and Space Administration, the National Institutes of Health, as well as the business community, invested tremendous sums into higher education (Lucas, 2006). Unfortunately, this golden age proved to be short lived.

A report by the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education explained that between the years 1967-1974, general education requirements had dropped dramatically, leaving students on their own to determine their course of study (Lucas, 2006). What is more, following periods of civil unrest on many campuses and the ensuing permissiveness that came to permeate campuses, an "academic fundamentalism" blanketed scholarship, where all ideas were viewed as equal and any attempt towards implementing values or value-judgments were removed (Lucas, 2006, p. 290). In time, these factors led to a season of discontent that immerged in the early 1980s surrounding the nations' approval of and regard for higher education.

In the spring of 1983, the report *A Nation at Risk* was released by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, which issued dire warnings about the state of the country's educational system. The report indicated that the American public overwhelmingly viewed education as important for the strength, integrity, and future of the country, even more so than the military (Nation at Risk, 1983). However, the report went on to declare that the educational institutions themselves had lost sight of the purposes and aims of education, and that

they lacked the high expectations and discipline to achieve outstanding results (Nation at Risk, 1983). Some startling statistics from the report included: 1) the existence of 23 million Americans who were functionally illiterate, including 13 percent of all 17-year-olds and up to 40 percent of minority youth, 2) the steady decline in math and verbal SAT scores over almost two decades, and 3) the significant increase in remedial math courses at colleges over the preceding five years (Nation at Risk, 1983). This report would have long-term consequences for the educational community as legislatures demanded improved results from higher education, while providing less resources due to increased demands from welfare, prisons, schools, highways and hospitals (Huba & Freed, 2000). This was not the only report to jolt the academe.

Time for Results (National Governors' Association, 1986) was yet another document criticizing the practices of education, calling for increased accountability of institutions of higher learning to state leaders (Wright, 2002). Because of such concerns the Department of Education created accrediting bodies to focus on the effectiveness of educational institutions (Wright, 2002). In tandem with these reports and the creation of external entities demanding increased effectiveness from educators would come a desire for improvement from within the academe, including the implementation of practices borrowed from the world of business. Combined, these factors would ultimately lead to the creation of an assessment movement.

Early Assessment and Accreditation

Peter Ewell (2002) states that the assessment movement started in 1984 with the release of *Involvement in Learning,* by the Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in Higher Education. The Study Group was a collection of experts who spent hours together discussing the educational needs of the nation, with the primary goal being that the "United States must become a nation of educated people" (Astin, 1999, p. 1). Even though higher education had many

positive attributes, their belief was that nation was one of undereducated individuals (Astin, 1999) This report had a number of suggestions that would disrupt the status quo in higher education. The report indicated that colleges and universities must have high expectations, active learning environments, and provide prompt and useful feedback (Ewell, 2002). What is more, to assuage the critics of higher education, the document suggested that institutions demonstrate their effectiveness by utilizing assessment methods that are made public (Astin, 1999). These twofold principles of improving the learning environment and reporting that information to the public for accountability purposes established the early boundaries of assessment and the accountability movement. Additionally, trends and practices implemented in business would be brought into higher education to facilitate improvement, including the continuous-improvement movement.

Continuous improvement was created to reduce costs, improve quality, and enhance learning through data-driven understandings of business. This practice was founded by W. E. Deming and others and found success in Japan following WWII (Seymour, 1994). The practice was brought back to the U.S. in the 1980s and was used successfully in the business community. The U.S. Congress took note of the implications of continuous improvement and created the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBQNA), an award given annually to a select few businesses that meet the broad-based criteria outlined by Congress (Seymour, 1994). These practices were modified to meet the needs of higher education and colleges and universities became eligible to receive the award beginning in 1999 (Furst-Bowe & Bauer, 2007). Additionally, the Higher Learning Commission of the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools developed an accrediting procedure based on the MBNQA, with the resulting program being the Academic Quality Improvement Program (AQIP) (Furst-Bowe & Bauer, 2007), of

which Capella University is a member. Even though assessment is an established part of most institutions today, the early days of accountability proved troubling for institutions.

Though the focus on improvement was present in most assessment and accountability activities, the interpretation, implementation, and utilization of these activities in institutions were individualized and non-coordinated. The diversity of concerns regarding practices included whether to focus on: 1) accountability to external constituents or internal improvement, 2) individual students or the aggregate institution population, and 3) school curricula or classroom performance (Ewell, 2002). Regardless of the institutional focus and particular preference, the premise driving the assessment of student learning outcomes was that it would provide measurable data indicating a level of institutional effectiveness (Huba & Freed, 2000).

In combination with being charged with overseeing assessment activities, accrediting bodies saw their reach and status increase to the point of being surrogates for state legislatures, functioning as overseers of higher education (Ewell, 2002). As accreditation moved mainstream, the focus on improvement was lost for some, however. Many colleges added assessment to their activities as an external control device, but it was removed from the heart of teaching and learning. The result was institutions "doing assessment" versus improving practice and learning (Ewell, 2002, p. 16). To the frustration of educators, the borrowing of practices from business resulted in students being viewed as outputs on an assembly line.

Other arguments emerged with the inclusion of business models like "value-added" and "total quality management." Ewell (2002) commented that discussions regarding the term *value-added,* "helped forge a growing consensus that the paths of student development should not be seen as linear and additive but rather as organic and transformational" (p. 19). Astin (1999) rued that too much of the assessment focus had been on just cognitive issues and not enough on the

affective domain of student development. Though problems did and continue to exist with assessment, it has not departed like other teaching fads. In the midst of these pressures grew a desire to improve instruction from within the professorate.

<div align="center">Improving Undergraduate Education</div>

Arthur Chickering and Zelda Gamson, onetime board members of the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE), suggested that the organization take the lead in the creation of a manifesto outlining the principles of quality undergraduate education (Chickering and Gamson, 1990). Following a number of meetings, the duo created a task force to utilize the conventional wisdom of the day to craft a pithy document that would be practical and easily understandable. Further, this document was to be accessible to faculty, administrators, and school boards (Chickering and Gamson, 1990). The resultant work was presented by Chickering and Gamson in the AAHE Bulletin in March 1987, as the *Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education.* The work has become a seminal document of best practices in higher education. The seven points of good practice in undergraduate education are to (Chickering and Gamson, 1999, p. 76): encourage student-faculty contact, encourage cooperation among students, encourage active learning, give prompt feedback, emphasize time on task, communicate high expectations, and respect diverse talents and ways of learning. In a similar fashion, Peter Ewell, vice president of the National Center for Higher Education and Management Systems (NCHEMS) utilized and expanded the list of seven best practices in a report for the Education Commission of the States entitled, *Making Quality Count in Undergraduate Education* (1995), which included the following twelve characteristics (Chickering and Gamson, 1999, p. 78):

- The organizational culture must have 1) high expectations, 2) respect for diverse talents and learning styles, and 3) emphasis on the early years of study

- A quality curriculum requires 4) coherence in learning, 5) synthesis of experiences, 6) ongoing practice of learned skills, and 7) integration of education and experience.

- Quality instruction incorporates 8) active learning, 9) assessment and prompt feedback, 10) collaboration, 11) adequate time on task, and 12) out-of-class contact with faculty.

What the work of Chickering and Gamson, Ewell, and others resulted in was the desire to transform the classroom—from passive to active learning, meeting both the cognitive and affective needs of students, and the creation of a dynamic system, through assessment activities, that would ultimately lead to the continuous improvement of educational institutions. These changes have helped move the learning environment from a teacher-centered, passive environment to one that is learner-centered and focused on the needs and accomplishments of students (Huba & Freed, 2000). Assessment is at its best when the goals of the individual instructor reflect the intended course outcomes, as defined collectively by faculty, and these goals are in alignment with the program and institutional goals of the institution (Huba & Freed, 2000). When this structure is aligned vertically and the student assessment information is used to measure and modify goals, institutions will improve and further fulfill their teaching missions. There are, however, different strategies to measure the effectiveness of institutions. The following section will contrast three different approaches to assessment, as well as suggest a fourth alternative that may be a more important indicator of student success.

Approaches to Assessing the Educational Experience of Learners

This section will contrast three different approaches to assess the educational experience of learners, including learner-centered teaching, scholarship of teaching, and the scholarship of assessment.

Learner-Centered Teaching

Huba & Freed (2000) contend that the individual who learns the most in a traditional classroom is the instructor, through the research, organization, integration, and explanation of the content. In learner-centered teaching, the goal is to change the dynamic of the learning environment so that the teacher is not the primary beneficiary, but rather the student. By creating opportunities for students to engage as active learners and encouraging faculty to facilitate rather than narrate, studies show that effectiveness can be increased (Vega & Tayler, 2005). In this context, faculty present information to students from numerous points of view to encourage a deeper understanding and experience. Data is then collected through assessment and the results should be analyzed and used to further improve learning. Huba and Freed (2000), contend that the results should be used to primarily improve learning, and that the bureaucratic aspects of accreditors be only a secondary concern.

To create a such an environment, Huba & Freed (2000) suggested that effective learning outcomes include the following (p. 98): 1) are student-focused rather than professor-focused, 2) focus on the learning resulting from an activity rather than on the activity itself, 3) reflect the institution's mission and the values it represents, 4) are in alignment at the course, academic program, and institutional levels, 5) focus on important, non-trivial aspects of learning that are credible to the public, 6) focus on skills and abilities central to the discipline and based on professional standards of excellence, 7) are general enough to capture important learning but

clear and specific enough to be measurable, and 8) focus on aspects of learning that will develop and endure but that can be assessed in some form now.

The learner-centered approach focuses on the student and encourages faculty to be facilitators who encourage dialog, interaction, growth and reflection. This approach creates a more democratic environment that may be challenging to replicate in content-laden courses. Researchers have tried this approach in various contexts and the results indicate that the techniques are transferable to a variety of courses and age groups (Vega & Tayler, 2005). What is more, by creating a student-friendly and engaging environment that allows students to become stakeholders, they obtain knowledge that is more enduring and applicable to their daily lives (Vega & Tayler, 2005). A second approach to assessment is the scholarship of teaching.

Scholarship of Teaching

Founded in 1905 by Andrew Carnegie and chartered by Congress, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching wields powerful influence in the world of education. Their contributions include the founding of the Educational Teaching Service (ETS) and the Teachers Insurance Annuity Association of America (TIAA-CREF), as well as the development of the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) (Carnegie Foundation, 2008). Concerned with improving education and the status of the teaching profession, the Foundation is involved in the creation and dissemination of scholarship, including the scholarship of teaching.

The scholarship of teaching is focused on that which occurs within the classroom. When faculty examine their personal practice of instruction and then make it available to their colleagues, they are taking part in the development of a scholarship of teaching (Huber & Hutchings, 2005). The act of teaching is uniquely private. Despite the fact that teachers, professors, and lecturers spend their instructional time engaging an audience, the educator

executes their responsibilities without assistance from peers. By sharing publicly what happens in classrooms, practice improves and learning develops. Four defining features encompass the scholarship of teaching practice: questioning, gathering and exploring evidence, trying out and refining new insights, and going public (Huber and Hutchings, 2005).

Huber and Hutchings (2005) suggest that by increasing the focus on teaching pedagogy and passing on those stratagems that are most successful, faculty will be able to become part of the "teaching commons," a larger community of scholars seeking to improve and make public that which takes place in the courseroom (p. 30). The work and identities of students must remain confidential, but the metaphorical walls that surround the teaching arena are to be broken down for the betterment of the profession. The impetus for the change comes first from individual teachers who want to improve their teaching, either in general or in a specific course. After that teacher initiates changes, the following steps are to "make it public, peer-review it, and pass it on" (Huber & Hutchings, 2005, p. 55). This thoughtful and self-directed approach is bound to make changes in the classroom and within the profession.

To build upon the scholarship of teaching, the Carnegie Foundation established the Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (CASTL) (Carnegie Foundation, 2008). Participating institutions seek to develop ongoing improvements that: 1) foster significant, long-lasting learning for all students, 2) enhances the practice and profession of teaching, and 3) brings to faculty members' work as teachers the recognition and reward afforded to other forms of scholarly work (Carnegie Foundation, 2008).

Empirically, one can imagine the benefits of such practice and the need for widespread implementation on college and university campuses. Unfortunately, this type of improvement is difficult to quantify and measure. What is more, it is not clear that the scholarship of teaching

has had significant traction on college campuses since its development (Angelo, 2002). A third approach is the scholarship of assessment.

Scholarship of Assessment

The child of assessment and the scholarship of teaching (Angelo, 2002), the scholarship of assessment is a systematic approach to inquiry that involves: 1) utilizing appropriate theory or scholarship, 2) collecting evidence and data, 3) creating summaries of data, and 4) sharing that data with practitioners (Banta, 2002). To contrast, the primary goal of assessment, including learner-centered teaching, is to improve student learning and the primary aim of the scholarship of teaching is to develop of best teaching practices that encourage learning and the dissemination of that data (Angelo, 2002). The scholarship of assessment seeks to take the best practices of theory, including ideas from disciplines outside education, like psychology and sociology, use those discoveries to improve teaching, and share the data within the profession.

Banta (2002) lists seventeen characteristics of effective outcomes assessment, based on almost twenty years' worth of analysis on the issue, but the overarching principles are planning, implementation, maintenance, and improving the process. As neither assessment nor the scholarship of teaching has had a deep or lasting impact on teaching or the academic culture, practitioners of the scholarship of assessment seek to institutionalize this practice for long-term gains by fashioning a culture of improvement (Angelo, 2002). Through the alignment of institutional systems, faculty culture, and leadership, and focusing on improving teaching, this approach promises to transform education. To promote the scholarship of assessment within the institutional culture, the following conditions must be met (Angelo, 2002): 1) plan for long-term change, 2) engage and involve opinion leaders from the start, 3) keep the focus on the main purpose: improving student learning, 4) identify likely costs and benefits—intrinsic and

extrinsic—then lower costs and raise benefits whenever possible, and look for multiplier effects, 5) start with the familiar and make connections, 6) provide scaffolding for novice and intermediate practitioners, 7) develop and sustain social supports for practitioners, 8) do not pay participants to do what is to become part of routine practice, 9) insist on clear criteria and high standards for quality, and 10) share information on efforts, findings, and successes widely. For the scholarship of assessment to be institutionalized, the whole campus must have a singular view of the process, procedures, and intended outcomes.

It is clear that all three assessment approaches seek to embed their assessment design within the culture and context of higher education. The focus, however, for each plan is different. Where the learner-centered approach fixates on the student and the scholarship of teaching on the instructor, with the scholarship of assessment, the institutional culture is the framework upon which the assessment processes are affixed. Institutional culture is a potent presence on campuses and institutionalizing these practices within the power system of a culture could have long-term and lasting impact.

<div align="center">Analysis of the Approaches and a New Paradigm</div>

A careful review of the above designs show that though they are all a part of the assessment movement and can be useful in improving colleges and universities, as well as fulfilling the needs of accreditors, their foci are different. The learner-centered approach is focused directly on the student and how they best acquire knowledge. By taking the faculty member off the stage and, figuratively, placing the student on the stage, faculty and their methods of instruction will be changed and modified. The scholarship of teaching is dedicated to taking that which is private, how teachers teach in their classrooms, and making it public. Architects cannot hide their designs, rather, their drawings become public and bear testament to

their training, aesthetic, and historical/cultural milieu. In a similar public fashion, the overarching goal of the scholarship of teaching is to improve the act of teaching through observation, discussion, peer-reviewed articles, and making the information public. Lastly, the scholarship of assessment seeks to improve student learning through alignment among three important entities, institutional systems, faculty culture, and leaders who desire change (Angelo, 2002). By embedding assessment within the institutional culture and making it a long-term fixture, continuous improvement will become a byproduct of these efforts. At this point one may wonder—which is best?

After examining various forms of assessment, as well as the impact of assessment and the utilization of student learning outcomes, what becomes clear is that each of these approaches can have a positive effect on campuses. Further, the combination of many of these overlapping best practices will result in a patchwork of efforts to improve student success. The focus must always be on students and the improvement of learning. By utilizing differing aspects to meet the needs of the campus community, any combination of the above assessment approaches can contribute appropriately, as long as there is a commitment to planning, implementation, maintenance, and improving the process (Banta, 2002). When institutions lose sight of the goals of assessment, the powerful motivation of accreditation can take over.

Institutions must not allow concerns for accreditation to overshadow the importance of focusing assessment activities on improvement. When accreditation drives assessment, versus an internal motivator like institutional curiosity, what results is a compliance approach (Maki, 2002). One should not underestimate the negative aspects of losing accreditation, including the discontinuation of federal funding and student loans (Harcleroad & Eaton, 2005). Administrators are correct to be concerned about maintaining accreditation, but student improvement must

dominate the conversation on the issue of assessment. Beyond these issues, another troubling aspect of assessment is the inability to get definitive measurements of the extent to which assessment activities are transforming institutions. Recent research has come upon another critical factor in student success that is perhaps more important than assessment and is not represented in outcomes measures, student engagement. (Kuh, 2007).

Researchers note that the best predictors of graduation for a student are motivation and academic preparation (Adelman, 2004). However with the great numbers of students attending colleges and universities, and the need for an increasingly sophisticated workforce to meet the needs of a complex society (Kazis, Vargas, & Hoffman, 2004), student engagement has come to the fore as an important indicator of student success (G. Kuh, J. Kinzie, J. Schuh, E. Whitt and Associates, 2005).

<div align="center">Student Engagement</div>

High-stakes testing, accountability, and accreditation continue to dominate the educational landscape, to the point that the pressures upon institutions of learning are higher today than when the accountability movement initiated (Kuh et al., 2005). Coupled with these forces is the changing composition of the student body. The sheer variety of college students is increasing, with more first-generation, low-income, and students from historically under-represented groups in attendance (Middaugh, 2007). Now, more than ever, there is heightened demand to improve how colleges teach. Such concerns led a team of researchers to conduct an analysis of the *National Survey of Student Engagement* (NSSE) report (2004). The researchers identified 20 institutions whose combination of higher-than-predicted graduation rates and better-than-expected student engagement scores set them apart from their peers. Their resultant work, *Student Success in College: Creating Conditions that Matter* (Kuh et al., 2005), is similar

in design to the business-based book, *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap...And Others Don't* (Collins, 2001). Both of these texts examine institutions that cumulatively set themselves apart from others through their vision, leadership, commitment, and success.

NSSE, which was administered at 850, four-year institutions with various backgrounds and included over 620,000 student respondents, was designed to provide rich information that participating institutions could use to improve the quality of their undergraduate education (NSSE, 2004). The research team utilized a qualitative method for their study and the outcomes focused on two specific variables: student engagement and graduation rates (Kuh, et al., 2005). The team mined and analyzed the data and found six-overarching categories, referred to as Documenting Effective Educational Practices, common to all of the distinguished institutions: a "living" mission and "lived" educational philosophy, an unshakeable focus on student learning, environments adapted for educational enrichment, clearly marked pathways to student success, an improvement oriented ethos, and a shared responsibility for educational quality and student access. One should note that these colleges were not necessarily the "best" in every category, rather, they rose above what was expected and had outstanding student engagement and graduation rates (Kuh et al., 2005). These institutions varied greatly in size, composition of student body, Carnegie classification, and the like, yet all exceeded their peers in these important areas.

Engagement includes two components that are important contributors of student success. The fist variable is the amount of time a student invests in their studies and other educational experiences and the second variable is the way in which institutions allocate time and resources towards creating learning opportunities and safety nets that benefit students (Kuh et al., 2005).

The universities that were recognized as DEEP institutions had clearly developed cultures and they utilized their resources to support and encourage student development. Two particular strategies were identified as leading towards student success, alignment and sustainability (Kuh et al., 2005).

By aligning leadership, faculty, and support services towards the unshakable goal of student success, powerful changes took place at the DEEP institutions. What is more, their practices were rooted in the institutional culture and focused on sustainability. The combination of high-engagement and high-graduation rates indicated that these institutions were able to add value to the quality of their students' educational experience (Kuh, et al., 2005). One should also note that the factors of alignment and sustainability were also common to the best practices of the student assessment approaches. Though the NSSE survey was focused on four-year institutions, a similar survey has been developed for community colleges. In 2001, the Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE) was developed by the Community College Leadership Program at the University of Texas at Austin and is available for similar studies.

Implications for Community Colleges

Community colleges, which have historically emphasized teaching, learning, and student support, are also involved in the implementation of assessment activities on their campuses and they too face challenges of proving achievement and increasing retention and performance (CCSSE, 2008). In analyzing the assessment procedures listed above, all three approaches, whether implemented singularly or in combination, could be utilized on community college campuses to improve teaching and learning. Additionally, a heightened focus should be placed on those characteristics that lead to increased student engagement. Whichever assessment

approach is selected, the most critical factors are alignment and sustainability, the two characteristics common to all of the DEEP institutions. By bringing all of the key players at an institution together to focus on improvement and student achievement, the culture can change. Kuh et al. (2005) found that the universities with the most engaged students had a "positive restlessness" (p. 290), a desire for continuous improvement that dominated the culture of the institution. This expectation of improvement and success was also expected of their students as well. Colleges must look at their individual needs and community to determine which practices would best fit their institutional culture.

As a community college faculty member at a Hispanic-Serving Institution (HSI), those institutions with more than 40% Hispanic students, our needs may be strikingly different than in a differing regional area. Most of our concerns are focused on meeting the needs of first-generation, low-income students, and students who may not be academically prepared for collegiate work. Even more troubling for our students, Hispanic students, who have large representation on community college campuses, have a much lower than expected graduation rate from four-year institutions (Paulsen, 2001; Twigg, 2005). Focusing on engagement may be a more important variable for like institutions.

Since most community college students work, have familial obligations, and tend not to live on campus, the classroom is the most important contact point for students. Each classroom experience must provide what these students require, high expectations and high levels of support (CCSSE, 2008; Tinto, 2008). By combining the best practices of assessment and engagement and building these practices into their culture, each institution can find individualized ways to improve and excel.

Conclusion

After reviewing three approaches of assessment, as well as exploring the research on engagement, what became apparent is that not one approach stands out as the best or will solve every problem. Rather, research indicates that to have a noteworthy impact on the success of students, institutions must do many different aspects, better and more often, so that a significant number of students may be impacted (Collins, 2001; Kuh et al., 2005). As a result of aligning faculty, administrators, and student services, with a clearly articulated mission of student improvement, and embedding those practices into the institutional culture over a sustained period of time, colleges and universities can take part in the continuous-improvement process that has helped industry improve and remain competitive. Access to survey results, such as NSSE and CCSSE, can also provide institutions with a benchmarking instrument, a diagnostic tool, and a monitoring device to gauge success within and across institutions (CCSSE, 2008). These approaches will be most beneficial if the desire of participants is to improve student learning and communication within the institution. If these activities are pursued just to satisfy accreditors, any resulting improvement will prove to be short-lived (Maki, 2002).

QUESTION 3

When Paul Ramsden (1998) likened leading academic staff to "herding cats," he illustrated just one of the unique challenges faced by senior administrators in navigating the many institutional cultures and subsystems in the college or university environment. As independent scholars and entrepreneurs, members of the faculty do not always respond to the same "carrots and sticks" that may be effective in corporate environments. Review the literature on institutional cultures in higher education and their relationship to faculty motivation and satisfaction. Based on this review, propose a set of best practices for providing leadership for the orientation, effectiveness, and retention of faculty in the community college.

Bergquist, W.H. & Pawlak, K. (2007). *Engaging the six cultures of the academy* (Rev Ed.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Birnbaum, R. (1991) *How colleges work: The cybernetics of academic organization and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tierney, W.G. (2008). *The impact of culture on organizational decision-making: Theory and practice in higher education*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

American higher education has long-standing traditions that have developed over the 370 years since Harvard opened its doors in the U.S. (Lucas, 2006). These traditions are part of the symbolic links that connect institutional culture to its members and society. Culture provides a powerful context for meaning and understanding, as well as protection from anxiety (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008; Tierney, 2008). Culture is not static, but is influenced by the members of the organization, giving leaders heightened responsibilities to create conditions that are enabling and positive, not toxic (Senge, 1999; Tierney, 2008). This essay will examine the meaning of culture and the types of organizational cultures prevalent in higher education, especially as they relate to faculty motivation and satisfaction. This work will also propose a set of best practices that can be implemented by leaders on community college campuses for the orientation, effectiveness, and retention of faculty.

Organizational Culture

Culture provides meaning and context for people of a specific group or institution (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). For academic institutions, comprised of socially constructed systems, this rationalized existence involves not only faculty and students, but has larger implications for society as a whole (Tierney, 2008). In addition to providing context and meaning, culture seeks to alleviate anxiety. Berquist and Paklaw (2008) contend that the formation and continuance of organizational culture is primarily for the containment of anxiety. Because these systems are social in nature, they vary.

As culture is created by and attached to individuals and institutions, it is neither static nor monolithic, but something that bends under the will and wishes of the participants (Tierney, 2008). A number of combined components support institutional culture. Tierney (2008) includes the following elements in his framework of organizational culture: environment, mission,

socialization, information, strategy, and leadership (p. 30). Each of these areas affects the culture and the employees within the institution. What is more, because these elements are malleable, their manipulation and orientation will impact the health and quality of an organization.

Some organizational cultures foster initiatives and programs that encourage growth and progress, while others may inadvertently create directives that lead to the detriment of the unit or create dissatisfaction within the ranks of members. Deal and Peterson (1998) observe that an institution's climate or ethos is significant and influences everything that transpires on the campus, from the way people address one another to their mode of dress. In the absence of a positive culture, an unsupportive and toxic culture can take root. Culture is present in all collectives and higher educational campuses have a rich variety of cultural aspects, from the symbolic to the political.

American universities have had little federal control, unlike the nationalized universities in Europe, allowing campus leadership and faculty to foster innovation and variation (Welch, 1993). This freedom has resulted in greatly divergent institutions that reflect the diverse needs of their students, staff, and sphere. This individuality has resulted in cultures that embody, "the way we do things around here" ethos (Deal & Kennedy, 1983), similar to the type of powerful climate identified with the DEEP schools as mentioned in the second question of this report (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005). Since campus cultures are not permanent or fixed, leaders and stakeholders can affect and change their institutions. This view conforms to the postmodernist perspective of culture.

The modernist view of culture is one of shared meaning, both symbolic and absolute, which can be oriented in one of two directions, either from the view of cultural relativism or cultural deficit (Tierney, 2008). Cultural relativism implies that all cultures are equal and that

one must assimilate with it in order to be a member (Tierney, 2008). A cultural deficit perspective indicates that a culture is found lacking, in need of repair, or not functioning at an acceptable level. In contrast, the postmodernist view contends that culture is not so much a definition of things as they are but an amalgamation of the aspirations and hopes of what the organizational world might be (Tierney, 2008). This orientation allows leaders to take an active part in the fashioning of their institutions and its culture. Further, by sharing their dreams with and developing their faculty, leaders can empower their employees and help to increase their morale, production, and satisfaction. Unfortunately, the research shows that faculty face increasing problems like heightened enrollment, lack of adequate resources, ill-prepared and low-performing students, inconsistent leadership, lack of concern for quality, and a dearth of professional development opportunities (Ast, 1999). By fully understanding the culture of their institution and developing their workers, leaders can create a positive environment that fulfills its mission. The next section will highlight the two dominant cultures prevalent in higher education and their impact on faculty motivation and satisfaction.

Institutional Culture Influences Faculty Motivation and Satisfaction

Two models dominate the organizational culture in American higher education, the collegial and managerial/bureaucratic (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008; Birnbaum, 1988; Ramsden, 1998; and Tierney, 2008). Their dominance is so widespread, that "they stand out as the twin pillars of education" (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). These cultures are long lived and appear on every single campus, to a greater or lesser extent. Small, liberal arts campuses exemplify the traditional collegiate culture and the bureaucratic culture is synonymous with community college campuses, as that management style in nearly universal on those campuses (Bergquist & Pawlak,

2008; Birnbaum, 1988). Though the collegial and bureaucratic cultures are the twin pillars of

higher education, they are not the only operational types found on campuses.

However, for the purposes of this paper, we will examine just these two archetypes, as well as

how their cultures impact faculty motivation and satisfaction.

Collegial Culture

Traditional collegial institutions are characterized as being small, with common

backgrounds, ingrained cultures, significant rites and distinctive symbols (Birnbaum, 1988).

Institutions of this type tend to be "loosely coupled" to outside environmental concerns, such as

the prevailing conventional wisdom about higher education, federal research directives,

community politics, and the like (Birnbaum, 1988). Rather, such institutions function like a

family. This characteristic is exemplified in Bolman and Deal's (2003) *four-frame model* as the

human resource frame, where needs, skills, and relationships are the central concern of the

institution, which is directed from leaders who seek to empower. Some larger institutions, many

of which grew out of small, collegial campuses, have tried to maintain collegial practices.

Campus faculty appreciate the emphasis on research, scholarship, education, and autonomy

present in such institutions (Bergquist & Pawkaw, 2008). As one would expect, the tradition of

academic freedom is protected and revered on these campuses and is a long-standing part of their

history.

Descended from the British collegiate tradition with a focus on quality and the liberal

arts, collegial institutions seek to promulgate their rich traditions and expectations to their

students (Lucas, 2006). On smaller campuses, this includes close interaction between local

faculty and their students, while on larger campuses, faculty-student interaction is reserved

primarily for doctoral students (Bergquist & Pawkaw, 2008). Even as some institutions have

grown into mega-universities, such as Harvard and Yale, the traditional aspects of the early college have been maintained. These aspects may seem antiquated, but the overarching goals of the academe continue to thrive through faculty consensus.

Leadership at these institutions should remember that the collegial culture is built upon mutual respect, open communication, and an adherence to the rules and cultures endemic to the institution. The leadership of the college is shared among a collection of equals through debate and discussion. Because of these personal interactions, cultural mores are not notated, but handed down, with seemingly little attention paid to orders, directives, or external control (Birnbaum, 1988). In stark contrast to the bureaucratic culture, with its written expectations and strong administrative control, collegial cultures maintain informal rules and norms (Bergquist and Pawkaw, 2008). Leadership at these institutions is flat and broad with contributions from most members. Even on large institutional campuses, leadership has a hands-off approach, with little accountability or observation of instruction (Bergquist & Pawkaw, 2008). The willingness to discuss multiple approaches to problems leads to a greater diversity of opinions being heard and to a general acceptance of campus decisions, as most individuals are involved. For those faculty who appreciate an autonomous, non-hierarchical environment, the collegial environment is a good fit.

Relationships in collegial environments are informal and long term. On small campuses, faculty spend a great amount of time together, in work, socialization, and deliberative action, reinforcing relationships and engendering common values (Birnbaum, 1998). To continue traditions, new faculty are selected for their ability to fit into the culture and absorb the common values. Should a member be unable to align with the institutional norms, corrective action may be instituted. Ramsden (1998) observed that in cooperative (collegial) environments, such as

this, staff showed higher levels of intrinsic motivation for academic work, were less likely to be dissatisfied with rewards, and showed higher levels of commitment to academic responsibilities. Faculty must be sensitive to the needs of colleagues and students and be willing to invest significant amounts of personal time into developing these relationships for success on a collegial campus (Bergquist & Pawkaw, 2008; Birnbaum, 1988). In contrast, the bureaucratic, or managerial system, is highly mechanized in its approach, with clear expectations of workers, a clearly defined hierarchical administrative structure, and a desire to measure effectiveness on the part of faculty.

Managerial Culture

The managerial culture is common to the operation of most community colleges, which emerged early in the twentieth century as an outgrowth of secondary education, and flourished in the 1960s as a vehicle for access for an expanding and increasingly diverse student body (Bergquist & Pawkaw, 2008). This type of system is highly rationalized, with clear relationships between leader and worker, and an expectation of performance. This culture is congruent with the factory or machine model as explained by Bolman and Deal (2003), which is characterized by roles, goals, policies, and technology. This system has helped institutions cope with increased size, scope, budgets, and responsibilities.

Leadership is necessary and central to highly structured managerial cultures. With the expansion of higher education in the 1960s, including increased budgets, requirements from accrediting agencies, and the development of statewide organizations, an increasingly professionalized managerial staff was required (Birnbaum, 1998). To understand the scale of this enterprise, community colleges in the U.S. educate more than half of all the undergraduate students in higher education (Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008). More than 2.5 million students

are served by California Community Colleges alone, making that system the largest workforce-training provider in the U.S. (Strategic Plan, 2006). Such expansive systems require effective and efficient administration for success. As this type of system is so highly structured, there are benefits to faculty, as well as frustrations.

Unlike collegial systems, faculty in highly-managed structures are most able to influence the environment through curriculum design and classroom instruction, rather than through the organizational culture (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). This type of rules-based approach has created such clearly articulated responsibilities and expectations that some institutions have instituted a compliance culture, one that encourages faculty to arrive and leave on times negotiated by the union, almost like a factory time-clock system, rather than the immersed presence one would expect in a collegial environment (Birnbaum, 1998). Even more, a "zone of indifference" may exist, where the faculty decides which directives to follow and which to ignore (Birnbaum, 1998, p. 127). All of these factors influence the motivation and satisfaction experienced by faculty.

Since faculty on community college campuses are expected to solely teach, not having the research and publication responsibilities expected on university campuses, faculty indicate a general satisfaction with their work (Jenkins, 2003; Ramsden, 1998). Additionally, the very democratic ideal of open access, allowing opportunities for all individuals to achieve and rise above their current status, is a worthy goal that is embraced by faculty. Unfortunately, because of the routinization of courses and the need to entertain increasingly unreceptive and cynical students, faculty comment that they have little intellectual stimulation in their daily contact with students (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Additionally, though numerous reports indicate faculty are generally satisfied with their work, what has become apparent is that they feel increasingly

alienated, disengaged, and dissatisfied with their organizations (Ast, 1999; Maheffey & Welsh, 1993; Ramsden, 1998). One way leaders should mitigate these negative attributes of college culture is through development and continuous training.

Need for Faculty Development

In the 1960s and 1970s, student protests and the civil rights movement helped lead to increased access for students from traditionally underserved communities. In the 1980s and 1990s, following decreasing funding and increasing demands from the public, improving quality and learning became the focus for most institutions (Murray, 2002). What failed to change, however, was the instruction methods received by most students. Generally, when faculty are hired, they receive little instruction or guidance in their first years and they are left to sink or swim (Ast, 1999; June, 2008). Teachers must understand their students and be given the tools necessary to meet their needs. What is more, an educated and skilled workforce not motivated by carrots or sticks but by intrinsic motivation; any institutional development efforts must appeal to their intrinsic desires (Senge, 1999). A toxic culture, one that seeks to address just external motivation with little training or commitment, will result in dissatisfaction and burnout.

Ast (1999) identified the following nine criteria that lead to burnout and job dissatisfaction, many of which can be found on campuses today (p. 568-69): 1) lack of time to prepare for class or keep abreast of discoveries within their field, 2) lack of recognition or support for professional growth, 3) lack of support for instructional materials, 4) poor facilities, infrastructure, and security, 5) little voice in college decision-making activities, 6) routinization of teaching content, schedule, instructional methods, and professional roles, 7) inflexible or heavy teaching schedules, lack of recognition and low salaries with high levels of bureaucracy and red tape, 8) working with unappreciative, unmotivated, or under-prepared students, and 9)

poor teacher evaluation processes. These issues should not go unaddressed by leadership. Additionally, in the face of increasing enrollments, decreasing funding, more first-generation college students, and a heightened assessment environment, the need to develop and foster increased effectiveness on the part of faculty members is great (Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008). By addressing these needs within the institutional culture, administrators can have a powerful impact on the success of their faculty and institution.

Though the prior section focused on the two cultural systems commonly found on college campuses, managerial and collegial governance, and their respective leadership styles, this simplistic approach does not effectively address the precarious issues that are facing higher education today (Ramsden, 1998). What leaders must do is work to create programs that integrate best practices supporting the orientation, effectiveness, and retention of faculty.

Best Practices for Orientation, Effectiveness, and Retention of Faculty

Novice faculty frequently comment that they experience isolation, fragmentation, loneliness, and over prepare as expectations for their performance is not clear (Ramsden, 1998; Savage, Karp, & Logue, 2004). This type of departmental and institutional neglect has been referred to as a barrier of isolation for new recruits (Savage et al., 2004). In an effort to meet the needs of new faculty and their increasingly diverse students, as well as help middle and late-career faculty improve their productivity and maintain their vitality, an effective faculty development program should be implemented on all community college campuses. Many colleges allocate resources to faculty development, but research indicates that these efforts are disjointed, based on antiquated models of design, have limited reach, have not transformed their institutional culture, and have not been an administrative priority (Brawer, 1990; Murray, 2000). To increase the effectiveness of faculty, leaders must go beyond just development programs and

transform their institutional culture. A culture that encourages growth, improvement, collaboration, and scholarship is one that will increase effectiveness and satisfaction, resulting in improved learning and faculty retention. The following are a set of best practices that, if implemented, will result in better-assimilated faculty, who are effective, satisfied with their work and environment, committed to improving teaching, and who will not want to leave their institutions.

Faculty Development Program and Mentorship

Frequently a part of the human resource or professional development office, faculty development programs seek to improve individual and corporate performance (Gibson, 2006). The literature is clear that faculty desire development programs and see them as being a part of a culture that fosters learning and improvement (Feldman & Paulsen, 1999; Murray, 2000; Murray 2002, Welch, 2002). Research on the institutionalization of these programs shows that many community colleges do not give adequate support or enough long-term care to these programs for them to affect the institutional culture (Murray, 2000). The following suggestions are an amalgamation of the best practices available regarding the design and implementation of a faculty development program (Feldman & Paulsen, 1999; Murray, 2000; Murray 2002, Welch, 2002):

- Emphasizes discipline knowledge acquisition and pedagogical development for both new and senior faculty.
- Part of a well-formed development plan seeking to meet the needs and outcomes of parties through diverse perspectives.
- Maintains focused goals that support the mission and priorities of the institution.

- Ongoing effort that is designed with the faculty to support effective, learner-centered teaching.

- Attached to the reward structure of the college.

Though new faculty enter the academe with fresh disciplinary knowledge, many universities fail to provide pedagogical training for their future faculty members. By providing a mechanism to train new teachers, as well as a vehicle for improving the growth and vitality of more senior members, a faculty development program (FDP) can help transform an institution. A culture that embraces a supportive teaching culture is one that will support student achievement. Ramsden (1998) stated that the way students approach their learning is a direct result of the environment in which they operate (p. 58). What is more, these efforts provide an outstanding resource for keeping middle and senior faculty engaged in the learning environment. As faculty at most institutions tend to be long-term and even lifetime employees, the need for ongoing improvement and training is clear.

Murray (2002) indicates that community college faculty, who teach the same lower-division courses every single semester, can experience "psychic retirement" if they are not challenged and provided fresh opportunities for development (p. 3). Involvement in a FDP may help mitigate faculty burnout and decline through engagement with peers, development of skills, and a rededication to their original efforts (Murray, 2002). Another aspect of the FDP could be the implementation of a mentor program.

Mentorship programs have been used in official and unofficial capacities on campuses for generations and this type of support can be beneficial to new faculty members. By working with senior faculty, who understand the overt and covert aspects of institutional culture, new recruits can be connected to important resources and personnel. Research has shown that it is advisable

to have a mentor outside of the mentee's department, someone who will not be involved in the tenure and promotional aspects of the new employee (Savage et al., 2004). Additionally, mentors should assist and direct discovery in the areas of career development, psychosocial issues, and modeling (Savage et al., 2004). For women faculty in particular, this type of support is an important aspect of ongoing professional development (Gibson, 2006).

Culture, Collaboration, and Scholarship

That culture has a significant impact on teaching, learning, and employee job satisfaction is clear and unequivocal (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008; Murray, 2000; Murray, 2002; Ramsden, 1998; Tiernay, 2008). The aspects of culture that have proven to lead to a productive environment are the following:

- Outstanding leadership that builds an enabling environment through their modeling of appropriate attitudes and behaviors.

- Significant goals that are clearly articulated and aligned with the mission of the institution.

- Faculty involvement and ownership in the development of goals and values that guide the institution.

- Impediments to improvement, such as oppressive bureaucracy, are removed.

- Continual improvement of teaching and learning are clearly stated goals with feedback to faculty from various sources.

These goals are achievable for institutions, provided they have capable leadership with a sufficient commitment to these ideals. Leaders have relied upon antiquated measures for too long to improve faculty morale and satisfaction. Common development opportunities have included sabbatical leaves, attendance at colloquia, in-service workshops, and the conferral of release time

to attend such activities, which have shown little effectiveness in changing institutional culture (Murray, 2002). New approaches must be tried for new results to be achieved. Through increased faculty collaboration, increased motivation and success is possible.

Feldman & Paulsen (1999) have identified that faculty collaboration leads to improved teaching skills, heightened intellectual stimulation and satisfaction, and a decrease in the loneliness associated with teaching. "Collectively, we can achieve more, and we can be more insightful when we work in teams that continually learn" (Ramsden, 1998, p. 163). By providing opportunities for dialogue and the exchange of ideas, faculty can improve their craft and satisfaction, which is the purpose of the "teaching commons," as mentioned in question two. A final practice that leads to increased faculty effectiveness, in addition to improving culture and encouraging collaboration, is encouraging scholarship.

Scholarship and research are an expectation on university campuses, but such activities are not required on community college campuses and release time is generally not provided for such exploration (Jenkins, 2003). However, by encouraging community college faculty to participate in research and scholarly activities, studies have indicated that faculty are more engaged and exercise more control over their professional environment (Welch, 1993). Additionally, teaching environments that encourage scholarship have increased vitality and help to ameliorate the dissatisfaction that comes with repetitive and routinized teaching (Welch, 1993). In the context of the community college, the definition of scholarship should be broad and open to divergent experiences that are in alignment with the needs of the individual institutions (Feldman & Paulsen, 1999). Leaders should work with faculty to create a positive culture, one where success, joy, and collegiality abound. By developing a positive culture which is supported by ongoing faculty development, collaboration and scholarship opportunities, faculty will be

assimilated, strengthened, and continue to positively transform their institutions throughout their tenure.

Conclusion

Research indicates that organizational culture has a significant impact on the motivation and satisfaction of faculty in higher education, as well as upon the effectiveness of student learning (Birnbaum, 1988; Ramsden, 1998). By creating a culture with a shared sense of purpose—the improvement of teaching, where success, joy, and collegiality abound, where leaders lead through modeling and maintaining clearly defined and lofty goals, and where innovation and accomplishment are celebrated, leaders can develop positive and transformational cultures (Murray, 2002; Peterson & Deal, 1998).

The implications for faculty are clear as such positive conditions lead to increased satisfaction, intellectual stimulation, and an ongoing desire for improvement. By developing a thoughtful faculty development program with mentoring, new faculty can be exposed to campus culture, can avoid the barrier of isolation that many new employees experience, and can learn pedagogical techniques that are learner-centered and appropriate to the students currently entering community colleges (Murray, 2000, 2002; Savage et al., 2004). Lastly, by creating opportunities to collaborate with colleagues and to participate in scholarship, faculty will be able to sharpen their skills, engage in thoughtful dialogue, increase the vitality of their work environment, and take part in the "teaching commons" (Feldman & Paulsen, 1999; Huber & Hutchings, 2005; Welch, 1993).

Campus leaders must facilitate strategic planning, effective management and development of personnel, and the creation of a plan for assessment which is institutionalized into the culture. With such measures in place, outcomes will be created that lead to a quality

organization (Winn & Cameron, 1998). What is more, as it is apparent that most faculty members remain at their respective institutions for long periods of time, be they collegial or bureaucratic, leaders must continually improve, challenge, enable, and assess their faculty for the continued health of the member and the organization.

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UNOFFICIAL TRANSCRIPT
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Print Date : 2009-08-14

- - - - - Transfer Credits - - - - -
Transfer Credit from California State University Fullerton
Applied Toward PhD in Education Program
Course Trans GPA: 0.000 Transfer Totals :   32.00   48.00   0.000

- - - - - Beginning of Graduate Record - - - - -

Spring Quarter 2007

Program : PhD in Education

ED	7540	Leadership in Higher Education	4.00	4.00 B	12.000
COL-R	8921	PhD Colloquium Track I		0.00	
ED	8004	Societal and Cultural Change	4.00	4.00 A	16.000

Summer Quarter 2007

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 837 | Funding & Mngng Ed Enterprises | 4.00 | 4.00 A | 16.000 |
| ED | 841 | The History of Higher Educ | 4.00 | 4.00 A | 16.000 |

Fall Quarter 2007

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 855 | Higher Education Admin | 4.00 | 4.00 A | 16.000 |
| COL-R | 8922 | PhD Colloquium Track II | | 0.00 S | |

Winter Quarter 2008

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 7834 | Higher Education and the Law | 4.00 | 4.00 A | 16.000 |

Summer Quarter 2008

Program : PhD in Education

ED	7546	Human Resources in Higher Ed	4.00	4.00 A	16.000
ED	7547	Assessment in Higher Education	4.00	4.00 A	16.000
ED	7840	The Politics of Higher Educ	4.00	4.00 A	16.000

Fall Quarter 2008

Program : PhD in Education

ED	7106	Curriculum Development	4.00	4.00 A	16.000
ED	7818	Fut Tchng & Lrng:Iss Educ Ldr	4.00	4.00 A	16.000
ED	8113	Adv Study in Research Methods	4.00	4.00 A	16.000
COL-R	8923	PhD Colloquium Track III		0.00 S	

Winter Quarter 2009

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 9919 | Doctoral Comprehensive Exam | 4.00 | 4.00 S | |

Spring Quarter 2009

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 9920 | Dissertation Courseroom | | 0.00 R | |
| ED | 9921 | Dissertation Research 1 | 5.00 | 5.00 R | |

Summer Quarter 2009

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 9920 | Dissertation Courseroom | | |
| ED | 9922 | Dissertation Research 2 | 5.00 | |

Fall Quarter 2009

Program : PhD in Education

| ED | 9923 | Dissertation Research 3 | 5.00 |

Graduate Career Totals

CUM GPA : 3.917   CUM TOTALS : 57.00   105.00   188.000

ADDENDUM

Sabbatical Process

SABBATICAL PROCESS

Thank you for the opportunity to further address the Salary and Leaves Committee by reflecting on my *sabbatical process*. The sabbatical experience, which occurred over just one year, is limited and I would like to offer some additional information within the larger context of my doctoral program for a more accurate reflection of my development as a student. Three central areas emerged as being key in my development as a learner at Capella University: (a) academic coursework, including an understanding of academic history and educational practices outside the discipline of music; (b) a further appreciation for the rigors of scholarship; and (c) a desire to understand how excellence may be fostered in bureaucratic institutions such as ours, through quality leadership, thoughtful planning, and student achievement.

Coursework

The coursework at Capella University is designed to be immediately practical and useful to individuals in positions of leadership. Courses in my field of study included academic history, law, human resources, politics, curriculum, assessment, funding, and the like. This diverse collection of courses helped to provide a base of understanding that was comprehensive and relevant to the concerns of leaders in colleges today. Though I am not a manager, serving as department chair provided meaningful connection to the subject matter and allowed my vision to extend beyond my classroom and the needs and desires of our department. By studying the various demands placed upon leaders, such as those from the legislature, the public, and the demands of accreditors, I have a greater appreciation for the leadership here at Mt. SAC. Beyond the coursework, just being back at school proved to be refreshing and challenging.

Scholarship

It is quite remarkable how much education has changed since I was an undergraduate student. With Capella being an "online" institution, all of the resources necessary for coursework, scholarship, and research were available online. The library, with reams of information, articles, dissertations, databases, and publications, were available from wherever I was studying. I appreciated the challenge of being forced to meet deadlines, being required to write extensively for all of the courses, as well as being expected to read extensively each week. Though I completed just one semester of a doctoral program at a traditional institution before pursuing my studies at Capella, I believed that the online experience demanded much more from the students with regard to discipline, readings, and self-motivation. What was amiss, however, was ongoing, regular dialog with distinguished scholars and educators of distinction. Though significantly expedient, I am not certain if the convenience of online instruction mitigated the lack of collegial and professorial interaction. What did prove to be an important and salient part of my studies, however, was the idea of quality and improvement, especially as it relates to institutions such as ours.

Improvement

Improvement and efficiency seem to be highly sought and rarely discovered. Having been a fan of books by leaders of industry, like Lee Iacocca, Jim Collins, and Peter Drucker, the idea of using exemplary leadership to challenge and improve bureaucratic institutions compels me. As the leader of our departments' original SLO efforts, we were surprised to learn that the process actually produced a better understanding of our students and lead to the creation of a Music Department Handbook. After completing courses on assessment and curriculum, I realized that that *is* the whole point of assessment, but was distressed to discover that we backed into this awareness. The desire to continuously improve our teaching captured me and I initially

thought I would study either SLOs or the impact of learning communities for my dissertation, but these subjects are really focused at the classroom level or in small-scale experiments, where I desired to learn more at the macro level.

Some of my early research in assessment traced the linkage between continuous improvement and assessment, which led to my discovery of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award. Presented by the President of the United States to organizations in the areas of manufacturing, service, small business, education, non-profit, and health care, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) is the highest award for organizational innovation and exemplary performance in the following seven areas: leadership; strategic planning; customer and market focus; measurement, analysis, and knowledge management; workforce focus; process management; and results (NIST, 2009). Education was not an original category of the MBNQA, but starting in 1999, the program opened the option for educational institutions to participate, and, since that time, only eight educational awards have been given, including just one to a community college. The criterion for educational institutions is slightly different than that for business and includes the following:

1. Leadership

2. Strategic planning

3. Customer focus

4. Measurement, analysis, and knowledge management

5. Workforce focus

6. Process management

7. Results

Armed with this information, my next plan was to determine whether community colleges in the state have studied MBNQA, attempted to fulfill its requirements, or are in the process of attempting to secure the award. After deliberation, however, I decided to focus on just one area within these parameters, strategic planning.

Strategic Planning

At its best, strategic planning is an indicator and expression of the human capacity for intentionality, the ability to establish a vision, plan goals, and move towards their fulfillment with direct intent (Dooris, Kelley, & Trainer, 2002). The goals of strategic planning are to improve efficiency, increase accountability, and create added value for the customers. As strategic planning was brought into the educational environment on the wake of management trends like TQM and CI, it sought to address the concerns of an increasingly intrusive public into the workings of colleges and universities, as well as to improve efficiency to assuage the frustrations of governors and legislatures with the significant fiscal requirements of these institutions. It is not clear, however, if it has led to improvement.

Though much has been written about the need for strategic planning in higher education, including in the expressed and implied expectations of accrediting bodies, it is not clear how these practices have been enacted and fully realized on CCC campuses. The goal of my dissertation is a case study to discover how strategic planning is enacted on a single, California community college campus, one whose public documents indicated an awareness of strategic initiatives. Further, as institutions face state budget retractions due to the current economic crisis, have their plans been modified to position the organization not only to endure but also to advance their effectiveness and maintain goal attainment in this period of economic turbulence. The community colleges of the state have all been oriented towards expanding their population

and garnering valuable growth funds. Now that the state is mired in an economic malaise, will colleges rely on some type of plan to move forward? I hope to discover in the year ahead.

Where Am I Now?

Having had the wonderful experience of a sabbatical, as well as being halfway through my dissertation, the process has resulted in the following benefits:

1. I am a more effective department chair due to the wealth of information acquired during my studies.

2. I am a more effective teacher, one who is refreshed, happy to see classes over the cap, and willing to help his students succeed.

3. Hope to continue to grow and utilize the skills and knowledge I have acquired.

Thank you again for the opportunity of a sabbatical. I truly appreciate the suggestions of my old dean, Dr. Stephen Runnebohm, who told me early on to move to the last column as soon as possible and to take advantage of my sabbaticals. What great advice!