

Dis
11/5/09
S/o a

FOR REFERENCE ONLY

The Nottingham Trent University
Libraries & Learning Resources
SHORT LOAN COLLECTION

Date	Time	Date	Time
7 XXXXXX	XXXXXX		
23 APR 2005	Ref		
- XXXXXX	XXXXXX		
28 NOV 2006			
- 5 SEP 2007	7pm		
11 MAR 2010	9pm		

Please return this item to the issuing library.
Fines are payable for late return.

THIS ITEM MAY NOT BE RENEWED

Short Loans SL

40 0671672 6



ProQuest Number: 10290296

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10290296

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

**MARKETING ORIENTATION IN PROFESSIONAL
ORGANISATIONS:**

THE CASE OF FURTHER EDUCATION

NOEL YEE-MAN FOOK

HonDip of Sociology, MBA

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Nottingham
Trent University for the award of Doctor of Philosophy Degree**

April 1994

PhD
94 / Foo

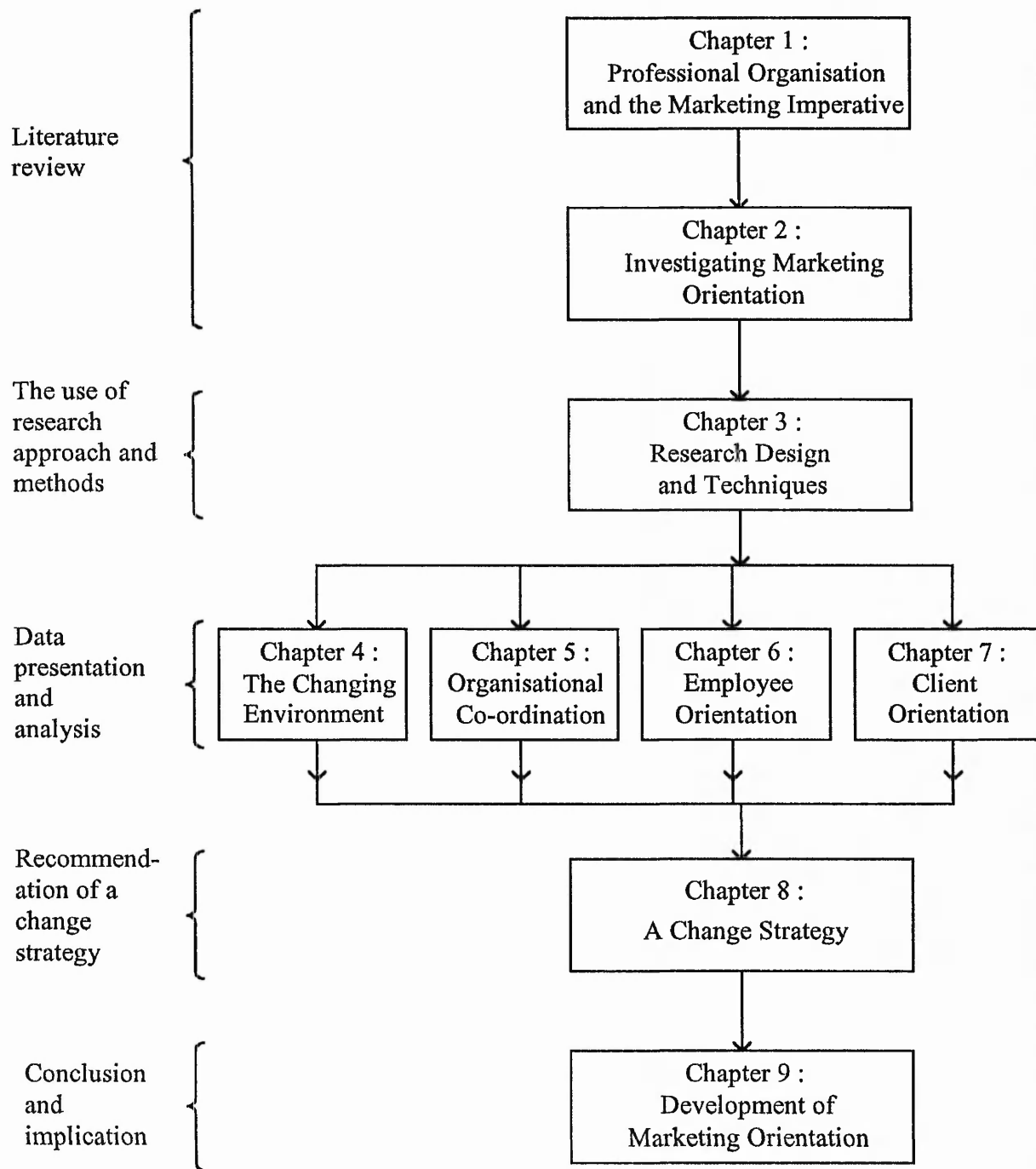
SLC
Ref,

ABSTRACT

The study looks at the development of marketing orientation in Further Education colleges. Some resistance to marketing practices, with their strong association with commercialism, could be expected in colleges where "professional" rather than commercial values have tended to be dominant. Major changes in the environment of these colleges have recently changed this situation but there are differences in the attitudes to marketing principles between senior college managers and many lecturing staff.

The study looks at the possibilities and problems of colleges moving from a traditional to a marketing orientation and, applying a social science perspective to these issues, a conceptualisation of the key issues is developed. This identifies three behavioural areas: client orientation, employee orientation and organisational coordination. The ultimate logic of developing a marketing orientation is identified as assisting the long-term survival of the organisation in which it exists. A qualitative case-study style of research is used to investigate the perceptions of change in general and marketing issues in particular in three Further Education colleges. In addition to observation and informal interviews, 180 formal semi-structured interviews were carried out with four groups of people: college staff members, students, employers who use the colleges and people working in related institutions.

The study has three major outputs which contribute to knowledge in these fields. First, a scale of six levels has been developed which relate to different perceptions of groups of people in the colleges: selling/advertising, image, segment, needs, quality and integration. This framework helps the analysis of the way different perceptions influence the tensions affecting the pace of development of a marketing orientation. Second, a four-stage model of development of marketing orientation is offered: traditional, sales, quasi marketing and marketing orientation. This helps in understanding the stages a college is at in relation to the three behavioural components of the main conceptual analysis. Third, a change strategy for the adoption of a marketing orientation is suggested. The four wave model enables a college's management to identify their problems so that gaps may be identified and implementation processes planned.



The structure of the thesis

CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	VI
List of Figures and Tables	VII
Introduction	IX

Chapter 1 - Professional Organisation and the Marketing Imperative

1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Understanding Professionalism	2
1.2.1 The Variety of Approaches	
1.2.2 Understanding Professionalism and Clients	
1.2.3 Understanding Professionalism and Organisation	
1.3 Understanding Professionalism and Marketing	17
1.3.1 Professional Services Sector and Marketing	
1.3.2 Not-for-Profit Sector and Marketing	
1.3.3 Education and Marketing	
1.4 Understanding Further Education	24
1.4.1 What is Further Education?	
1.4.2 Understanding Further Education Colleges	
1.5 Further Education and the Marketing Imperative	31
1.5.1 Pressures Within Further Education	
1.5.2 Changes Within Further Education	
1.5.3 Marketing Imperatives and Tensions Within Further Education	
1.6 Summary	45

Chapter 2 - Investigating Marketing Orientation: Emerging Ideas and a Conceptual Framework

2.1 Introduction	48
2.2 The Emergence of Marketing	48
2.2.1 Keith's "Production - Sales - Marketing Era"	
2.2.2 Fullerton's Criticism	
2.2.3 Bartels's Six Marketing Period	
2.2.4 Marketing as a "Profession"	
2.2.5 The Significance of Marketing History	
2.3 Understanding the Marketing Concept	58
2.3.1 What is the Marketing Concept?	
2.3.2 Criticism of the Marketing Concept	
2.4 Understanding Marketing Orientation as a Construct	61
2.4.1 Marketing Orientation or Market Orientation?	
2.4.2 The Scope of Different Orientations	
2.4.3 The Marketing Orientation Construct	

2.5 Developing a Framework for Marketing Orientation: The Construct and the Definition	99
2.5.1 Client Orientation and The Environment	
2.5.2 Employee Orientation	
2.5.3 Organisational Co-ordination	
2.5.4 Long-term Survival Requirement	
2.5.5 Definition of Marketing Orientation	
2.6 Summary	106

Chapter 3 - Investigating Marketing Orientation in a Professional Organisation: Research Design and Technique

3.1 Introduction	108
3.2 Research Design and Techniques	109
3.2.1 The Philosophy of the Research Design	
3.2.2 The Use of Case Studies	
3.2.3 The Use of Research Techniques	
3.3 Access to the Reality	126
3.3.1 Gaining Access	
3.3.2 Network of Relations: Dealing with Gatekeepers and Informants	
3.3.3 Understanding and Reflexivity	
3.3.4 Insider and Outsider	
3.3.5 Progressive Focusing	
3.4 Personal Attributes of the Researcher	133
3.4.1 Basic Attributes	
3.4.2 The Notion of Gender	
3.4.3 Being Chinese	
3.5 Data Analysis	137
3.6 The Experience of Researching	139
3.6.1 Researching in ACC Accounting Firm	
3.6.2 Researching in three Further Education Colleges	
3.7 Summary	151

Chapter 4 - Marketing Orientation in three FE Colleges: the Changing Environment and the Emergence of Marketing Orientation

4.1 Introduction	153
4.2 Environmental Change: The Relationship Between the Three FE Colleges and the Environment	154
4.2.1 Organisations and the Environment	
4.2.2 The Enacted Environment of the three FE Colleges	

4.3 The Domain of Three FE Colleges	159
4.3.1 The Government Sector	
4.3.2 The Economic and the Technological Sectors	
4.3.3 The Socio-Demographic Sector	
4.3.4 The Related Institutions Sector	
4.4 The Perceptions of Marketing Orientation Among Three FE Colleges	189
4.4.1 The Perceived Definitions of Marketing Orientation among Groups	
4.4.2 The Tension between Two Camps	
4.5 Summary	207

Chapter 5 - Marketing Orientation in three FE Colleges: Organisational Co-ordination and Underlying Tension

5.1 Introduction	209
5.2 Management Commitment and Role-taking	210
5.2.1 Flexible, Commercial and Responsive	
5.2.2 Marketing is Quality	
5.2.3 By Chance Management	
5.2.4 Integration into the Process	
5.2.5 From Product-Oriented to Marketing-Oriented	
5.2.6 Marketing Stage	
5.3 Infrastructure Factors	223
5.3.1 The Change of Structure	
5.3.2 The Change of Culture	
5.4 Intergroup Dynamics	242
5.4.1 A Divide Between Cross-College Co-ordinators and Faculties	
5.4.2 A Divide Between Team Managers and Divisional Managers	
5.4.3 A Divide Between Marketing Faculty and Delivery Faculties	
5.4.4 Information Ownership	
5.5 Summary	248

Chapter 6 - Marketing Orientation in three FE Colleges: Employee Orientation and Underlying Tension

6.1 Introduction	250
6.2 Investigating an Employee Orientation	251
6.3 A Revolutionary and a Loyalist	251
6.3.1 A Revolutionary Model	
6.3.2 A Great Place to Work	
6.4 A Doubter and an Enthusiast	257
6.4.1 Unrest and Uncertainty	
6.4.2 A Realistic Approach	

6.5 A Traditionalist and a Power Seeker	261
6.5.1 The Lack of Communication and Training	
6.5.2 The Problems of Management Style and Communication	
6.6 Employees and Professionalism	266
6.7 The Development of an Employee Orientation	269
6.8 Summary	273

Chapter 7 - Marketing Orientation in Three FE Colleges: Client Orientation and the Underlying Problems

7.1 Introduction	274
7.2 Interaction Among Clients	275
7.3 Interaction Between Employees and Clients	277
7.3.1 Teaching Staff and Students	
7.3.2 Teaching Staff and Employing Organisations	
7.3.3 Other Staff Members and Clients	
7.4 Interaction Between Tangible Aspects and Clients	289
7.4.1 Course Provision and Clients	
7.4.2 Environment and Clients	
7.5 Interaction Between Intangible Aspects and Clients	296
7.6 The Development of a Client Orientation	302
7.7 Summary	307

Chapter 8 - Change Strategy for Adopting Marketing Orientation

8.1 Introduction	309
8.2 The Long-Term Survival Requirement	309
8.3 The Fourth Wave: Marketing Orientation	314
8.4 The Change Strategy for Marketing Orientation	318
8.4.1 Vision Building	
8.4.2 The Identification of the Present Orientation	
8.4.3 Gap analysis	
8.4.4 A Plan for Implementation	
8.4.5 Progress Monitoring	
8.5 Summary	330

Chapter 9 - Development of Marketing Orientation in a Professional Organisation: Conclusions and Implications

9.1 Introduction	332
9.2 A Research Method for a Professional Field	332

9.3 The Reality of Professionalism	333
9.4 The Emergence and Perception of Marketing Orientation	334
9.5 A Marketing-Orientation Framework and Professionalism	337
9.5.1 Tension Between Two Waves	
9.5.2 A Marketing Orientation Framework	
9.6 A Four Waves Model and a Change Strategy for Marketing Orientation	344
9.7 Managerial Implications	345
9.8 Directions for Further Research	347
9.9 Reflexive Account	348
9.10 Some Final Remarks	352

Appendices

Appendix 1	Formula Funding	354
Appendix 2	Efficiency and Effectiveness Monitors in FE	355
Appendix 3	Interview Schedules for college staff, students and industry	358

Bibliography	365
---------------------	-----

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Phillips (1984) identifies seven stages in the process of conducting PhD work: enthusiasm, isolation, increasing interest, increasing independence, boredom, frustration and a job to be finished. I have in fact gone through all the seven stages in the last four years. Now I am so pleased that I have finished the piece of work.

I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge my gratitude to my director of studies, Professor Tony Watson. I am so grateful for his unbounded patience and invaluable guidance. Without his supervision, I don't think I could have finished the thesis. I am also greatly indebted to Professor R.M.S. Wilson who initiated the research project and I must also thank him and Mr. Chris Phillips for their continuing encouragement and support as joint second supervisors. Thanks also to the colleagues who have given me support and advice.

I would also like to thank Pannell Kerr Forster, my sponsor, for providing the funding in the course of this work.

I am also indebted to all the interviewees who made this work possible. Without such information, my work might have been boring and lost much of its flavour.

The last but not least, special thanks to Sui, my husband, by taking up some domestic duties so that I could have more time in writing up the thesis.

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1	A framework for the study of professionalism	2
1.2	The trend of full-time equivalent student numbers	34
2.1	Stages of marketing development	57
2.2	The development of different orientations	56
2.3	Types of interaction	73
2.4	A simplified version of Calonijs's framework for market behaviour analysis	76
2.5	Customer/client orientation	77
2.6	Employee orientation	84
2.7	The corporate environment for marketing and implementation strategy	93
2.8	The framework of organisational co-ordination	96
2.9	Marketing orientation construct	101
2.10	Conceptual framework of client orientation	103
2.11	The relation between marketing orientation and long-term survival	106
3.1	Inductive and deductive approaches	115
3.2	Observation form	118
3.3	Hermeneutic cycle of pre-understanding and understanding	131
3.4	The groups being interviewed in the research	148
4.1	An organisation's environment	158
4.2	Five main sectors in the FE domain	160
4.3	The constituencies in the government sector	173
4.4	The unemployment trends from 1983 to 1992	175
4.5	The relationships between the economic & technological environment and FE college	177
4.6	Three main client groups of FE college	180
4.7	The groups in the related institutions sector	187
4.8	The external constituencies of the FE colleges	188
4.9	The scale associated with marketing orientation	196
5.1	Role-taking by top management	222
5.2	The new structure at AFE	226
5.3	The new structure of BFE	229
5.4	The new structure of CFE	232
5.5	The new structure and group dynamics	236
5.6	The traditional and quasi-marketing-oriented cultures	241
5.7	Inter-group dynamics	247
6.1	The implementation of an employee orientation	271
7.1	Interaction between employees and clients	278
7.2	Expectation and promises during the interaction between the employees and the clients	290
7.3	The interaction between the tangible aspects and the clients	297
7.4	Input and output systems	298
7.5	The interaction between the intangible aspects and the clients	303
8.1	Determinants of the long-run survival of a system	313
8.2	The four waves	315
8.3	The gap analysis of the three FE colleges	325
8.4	The steps for developing a change strategy for marketing orientation	329

LIST OF TABLES

1.1	A summary table showing the key features of the four approaches to understanding professionalism	10
1.2	Mode of attendance in FE in comparison with higher education and school for students aged 18 and over	27
1.3	Mode of attendance in the FE colleges from 1970/1 to 1990/1	28
1.4	Gender distribution of the attendance of FE courses from 1980/1 to 1990/1	35
1.5	Subjects chosen by FE students: comparing the statistics of 1978-81 with those of 1990/1	37
2.1	Three versions of marketing evolution	55
2.2	A summary table showing different orientations	67
3.1	The distribution of interviews among employing organisations	149
3.2	The distribution of interviews among students in individual colleges	150
4.1	The birth rate from 1951 to 2025	178
4.2	Age of students in further education	182
4.3	The response from three groups of people at the three FE colleges on the definition of marketing orientation	204
5.1	Role-taking of top management and a marketing orientation	223
5.2	Comparison of the marketing structures among the three FE colleges	233
5.3	Comparing the orientation of structures among three FE colleges	234
5.4	Comparison among traditional, quasi-marketing oriented and marketing oriented cultures	248
6.1	Employee orientation and the traditional-quasi marketing-marketing orientations framework	272
7.1	The client orientation and traditional-quasi marketing-marketing orientations	306
8.1	The model of "four waves"- traditional-sales-quasi marketing-marketing orientations	316
9.1	Tension between traditional and enterprise waves	337

INTRODUCTION

Professionalism and Marketing

Professionalism and marketing seem to involve contrasting principles. Professionals are generally perceived as those who "know best" in their particular area and marketers are those who attempt to "find out" the needs of the market. In the traditional professional organisations, eg. further education colleges and accounting firms, marketing languages and principles used to be regarded as "unprofessional". The thesis arose out of the researcher's interest in the development of marketing orientation in the professional fields. An accounting firm was originally adopted as a case study. After the end of the first year the access was terminated. (This will be discussed in Chapter 3). The empirical study was thus shifted to the further education field. Further education is seen as a traditional professional field where sporadic marketing practices had been adopted in a low profile with limited influence. In the last five years, due to environmental changes (especially after the 1988 Education Reform Act) marketing principles and practices have gained more popularity among the further education colleges.

Studies into the role of marketing in this field have tended to take a content approach in the sense that if you adopt a package of marketing tools your organisation may become more marketing-oriented. This, however, neglects the complicated contextual aspects of an organisation. It was felt that a processual approach should be taken in exploring and examining the development of marketing orientation and the problems involved. Thus a case study design was adopted to serve this purpose.

Between January 1991 and March 1992, three further education colleges were taken as case studies, two being in Nottingham and one in Leicester. Interviews, observations and archival information were used in gathering the relevant information on how people perceived the change generally and the role of marketing particularly. The contention of the research is:

1. to investigate the development and the compatibility of marketing orientation with the traditions and values of the colleges, ie. the clash between the marketing principle and the professional principle;
2. to identify the possibilities and problems of developing a marketing orientation, paying particular attention to their client orientation, employee orientation and the organisational co-ordination;
3. to suggest a change strategy associated with marketing orientation for the further education colleges in an attempt to improve their organisational effectiveness.

The Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into 9 chapters. The first two chapters focus on the literature review looking at the notions of professionalism and marketing orientation. Chapter 3 is the discussion of the particular research design and methods that I have adopted. From Chapters 4 to 7 the data is presented and analyzed based on the conceptual framework of marketing orientation that I developed in Chapter 2. In Chapter 8 a change strategy related to marketing orientation is recommended. The thesis is concluded in Chapter 9.

In Chapter 1 I will, first of all, explore the notion of professionalism and its relation with *clients* and *organisation*. This will help us understand the theories behind the conflict between professionalism and marketing. Further education is taken as a case study in examining the emergence of marketing in a professional field (which is due to environmental change). From the employment of the marketing concept among management people, the tension within further education has developed in such a way that two principles - a *professional principle* adopted by the traditional lecturers and a *managerial principle* adopted by the management - are in conflict with each other.

In order to understand the notion of marketing, based on the literature review, I will discuss the emergence of marketing, the difference between marketing concept and marketing orientation, and a conceptual framework of marketing orientation. From the

historical development of marketing, we can see a transformation of orientations. The three-wave development is called the *traditional-sales-marketing orientation*. This model has been applied to look at the development of marketing in further education. Also, to clarify the confusion between the marketing concept and marketing orientation the review will include the existing knowledge and ideas on these two notions. A conceptual framework and a working definition of a marketing orientation will be examined and presented. The framework is formed in a triangle comprising three behavioural components: *client orientation*, *employee orientation*, and *organisational co-ordination*. The *long-term survival requirement* is in the middle of the triangle because it is considered to be the ultimate aim of the implementation of a marketing orientation.

In Chapter 3 I will explain the research design and techniques I have adopted in investigating marketing orientation in the professional organisations, paying particular attention to the further education field. A case study approach is considered to be an appropriate way for the researcher to understand the inner organisational problems. The methods of data collection mainly included observation, interviewing, and information gathering. The issues on the access to the empirical field, including the personal attributes of the researcher, will be explored. This may provide the case study researchers with some references and guidance. The method of data analysis will also be mentioned in this chapter. Then I will draw on my experience of researching in the two professional fields, an accounting firm and three further education colleges. Here I will discuss the reasons for the termination of access in the accounting firm during the first year of researching and the shift to the further education field.

Chapter 4 looks at the changing environment and the emergence of marketing in further education. In the light of the findings, I will investigate the changes in different sectors, namely the government sector, the economic sector, the technological sector, the socio-economic sector, and the related institutions sector. The marketing principles and practices are seen mainly by the management as a way to improve their competitive edge in a volatile environment. However people at different levels in the colleges have different understandings on marketing. Based on the findings a scale has been developed (Fig. 4.9) which shows different perceptions among the interviewees. The scale is

composed of *selling/advertising, image, segment, needs, quality and integration levels*. The differences in perceptions are an essential reason in creating the tension between two camps, the management on one side and the lecturers are on the other side.

From Chapters 5 to 7 I will apply the three behavioural components of my conceptual framework to the three FE colleges in investigating the development of their marketing orientation. In the light of the findings I have developed a four-wave stages of development, namely: *traditional - sales - quasi-marketing - marketing orientations*. Chapter 5 looks at the notion of *organisational co-ordination*. It is argued that organisations need to be organised in a way which ensures long-term relationships with its customers. Three elements in this notion will be examined, they are: top management commitment and role-taking, infrastructure factors, and inter-group dynamics. From the six case studies (Section 5.2), different marketing roles the management take are dependent on how they perceive the meaning of marketing orientation. The infrastructure comprises the structural and cultural change. This can reflect the development of marketing orientation. The underlying tension between the managerial principle and the traditional principle (ie. the inter-group conflict) will be discussed and evaluated. Based on the findings a framework of an organisational co-ordination will be presented.

In Chapter 6 the second behavioural component of my conceptual framework - *employee orientation* - will be applied to the three FE colleges in examining how the colleges interact with their "internal customers" during the process of change. Here, I will use six characters from the colleges in investigating their personal orientations and the reasons for the underlying tensions. The six characters are: a revolutionary, a loyalist, a doubter, an enthusiast, a traditionalist, and a power seeker. The notion of professionalism will be explored and developed. This is often used by some employees (especially the ones who perceive that the changes do not provide them with desired rewards) as a way of protecting their own interest. A framework and model of employee orientation will be presented.

The last behavioural component of the conceptual framework - *client orientation* - will be applied to the three FE colleges in Chapter 7 in investigating their interaction with

their clients. Two main groups of clients are being used in the research project. They are the employing organisations and students. Here, I will look at four aspects of interaction, namely interaction among clients, interaction between employees and clients, interaction between tangible aspects and clients, and interaction between intangible aspects and clients. In the light of the findings the development and a model of client orientation will be presented and discussed.

After data is analyzed and presented, a change strategy for adopting the notion of marketing orientation will be suggested in Chapter 8. Here the notion of long-term survival will be highlighted and discussed because it is considered to be the ultimate aim for the implementation of marketing orientation. This research attempted to bring out the underlying problems in developing marketing orientation. The change strategy has provided the management in the further education colleges with a way of identifying their problems, finding out the gap and planning for proper implementation. A generic theory and model will be presented in examining how marketing orientation can be developed in the professional organisation.

In the final chapter my aim of bringing social science thinking to the field of marketing in achieving a philosophical level of analysis will be discussed. Some important factors, which affect the extent of success in implementing marketing orientation, will be highlighted for the present and for the future. A reflexive account on the process of researching and a suggestion for further work will be discussed.

CHAPTER 1 : PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATION AND THE MARKETING IMPERATIVE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

To understand the issues which arise when we look at the application of *marketing ideas and practices* to the further education field (FE) in Britain we have to recognise a key tension which underlies many of these issues. This is the tension between the business and commercial values associated with marketing on the one hand and the non-commercial, or even anti-commercial, values associated with the "professional" identities of people working in FE on the other.

Insofar as a considerable number of the staff members in FE institutions see themselves as "professional" workers rather than "business" employees, we can expect them to tend to resist the intrusion of a new wave - marketing influences - in their institutions. This chapter will show why this might be the case. It will explore the tension that is likely to exist in any organisation which can be characterised as a "professional organisation" between a likely desire to maintain a certain distance from business or commercial styles of thinking and operating and a recognised need to function and succeed in an increasingly competitive world.

It is because the context for FE has become an increasingly turbulent one requiring colleges to work hard to defend and expand their "markets" that their attention has had to turn to marketing principles and practices. The world is changing fast and the historical desire of those who label themselves as professionals to maintain distance from such seemingly commercial activities as marketing may affect the long-term development of colleges. In the contemporary world, however, the principles of professionalism and those of marketing cannot be treated as mutually exclusive. Indeed, one purpose of this thesis is to explore the possibility that marketing opens up a new horizon for FE professionals to view the relationships between themselves and their organisation, and between their organisation and its environment, in a new way. The chapter will investigate these matters by, first, looking at the broad issue of professionalism and

professional organisations whereby I will present five approaches to professionalism and discuss the relation between "professional" people and their clients as well as their organisation (see **Fig. 1.1**); second, looking at the specific case of FE colleges as one type of professional organisation where we see the tension between a tendency to resist the growth of a *marketing orientation* and a recognition of *marketing imperatives*.

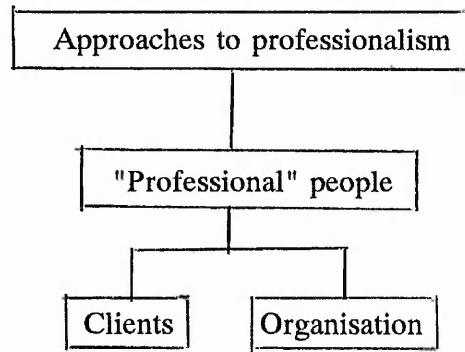


Fig. 1.1 A framework for the study of professionalism

1.2 UNDERSTANDING PROFESSIONALISM

1.2.1 The Variety of Approaches

Since Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1964) gave their systematic account of the historical development of those occupations commonly identified as professions, society has been changing and growing. Various occupations not looked at in that classic study have come to claim professional status. As Goode (1961) said, "an industrializing society is a professionalising society". Wilensky (1964) also perceived that the occupational group of the future will combine elements from both "the professional and bureaucratic models".

In the academic consideration of professions and professionalism, three themes have tended to dominate: first, debates about which occupations may and which may not be designated as professions (see Section 1.2.1.1); second, examination of the processes of "professionalisation", whereby certain occupations take on the characteristics of

traditional "professions" (see Section 1.2.1.2); and, third, studies of the tensions between bureaucratization and professionalisation as modes of controlling occupational activity (see Section 1.2.3).

Taking these in turn, the debate about what are and what are not professions has seen the taking up of a variety of positions. According to Dingwall & Lewis (1983: 19), for example, some sociologists tend to emphasise professional occupations' claim to be "honoured servants of public need, conceiving of them as occupations especially distinguished from others by their orientation to serving the needs of the public through the schooled application of their unusually esoteric knowledge and complex skill". Political scientists, in contrast, are inclined to see professions as "privileged private governments" (Gilb, 1966) whilst economists are inclined to observe them as the "closed, monopolistic character of the professionalised labor market" (Friedman, 1962).

In addition to all of these are various lay usages whereby - in what Becker (1970: 90) calls "the ordinary intercourse of our society" - the label of "profession" is used simply to "refer to certain kinds of work and not to others". To develop a position on professions and professionalism which can help us understand the situation of FE in Britain and how its "professional" element relates to efforts to develop marketing orientation we can review the various theoretical perspectives which are on offer.

Dingwall & Lewis (1983: 1) provide a clear direction on this. They state that Talcott Parsons (1939) and Everett Hughes (1960) offer the starting points for understanding professions. It will be helpful, therefore, to look at the structural functional approach associated with Parsons first, then the processual emphasis initiated by Hughes. The more recent developments which have, in the one case, a more structural political-economic emphasis and, in the other, a symbolic interactionist stress, will then be considered.

1.2.1.1 The Structural Functionalists' Static Approach

Parsons uses what is widely called a "trait" approach to identifying professions. He asserts that "there is little doubt about the central occupational characteristics of the professional" (1968). According to him, there is social significance for the professional groups in society. They are not only rational and functional specific in their authority but have the attributes of "universalism", "disinterestedness" and a "collectivity-orientation rather than self-orientation"(1939). This latter trait is analogous to Goode's "service orientation" (1961) and it relates to the anti-commercialism alluded to earlier (and illustrated by a typical opposition to advertising among professionals). To act commercially through advertising or marketing services, Parsons argues, would imply an interest in gain or self-interest. To market a profession's services would thus tend to undermine one of its central claims to high honorific status: it would be to abandon its claimed altruistic orientation. However, it is noticed that in modern society many professional people, eg. doctors, lawyers and accountants, are involved with some kinds of marketing activities. Thus, it would lead us to reflect on whether Parsons' argument can meet the needs of a changing society.

Sharing the same approach, MacIver (1955) and Caplow (1954) state that "ethical codes", "cultural norms" and "mores and folkways peculiar to the calling" are used to guide the professionals' behaviour in their relations with individuals outside the group. Professional associations are formed to enforce these standards, so that the services they provide are "altruistic".

Many sociologists have developed lists of elements to characterise an ideal type of profession. For example, Greenwood (1957) identified five essential elements and Millerson (1964) provided six characteristics after a major literature review. On reviewing all the material, five elements can be highlighted:

(1) "skill" or competency based on a systematic body of theory and esoteric knowledge (Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1964; Greenwood, 1957; Millerson, 1964; Wilensky, 1964);

(2) authority recognized by clients and "approved" by a broad community (Goode, 1960; Greenwood, 1957; Caplow, 1966);

(3) external and internalized code of ethics regulating relations of professional persons with clients and colleagues (Goode, 1960; Greenwood, 1957; Millerson, 1964; Caplow, 1966; Wilensky, 1964);

(4) a professional culture sustained by formal professional associations (Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1964; Goode, 1960; Greenwood, 1957; Caplow, 1966; Wilensky, 1964); and

(5) altruistic service (Marshall, 1939; Parsons, 1939; Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1964; Millerson, 1964; Goode, 1966; Wilensky, 1964).

These are the elements of an "ideal type". In practice, is there any occupation which is likely to have all the elements in full? Also, are these traits time bound? As time moves on, can the traits be still applicable?

In response to the newly emerged occupations, some scales have even been offered against which an occupation can be compared to identify its degree of "professionalism". For example, Carr-Saunders (1955) identified four types of profession in an attempt at differentiating various occupations over their degree of professionalism. They are: *old established professions* where a systematic body of knowledge is founded and members follow the mode of behaviour, eg. law and medicine; *new professions* which have their own fundamental studies, eg. engineers and chemists; *semi-professions* which have precise technical skill, eg. nursing and pharmacy; *would-be-professions* where members intend to acquire a professional status, eg. business people. Reiss (1955) offers one more category entitled the *marginal professions* where members perform technical assignments, eg. laboratory technicians. These scales seem to offer each occupation its status in relation to the idea of a profession and it assumes that a profession has certain "trait" characteristic.

Structural functionalists have received lots of criticism about their over-functionalism. Their "differentia specifica" does not apply consistently across professions and there are variations in the conceptions of central values. Like law, professionalism can be seen as involving a normative system rather than a scientific body of knowledge (cf. Rueschemeyer, 1964). This corresponds to Freidson's (1970) criticism of the

functionalists as merely focusing on structural aspects at the expense of orientations and ideology. Its emphasis on the positive functions has only provided us with a narrow scope on how to view occupations and is too static to be applied to a changing society. Alternative dynamic perspectives may thus be needed.

1.2.1.2 A Processual Dynamic Approach

The 1960s can be regarded as a watershed in the study of professional occupations. Before that, the literature on professions emphasised their positive function and its societal contribution. The recent literature sees professions in a wider context.

Everett Hughes adopted a processual approach to understanding professions. He claimed that the significant point about occupations is not whether they are professions but to what extent they manifest the attributes of "professionalization". His contribution centred on the development of two concepts: *licence* and *mandate* (1960). Every occupation has its own implicit or explicit licence in order to carry out formal exchange relationship with its own constituencies. If an occupation's members intend to have what Dingwall & Lewis (1983: 5) describe as "any sense of community by virtue of their shared work experience", they need to have a mandate to define their proper behaviour. For example, doctors have the mandate to provide operations and lawyers have the mandate to regulate the problems of rights. Hughes sees occupations in relation to profession as being differences in degree rather than kind. Thus, any occupation can obtain the status of profession if the licence is reconstructed and the mandate is enlarged. His contribution lies in the fact that he manifested a mechanism in open society where not only individuals but also the entire groups within the society have the opportunity of social mobility. Thus professionalization is seen as an essential element in modern society.

His dynamic approach is shared by Vollmer and Mills (1966). They shift the focus from a static approach as a distinct type of profession to a process by which occupations are professionalised. This is a great leap from profession to professionalization. As Dingwall & Lewis (1983: 6) state,

Professionalising occupations are a zone of transition, a point of change from which new social forms are emerging.

As society is changing to become more complicated, more and more occupations emerge. The "profession" can no longer be seen merely in a static and ideal-type way because this is to miss some vital aspects of professionalism and its relationship to aspects of its environment.

This is suggested by criticisms made of both trait and processual approaches. The criticisms of Dingwall & Lewis (1983) over Parsons' and Hughes' argument centre on the fact that they both neglect to relate profession to values, organisation and practice. They stress that Parsons is "very vague about the sources of values, their transmission and their internalisation as regulators of work standards" (*ibid*: 7) and the emphasis of Hughes on the relationship between professions and moral order has led to a "downgrading of values in favour of an analysis which often owed more to a maximal self-interest model" (*ibid*).

The two traditions have faced a crucial criticism in that they ignore the exchange relationship of professions with a wider context. Dingwall & Lewis argue their neglect of "the role of the marketplace and the professions' wider contract with their society" (*ibid*). Thereafter, the emphasis has tended to shift from trying to distinguish professions from other occupations to relating them to the market and wider societal context.

1.2.1.3 Structural Political-Economic Emphasis

In order to fill the gap identified by Dingwall & Lewis, another approach emerged which can be called a structural political-economic emphasis. Writers such as Johnson (1972), Larson (1977) and Friedson (1970) abandon attempts to identify an exhaustive list of traits of professions and emphasize their relations to a set of circumstances.

Johnson relates professions to political-economic elites and the state. Larson attributes the increasing importance of professions to the process of urbanisation and capitalist industrialisation. In spite of autonomy, professionals adopt self-control and are controlled by their client groups through "the choice of practitioners in the market" and the terms of employment in organisations. She believes there is a key relationship among the market, the class system and professional occupations.

In the study of medicine, Friedson (1970) sees no point in struggling for a single definition of profession. He emphasises the political aspects of professionalism. Every profession is attached to a position in the political and economic arena. Although this is limited to exercising authority in matters relating to everyday professional work, their authority helps them to "maintain a privileged and autonomous position" free of lay control and thus advantages them in a broader economic and political context. "professional self-control" is only secondary in his eyes. It is not there for its own sake but to give control over the work done by professionals. Thus he says,

A profession is distinct from other occupations in that it has been given the right to control its own work (Ibid: 71).

He also stresses that professional organisations use the label of profession to ensure their institutional independence and other privileges (Ibid: 185-7). Indeed, profession is a powerful label to enable "experts" or professionals to protect their interests and status in order to maintain autonomy in the class system.

Sharing the similar view, Becker (1970) uses a symbolic interactionist approach to claim that the *symbol* of profession can help increase prestige. However, his theory is different from Friedson's in the sense that he argues that it is the desire of people to seek the rewards of being in a profession rather than protecting the rewards they have obtained. Becker's approach can be considered in its own right as a symbolic interactionist contribution.

1.2.1.4 Symbolic Interactionist Approach

Everybody seeks to make sense out of the social world and interpret the meanings of the surrounding environment. This subjective aspect of life should be considered when we try to understand professionalism. In the interactionist literature, instead of regarding the profession as a "reality", it is argued that it is a "symbol" (Becker, 1970). This, indeed, is partly recognised by others in expressions such as "state of mind" (Vollmer & Mills, 1966) or a "professional label" (Dingwall & Lewis, 1983).

Becker in his work argues that "profession" has a "symbolic meaning":

The names carry a great deal of symbolic meaning, which tends to be incorporated into the identity....these meanings are often systematized into elaborate ideologies which itemize the qualities, interests, and capabilities of those identified (1970: 178).

Becker uses two dimensions to view professions: *symbols* and *reality*. For *symbols*, he means "a set of interconnected characteristics which symbolize a morally praiseworthy kind of occupational organisation" (1970: 93). These include an esoteric body of knowledge, strict recruitment, lengthy training and entrance into professional practice. The "honorific symbol" implies "altruistic motivations" which are governed by a code of ethics. These "symbols" are analogous to the notion of elements in the structural functionalists' approach (see Section 1.2.1.1). Since profession is morally praiseworthy and highly valued, it receives a high level of trust from other groups of people, including other organisations and clients.

However, in *reality*, there is no absolute autonomy. Professionals relate to superiors in organisations; clients use their lay judgment to choose professionals; professionals rely on referrals and so on. In spite of this, "profession" is a popular title in modern industrial society. Becker explains, "because the title of profession expresses a positive moral evaluation many work groups seek it" (1970: 91).

In contrast with the functionalists' approach of attempting to characterize what a profession is, this approach strives to investigate why the label of profession is significant. The notion of "symbolic meaning" is important in the sense that it helps us to understand the phenomenon where more people in occupations have attempted to claim themselves to be professionals. In contemporary society, according to this view, defining whether an occupation is a profession or not is beside the point. The professional label is used to seek morally praiseworthy rewards or to protect their influence and interest. (A table is presented to show the key features of the above approaches - see **Table 1.1**).

APPROACHES TO UNDERSTANDING PROFESSIONALISM	Structural-Functionalists' Approach	Processual Approach	Structural Political-Economic Emphasis	Symbolic-Interactionist Approach
TIME FOR THE EMERGENCE OF THE APPROACHES	1930s	1960s	1970s	1970s
PROONENTS	Parsons, Carr-Saunders, etc.	Hughes	Friedson, Johnson and Larson	Becker
EMPHASIS	An attempt to define whether an occupation is a profession or not	To what extent an occupation manifests the attributes of professional-ization	Occupations are related to a set of circumstances	Subjective aspect of professionalism
CONTENT	1.Emphasized trait characters: eg.systematic body of theory, code of ethics, recognised authority, professional culture, and altruistic service 2.rational and functional specific in their authority	1.Developed "licence" & "mandate" 2.an occupation obtains the status of profession if the licence is reconstructed & the mandate is enlarged	1.Every profession is in the political-economic arena and this gives professionals control over work 2.the label of profession enables professionals to protect their interests and maintain autonomy	1.Profession has a symbolic meaning of expressing a positive evaluation 2.the label of profession is used to seek morally praiseworthy rewards

Table 1.1 A summary table showing the key features of the four approaches to understanding professionalism

1.2.1.5 Professionalism in the Present Study

Having now reviewed these various approaches to understanding professionalism I am able to adopt a position to be applied in my study of FE, an area in which we often see the label or language of professionalism being used. Drawing on insights from all of

these traditions, but especially from the latter two, the position is taken that the language and concepts of "professionalism" are rhetorical resources used by various actors in FE to further or to defend their position - typically to resist managerial "interference" with their autonomy (freedom to act as they personally choose). This will be explored further below.

1.2.2 Understanding Professionalism and Clients

To understand the relevance of the ideas of professionalism to the defence of autonomy of an occupational group as stressed above, we need to look at what this means for the relationship between those utilising the "resource" of professional language and their "clients". We can then turn, in the next section, to the implications of the professionalism concept for the relationship of these people to the organisations in which they work.

In reviewing the literature on professionalism, it is seen that there are two poles of emphasis on the relationship between "professionals" and clients. At one end, it is emphasised that professionals have authority and sovereignty over clients; at the other end, clients are seen as capable of asserting some "lay" control over the profession.

Writers such as Marshall (1939), Greenwood (1957) and Johnson (1972) tend towards the first type of emphasis. They note the extent to which clients are willing to be "dictated to" by professionals, because they (the clients) are "unorganised, dependent, exploitable, diverse interests" (Johnson 1972: 51). The relationship is one to one "initiated by the client and terminated by the professional". Thus "solo practice is the norm" (*ibid*: 52). The professionals draw upon "systematic theory" (Greenwood) to guide their performance. Their service is dependent on "individual qualities and individual judgment supported by individual responsibility.....not concerned with self-interest, but with the welfare of the client" (Marshall 1939: 158-9). Because of the altruism of their service ethic, professionals have the responsibility and the ability to judge the needs of clients. Dingwall & Lewis (1983) refer here to "professional pride". It seems that esoteric knowledge and altruism are good enough to win authority over clients. This, however,

is to neglect the changing needs and demands of clients as well as the power of their free-will choices in a society becoming ever more complicated.

In contrast with this first emphasis, other writers stress the discrepancies between ideology and reality (eg. Becker, 1970; Elliott, 1972; Dingwall & Lewis, 1983). The work of these writers encourages us to contemplate how clients might exercise their "lay" power. Becker, for example, lays great stress on the gap between ideology and reality. He states that members of such occupations typically have some image of the ideal client, and they use this fiction to fashion their conceptions of how their work ought to be performed, and their actual work techniques (1970: 137).

He uses the concept "symbol" to describe a profession's ideology. The "symbol" suggests that professionals have an "altruistic motivation" and "code of ethics" to work for the welfare of clients. In this way, clients are encouraged to trust them. As Becker claims,

[The client] rests comfortable in the knowledge that this is one relationship in which the rule of the market place does not apply. He need not beware (sic) but can give his full trust and confidence to the professional who is handling his problems; the service given him will be competent and unselfish (*ibid*: 95).

In line with Becker, Elliott notes that the ideology of professionalism is to ensure "autonomy and independence" (1972: 104). This image demands clients to give up their own judgement and responsibility "leaving everything in the hands of the professional" (*Op Cit*, 1970: 96).

However, it is evident that clients vary greatly in their wants and their confidence. They are often able to make the choice in spite of a lack of certain esoteric knowledge. Becker asserts that they indeed have rights over such matters: "clients reserve a right of judgement denied to them by the symbol" (1970: 100). Clients may choose which professional to turn to depending on the latter's "reputation among laymen for his practice" (*ibid*: 101).

Dingwall & Lewis, using a political-economic approach to stress the potential for clients' control, noted two main ways in which clients might exercise their influence (through their choice of practitioners in the market and through the terms of employment of professionals in their organisation) even where the professions have secured a large measure of autonomy for themselves (1983: 48).

Furthermore, clients vary in terms of their types and roles. Elliott argues that the degree of a profession's "autonomy and independence" is dependent on what role clients play and they observe that "different types of clients may have different conceptions of the client role" (1972: 104). The question always arising is that of whether the esoteric knowledge (or "scientific body of knowledge") is sensitive enough to the changing needs and demands of clients.

The development of a marketing orientation in the area of "professional" activity we are considering here - FE - implies an undermining of the implied superior-subordinate relationship between professionals and clients. The "professionals", if they can indeed still be so called in a market-oriented context, would take an "entrepreneurial" attitude to discovering clients' needs and wants. This would be a continuous process. It is possible, in this way, to see the improvement of the relationship between professionals and clients through the development of the kind of marketing orientation to be discussed in the next chapter. But this would involve overcoming the tension between traditional professional principles of the professional "knowing best" and more entrepreneurial or commercial principles of "finding out" what service is required by clients.

This would still leave, though, another tension to be handled: that between traditional professional principles and principles of bureaucratic organisation. It is to this we now turn.

1.2.3 Understanding Professionalism and Organisation

The tension between professionalism and the bureaucratization of organisation has been widely discussed (eg. Scott, 1966; Harries-Jenkins, 1970; Davies, 1983; Mintzberg, 1983). The tension arises primarily from the fact that the professionals' authority base does not derive from their location in a bureaucratic hierarchy but from their claim to a schooled esoteric knowledge and an altruistic commitment. This commitment first and foremost to the interests of the client (and hence to "society") justifies a professional claim not to be tied to any hierarchy of a bureaucratic nature. This relates to the tradition of dentists and private doctors having clients pay fees directly to them. As Becker comments,

Professionals claim and are often accorded complete autonomy in their work. Since they are presumed to be the only judges of how good their work is, no layman or other outsider can make any judgment of what they do (1970: 96).

However, bureaucratic organisations are guided by, in Max Weber's terms, "impersonality". As Beckman notes, "bureaucratic authority is rooted in what people do...is goal rational in the sense that it serves a task or purpose" (1990: 128). Procedures and generalised rules are significant for organisations to achieve maximum efficiency at the expense of individual expert knowledge.

Davies describes the professional/bureaucratic conflict as follows :

Profession and bureaucracy were thought to be antithetical both at the level of structural principles for organising work and at the level of motivation and compliance. The attempted insertion of 'professionals' into 'bureaucratic organisations' was a readily recognisable sociological problem. Terms such as 'strain', 'conflict', 'accommodation', 'adjustment' were central (1983: 177).

In modern societies, the two institutions of bureaucracy and professionalism frequently overlap. William Goode (1961) suggests that an industrializing society is a professionalising society. Yet it is argued with similar frequency that an industrializing

society is also a bureaucratizing society. Vollmer & Mills comment that "no profession has escaped the advancing tide of bureaucratization" (1966: 264). The two principles come together as the notion of the "professional organisation" has emerged. This is what Mintzberg calls "professional bureaucracy" (1983) and is found in hospitals, schools, colleges and the like.

Mintzberg claims that professional bureaucracy is a unique feature of contemporary society. In a pure form it would look like this:

It is democratic, disseminating its power directly to its workers (at least those who are professional). And it provides them with extensive autonomy, freeing them even of the need to coordinate closely with their peers, and all the pressures and politics that entails. Thus, the professional has the best of both worlds: he is attached to an organization, yet is free to serve his clients in his own way, constrained only by the established standards of his profession (1983: 205).

Mintzberg starts by stressing the gains the professionals have obtained by being located in organisations. Unlike in the "machine bureaucracy" in which operators are submissive to the superiors, "professional operators" have a degree of autonomy which acts as their "shield" against hierarchical authority, enabling them to work independently and perfect their skills. Nevertheless, Mintzberg helps us to understand the nature of tensions that arise in the real world as we move away from the "ideal type" he has set up. He does this by identifying three kinds of problem occurring in practice in professional organisations. These are:

1. Problems of coordination: Mintzberg reckons that only by standardization of work processes in the operating core can the work be co-ordinated well according to traditional bureaucratic principles. However, it is ineffective to standardize the complex work done by professionals. How can you ask teachers teaching the same subjects to have the same conversation with their students in class, for example? Also, it is difficult for professionals to co-ordinate with supporting staff who may be pulled between the professionals and the bureaucratic system. Additionally, professionals are "collections

of individuals who come together to draw on common resources and support services but otherwise want to be left alone" (*ibid*: 207). This would fit with the claim I frequently met that lecturers in FE traditionally spent most of their time in "class contact". The extent to which this can be the case is illustrated by an interesting event I witnessed when a marketing person in a large FE college showed a video in the staff canteen about the facilities of that college. When it came to the gymnastic facilities, he was asked by a member of staff who had been working there for over eight years where this gymnasium was.

2. Problems of discretion: there is no objective way to measure the output of professional work. This means that it is risky to keep the "incompetent or unconscientious" professionals. Somebody may just care about their income at the expense of clients. A teacher may just recite his/her outdated notes in the class. This means-ends inversion cannot be checked easily. It ignores not only the needs of clients but also the needs of organisation. Although we know that co-operation is crucial in the administrative structure, according to Mintzberg, "as we saw, professionals resist it furiously" (*ibid*: 209).

3. Problems of innovation: an unwillingness to co-operate may hinder innovation or changes where teamwork is necessary. Moreover, since the professionals "see the specific situation in terms of the general concept", ie. in deductive reasoning, "new problems are forced into old pigeonholes" (*ibid*). Thus, it makes it difficult to implement change among the professional operators. Whenever there is change there is the possibility of political clashes. This will be seen to arise in FE where grievance and low morale have occurred among lecturers as they are asked to take up new administrative duties, including budgeting (see Section 5.3.2). In Mintzberg's word, these tasks cannot be "pigeonholed" using the traditional categories of their body of knowledge.

When the environment is stable, professionals can continue to specialize in their work and perfect their skills. However, a dynamic environment needs dynamic attitudes in which people are ready to accept or initiate any change. Professional attitudes are not congruent with an innovative spirit. More "entrepreneurial professionals" would be willing to

change themselves to fit with new circumstances. Nevertheless, the "traditional ones" are still happy to label themselves as "professional" and resist any change. As the research will show, innovation comes to be labelled as "gimmicks played by the management".

When these two different philosophies and cultures mix together, tension is unavoidable. On the one hand, professionals need to try very hard to protect their independence and autonomy, while on the other hand, subject to the organisation, they are employees under certain official authority. They climb up the career ladder set by the organisation. In this way, they are forced to lose some autonomy in such bureaucratic systems. This tension may badly affect individuals' work orientation, the relationship with the other groups inside and outside the organisation, and the consequent organisational performance. In the light of the framework for the study of professionalism (see Fig. 1.1), I have a focus when the notion of marketing orientation is investigated in the FE field. Before the change in FE is examined, I will set the scene by discussing the permeation of marketing in a considerable number of sectors.

1.3 UNDERSTANDING PROFESSIONALISM AND MARKETING

A tension between professional and bureaucratic aspects of the functioning of organisations has now been identified as has its manifestation in the form of a resistance to managerial control generally and marketing principles specifically by those adopting "professional" values. In this section, I will examine the permeation of marketing into "professional organisations" generally and the not-for-profit sector specifically. This will set the context for the discussion of the adoption of marketing in the education field.

1.3.1 Professional services sector and marketing

The marketing of professional services has been an area of interest to marketing academics since 1960s (Wittreich, 1966; Wilson, 1972). However, it had not gained widespread acceptance (especially among the "professionals" themselves) before the mid-1980s in spite of years of lengthy debate (Bloom, 1984; Kotler & Bloom, 1984). Over

the past thirty years, a considerable number of marketing academics and practitioners had tried to encourage the professionals to adopt the marketing concept and principles (eg. Kotler & Connor, 1977; Stiff, 1981; Turner, 1969; Wilson, 1972). The word "professionals" in their argument is used to refer to those who have technical competency and are controlled by a code of ethics, and are regarded by the broad community as being "professionals". Examples would be management consultants, dentists, doctors and architects. From the way they define professionalism one can argue that they have taken a structural functionalist approach (see Section 1.2.1.1).

In his definition, Wilson (1972) identifies "professional services" as producer services in which "facilitating services"¹ and "advisory and consultative services"² are encompassed. His emphasis is on professional services for organisational, as opposed to personal, consumption. Examples are computing, architecture and management consultancy. Kotler & Connor (1977) adopt a wider concept of professional services. In defining the term "professional services marketing", they refer to:

Organized activities and programs by professional services firms that are designed to retain present clients and attract new clients by sensing, serving, and satisfying their needs through delivery of appropriate services on a paid basis in a manner consistent with creditable professional goals and norms (1977: 72).

Clients are not only organisations but are individuals who are able to pay in order to seek or obtain specific "professional" advice or benefits. The examples they have given include banks, airlines, medicine, law and accounting. In the early 1970s, the marketing of professional services was regarded by Wilson (1972) as "non-existent" even in those services which themselves offered marketing advice. However, since the mid-1970s the traditional ban against advertising among the professionals was lifted by governments in different countries. Professionals were encouraged to have their own marketing activities, eg. doctors, lawyers, accountants, dentists and physiotherapists (cf. Harris,

¹ These mean the services which offer to facilitate the productive operations of organisations, P.3.

² These mean the services which provide general or specific technical expertise and intelligence, P.3.

1981; Stiff, 1981). The obvious example is the change in the accounting field. The U.S. accounting firms started to solicit the clients of their competitors in 1977, the British accountants began to advertise in 1981, and the development of advertising started within the accounting profession in Australia in 1979 (cf. Yau & Wong, 1990).

A considerable amount of research has been done to show the permeation of marketing in different professions. Bradlow (1986) uses the case study of an accounting firm to show how it adopted marketing techniques and how it was able to position itself in the San Francisco Bay Area. In their research, McNulty et. al. (1992) point out how the roles and ideology of management have changed in the hospitals and industrial R&D laboratories in order to adapt to marketing values. A positioning strategy had been adopted within the opticians' market in projecting a distinct image since 1984 and several large optician chains had even used a multi-positioning marketing strategy for different market segments (Fulop & Warren, 1992). According to Morgan's study (1990), marketing exists as a legitimate management function in the consulting engineering profession. However, he sees the presence of marketing there in terms of the "trappings" rather than the "substance" of marketing.

The introduction of marketing to these professional activities has been widely recognised as facing a number of barriers. First, marketing is associated with the idea of commercialism which is found distasteful by professionals (cf. Kotler & Connor, 1977; Morgan, 1990). According to Kotler & Connor (1977), many professionals show hostility towards the implication that they are motivated by money instead of a desire to provide altruistic services to clients. In addition, the selection of a firm by clients on the basis of fee competition rather than on technical competence and ability is regarded as inappropriate. Second, the code of ethics has developed a barrier for the effective use of marketing (cf. Kotler & Connor, 1977; McNulty et. al., 1992). Many professionals claim that they have their own standards of good practice and therefore are better placed to judge the needs of clients. The shifts towards "consumer-driven production" may, in Keat's argument (1991), "indicate an increasingly active and non-deferential mode of consumption that challenges in various ways the privilege or authority of the producer". Third, marketing is equated with selling (Dumesic, 1984; Kotler & Connor, 1977).

Before the 1970s, advertising was banned in many professions. They showed little interest in the subject of marketing (Kotler & Connor, *ibid*). In Dumesic's (*ibid*) accounting firm, she observed that professionals did not want to commit their time to "selling the service".

In the 1990s, even though marketing is more widespread than previously among many professions, the barriers identified above have not been eliminated. In my research in further education, it will be shown that the tension between marketing, associated with commercial values, and traditions associated with a professional ideology is still apparent.

Before this is considered, however, further contextualisation can be achieved by looking at the not-for-profit sector in relation to the permeation of marketing. One can see the widespread influence of marketing in a variety of institutions.

1.3.2 Not-for-profit sector and marketing

In the public and non-profit sector, marketing has not been a traditional element in the functions of organisations (Hannagan, 1992). Usually customers sought the services on offer. If the generation of demand was necessary, it was often done by word of mouth. Nevertheless, due to the changes in funding, the appearance of new competition, and the emergence of increased buyers' needs, many non-profit organisations have turned to possible solutions such as marketing. Examples include hospitals, colleges, museums, postal services, and libraries (Hannagan, *ibid*; Kotler, 1982). According to Kotler (1982), a number of non-profit institutions have started to adopt marketing practices one way or another since the 1970s. In her study of marketing planning in the public and non-profit sector, Cousins (1990) found out that companies in this sector are as likely to produce an annual marketing plan as companies in the commercial sector although the plans had a more tactical marketing mix bias.

In terms of marketing in the non-profit sector, Weinberg and Lovelock (1978) identify four major characteristics of non-profit organisations. First, these organisations have multiple publics. According to Weinberg and Lovelock (*ibid*), the two major publics are

clients and funders. Nevertheless, there are other publics surrounding the organisations. In the college context, there are prospective and present students, alumni, staff, government agencies and local business people and so on. Second, these organisations serve multiple objectives. For example, in the FE context, the objectives may comprise providing quality education and training to meet the different needs of a variety of groups. Third, they provide services rather than physical goods. Services have the characteristics of intangibility, inseparability and heterogeneity (Cowell, 1984). Thus, the education offered by a college is intangible; a lecturer produces and delivers the service at the same time and the quality of the delivery is dependent on individuals. Fourth, they are under public scrutiny. In Kotler's term (1982), they are "mandated into existence" because they provide necessary public services. They experience constant pressure from different interest groups and are expected to operate in the public interest. Weinberg and Lovelock (*ibid*) suggest that one needs to keep these characteristics in mind when marketing principles are applied to the non-profit sector. In fact, many of these characteristics appear in profit-oriented organisations one way or another. In my opinion, the major difference is that a non-profit organisation tends to maximize its service output from a fund instead of maximizing profit from selling a service. Marketers may need to take all these factors into account.

As in the widely accepted "professional" fields, such as accounting, medicine, and law, many people in non-profit organisations have negative attitudes towards marketing (Kotler, 1982). Kotler (*ibid*) identifies three main reservations: marketing wastes the public's money such as spending a lot of money on advertising; marketing activities are intrusive in the sense that one needs to "intrude" into people's personal lives in order to gather data when under-taking market research, for example; and marketing is manipulative in the sense that marketers use different methods to convince people to accept their message. From these criticisms we can see some fundamental doubts about marketing in this area. Marketing is being regarded as a manipulative activity rather than as a philosophy focusing on the buyer's point of view. (The idea and framework of marketing orientation will be discussed in Chapter 2).

Education can be seen as a professional not-for-profit area. The educationalists work within a bureaucratic system at the same time as having a trained "professional" expertise. In the educational context, we can nevertheless see the influence of marketing ideas in different educational institutions such as primary schools, secondary schools, FE colleges, and universities.

1.3.3 Education and marketing

Walle (1990) claims that marketing has become one of the "sexy buzzwords" of contemporary education. Like museums and hospitals, schools, colleges and universities used to view themselves as institutions where marketing was unnecessary. Nevertheless, increasing environmental complexity has increased the pressure on educationalists to use marketing principles to develop a competitive position.

The Education Reform Act and Local Management of Schools (LMS) have far-reaching implications for primary schools (Hardie, 1991; Sullivan, 1991). The 1980s' Education Acts have empowered the position of parents in schools. With the concept of open enrolment introduced in the 1988 Education Act, parents are allowed to send their children to any school in principle. This has put pressure on schools to make themselves well-known. In addition, under the Local Management of Schools, schools have a greater responsibility for managing their own finances. Hardie (1991) argues that it can mean that Local Education Authorities will be encouraged to close undersubscribed schools. Schools need to attract more pupils to maintain their services in order to survive.

In the secondary sector, the LMS and Grant Maintained Schools (GMS) introduced by the 1988 Education Act have changed the maintained schools fundamentally. These features, combined with the formula funding³ and open enrolment, have encouraged the schools to market themselves (Davies & Ellison, 1991). Foskett (1992) argues that the

³ This has linked pupil numbers and school budgets in a direct way in the sense that the more pupils it has the more funding a school receives.

management of external relations has become a central challenge to schools and colleges. He recommends some ideas on maintaining a close link with different constituencies. This implies a need for marketing.

In the further and higher education (FHE) sector, marketing started to become an area of interest in the mid-1980s. Scribbins and Davies (1989) state that before 1984 there was little or even no experience within FHE in committing themselves to marketing. The sudden interest within FE came with the 1984 White Paper "Training for Jobs". It was announced that 25% of funding for work-related non-advanced FE would be transferred from the LEA to the Manpower Services Commission (MSC). In order to acquire the 25% funding, each LEA needed to develop a three-year plan comprising their marketing policies for the non-advanced FE (Robinson & Long, 1988). (Sections 1.3 and 1.4 include detailed information about the change in FE). In the higher education (HE) sector, the declining number of potential students in the 1980s was regarded as a major concern both in the US and in Britain (Castling, 1984; Schmidt, 1988). In 1985, there were two publications offering some ideas on how to do marketing which had a considerable impact upon FHE. The first one was a report entitled Marketing Pick-Up prepared by Lewis and Robinson as a result of the Department of Education and Science (the then Department for Education)'s PICKUP⁴ programme. The second one was entitled Marketing Further and Higher Education written by Davies and Scribbins.

The major reservations about the implementation of marketing in education, argued by Kotler & Fox (1985), are two-fold. First, marketing is incompatible with the educational mission. Many people believe that educational values are the direct opposites of business values (such as those of marketing). Marketing is seen by such critics as being associated with pure money making through hard selling. Second, marketing should not be needed. It should be taken for granted that certain constituent groups need the educational experiences that the institutions are offering. In spite of opposition, a number of educationalists are willing to adopt marketing principles in the belief that marketing can enhance the competitive position of their organisations in the changing environment. A

⁴ PICKUP stands for professional, industrial and commercial updating.

number of academics and educationalists have offered checklists (eg. Wheale, 1989) or models (eg. Miklich, 1988; Scribbins & Davies, 1989) to help implement marketing. This, combined with the growing literature on marketing FHE, thrust marketing onto centre stage.

In the next sections I will focus on the emergence of the marketing imperative in the FE field and relate this to the tensions within FE colleges that have already been identified.

1.4 UNDERSTANDING FURTHER EDUCATION

Teaching is generally seen by members of modern societies as a professional occupation (cf. Leggatt, 1970). This is in spite of the fact that, compared with the old-established professions, like clergy, law and medicine, it is less autonomous and independent. Leggatt (1970: 160) claims that, due to the spread of literacy, teaching has lost its "elite status" and "esoteric knowledge base". Teachers become "the economic proletarians of the professions" in Mills's (1951: 129) phrase. In spite of this, teaching still has elements associated with the concept of professionalism. They have a degree of autonomy to judge matters according to their expertise and knowledge. FE being a teaching occupation in Britain, those working in FE institutions tend to retain the "professional label".

1.4.1 What Is Further Education?

It is not easy to identify the boundaries of "further education". Farmer (1982: 18) comments, "the face of further education is curiously ill-defined"; while Cantor & Roberts (1986: 2) claim that "further education has a wider remit than any other sector of our educational system".

In addressing the problem of definition, the Crowther Report (HMSO, 1959: 15-18) states that "it is defined by types of institution rather than by types of instruction given". FE is taken generally to include all provision outside schools to people aged over 16, compulsory school age, of a standard up to and including GCE A level or equivalent (The

Education Authorities Directory and Annual, 1992: 622; The Central Office of Information, 1992: 143). This post-school education is "below higher education" (Dennis, 1991: 90).

The Publishers Association provides a useful and detailed description of FE. In its report, "further education", is taken, from a purely legal standpoint, to refer to:

all kinds of post-16 education that are carried on in institutions other than schools (including sixth form colleges) or universities. These institutions - some 700 in England, Wales and Scotland - are diverse in form and name: they include polytechnics, colleges of technology, technical colleges, colleges of FE, colleges of higher education, colleges of agriculture, and "tertiary" colleges (but not sixth form colleges which are part of the school system)... All - in distinction to schools on the one hand and universities on the other - are governed by the Further Education Regulations formulated in 1975 (1983: 2).

In terms of the relationship between FE establishments and Local Education Authorities, in general, there has been a close and intimate linkage. The Publishers Association commenting on the situation in 1983 stated,

Generally speaking, they are controlled by local authorities, which finance them with support from central government; but a few...are "voluntary colleges" with some independent source of finance (*ibid*: 2).

Farmer (1982: 18) also observes,

The formal relationships between maintaining LEAs and providing establishments may be conducted through relatively autonomous governing bodies in the case of colleges of further education, the more independent governing bodies of polytechnics or more directly, as in the case of adult education, through the officers and advisers of the LEA.

The relationship between LEAs and FE have been changed in recent years. However, during the time of researching, LEAs were still "obliged to prepare a scheme outlining procedures for planning further education provision, setting college budgets and delegating control over budgets to college governing bodies" (The Central Office of

Information, 1992: 159).

In terms of provision, it varies from lower-level technical and commercial courses to advanced courses (which will be explained in the following paragraphs). However, most of FE colleges provide "non-vocational courses, including GCSE and GCE A level courses" (*ibid*: 158). On the whole, the system is seen as flexible enough to enable students to "acquire whatever qualifications his or her capabilities and time allow" (*ibid*).

The mode of attendance comprises full-time, sandwich and part-time courses. FE provided nearly four-fifths of all part-time education for students aged 18 and over (1.2 million out of 1.5 million), and around one-fifth of full-time education (160,000 out of 777,000) (Department for Education, 1992: Par.2 & Table 6)(~~See Table 1.2~~). And there were 403,000 full-time and sandwich students in 1990/1, 7% more than in 1989/90 and 180% more than in 1970/1 (*ibid*: Par.4 & Table 1)(~~See Table 1.3~~).

According to the report of the Publishers Association (1983), there are four main sectors in the FE field, namely advanced further education (AFE), non-advanced further education (NAFE), adult and continuing education and industrial training. AFE refers to "work of post-A level standard" comprising post-graduate, graduate, the Higher diplomas and certificates of the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC). The access courses to higher education developed in recent years are included here. NAFE includes all kinds of courses without access to higher education. They range from leisure-oriented (e.g. flower arranging), GCE A & O Level to vocational-oriented. From 1975/6 to 1990/1, the number of students has doubled from 0.9 million to just under 2 million (Table 1.2). It was attributed to the facilitation of the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) which was set up in 1973 under the Department of Employment. It is now called Training, Enterprise and Education Directorate (or TEED). The statistics show that in early 1980s, around 85% of the population after 16 attended non-advanced courses (Department of Education & Science, 1987b).

	Age 18-20			Age 21-24			Age 25-34		
	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
Higher education (incl universities)³									
Full-time & sandwich	161	147	308	96	75	171	44	34	78
Part-time (Open University)	1	2	2	4	47	43	90
Part-time (other)	26	10	36	36	22	58	56	40	95
Total	186	157	344	134	99	233	147	117	264
Further education⁴									
Full-time & sandwich	47	48	94	11	11	21	10	15	24
Part-time ⁵	117	75	192	64	80	144	108	154	262
Total	163	123	286	74	91	165	118	169	287
School ⁶	13	12	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	363	292	655	208	190	398	265	285	550
	Age 35+			Age unknown			All aged 18+		
	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
Higher education (incl universities)³									
Full-time & sandwich	13	19	32	1	1	1	314	276	591
Part-time (Open University)	50	46	95
Part-time (other)	36	40	77	3	3	6	156	89	245
Total	49	59	109	4	3	7	520	410	930
Further education⁴									
Full-time & sandwich	6	12	18	2	1	3	75	86	161
Part-time ⁵	131	269	401	60	126	187	480	705	1185
Total	138	281	419	62	128	190	555	791	1346
School ⁶	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	12	25
Total	187	340	527	66	131	197	1075	1201	2276

.. not available

1 Students at census dates - see paragraph 31.

2 Age at 31 August of the year in which the academic year begins.

3 Higher education includes polytechnics and universities in England as well as colleges of higher education.

4 Further education includes courses up to and including courses of A level or BTEC National Diploma at polytechnics and colleges of higher education. It also includes tertiary colleges.

5 Part-time includes evening and open and distance learning.

6 School includes sixth form colleges, maintained secondary, special and independent schools.

7 Age unknown includes those recorded as 19+ on Form 1FE.

8 There were in addition 1309 thousand enrolments aged 18 and over in Adult Education Centres for which there is no detailed age breakdown.

Source: Adapted from Department for Education (1992), *Statistical Bulletin*, Table 6.

Table 1.2 Mode of attendance in FE in comparison with higher education and school for students aged 18 and over

	1970/1	1975/6	1980/1	1985/6	1986/7	1987/8	1988/9	1989/90	1990/91
(a) FE colleges and related institutions²									
(i) at 1 November									
Full-time and sandwich									
Full-time	139	202	290	325	332	339	347	366	394
Sandwich	6	8	7	15	15	15	13	10	9
Total	144	209	296	340	347	354	359	377	403
Part-time									
Part-time day	509	445	585	650	672	702	759	783	767
Evening only ³	251	260	573	669	712	726	799	826	793
Total	760	704	1158	1319	1384	1428	1559	1609	1561
Total full-time and part-time	904	914	1455	1659	1732	1782	1918	1986	1964
(ii) Vocational and academic short courses not running at 1 November⁴									
Full-time	153	169	190
Part-time	223	314	365
Total	376	483	555
All courses in FE establishments (Sections (i) and (ii))	904	914	1455	1659	1732	1782	2294	2469	2519
(b) Adult Education Centres⁵									
Part-time day	316	427	451	449	463	460	480
Evening only	1227	991	1004	941	929	917	872
All AEC courses	1320	1847	1543	1418	1455	1390	1392	1376	1352
All FE and AEC courses at 1 November (Sections (a(i)) and (b))	2224	2760	2998	3077	3187	3172	3310	3362	3316
.. not available									

- 1 Enrolments in sections (a(i)) and (b) were at a census date of 1 November each year. Enrolments in section (a(ii)) were on short courses during the academic year but not running at 1 November.
- 2 Includes LEA maintained institutions such as FE and HE colleges and polytechnics, some of which transferred to the PCFC sector on 1 April 1989. Excludes private FE colleges.
- 3 Includes open and distance learning from 1985/86.
- 4 Data not available prior to 1988/9. Some of the growth may be due to improved recording by colleges.
- 5 Includes youth clubs and centres before 1985.

Source: Adapted from Department for Education (1992), Statistical Bulletin, Table 1.

*Table 1.3 Mode of attendance in the FE colleges
from 1970/1 to 1990/1*

Concerning adult and continuing education, there is some overlap with NAFE. Generally, this provision is for those who intend to pursue relevant qualifications for enhancing their employment opportunities. More than 2.5 million people aged 19 or over enrol on FE courses each year (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 163).

A special feature of FE is its "strong ties with commerce and industry" and its "work-related studies" (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 159). In co-operation with employers, the industrial training is used to update the trainees' skills at work. In the 1970s, the MSC introduced a number of training initiatives to promote the growth of industrial training.

In sum, the types of institution vary in character and in features. They mainly provide post-16 education but are distinguishable from schools and universities. As the arena of FE is so wide, Farmer (1982: 18) believes that "it is still easier to identify what Further Education is not, than to state what it is". In order to delimit the scope of the research, my studies are confined to the colleges of FE.

1.4.2 Understanding Further Education Colleges

There are over 550 colleges of FE in Britain⁵. The enrolments in further education colleges and related institutions doubled from 0.9 million in 1975/6 to 2.0 million in 1989/90 at the 1 November census (Department of Education & Science, 1991: Para 3).

In the contemporary educational system, FE colleges play the role of a "bridge" to fill the gap between school and higher education. Unlike the traditional educational system which emphasise academic theoretical training, FE provides vocational training for school leavers so that they can integrate into society. FE has provided approximately 90% of all part-time education (1.2 million students out of 1.3 million) and about one-fifth of

⁵ According to *THE EDUCATION AUTHORITIES DIRECTORY AND ANNUAL 1992* (1992: 621-781), there are about 450 in England, 37 in Wales, 46 in Scotland and 24 in Northern Ireland.

full-time education (Department of Education & Science, 1991: Para 12).

Traditionally, the "target students" of FE were 16-19 years old school leavers. In the 1970s and the early 1980s, the rise in the number in this age cohort and the increase in unemployment due to the economic recession has raised the college intake of this particular population (Cantor & Roberts, 1986: 38). According to the Department of Education & Science [it is now called Department for Education] (1990: Para 13 and Table 1), "unemployment rose from 3% in 1975 to a peak of 16% in 1983 and 1984 but had decreased to 9% in 1988"...The proportion of 16-18 year olds mainly in employment' fell steadily from 72% in 1975 to 43% in 1984 and then fluctuated around 44% up to 1988". The economic climate and demographic trend have facilitated the development of FE.

FE has been undergoing continual changes and pressures in which the relevance of marketing has been thought by the government to be of increasing potential importance. Since the 1980s, the government has been concerned to improve the quality of management in order to get close to what it sees as the demands of society. In June, 1985, the Audit Commission of the Department of the Environment published a report entitled *Obtaining Better Value From Further Education*. It advised better marketing of FE courses so that more students can be attracted through closer links with local schools and employers and called for the extending of the college year from 36 to 48 weeks. It also suggested that teaching resources should be tailored more to demands and a staff-student ratio of 12:1 was recommended.

The government's two White Papers, *Training for Jobs* (1984) and *Education and Training for Young People* (1985) have advocated that vocational education and training should be better able to meet the "needs" of the country. At the same time, the publication *Policies and Priorities 1990s* (1984) emphasised that the courses offered should meet the changing needs of industry, business and the public service as well as providing students with challenging intellectual input.

Indeed, political pressures in terms of government policies have exerted an immense force on FE. As Cantor & Roberts (1986: 249) observe, "it is being more and more required to ensure that it is financially 'accountable' and that its products are 'marketable'". The turbulent environment has brought about a growing interest in employing marketing concepts.

1.5 FURTHER EDUCATION AND THE MARKETING IMPERATIVE

An interest in marketing is not new in the FE field. Some marketing tools have been employed for a long time - in spite of the resistance of traditionalists of the type to be seen in the present study who do not like the word "advertising". In a feasibility study on marketing FE published by the *Further Education Unit* (1985: in the covering letter), the comment is made:

Some marketing is going on in all colleges, but the mechanisms, skills and resources backing up the marketing are patchy. Attitudes are positive, but the infrastructure is weak. A college rather than a departmental marketing image is suggested by the authors and generally it is recognised that more staff training, time and other resources need to be put into this area.

The picture suggested by such commentators is one in which colleges do produce leaflets, but do not develop a corporate image; they do maintain relationships with their immediate clients such as students and employing organisations, but do not approach this systematically; they do have an advertising plan, but lack a clear overall strategic marketing direction. Most important of all, they do not have enough training and resources for marketing.

1.5.1 Pressures Within Further Education

According to Davies and Scribbins (1985: 4), there are a lot of pressures forcing FE to take marketing more seriously. They point out three areas of criticism which invite a marketing response:

1. criticism of the narrowness of the traditional FE market: the traditional market neglects some sectors of population, namely women, ethnic minorities, the unemployed and those over 21;
2. criticism of the narrowness of the curriculum: it is too narrow to grasp the changing needs and the potential market;
3. criticism of the ignorance of the general public: although FE is important to societal needs, it is not transmitting an effective message about its existence and significance.

Davies and Scribbins (*ibid*) note:

The Audit Commission has drawn attention to the inefficient marketing approaches of FE; the Government's White Paper *Training for Jobs* criticizes FE's failure to market itself effectively; HMIs have pointed to unimaginative promotion of courses and colleges.

1.5.2 Changes Within Further Education

In recent years, social, economic and political changes have exerted a great force in pushing further education to take a more pro-active approach with respect to marketing. In the light of the literature, we can note that the changes comprise demographic change, the change of the economy and the development of the government's initiatives and policies.

1.5.2.1 Social and Demographic Changes

Since mid-1980s, there has been continual reduction in the numbers of 16-18 years old youngsters in society from whom the colleges traditionally recruit. According to the report produced by the Department of Education & Science (1987a), in this age cohort, full time equivalent (FTE) student numbers will fall from 537,000 in 1986 to a low point of between 470,000 and 500,000 in 1994. The figures will rise up again to 517,000 by 2000 (a graph of trend is shown in Fig 1.2).

The findings of this report are based on four factors:

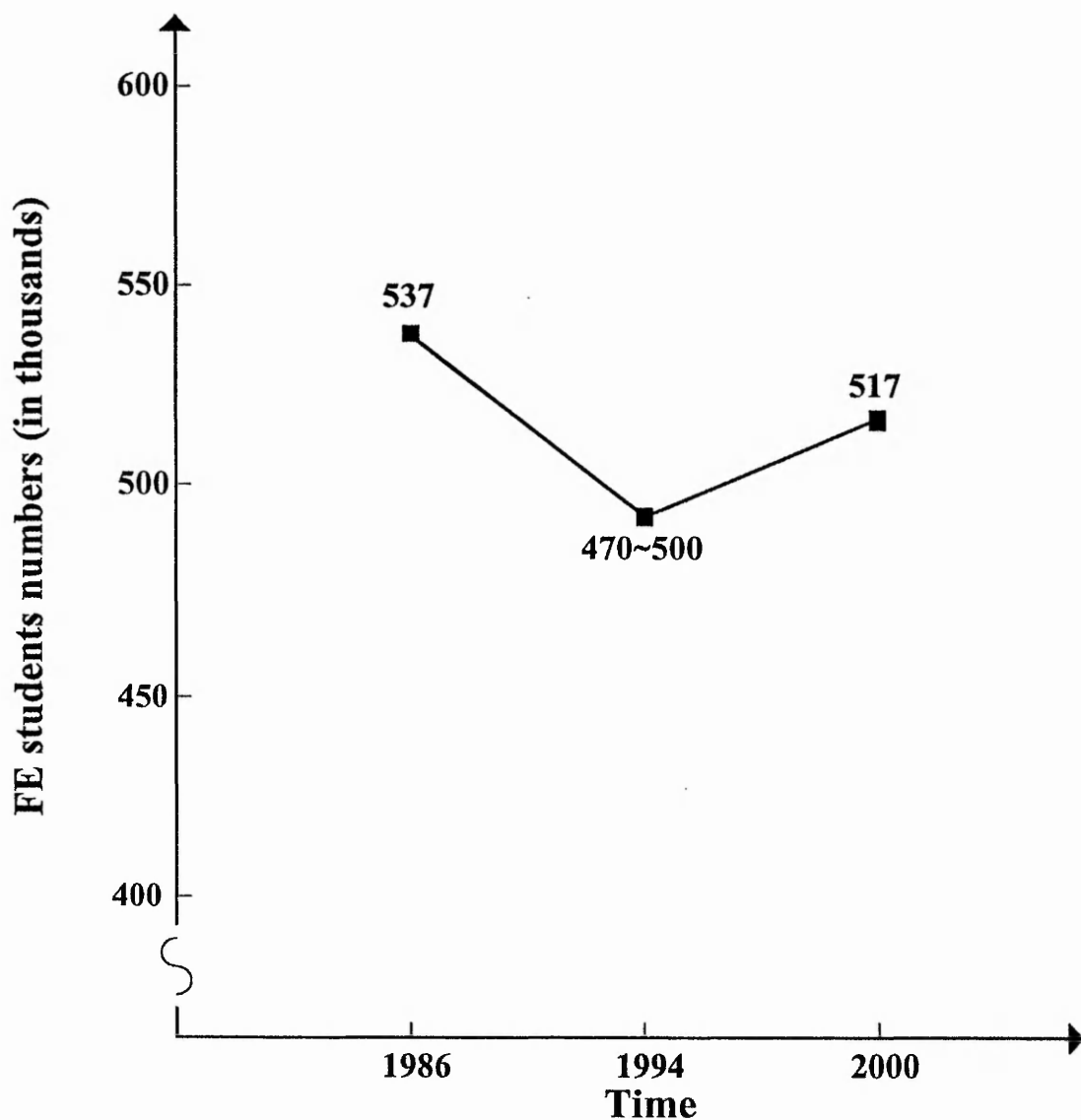
- a. expected socio-economic changes;
- b. sectoral changes, i.e. growth in tertiary colleges;
- c. trends and projections in school staying on rates;
- d. current Government policy initiatives (Perry, 1990: 10).

The analysis shows that the numbers of 19-24 age cohorts will fall from 1986 to a trough in 1999. However, there will be an increase in those aged 25 and over. Thus, it is necessary to re-evaluate the FE market in order to meet the population trends.

In response to the reduction of the traditional client base, the provision of adult education and retraining has been increasing gradually since 1979 (Fawcett, 1989: 1). According to the Statistical Bulletin (Department for Education, 1992: Table 2), the part-time enrolments increased by 35% from less than 1.2 million in 1980/1 to over 1.5 million in 1990/1. The main reason was due to the increase of evening enrolments which were dominated by women aged 18 and over (see Table 1.4). FE was the main provider of education for those age 35 and over; it had about four times as many students as higher education (Department for Education, 1992: Par.14). The present research (see Section 4.3.3) shows the potential for programmes and activities catering for the needs of mature students and women returners (i.e. women who return to work need to be retrained). The programmes are becoming more flexible and more new skills are being developed.

1.5.2.2 Changes in the Economy

Apart from the demographic shift, the employment shift has changed the emphasis of curriculum development and the mix of students.



Source: Adapted from Projected Numbers of Students in Maintained Colleges Studying on Non-advanced Courses : England 1986-2000, London, Department of Education & Science (1987).

Fig. 1.2 The trend of full-time equivalent student numbers (student age 16-18)

England, 1980/81 - 1990/91

Thousands

	1980/81	1985/86	1986/87	1987/88	1988/89	1989/90	1990/91
Full-time and sandwich							
Age 16 & 17							
Men	75	95	96	103	104	107	109
Women	116	130	127	130	128	129	133
Persons	191	225	223	233	232	236	242
Age 18 and over							
Men	55	56	62	59	62	67	75
Women	50	59	62	62	65	74	86
Persons	105	115	124	121	127	141	161
All ages							
Men	130	151	158	162	166	173	184
Women	166	189	189	192	193	203	219
Persons	296	340	347	354	359	377	403
Part-time⁴							
Age 16 & 17							
Men	178	155	158	164	162	156	136
Women	98	113	115	119	114	103	87
Persons	276	269	273	282	276	259	223
Age 18 and over							
Men	418	451	467	471	519	540	537
Women	464	599	644	675	764	810	801
Persons	882	1050	1112	1146	1283	1350	1338
All ages							
Men	596	607	626	635	681	696	674
Women	562	712	759	794	878	913	887
Persons	1158	1319	1384	1428	1559	1609	1561
All modes of attendance							
Age 16 & 17							
Men	253	251	255	266	266	263	245
Women	215	243	241	249	242	232	220
Persons	467	494	496	515	508	495	465
Age 18 and over							
Men	474	507	529	530	581	606	612
Women	514	658	706	737	829	884	887
Persons	987	1165	1236	1267	1410	1491	1499
All ages							
Men	726	758	784	797	847	870	857
Women	728	901	948	986	1072	1116	1107
Persons	1455	1659	1732	1782	1918	1986	1964

1 Enrolments at 1 November each year - see paragraph 31.

2 Includes LEA maintained institutions such as FE and HE colleges and polytechnics, some of which transferred to the PCFC sector on 1 April 1989. Excludes private FE colleges.

3 Age at 31 August of the year in which the academic year begins.

4 Part-time includes evening only and open and distance learning.

Source: Adapted from Department for Education (1992), Statistical Bulletin, Table 2.

Table 1.4 Gender distribution of the attendance of FE courses from 1980/1 to 1990/1

Over recent years, the employment emphasis has been switched from manufacturing to service industries. According to Perry's studies in Leicestershire (1990), student enrolments have reduced in mechanical engineering, building and footwear courses. The boom in information technology, commercial development and leisure industries has exerted a great demand for new skills. This is echoed by the statistical studies between 1982 and 1992 (Department of Education & Science, 1982: Table D & Department for Education, 1992: Table 11). The statistics have shown that in terms of FE courses, the most popular subject in 1990/91 was business administration while in 1981-82 it was engineering, technology and science (see Table 1.5). In order to keep pace with societal needs, a change of curriculum emphasis is necessary in FE colleges. According to Wood-Allum (1989), the shift from manufacturing to service industries has brought an increase in "business studies, computer studies, catering, community care, hairdressing, and textiles with fashion".

The mix of students can be affected by the rate of unemployment. During a period of high unemployment, more full time students register in FE colleges in order to update their skills for entering the job market. Low unemployment brings more part-time or day-release students to colleges, according to information gathered in my own interviews (see Section 4.3.2).

In addition to all this, competition is becoming more and more serious for FE colleges. Many private institutions (eg. newly emerged training centres) and educational organisations (the neighbouring FE colleges) have started to offer similar courses to the target clients of FE colleges. These have raised a question: how do they affect the long-term direction of FE colleges?

The social and economic changes discussed above show that the environment is turbulent and unstable. It appears to many commentators that the traditional FE market and curriculum are not ready to face the changing world. It is necessary for colleges to be more responsive and to pro-act continuously to keep pace with the pressures.

	(Thousands)							
	Full-time and sandwich				All enrolments			
	1978	1979	1980	1981	1978	1979	1980	1981
Education	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
Medical, health and welfare	6	6	6	7	15	14	14	14
Engineering and technology	30	30	31	33	68	73	81	87
Agriculture	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
Science	16	18	21	26	28	31	36	40
Social, administrative and business studies	47	47	50	53	114	114	116	119
Professional and vocational subjects	14	15	15	16	20	20	20	20
Languages and literature	5	5	5	6	6	7	7	8
Arts other than languages, art, design, music, drama	28	30	33	37	29	31	34	39
Total	148	154	163	180	283	294	312	331

England, 1990/91	Thousands								
	16, 17			18-24			25 and over		
	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
Agriculture	6	4	10	6	3	10	6	8	14
Medicine and Science ³	1	16	17	2	9	11	4	13	16
Maths & Computing Sciences	7	3	9	8	6	14	15	20	35
Engineering and Technology	72	4	76	74	6	80	48	9	57
Architecture, Building & Planning	43	1	44	46	2	48	26	3	29
Social Studies	1	8	9	2	8	11	6	27	33
Business & Admin Studies	35	70	105	34	73	107	34	120	154
Communication & Documentation	1	-	1	1	1	1	1	2	3
Languages & Humanities	2	3	4	8	18	26	34	44	78
Creative Arts & Design	11	29	40	14	27	40	19	70	90
Education	2	2	4	4	5	9	14	29	44
Combined & General Courses ⁴									
A/AS Maths and Science	6	4	10	7	5	13	3	3	6
A/AS Non-Maths/Science	10	20	30	14	21	35	8	17	25
A/AS Maths/Science & other	12	15	27	9	10	19	3	6	9
GCSE	20	25	45	17	28	45	20	47	66
Other Combined & General	17	17	33	17	21	37	43	94	137
Total Combined & General	65	80	145	64	85	150	77	167	244
All enrolments	245	220	465	264	242	506	284	512	796

Source: Adapted from Department for Education (1992), Statistical Bulletin, Table 11.

Table 1.5 Subjects chosen by FE students: comparing the statistics of 1978-81 with those of 1990/1

1.5.2.3 Changes in Government Policies

Partly to cope with issues of demography, economic performance and competition, the government has introduced a number of policy initiatives over the last few years. The policies on training direction, financial power shift and curriculum development have exerted a great impact on FE and its future direction.

Government's Training Direction

The government was aware of the significance of training for the labour market needs in the 1990s and the White Paper entitled *Employment for the 1990s* (HMSO, 1988) was published in which the training framework was addressed. The training framework is divided into three levels:

- national level
- industrial level
- local level

On the national level, a National Task Force is proposed to be set up. It will advise the Secretary of State for Employment. Its task is to develop training strategy and ensure its implementation. The task at the industrial level is to set standards and monitor performance. On the local level, the task is to operate the government's training programmes and ensure that local training needs can be met (HMSO, 1988: 32, Para 4.16). The White Paper proposed the establishment of Training Enterprise Councils.

Training Enterprise Councils

According to the White Paper, the functions of Training Enterprise Councils (TECs) include:

- assessing local labour market needs
- issuing training objectives
- managing training programmes
- promoting training needs and encouraging the private sector's investment in training in order to boost economic growth (*ibid*: 40, Para 5.8).

The TECs are set up to "make training and enterprise activities more relevant to the needs of employers and individuals locally" (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 147). They are under a management board of between 12 and 15 people with resources of between £15m and £50m (*ibid*:42, Para 5.13). Two thirds of the board of directors are from the private sector. The TECs are employer-dominated institutions. The rest includes councillors, trade unionists and educationalists. Eighty-two TECs were fully operational by the end of 1991 (*Op Cit*).

The main problem of an employer-led approach is that the employers may not have expertise to plan and manage the post-school education system (McLeod, 1989). In addition, it is a danger to merely plan the programmes without controlling the delivery. Perry (1990: 19), in his research in an FE college, claims that "there is a strong danger that a TEC may wish to place a larger number of these [Youth Training Scheme trainees] into private training organisations with a devastating effect on the college's enrolment and income".

Furthermore, there is a recommendation that all work-related training programmes can be under the TECs' supervision (CBI, 1989). This means that TECs may have power to oversee the work-related, non-advanced programmes of FE colleges. Perry (1990: 19) is worried that "this could result in a greater emphasis on narrow skill training at the expense of a wider education process which produces transferable skills".

From these proposals, it is clear that the government has the determination to bring a business-oriented approach into the training framework. In addition, it intends to encourage an entrepreneurial culture in the FE field by addressing initiatives and policy. This is dealt with in a document *Managing Colleges Efficiently* and also by the Education Reform Act (1988).

Managing Colleges Efficiently

Following the report *Colleges of Further Education Guide to the Measurement of Efficiency* conducted by the Audit Commission (Department of Education & Science,

1981), *Managing Colleges Efficiently* was produced in 1987 (Department of Education & Science, 1987b).

This document has recommended a new concept for FE. The purpose of the report is to improve management and increase efficiency in FE colleges. Indicators are used to evaluate the performance and assess the efficiency. As Perry (1990: 24) explains, it "...recommended the use of unit costs with indicators of educational output as means of indicating efficiency." Guidelines are issued in order to obtain "better value for money in FE" (Fawcett, 1989: 2).

In this report, the important indicators include:

- Staff-student ratio based on FTE enroled students and academic staff;
- non-teaching cost per enroled FTE student;
- cost per FTE student enroled and on a course;
- completion rates for enroled students, and the cost per FTE student gaining qualifications;
- rates for target qualifications gained, and the cost per FTE student gaining qualifications;
- rates of success in gaining employment or progression to further and higher education (Department of Education & Science, 1987b: 20; Perry, 1990: 24).

The report has received a lot of criticism. Hunter (1989) states that the indicators are too simple to be used to judge the quality and performance of colleges. Moreover, only asking a set of questions may neglect the actual processes of education. Furthermore, as computerised management information systems are recommended to be installed, it may cause "a large financial outlay" (Perry, 1990).

The implication of this report is that there is a shift of decision making power and financial power from local authorities (LEAs) to the governing bodies of colleges. The Education Reform Act (1988) is a further manifestation of the government's determination to make significant changes.

Education Reform Act (1988)

The introduction of 1988 *Education Reform Act* can be recognised as instigating important fundamental and far-reaching changes for the future of FE. When the Act became law on 29 July, the [former] Education Secretary Kenneth Baker stressed that he intended to promote three things: more choice for parents, better management in education and higher standards. It was noted that "the objectives are to improve FE colleges' efficiency and responsiveness to local demand and to increase employment interests on governing bodies" (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 145).

There are three fundamental changes:

- regulating and legalising the basis of further education;
- the role and composition of the governing body;
- increasing financial delegation to governing bodies and institutions (Perry, 1990: 20).

The powers of governors in colleges include: exercising a single line budget; deciding course provision after student numbers are allocated by the LEA; arranging teaching and non-teaching issues; purchasing and maintaining premises and equipment.

The power was devolved from the LEA to the FE college when Local Management of Colleges (or LMC) was introduced (bringing in "Formula Funding" - see Appendix 1) from 1 April, 1990. LEAs will not continue to take the role of an employer to hire and fire; FE colleges themselves need to allocate their budget and take up their administrative duties. This Act provides performance indicators, namely Efficiency Monitors and Effectiveness Monitors (see Appendix 2), for colleges to publish. Morris (1988) and

Farley (1989) view this as a means for the DES to exert power over the LEAs whilst the LEAs construct strategic plans to control colleges with respect to the control of student numbers in FE.

It is clear that the government is using this Act to limit the role of LEAs and to devolve the power to employer-led governing bodies in colleges. Fay (1989: 3) comments, "the context must take account of the prevailing drive towards privatisation and the belief in a vocational paradigm together with exposing everything to the market". The advantages of the Act to colleges are that they gain autonomy with respect to financial and managerial matters. The implication of this is that they need to plan and control their resources more rigorously than in the past (Fawcett, 1989).

The Act thus effectively grants a great deal of freedom to FE colleges to recruit students and allocate their resources. However, the Act may create severe competition with neighbouring colleges because LMC funding is tied to student numbers. Thus there is pressure for them to improve their "competitive strength". According to Brooks (1988), the inter-college rivalry will be more severe with the decrease of the 16-18 year-old population and the influx of more entrepreneurial governors. Williamson (1990: 1) claims that FE colleges have become "wild organisations", in contrast to "domesticated organisations" in which "there is no struggle for survival".

In order to be more "responsive" (Williamson, 1990) to the environmental needs, FE colleges require to maintain a close relationship with their constituencies.

White Paper (1991)

Following the same direction as the Education Reform Act, the White Paper entitled *Education and Training for the 21st century* was published in May, 1991. The proposed reform would mean the removal of barriers between academic and vocational education and training for 16- to 19-year-olds (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 144).

Since April, 1993, FE councils, in replacing LEAs, has started to finance FE and sixth form colleges. In terms of qualifications, the new qualifications of Ordinary and Advanced Diplomas are being introduced for those reaching a required standard "in either or both academic and vocational subjects" (White Paper, 1991; *ibid*). It is intended that by the mid-1990s every 16- and 17-year-old leaving full-time education will be encouraged to take vocational education or training "by the offer of a training credit, enabling them to buy specific training from the establishment of their choice" (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 144).

Woolf (1991: 15) claims that FE is no longer a marginal aspect of the educational and training system and that its status will be raised by the implementation of the White Paper. He comments:

The long and fruitless attempts by various governments to marginalise the FE system by building alternatives around it, appear to be at an end. The colleges themselves rather than various cowboy outfits or amateur agencies are to be at the core of these new developments...

Farmer (1991) is worried that the removal of LEAs will lead to a lack of coherent planning and funding, particularly if it is replaced by TECs, which are seen to be "unrepresentative and having no record". Nevertheless, it is a commitment for the government to end the academic/vocational divide. What is important, Woolf (1991) argues, is "an adequately funded service" and "a properly planned sector".

Curriculum Development

In the process of curriculum development, it is necessary to ensure a quality of provision which can meet the needs of the constituencies which the colleges serve. Thus, the government has launched a number of initiatives. It includes the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) and curriculum changes in liaison with employers.

Set up in 1986, the NCVQ has the task of reforming and rationalising the delivery of vocational training nationally. It is not an awarding body itself, but it approves those qualifications which meet its criteria. The purpose of the Council is to make qualifications "more relevant to the needs of employment by basing them on standards of competence set by industry" (The Central Office of Information, 1992: 161). The new accreditation is named National Vocational Qualification (NVQ), which is based on "defined levels of achievement" (*ibid*). As Fawcett (1989: 2) comments, "this will mean substantial changes in the way in which courses are organised and delivered using a competence based approach". This will require close a linkage between FE colleges and employers.

In line with this employer-oriented approach, the Business and Technician Education Council places strong emphasis on wide liaison with employers in developing the curriculum. A unified national system of courses at all levels for students is planned under BTEC which covers industry, commerce and public administration (*Op Cit*: 162).

Also, in terms of course evaluation and review, BTEC pays more attention to the "quality control" aspect of course delivery. As Fawcett (1989: 2) observes, "such courses are being perceived much more as products, which need to be developed to meet client need, with the emphasis on customer satisfaction and quality of provision".

In response to the changing context, more and more FE colleges now recognise the importance of taking a more flexible and entrepreneurial approach incorporating marketing principles so as to meet the needs of their constituencies.

1.5.3 Marketing Imperatives and Tensions Within Further Education

All of these changes suggest that FE itself needs to change significantly in order to survive in the environment, which makes its situation much more like that of a traditional business than that of a traditional educational establishment. Consequently, the managements in many FE colleges are becoming aware of a need to take an

"entrepreneurial" approach and to look closely at market "needs". Marketing has become an *imperative* in the FE field, a new wave which is in contrast with the traditional FE approach. In terms of the definition, I would define a *marketing imperative* as:

An urgent need for the employment of the marketing concept due to environmental change in order to improve organisational viability in the long-term

The structures of colleges are changing and people's attitudes towards marketing are beginning to change (see chapters 4 & 5). The notion of marketing and its associated principles and practices is becoming a matter of increasing interest. The present research is concerned with understanding the depth and the implications of these shifts by looking closely at three FE colleges.

1.6 SUMMARY

This opening chapter has attempted to develop an understanding of the issues in further education, a "professional" field, where marketing concepts are employed in response to environmental change. The chapter has, first of all, brought forward the notion of professionalism in understanding the tension between the commercial value associated with marketing and the anti-commercial value associated with professional identities and, in the second part, described external environmental changes in the FE field that have enabled the emergence of marketing in the FE colleges and that tension between "professional" and "enterprise" values that have developed.

In the first part, I have established a framework for the study of professionalism. The meaning of profession is explored and investigated. It is followed by examining the relationship between professionals and clients and then between professionals and their organisations. In understanding "profession" and how professionals see their professions, I have presented four approaches. First, the structural functionalists' approach which looks at professions as entailing a list of "traits"; second, the processual approach which sees that whether an occupation is a profession or not depends on the extent to which it

manifests the attributes of "professionalization"; third, the structural political-economic approach which emphasises the relations of professions to their sets of circumstances and claims that "profession" is a label used by professionals to protect their interests and retain autonomy; fourth, the symbolic interactionist approach which stresses the symbolic meaning of profession whereby professionals are able to seek "morally praiseworthy" rewards. The insights gained from the literature, especially the last two approaches, have helped us understand the tension developed in FE in recent years.

In terms of the relationship between professionals and their clients, there are mainly two poles of emphasis. At one end, it is stressed that professionals have sovereignty over clients. This is what is called "professional pride". This emphasis has neglected the relations of clients to their wider circumstances. However, on the other end, it is evidenced that clients are seen to be able to exert a certain control over the profession. The question I have raised is whether or not the esoteric knowledge of professionals is sensitive enough to the changing demands of clients in a turbulent environment.

On the notion of professionals and their organisations, I have adopted Mintzberg's argument of "professional bureaucracy". In a pure form, professionals are seen to have the best of both worlds: they are attached to an organisation and yet they have authority and sovereignty over clients. In reality, he has identified three problems between professionals and organisations, ie, problems of co-ordination, problems of discretion, and problems of innovation. The literature review on professionalism has enabled us to understand the theories of tension within the professional fields when marketing concepts are employed. This is the focus of the research and FE colleges are used as case studies.

In the second part, the meaning of further education has been identified. Then I have provided a picture of changes within the FE field. This includes social demographic changes, changes in the economy and in government policies. The turbulent context has enabled the management in FE colleges to recognise the need for taking a more entrepreneurial approach. The adoption of an "enterprise culture" associated with marketing has brought forward tensions among different groups of people. This is a

tension between the "enterprise wave" and the "traditional wave" with professional identities.

To help us tackle these issues, the next chapter looks closely at the meaning of the idea of "marketing orientation". This will equip us to examine the extent to which FE colleges are embracing marketing thinking with the full implications such thinking can have.

CHAPTER 2 : INVESTIGATING MARKETING ORIENTATION: EMERGING IDEAS AND A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

It is argued in Chapter 1 that marketing has become an imperative in the FE field, one of the "professional organisations", due to abrupt environmental changes. The awareness of the need for a *marketing-oriented* approach among management has brought forward tensions between "traditional" staff and "enterprise" staff when the traditionalists attempt to protect their "professional dignity" and resist any compromise associated with commercial values. (Evidence will be provided in later chapters). The present research suggests that we need to understand what is behind these tensions. It will be argued that these two groups of people have different definitions and understandings with respect to the notion of *marketing orientation*. Thus, in this chapter, building on the literature review covered in Chapter 1, I will establish a conceptual framework for marketing orientation.

The chapter will first examine the origin and the development of a marketing orientation by reviewing the literature on the emergence of marketing and the transformation from the marketing concept to marketing orientation. Then, derived from the literature review, a marketing orientation framework will be established.

2.2 THE EMERGENCE OF MARKETING

Marketing evolved from the historical outcome of social and business pressure (cf. Kotler, et al., 1985). Generally, due to the increase of worldwide competition and production, marketing is well regarded as a "weapon" to attract and retain customers (it will be discussed in a later section). As Bertrand (1987: 85) argues, "One cannot think the customer is important, but that marketing is unimportant." Marketing has become an important way in the business world to meet the "demands" of customers.

On the notion of the emergence of marketing, the literature review is mainly based on American marketing history. Nevertheless, we need to understand that marketing has also been developing but in different ways in the Pacific Rim. According to Drucker, marketing was invented in Japan around 1650 when the merchants started to "design the products for customers" (1973: 62). In the 1930s, American marketing thought influenced Japanese business practices (Kotler, et al., 1985). Since then, its marketing style was developed in a way that blended "Japanese traditional marketing and Western-style marketing" together (*ibid*: 267). Nowadays, Japan has become "the new competition" (*ibid*) to the western world.

The study of American marketing history will help to improve the basis of current theorising and enhance understanding of the further development on marketing in a changing environment. Concerning the development of marketing, there is controversy over the stages of development. The most widely-cited account is that of Keith (1960) on the Production - Sales - Marketing Era history of the Pillsbury company in America. However, its "Production Era" is strongly criticized by Fullerton (1988). Further analysis of marketing history is presented by Bartels (1970) who has divided the development into six periods. In the light of the study of marketing history a conceptual framework of marketing development will be established.

2.2.1 Keith's "Production-Sales-Marketing Era"

Concerning the emergence of marketing, we will, first of all, review Keith's discussion on the "production-sales-marketing era". It can provide us with some insights on the "marketing revolution". In his argument, Keith provides us with the meaning of the marketing concept as well as marketing development.

Keith contends that consumers should be the focus of any company: this is the "essence of marketing". In his assertion, "companies revolve around the customer, not the other way around" and "growing acceptance of this consumer concept has had, and will have, far-reaching implications for business, achieving a vital revolution in economic thinking" (1960: 33).

He illustrates three main stages of marketing development by using a "typical" case - Pillsbury - an American manufacturing company. The production era began with the formation of Pillsbury in 1869 and continued into the 1930s. According to Keith, Charles Pillsbury's main concern was with production and not marketing: "our basic function is to mill high-quality flour...". The business philosophy behind this was that there would always be a demand for high quality flour. The production era theorists believed that demand exceeded supply in this period. The impetus to launch the first new product was "primarily from the desire to dispose of a by-product" (*Ibid*). This stage is closely related to Ansoff's "The Mass Production Era" (1980).

The period from 1930s to 1950s is classified as the sales era. Knowing that consumers and dealers were critical to the company's success, management started to analyze the market to evaluate consumers' wants and prejudices. However, the purpose was not to identify gaps and opportunities in the market but merely to "move the output of the plants to the consumer" (Keith, 1960: 35). Keith does not explain the origin of this era, but Gilbert & Baily (1990: 8) support Keith's view by arguing that "the sales era was a natural occurrence (sic) which has provided a step between the production era and the adoption of the marketing concept". In addition, Bartels' (1970) study shows that selling was the principal management focus in that period. In discussing the changing business environment, Webster (1988: 30) argues that "with a sales orientation, more is better, every order is a good order, and every customer is a good customer, despite the conflicting demands made on the firm's limited capabilities." Sales volume is the significant marketing objective.

The marketing era was started in the 1950s when Pillsbury decided to establish a marketing department for "determining which products to market" (Keith, 1960: 35) by means of consumer research and new product development. The company's "needs and desires" were that "we make and sell products for consumers". Marketing was not only a business function but it was also a kind of philosophy in the sense that it controlled the whole business.

Keith's contribution is that he attempts to use a "typical" case of that time in America to theorize about marketing development. However, he did receive considerable criticism (e.g. Baudet & Meulen, 1982; Fullerton, 1988; Middleton, 1989). Their disagreement focuses on his lack of empirical research and powerful evidence. Of all the criticisms, Fullerton (1988) provides a comprehensive account of the weakness of the approach and develops an alternative version of marketing evolution.

2.2.2 Fullerton's Criticism

His argument against Keith is based on three main points.

1) He questions the typicality of Pillsbury. To him, it is not a convincing empirical study. Fullerton has attempted to challenge the external validity of Keith's research in the sense that the finding of one case study (Pillsbury) may not be able to generalise to other institutions. That is to say, he doubts the representativeness of Keith's marketing development theory;

2) concerning the production era, Fullerton argues that Keith ignores the historical facts about business conditions. From Fullerton's studies, changes in the social and demographic revolution were followed by overproduction and competition. Demand is not reactive to production and that substantial marketing effort is needed to stimulate the demand (1988: 112);

3) the evidence, provided by Fullerton (1988: 118), shows that manufacturers from 1870-1930 had already adopted marketing practices (elements of the marketing mix). The "marketing institutions" had been established for developing more efficient business practices. He argues that management was well aware of marketing techniques and marketing influence long before 1950. Obviously, his prime purpose is to oppose the "production era" developed by Keith. This suggests that marketing is "as old as civilisation". In his *complex flux model*, modern marketing's evolution is described as a complicated and fluid process involving "simultaneous dramatic change, incremental

change and continuity" (1988: 121). Three eras are highlighted and discussed in his model:

1) The era of origins (1750-1850)

Businessmen employed marketing techniques, namely segmentation and advertising, in the period of early industrialisation. He argues that the market was not supply-led in that period.

2) The era of institutional development (1850-1929)

Specialist marketing institutions were developed to boost marketing practices, including improvements in advertising and market research.

3) the era of refinement and formalisation (1930-present)

What he means in this era is the refinement of marketing practices and formalisation of institutions. But he did not give an account about the development of marketing into an integrated discipline.

His main focus in these eras is the development of the marketing mix rather than of marketing philosophy. Although marketing practices were exercised long before the 1950s, he does not mention the marketing ideal and philosophy. But we cannot neglect the fact that Keith does provide a systematic explanation by using a simplified model. Fullerton's mistake is that he has taken the theory out of its "systematic explanation" context and argued against it as "an allegation of fact" (Gilbert & Bailey, 1990: 9). Keith's era concept does not infer that marketing practices did not exist before 1950, but rather that they were not integrated into a separate discipline. Since his discussion is based on the development of marketing thought, his argument still remains valid.

Another academic, Bartels (1990), aims to provide a further analysis of the history by dividing marketing development into six periods.

2.2.3 Bartels's Six Marketing Periods

In Bartels's analysis of marketing history, based on American experience, he presents six periods each of which represents a decade from 1900 to 1960. The first two periods are summarized under the heading of "the periods of discovery and conceptualisation".

1) The periods of discovery and conceptualisation (1900-20)

It is a period of ideas instead of activity. Marketing was conceptualised into the "functional approach" - a list of activities; "institutional approach" - the establishment of specialist institutions; and "commodity approach" (Bartels, 1970: 11).

2) The period of integration (1920-30)

All the marketing practices were integrated and 'rules of thumb' were developed into guides to action. However, marketing still remained a subsidiary activity as "sales orientation" to the main business approach.

3) The period of development (1930-40)

Due to the economic depression and suburbanisation, marketing practices changed. Large scale retailing was developed and the traditional distribution channels were altered. The consumer was recognised as the primary focus in the marketing approach. Nevertheless, the "marketing era" had not arrived yet.

4) The Period of re-appraisal (1940-50)

W.W.II disrupted both industrial and academic activities. However, one significant development here was the emergence of managerial marketing functions instead of merely marketing functions. In Bartels's evidence, management had started to adopt marketing practices, and the consumers' importance was recognised in the business cycle.

5) The period of re-conceptualisation (1950-present)

Increasing competition and production have brought new ideas to marketing and pushed marketing into a new milestone. Bartels claims that marketing itself "were being re-

conceived and a new meaning assigned to an old term and new terms being used to convey new ideas" (1970). According to Gilbert & Bailey (1990: 12), marketing has become an integrated approach to all elements of the marketing mix which "guides the business in the aim of the satisfaction of the consumer".

Bartels has a more thorough discussion on the development of marketing from idea generation to becoming the focal approach in business. (A table showing the three versions of marketing evolution is seen in **Table 2.1**).

2.2.4 Marketing as a "Profession"

In this decade, some organisations (eg. the Chartered Institute of Marketing) and marketing academics (eg. McDonald, 1992), in Britain, have sought to raise the reputation of the marketing discipline and philosophy. Formed in 1911, the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) asserts the significance of marketing in business and aspires to elevate the status of marketing as a "profession". In its mission statement, developed in the late 1980's, it states:

To elevate marketing (which includes sales) to be universally recognized, understood as an accepted *profession* whilst adhering to the precepts of quality, standards and principles expected of a Royal Charter Body.

In its definition, marketing is defined as "the management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying customer requirements profitably". The CIM has built an influential position in the present decade in promoting the marketing discipline in different fields. In recent years, it is developing a stronger voice in Europe. Some marketing academics, like McDonald (1992: 199), have encouraged practitioners to be "professional marketers".

VERSIONS OF MARKETING EVOLUTION	Production-Sales-Marketing Era	Complex Flux Model	Six Marketing Periods
PROPOSERS	Keith	Fullerton	Bartels
BASED ON	A case of an American manufacturing company - Pillsbury	A number of American cases	A number of American cases
PERIODS COVERED	1869-1950s	1750-present	1900-present
CONTENT	<p>1869-1930s: the Production Era -supply led, main concern was with production</p> <p>1930-50s: the Sales Era -emphasis was to move output to consumers</p> <p>1950s: the Marketing Era -Determined which products to market</p>	<p>1750-1850: the Era of Origins -marketing techniques had been used</p> <p>1850-1929: the Era of Institutional Development -marketing institutions were developed to boost marketing practices</p> <p>1930-present: the Era of Refinement and Formalisation -refinement of marketing practices and formalisation of institutions</p>	<p>1900-20: the Periods of Discovery and Conceptualisation -marketing ideas were generated</p> <p>1920-30: the Period of Integration -marketing practices were integrated but sales orientation was still dominated</p> <p>1930-40: the period of Development -retailing was enlarged & distribution channels were altered</p> <p>1940-50: the Period of Re-appraisal -importance of consumers was recognised</p> <p>1950-present: the Period of Re-conceptualisation -marketing has become an integrated approach</p>
COMMENTS/CRITICISM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lack of empirical research and powerful evidence - provided a systematic explanation by using a simplified model 	Focus on the development of the marketing practices rather than of marketing philosophy	thorough discussion from idea generation to marketing re-conceptualisation

Table 2.1 Three versions of marketing evolution

2.2.5 The Significance Of Marketing History

In the light of the discussion of marketing history, some insights are drawn which help us to comprehend the marketing discipline. It comprises the effect of the environment, the sequence of change, the flavour¹ of the marketing concept, and the implementation of the concept.

¹ I call it "flavour" because no construct of the marketing concept has been developed yet. It will be discussed in the next section.

When compared and contrasted, the stages of marketing development among Keith, Fullerton and Bartels (see Fig. 2.1), it is well accepted that marketing has become a prominent discipline since the 1950s. The marketing concept and practices evolved due to environmental change. The complexity of political-economic conditions, the severity of competition, and the changing attitudes and values of individuals demand customer-oriented marketing to attract and retain customers/clients.

Regarding the sequence of change, Keith's "production-sales-marketing" eras have provided a useful framework for explaining marketing development. Thus, I will use it as a framework in my studies for discussing the emergence of marketing in the FE field. In applying Keith's "production era" to the FE field, I would rather use "traditional" instead of "production" because it is believed that the word "production" may be restricted to consumer goods whereas "traditional" can cover a wider aspect of life including FE. "Traditional orientation" comprises the notion of "product orientation" and "production orientation" (The scope of different orientations will be examined in a later section).

The framework is depicted as follows (Fig. 2.2):



Fig 2.2 The development of different orientations

In the theorists' argument, it is widely recognised that the essence of the marketing concept is to satisfy customers' "wants and needs", ie. customer-orientation. The intended sovereignty has been shifted from seller to buyer. It is closely related to the modern view "the customer is king". Although there is no consensus over the whole period of marketing development, in all phases they conceive of marketing as an essential business philosophy. Nevertheless, when it comes to the implementation of the concept, it is transformed into the marketing mix in the history.

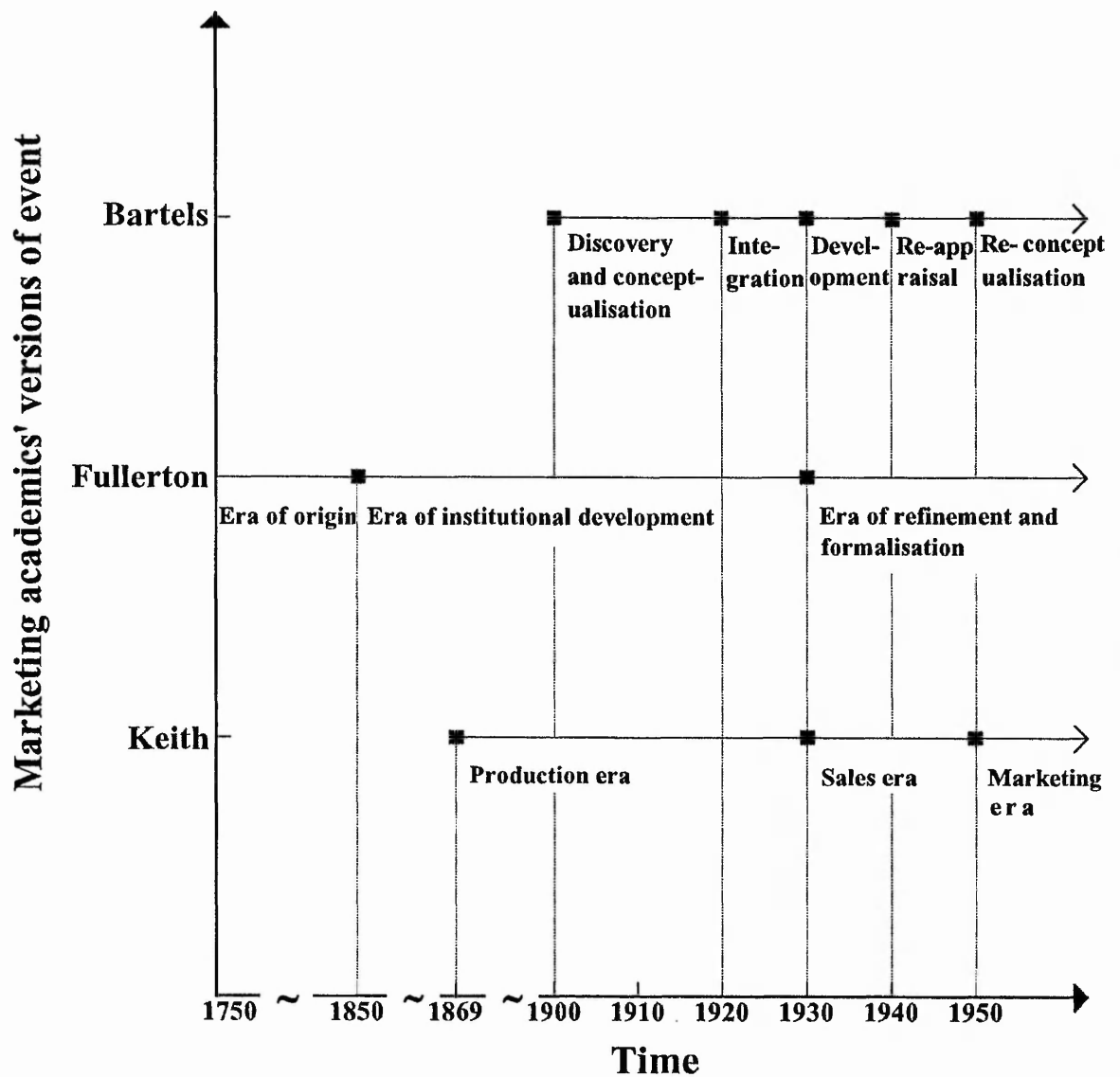


Fig. 2.1 Stages of marketing development (based on American history)

Before developing a conceptual framework for marketing orientation, we need to review the definition and construct of the marketing concept. Thus, in the next section, I will investigate the framework of the marketing concept and the criticisms it has received in the literature in greater detail.

2.3 UNDERSTANDING THE MARKETING CONCEPT

The marketing concept is essentially a business philosophy, an ideal or a policy statement...we use the term "market [marketing] orientation" to mean the implementation of the marketing concept (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990: 1).

Kohli & Jaworski here have indicated to us an inseparable relationship between the marketing concept and marketing orientation (cf. McCarthy & Perreault, 1987: 28). The marketing concept is a state of mind that guides behaviour while the marketing orientation is the behaviour and manifestation of the concept. When we mention "implementation" or "behaviour" it does not mean a list of "snap shot " activities but involves a continuous process (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Selnes, 1991; Payne, 1988). In order to grasp a comprehensive picture of a marketing orientation we need firstly to view the meaning of the marketing concept.

2.3.1 What is the Marketing Concept?

Since the 1950s and 1960s, the marketing concept has received a wide recognition (as discussed in the previous section and see also McKitterick, 1957; Hahn, 1957; Lazo, 1958). It is espoused by Dickinson, et al. (1986: 18) who mention the emergence of the concept: "ever since the marketing concept was formally articulated by the General Electric Company after W.W.II., it has had ready acceptance by academic marketers". In the last decade, there has even been a "strong resurgence" (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990) of academics and practitioners interested in the marketing concept and its implementation (Deshpande & Webster, 1989; Webster, 1988; Wilson & Gilligan, 1992).

The marketing concept, according to Kohli & Jaworski (1990: 1), is "a cornerstone of the marketing discipline". Its foundation block is "customer orientation" (eg. Dickinson et. al., 1986; Grönroos, 1989; Levitt, 1960). Kotler, an influential marketing scholar, defines the marketing concept as follows:

The key to achieving organisational goals consists in determining the needs and wants of target markets and delivering the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors (1986a: 47).

As Grönroos describes,

According to the marketing concept, which states what marketing as a philosophy is, the firm should base all its activities on the needs and wants of customers in selected target markets...(1989: 52).

It is believed that, if this philosophy is taken into account by firms, the business is likely to be successful and profitable (Dickinson et. al., 1986; Grönroos, 1989; Kotler, 1991).

Apart from customer-focus and profit-orientation, Felton (1959: 55) asserts the significance of the co-ordination of all marketing functions which should be included in the definition. He defines the marketing concept as,

A corporate state of mind that insists on the integration and co-ordination of all the marketing functions which, in turn, are melded with all other corporate functions, for the basic purpose of producing maximum long-range corporate profits.

McNamara's definition (1972: 55) comprises the need for recognition and communication of the role of marketing for the whole organisation:

A philosophy of business management, based upon a company-wide acceptance of the need for *customer orientation*, *profit orientation*, and recognition of the important role of marketing in *communicating* the needs of the market to all major corporate departments.

A review of the literature has shed some light on the framework of the marketing concept. In the construction of the concept there are essentially three components:

- . customer orientation
- . co-ordination of marketing functions
- . profit orientation

2.3.2 Criticism of the Marketing Concept

Where the marketing concept is implemented, it has received a lot of criticisms. Some academics observe that there is "limitation" in the concept and it is impractical (eg. Chan, 1988; Dickinson, 1986; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Veradarajan, 1983), while others point out that even when the concept is operationalised, it has merely become the "marketing mix" (eg. Dreher, et al., 1991; Grönroos, 1989).

There are two assumptions, according to Dickinson (1986: 18), lying behind the concept; "that the consumer knows what she or he wants and acts in a highly rational manner to satisfy such wants; that consumer sovereignty prevails". However, it is "explicated only in texts on marketing" (*Ibid*). In practice, even trained marketing chief executives did not show their interest in it (McDaniel & Hise, 1983). The reason may be because, as Chan (1988: 10) infers, the concept only provides a "vague notion" that marketing has something to do with "putting customers first in the minds of everyone in the company". The criticisms also include the failure to consider the firm's fitness to cater for customers' demands (Kalder, 1971). Bell & Emory (1971) argue that it fails to concern itself with the genuine welfare of customers. Marketers cannot just take consumers' goals as given, nor can they take for granted that consumers know what they want. McGee & Spiro (1988) criticize it as a lack of "social responsibility". Moreover, the concept may discourage innovation (Bennett & Cooper, 1981) since consumers' wants may be built on the familiar and suggest only minor modifications. It also understates the power of an organisation to shape their demands.

Due to the imprecision and vagueness of the concept, its model or ideal (ie. marketing orientation) is difficult to put into practice. To avoid prolonged argument, the American Marketing Association (AMA) has tried to delineate a specific boundary to marketing for purposes of its implementation. AMA(1985) defines marketing as:

The process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchange and satisfy individual and organizational objectives.

Here, the marketing concept is directed towards a list of marketing activities rather than a management philosophy. The logical consequence, derived from the definition, is that anything other than "conception, pricing, promotion and distribution" is not marketing. After reviewing the standard marketing literature (eg. Kotler, 1986a), it can be criticized in that the core of marketing has become the marketing mix (cf. Gummesson, 1987). People tend to implement the marketing concept with 4P's, namely, product, pricing, place and promotion (McCarthy & Perreault, 1987); 6P's by adding politics and public relation (Kotler, 1986b); and 7P's in services marketing (Booms & Bitner, 1982; Cowell, 1984) - 4P's plus people, physical evidence and process. The marketing mix model, especially the 4P's, is widely accepted as the general marketing model in the western world (Grönroos, 1989). Nonetheless, Grönroos reminds us that this model, developed in north America, is concerned mainly with "consumer packaged goods and durables" (*Ibid*: 53). Apparently, the "P's" approach is merely one aspect of the implementation of marketing orientation, the framework of which will change over time.

To conclude, due to the vague notion of the concept, it can easily become a list of activities which Ames (1970) refers to as the "trappings " of marketing. Thus, in order to transform the concept to orientation, it is necessary for us to establish a framework and an operational definition for marketing orientation.

2.4 UNDERSTANDING MARKETING ORIENTATION

In the last decade the notion of "marketing orientation" (ie. the implementation of the marketing concept) has received wide attention among academics and practitioners. Some

scholars claim that one of the contributory factors for the decline of "Britain's competitive market position" is the lack of a marketing orientation (eg. Baker, 1979; Doyle, 1985). Many companies and institutions started to realize that they need to be more "market driven" and "customer oriented" (Day & Wensley, 1988; Webster, 1988) although there is still a lack of any clear definition (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). Recently, it has been widely recognised that marketing orientation is related to business success because it helps to direct the resources efficiently and effectively towards critical business priorities (Narver & Slater, 1990; Payne, 1988; Canning, 1988). It has been espoused by empirical researches (eg. Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Levitt, 1960). Since there is a lot of controversy over the orientation construct, many researchers have begun to investigate and develop its framework (eg. Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990). Thus, I will assess the marketing orientation construct drawn based on the literature, from which I will establish my own framework and definition.

This section will examine these issues by, firstly, viewing the difference between "marketing orientation" and "market orientation" in which my standpoint will be presented, and then demonstrating different orientations where we can observe the distinctiveness of marketing orientation. The literature on the marketing orientation construct will then be reviewed.

2.4.1 Marketing Orientation or Market Orientation?

The terms "market orientation" and "marketing orientation" have been widely used in the marketing literature. Some academics prefer to use "market orientation"/"market oriented" to illustrate its scope and significance to business (eg. Lear, 1963; Narver & Slater, 1990; Selnes, 1991; Shapiro, 1988); whilst others are in favour of using the term "marketing orientation" in their argument and their research (eg. Canning, 1988; Chan, 1988; Greenley & Matcham, 1986; Payne, 1988). However, they do not argue why they choose the term, nor do they define it properly and precisely.

In their research, Kohli & Jaworski describe the term "marketing orientation" as "restrictive and misleading" and they go on building up their contention for the use of

"market orientation". Their argument for the latter label is based on three reasons:

1. "[it] clarifies that the construct is not exclusively a concern of the marketing function; rather, a variety of departments participate in generating market intelligence, disseminating it, and taking actions in response to it";
2. "[it] is less politically charged in that it does not inflate the importance of the marketing function in an organization. The label removes the construct from the province of the marketing department and makes it the responsibility of all departments in an organization";
3. "[it] focuses attention on markets (that include customers and forces affecting them)" (1990: 3-4).

Here, they merely associate "market orientation" with "marketing function" and "markets" but neglect the basic principle behind this term. Firstly, I do not agree that "marketing orientation" means a list of marketing functions. Dreher, et al. (1991), in their discussion, relate "market orientation" to "elements of the system". Indeed, "marketing orientation" signifies a long-term continuous process (Payne, 1988) in which various departments need to co-ordinate and co-operate together to meet the requirements of the environment.

Moreover, "market orientation" may be less acceptable politically - especially in the professional field that is the focus of this thesis. The "traditionalists" may identify the label with *slavishly following markets* instead of *developing markets* which will enable the "service ethic" of traditional "professionalism" to find its expression.

Furthermore, it is not enough for us solely to focus attention on markets. Their argument neglects the consideration of the resource limitation (eg. Sharp, 1991) and the demands of the personnel (ie. the "internal customers" - Grönroos, 1989) - especially in the professional services field.

Based on the above arguments I will use the term "marketing orientation" to describe my framework accurately. Before the framework is investigated, different orientations will

be indicated in the next section which can help to highlight the characteristics of marketing orientation.

2.4.2 The Scope of Different Orientations

In the previous section (Section 2.2), by tracing the history of marketing development, a change of orientations can be observed. Different orientations are usually associated with different values and attitudes. Although one orientation may overshadow another in certain periods, a range of conflicting orientations and associated values can arise in one organisation at the same time. Thus, Payne (1988) recommends that the identification of different orientations is needed.

Product orientation

A "product-oriented" company tends to stress *the supremacy of its product/service*. Payne describes this orientation as, "the quality of our product sells itself and customers will always need our products" (1988: 47). Levitt cites a case of an electronics company which emphasizes research and development too much. It created the illusion that "a superior product will sell itself" (1960: 53) and ignored the people who consume it. Another school of management accuses the orientation of being "management by convenience" (Lear, 1963). For example, an FE college with this orientation may only pay attention to course development rather than evaluating the demands of the market and believe that "high quality" can attract enough students/clients.

Production orientation

A "production-oriented" organisation may emphasize *the importance of ensuring efficiency in production and distribution*. This approach is attractive to organisations because the unit costs will decrease while the outputs increase (Levitt, 1960). For example, an FE college may desire to have as many students as possible in one class so that the costs can be reduced at the expense of individual caring and counselling.

It has been mentioned (in Section 2.2.5) that a traditional orientation is composed of the elements of both product and production orientation. In FE, I will define it as *the emphasis of their specialised services and the efficiency of producing the services*. Generally, every FE college has its specialism which can help sustain its "competitive advantages". A college with the traditional orientation will emphasize the supremacy of its specialised provisions which, it will believe, can recruit enough "clients". All the provision is offered from a fixed courses "menu" for "clients" to choose, which is a way of reducing unit costs by saving the time of developing courses and of manpower in planning and managing.

Sales orientation

In many organisations, "sales" and "marketing" are used interchangeably without any real understanding of their differences (Canning, 1988; Keith, 1960). The belief in this orientation is that *sales can be maintained by investing more on selling the product/service rather than re-evaluating the product/service in the light of changes in the market*. Levitt defines selling as "the tricks and techniques of getting people to exchange their cash for your product" (1960: 55). It is preoccupied with the seller's need to convert the product/service into cash. Thus, sales people play a significant role in boosting sales. According to Dreher (1991), some organisations may apply marketing tools in a specific manner in order to sell the products as much as possible since it is believed to be one of the key dimensions used in evaluating marketing. For example, an FE college may organise plenty of exhibitions and open days to promote its courses without comprehensive development of the management systems.

Marketing orientation

The preceding orientations either focus on product, production or selling, and are very "inward-looking" approaches concentrating only on the benefits to organisations. It is generally agreed that a marketing-oriented company adopts a "customer-centred" approach. My own definition of a marketing orientation will be discussed in a later section (Section 2.5.5). Let us first investigate how academics view the definition.

Drucker comments that marketing orientation "is not only much broader than selling, it is not a specialized activity at all. It is the whole business seen from the point of view of its final result, that is, from the customer's point of view" (1954: 37). McCarthy & Perreault (1987: 28) define *marketing orientation* as "instead of just trying to get customers to buy what the firm has produced, a marketing-oriented firm tries to produce what customers need". Both adopt a customer-focused approach. That means it is not about selling what you can sell but a process of identifying what the customers want.

Kotler & Bloom suggest the practical scope of marketing orientation. They state that the main task of the organisation is to determine the needs and wants of target markets and to satisfy them through "the design, communication, pricing and delivery of appropriate and competitively viable offerings" (1984: 16). They highlight the significance of a customer orientation and argued that it can be achieved by adopting "P's" activities.

Recently, many academics have tended to stress *the balance between buyer and seller that the "wants and needs" of customers should match "with the constraints of the resource and skill limitations" of an organisation* (Payne, 1988: 47; Dickinson et al, 1986: 22). According to Christopher et al (1980), marketing is the way in which "an organisation matches its own human, financial and physical resources with the wants of its customers". This is echoed by Trustrum (1989) who provides a comprehensive account about the balance of the "needs" of both buyer and seller. He states that if a company only considers its own capabilities and values, it is product-oriented. However, if it overstates the customer side of the balance, it may be done either by aggressive advertising and selling "to persuade customers that the goods/services offered do satisfy their requirements" (1989: 49) or by providing all they need. This latter approach may lead to a wide product range, high inventory of raw materials, increases in production down-time and idle-time and so on. It is sales orientation rather than marketing orientation. A "marketing-oriented" company strives not only to satisfy the customer, but to achieve "an appropriate match between market requirements and organisational capabilities" (*Ibid*: 54). In Trustrum's argument, he tends to transform marketing from

a philosophical level to an applied one. However, he does not explain clearly the way to balance the needs of both parties, nor describe what the constraints are.

The identification of the term "marketing orientation" and its difference with other orientations helps us to grasp the image and scope of the orientation (see **Table 2.2** for the summary of different orientations). In the next section, drawing from the extensive literature review, the marketing orientation framework will be fully discussed.

ORIENTATIONS	Product orientation	Production orientation	Sales orientation	Marketing orientation
CONTENT	Focus on the supremacy of product/service	Focus on the importance of ensuring efficiency in production & distribution	Focus on more investment on selling the product/service	Focus on customers' needs & wants; an appropriate match between market requirements & organisational capabilities

Table 2.2 A summary table showing different orientations

2.4.3 The Marketing Orientation Framework

In order to understand a marketing orientation, academics and practitioners have developed a number of frameworks for explaining it. Many of the frameworks are derived from researches which are based on consumer products in commercial organisations. In developing a marketing-oriented framework four aspects are widely recognised, namely:

- . *customer orientation and market focus*
- . *integrated marketing efforts*
- . *a business philosophy*
- . *profit direction* (eg. Felton, 1959; Kotler, 1991).

Narver & Slater (1990) regard "profit objective" as a decision criterion rather than as a behavioural component of their construct. That is to say, according to them profitability

(they used "profit objective" and "profitability" interchangeably) is an objective of a business. In their model, three behavioural components are identified, they are:

- . *customer orientation*
- . *competitor orientation*
- . *interfunctional co-ordination*

A long term focus and a profit objective are the decision criteria. In terms of "long term focus", in line with them, I agree that this is the aim for all organisations to drive for and the adoption of a marketing orientation can be justified in relation to it. However, it is argued that "profit objective" should not be used as a decision criterion, especially in FE (my argument is seen in Section 2.4.3.4). In fact, profit direction is only one factor for long-term survival, and the ultimate aim of organisations is continual balance of different resources and continual satisfaction of different constituencies at different times (eg. client groups, employees and so on). Concerning *competitor orientation*, a number of marketing academics have highlighted the significance of this aspect in developing marketing strategies (eg. Kotler, et al., 1985; McDonald, 1992). According to Kotler, et al. (1985), the reason for the success of Japan is due to its ability to tackle its competitors in the west. However, in my research, this orientation was not seen by a considerable number of "actors" as an essential element in the change. On the contrary, they believe that internal re-organisation is needed in order to improve the present situation (it will be discussed in Chapter 5). Based on the principle that the meaning is socially constructed, I do not adopt this orientation in my conceptual framework of *marketing orientation*.

Kohli & Jaworski's marketing-oriented construct (1990) has aroused attention in recent years. Their model encompasses three aspects:

- . *intelligence generation*
- . *intelligence dissemination*
- . *responsiveness*

They argue that "intelligence" should be generated and disseminated within organisations in a manner that ensures customers' demands can be met. Their view point is in line with the notions of "integrated marketing efforts" and "customer orientation".

In the light of this literature review, it is noted that both customer orientation and organisational co-ordination are conceived as important aspects in a marketing-oriented construct. When the literature on services marketing is reviewed, it reminds us that a behavioural aspect should not be neglected: that is, the *internal customers* (the members of staff in an organisation) (Grönroos, 1989) should be considered. It is relevant particularly to "professional" organisations (eg. FE colleges) where the interaction between lecturers and their "clients" reflects the quality of provision and, in turn, affect the long-term survival requirement.

Inspired by the framework of professionalism developed in Chapter 1, I have developed my marketing orientation framework based on the literature review in both the marketing and sociological disciplines. Three behavioural aspects are included in the model:

- . *customer/client orientation*
- . *employee orientation*
- . *organisational co-ordination*
- . *and the long-term survival requirement is the decision criterion*

In the next sections, I will discuss my framework to show how the three aspects are linked to each other. Also, the relationship between a *marketing orientation* and profitability will be investigated.

2.4.3.1 Customer/Client Orientation

The words "customer" and "client" are used interchangeably in organisations to label the "buyers". In professional services fields, people tend to use "client" (eg. Kotler & Bloom, 1984) in describing their buyers. In terms of "consumers", Kotler & Levy (1988: 41) identify "clients" as one sub-group of consumers. They define "clients" as

"those who are the immediate consumers of the organisation's product". In the FE field, the "enterprising" people have started to use the label "clients" to describe their "students" and "employing organisations".

In the marketing literature, it is conceived that *satisfying* customer/clients' "needs and wants" is the foremost component in implementing marketing (eg. Baker, 1985; Grönroos, 1989; Piercy, 1992; McCarthy & Perreault, 1987). According to Piercy (1992), "customer satisfaction has to be the top priority in all we do" if we want to "make marketing work". And McCarthy & Perreault (1987: 9) state that "marketing should begin with potential customer needs...marketing should try to anticipate needs" and that it applies to both profit and non-profit organisations. The significance of *customer orientation* is supported by many researchers (eg. Narver & Slater, 1990; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). This orientation is considered to be significant for the effectiveness of organisations in some management literature (eg. Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

In terms of *customer/client orientation*, I will define it as:

Orienting to the demands of customers/clients within limited resources so that a satisfactory long-term relationship is sustained for the organisation's long-term survival

The issue of a customer focused approach, what it is and how it can be measured, has been examined over several decades but widely discussed recently. Basically, it is stressed that customers/clients should be the focal point of a business. Levitt comments that, "an industry begins with the customer and his needs, not with a patent, a raw material, or a selling skill" (1960: 55). According to Sherer (1987: 42), "customer service and satisfaction is the only defensible justification for any organisation's existence". In measuring "customers' satisfaction", Piercy (1992) suggests some practical ways, eg, questionnaire, casual phone calls, frequent visits, and so on. The central point of measurement is that he invites staff members of organisations to ask themselves a simple question: "What would I feel if I were one of the customers?". He tries to ask

staff members of organisations to put themselves into a role of a *buyer* in order to see things from a different perspective. The implication of this evaluation is *continuous* during the process of interaction to examine whether or not the "promises" are fulfilled.

On the notion of a customer/client orientation, two prominent concepts are derived, they are: *interaction* and *promise*.

The Concept of Interaction

In the marketing discipline there are three theories which emphasize the significance of the concept of *interaction*. These are services marketing theory, network/interaction theory of industrial marketing, and the theory of relationship marketing.

In services marketing, it is shown that since production and consumption are partially simultaneous (cf. Grönroos, 1981), there is direct contact between employees and customers in the process of production. Thus *interaction* has become a key concept which refers to the contact between the service providers' staff and the customers (eg. Bateson, 1989; Cowell, 1984; Gummesson, 1991a). Concerning the "interaction approach" of industrial marketing, the interaction process is critical in the build up of long-term relationships. The "exchange episodes"² enable clear expectations in two parties of the roles and the reduction of uncertainties (cf. Hakansson, 1982; Quinn et. al., 1987). In fact the implication can be widened in the sense that the complicated network of relations should be regarded as strategic issues. The relations exist in different aspects ranging from production and distribution to social contracts, etc. An infrastructure or network is set up in which "the marketing game is played daily" (Gummesson, 1991a) so that a *long term interactive relationship* is sustained. Thus, he argues that the success of the business is dependent on the success of the network of relations.

In relationship marketing, the word "relationship" signifies the need for a seller to secure a customer and not just a one-time sale. Jackson (1985) defines relationship marketing

² Exchange episodes comprise product/service exchange, information exchange, financial exchange, and social exchange (Hakansson, H. (ed.), 1982, International Marketing and Purchasing of Industrial Goods: An Interaction Approach, P.16)

as "marketing oriented towards strong, lasting relationships with individual accounts". The Nordic School of Services Marketing is undertaking a lot of research on this relationship between service suppliers and their customers (e.g. Gummesson, 1987; Grönroos, 1981). Building up long-term mutually beneficial interactive relationships between "sellers" and "buyers" is a significant component for good business performance (Grönroos, 1989; Gummesson, 1987).

These three theories have shown the effect of interaction on the future business. This interaction is described by Gummesson as the "point of marketing" which "is an opportunity to influence favourably the customer's present and future purchases" (1991a: 68). Gummesson identifies four types of interaction which "all hold potential points-of marketing" (Fig. 2.3):

- (1) interaction between the service provider's front line employees and the customer;
- (2) interaction among customers themselves who may become "part-time marketers" of that organisation within the process;
- (3) interaction between the customer and the provider's physical environment and tangible products;
- (4) interaction between the customer and the provider's systems and routines.

Concerning the first "interaction", the significance of employees-customers interaction lies in the fact that employees are those people who *deliver* the "service and quality" (Piercy, 1992) to customers. And this "interaction" is associated with Grönroos's notion of "functional quality" in which the attitudes and behaviour of employees, their general "service-mindedness" and so on, are considered to be significant components in affecting the perceptions of customers (1982). Piercy (*ibid*: 37) argues that, before we think about a service strategy and an appropriate system, we need to "think about the people who deliver it and the people who receive it". (Employee orientation will be examined in the next section). Second, the customer-customer interaction has brought forward the notion of "word of mouth". According to Cowell (1984: 203), a customer's perception of the quality of a service "may be formed and influenced by other customers". Customers'

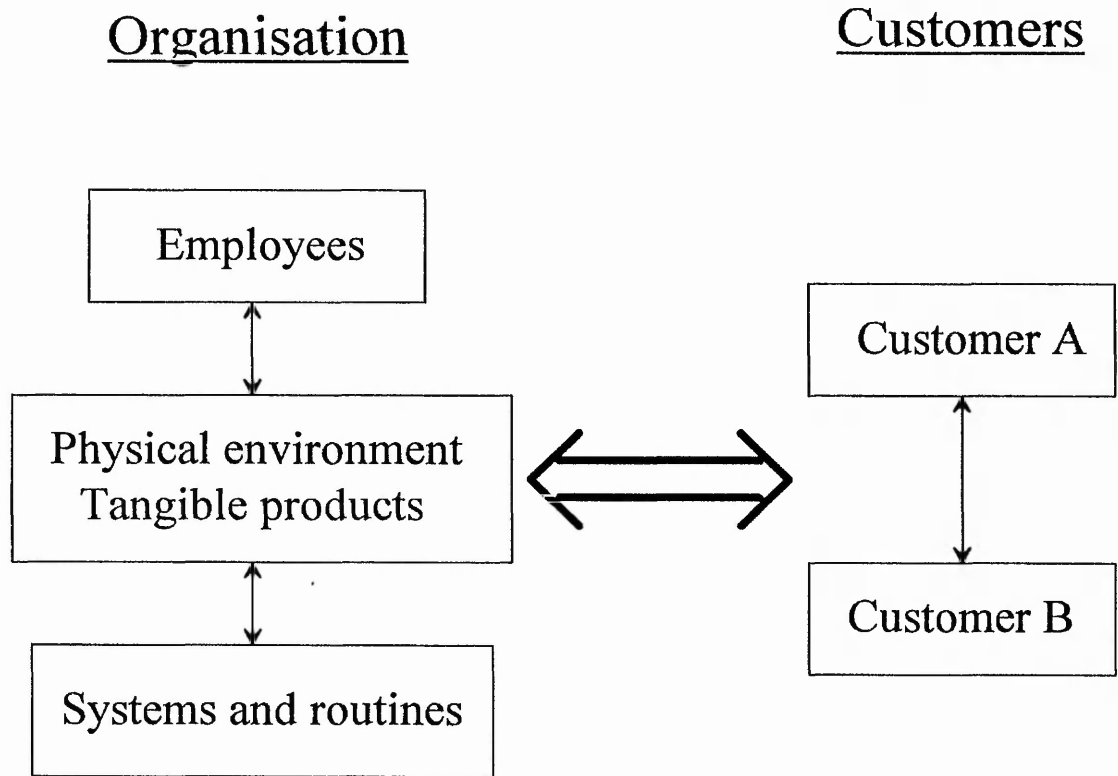


Fig. 2.3 Types of Interaction

word of mouth recommendations or complaints may affect other customers' purchase behaviour. Thus, Piercy (1992: 30-65) points out that "customer satisfaction" is significant for the long-term seller-buyer relationship, which in turn can allow organisations to survive for the long-term. Third, both physical environment and systems can affect whether or not the "promise" given by an organisation to customers can be fulfilled. This "interaction" is associated with Grönroos's "technical quality" (*ibid*). During the continuous interaction, customers' perceptions of the "service and quality" may change when the environment and systems change. This in turn may affect long-term relationships.

The service production/delivery process is described by Eiglier & Langeard (1987) as *servuction*. Different from production of goods, this new concept is used to deal with services marketing. The concept of *interaction* is a significant notion for an organisation to move to the direction of customer orientation. However, this model does not provide a conceptualized picture of the process of interaction. The concept of *promise* identified by Calonius (1986) can be adopted as a prominent component.

The Concept of Promise

In order to establish and maintain long-term relationships, Grönroos (1989) points out that "exchanges" are needed. Many academics have developed the notion of exchange relationship as the goal of marketing (e.g. Marketing News, 1985; Kotler, 1986a; Hunt, 1983). Hunt claims that "marketing science is the behavioral science that seeks to explain exchange relationships" (1983: 17).

Nevertheless, "exchange relationship" is a vague concept. Calonius' (1986) market behaviour framework provides a clearer picture on this concept. His framework explains in detail the match between the "needs" of both buyers and sellers in the decision process. In his model, two main concepts are presented, namely *expectations* and *experiences*. In any interaction, each party has expectations towards the other. People tend to compare their experiences with their expectations in the negotiation process. The expectation is related to the notion of "perceived service and quality" (Piercy, 1992) (see

Fig. 2.4).

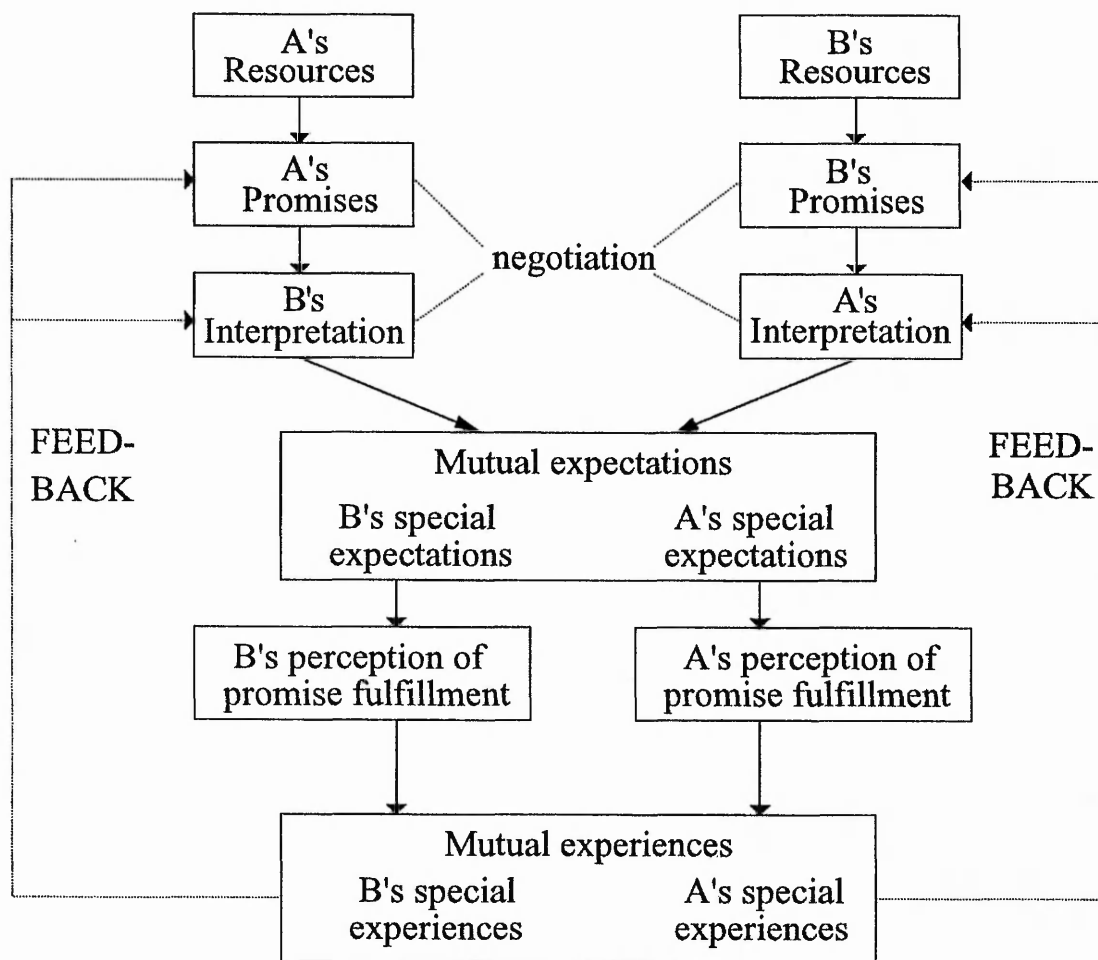
However, since there is no agreement on how to assess their experiences, the *promise* concept is derived which seems to offer a solution. Calonijs has used this concept as an integral part of marketing. According to Calonijs, "promise...conditional declaration or assurance made to another party or to oneself...will occur with some probability in the near or more distant future, and last over a shorter or longer period of time" (Ibid: 518). He is echoed by Levitt (1981: 96) who also stresses the importance of "promise". However, his emphasis is at the period before any products/service is purchased. He states that "when prospective customers can't experience the product in advance, they are asked to buy what are essentially promises - promises of satisfaction. Even tangible, testable, feelable, smellable products are, before they've brought, largely just promises".

The framework also assumes that each party undertakes to exchange certain benefits in the future provided that set conditions are met. It further assumes that these undertakings are based on both parties' awareness of resources available to them (It is akin to what we have discussed in Section 2.4.2). However, there is no research evidence to support Calonijs' argument but merely a list of examples.

He proceeds further to argue that all promises, regardless of the resources, are subjected to *interpretation*. There are six components in an interpretation process:

1. What the other party actually promises;
2. Whether the other party has the pre-requisites or resources to fulfil promises made;
3. Whether the other party can be compelled to fulfil his promises;
4. What one's own promise mean to the other party;
5. What consequences fulfilling one's own promises will have;
6. What consequences the other party's fulfilment of his promises will have (Op Cit: 521).

This interpretation is not only based on the current promises but also on the previous promises and fulfilment (e.g. Mizerski et al, 1979). It results in mutual and individual expectations. The fulfilment of promise is contingent upon not only the technical



Source: Calonius, H. (1986)

"A Market Behaviour Framework" in H. Calonius et al (eds),
Conference of the European Marketing Academy: Proceedings,
Helsinki, pp517.

Fig. 2.4 A simplified version of Calonius's framework for market behaviour analysis

performance of the other party, but also "the knowledge derived from his own actions, practice, perception, enjoyment or suffering" (*Op Cit*: 521). It is closely related to Grönroos's notion of "functional quality" (1982), which surpasses the significance of the technical quality.

Calonius argues that the most crucial thing in marketing orientation is the exchange of promises between the parties concerned. Indeed, he has raised an important point: promises are dependent on both parties' resources. However, he does not elaborate this notion, nor does he identify the effect of the context of an organisation towards buyer-seller interaction. As organisations are unable to control their buyers' resources, it is their responsibility to allocate and control their own resources so as to fulfil their promises for securing long-term relationships.

The rationale behind the principle of promises is that ensuring a long-term relationship between sellers and buyers is liable to lead to the long-term survival of an organisation. In sum, the concepts involved in a customer/client orientation are depicted as follows

Fig. 2.5):

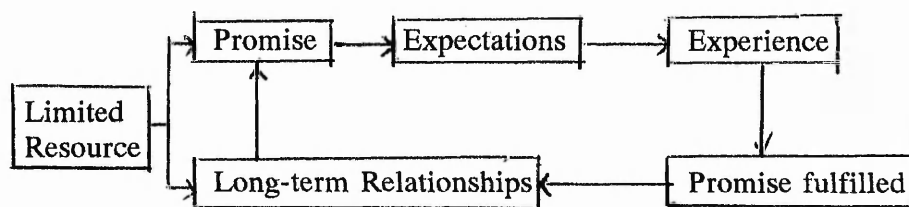


Fig. 2.5 Customer/Client Orientation

It is widely recognised that "external customer/client" (ie. buyer) is one key component in the concept of a marketing orientation. It seems that every marketer has tended to develop competitive offerings to "satisfy the wants and needs of customers". However, there is a group of people to whom we also need to pay attention, they are the "internal customers" (ie. the employees of an organisation).

2.4.3.2 Employee Orientation

The notion of employee orientation has gained more attention in recent years. A number of contributions to the services marketing literature have recognised the importance of employee orientation due to the *simultaneous production and consumption* of services (eg. Berry, 1984; Compton, 1987; Cowell, 1984; Grönroos, 1990). According to Grönroos (1981), the significance of the orientation lies in the notion of intensive "buyer-seller interactions", especially in professional services and other services fields. For example, lecturers spend a great deal of their time in direct contact with their students and employing organisations in the delivery of the services; accountants have frequent contacts with their clients in order to understand their demands in the process of making business.

The buyer-seller interactions are associated with three characteristics of services:

- . *intangibility*
- . *inseparability*
- . *heterogeneity* (Cowell, 1984).

In explaining the three characteristics, Cowell (*ibid*: 23) contends that "a repeat purchase may rely upon previous experience" and "the purchase of a service is the purchase of something *intangible*". Also, since the supply of service cannot be separated from the seller, he argues, "creating or performing the service may occur at the same time as full or partial consumption of it" (*ibid*: 25). In terms of *heterogeneity*, he states that "it is difficult to achieve standardization of output in services" because "each unit of a service may differ from other units" (*ibid*).

Due to intensive buyer-seller interactions and the "distinctive nature of services", many services marketing academics have highlighted the significance of the role played by employees in the process of "satisfying" the external customers. The commitment of employees is always (as argued by many marketing academics) related to the *success* of an organisation. Grönroos (1989) identifies the resources of a firm generally as

personnel, technology and systems. They need to be used in such a manner that the customer/client's trust in them is maintained and strengthened. In his notion of "internal marketing", he stresses the importance of personnel among the resources: "the employees ..are of the utmost importance to the *success* of the organization's marketing operations" (1984: 92), and "such *internal customers* have to be served as well as the ultimate, external customers..." (Op Cit: 55). Berry (1980: 25) explains further that "internal marketing" is "applying the philosophy and practices of marketing to people who serve the external customers so that (1) the best possible people can be employed and retained and (2) they will do the best possible work". This is echoed by Davidson who emphasizes that those "customer contact personnel" are the "key people in the organisation".

In fact, Levitt (1972) has put forward a view that "there is no such thing as service industries. There are only industries whose service components are greater or less than those of other industries. Everybody is in service". That means, no matter which fields employees are in, they are actually providing services to customers. In Grönroos's argument, he applies his services marketing view to other fields by arguing that the performance cannot be maximized in any organisation without the collaboration of employees (cf. Sherer, 1987). This is echoed by Gummesson (1987: 17) who states that "the concept of the internal customer brings customer-supplier relationships inside the firm...only when the [internal] customers are satisfied...has a job been properly executed" (cf. George, 1977). In other words, *satisfied employees* are a pre-requisite in order to have *satisfied customers*.

In terms of definition, I will define *employee orientation* as:

Orienting to the demands of employees within limited resources in such a way that a satisfactory long-term employee-client relationship is sustained for the organisation's long-term survival

In developing an understanding over the types of employee work orientation, or "demands", I will draw on some sociological and management literature. Goldthorpe,

Lockwood, et al. (1968) identified several kinds of work orientations in their studies. For instance, if people are *instrumental-oriented*, their emphasis is on earning money; if people are *bureaucratic-oriented*, they put a priority in climbing up the hierarchical ladder. Handy (1990: 38) uses three C's, ie. *coercion* (you are here because you have to be), *calculation* (you are here because you have made a straight bargain) and *co-operation* (you are here because you want to be) to illustrate the "psychological contracts" of employees with their organisations. Their argument implies that every employee has his/her own expectation regarding work and their orientations are associated with certain rewards they may obtain. It echoes the expectancy theory (see Lawler, 1971; Vroom, 1964), which points out that people have their expectation towards certain behaviour which will lead them into achieving rewards in which they are interested. Thus, *effective* performance will be exhibited in order to secure the particular rewards. Their contention highlights the processual approach in understanding employees' motivation at work.

Employees themselves have orientations and organisational sociologists sometimes use the term I have been applying to the organisation (employee orientation as the organisation's orientations towards its employees) to refer to the employees' orientations towards their jobs. In order to have a comprehensive picture of an individual's motivation at work, we need to understand the expectations of an employee (employee orientation in their second sense) which are brought to the workplace. According to Silverman (1970: 150), "orientations [of employees] differ because actors bring different *ends and expectations* to their membership of an organisation...which encourage or discourage certain ends and expectations and generate others". Watson (1986) identifies these expectations as *prior orientations*. When employees enter an organisation, they have obtained certain levels of knowledge and experience that the organisation demands as well as different kinds of expectations. These expectations can be either explicit or implicit (cf. Handy, 1990) at that particular time. Watson argues that the behaviour of employees is based upon "the individual's reading of how the exchange relationship stands with the employer at that time" (1986: 127). His argument is in line with Calonijs's notion of "expectation and promise" (1986). Watson goes on to argue that employees' orientations may change in their interactions with the surrounding environment (cf. Handy, 1990). He calls this orientation *dynamic orientation*. The

change of behaviour is related to "the particular circumstances", "a shift in non-work circumstances" and the "changing circumstances within the organisation itself". The notions of dynamic orientations and expectancy theory are significant for us to understand the behaviour of employees in the sense that employees' orientations can change during the process of their interaction with the circumstances and their perception towards the vested interests (or particular rewards) they can gain continuously.

Relating employee orientation to the notion of marketing, employees are divided into two categories: those having direct contact with "buyers" and those without direct contact with "buyers" (cf. Cowell, 1984). In the first category, they may perform some jobs with respect to marketing (ie. *full-time marketers*) and it is not necessarily confined to those who are working in a "marketing department". They can be telephone receptionists, lecturers, canteen staff, and so on (Gummesson, 1987). In the second category, although these employees do not have direct communication with the customers/clients, they may influence them indirectly. These people include technical service, invoicing, administrative staff and so on. Gummesson (*ibid*) names those who can influence customer relations, customer satisfaction, customer perceived quality and revenue as *part-time marketers*. Their importance is described by Grönroos (1981: 55) as "the operations of [inter-firm functions] depend on their service orientation". Thus, if they can fulfil their responsibilities as "members of the total marketing function" of an organisation, they are true "part-time marketers" (*ibid*: 56). It is not important to know what role they are playing, but it is important to know how people perceive what role they are playing. For example, whether or not employees perceive themselves to be marketers or nothing to do with marketing. If lecturers see themselves as "marketers", their predisposition to behaving is different from those who do not like to label themselves as "marketers".

Since employee orientation is regarded as one of the key components for the "success" of an organisation, it is necessary, as argued by Grönroos (1981: 237), to develop *motivated and customer-conscious employees*. The utmost task is to change and develop employees' attitudes in a way which is consistent with the management philosophy.

The orientation, it is suggested, should be implemented at two levels: the individual and the organisational levels. The individual level is concerned with continuous training and adequate reward; the organisational level is involved with effective information flow.

On the individual level, it is believed that continuous *training* is important since it can ensure employees' capability of "responding to unforeseen consumer wants in an unstandardized manner and create customer satisfaction" (*Ibid*: 236). The training is not merely limited to how to perform the job well, but is to "increase customer-consciousness" (*Ibid*: 237). This is echoed in Watson's argument that employees' orientations may change according to changing organisational circumstances. Then, continuous training helps employees to have a positive attitude towards the notion of marketing. Cowell (1984: 207) emphasizes especially the training needs for those employees who are in "boundary spanning roles" (linking the organisation to customers). In terms of *reward*, it is regarded as an important way to motivate people (cf. Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Payne, 1988). Much management literature discusses the effects of reward systems on the attitudes and behaviour of employees (eg. Lawler & Rhode, 1976;). However, according to Morse (1953) (and also expectancy theory), satisfaction is not solely determined by reward but by the extent of expectations. In this way, the meaning of rewards are attached to particular kinds of expectations defined by individuals.

At the organisational level, Grönroos contends that an "internal environment of customer-consciousness" should be developed (1981), in which an effective *internal information system* is an essential component in developing a "marketing" attitude among employees. The information must be given in such a way that "it is notified, understood and implemented" (*Ibid*: 238). It is analogous to Kohli & Jaworski's "intelligence generation" and "intelligence dissemination" (1990) in that employees are needed to be informed of any organisational development and changes. In Grönroos's internal marketing model (1984: 95), he claims that employees should know the importance of their position and realise the new activities. He argues, "if the firm does not succeed in its first, internal market - the employees -it will encounter troubles in its ultimate market - the target consumers" (*Ibid*: 97).

In the light of the literature, it is believed that an employee orientation can contribute to the long-term relationship with the customers/clients. Due to its "dynamic" nature, it is the organisation which is responsible for establishing appropriate systems to develop employees' positive attitudes towards "marketing". A model (see Fig. 2.6) of employee orientation is developed as a summary of the above discussion.

It has been argued that both a customer/client orientation and an employee orientation are essential components in marketing orientation. Nevertheless, performance cannot be maximized without appropriate and effective organisational co-ordination. In the next section, the context of inter-functional co-ordination will be investigated.

2.4.3.3 Organisational Co-ordination

Organisational co-ordination is believed to be a key component in a marketing orientation (see Section 2.4.3). Kotler (1977: 72) has advocated that "integrated marketing organisation" is significant for marketing effectiveness³. He suggests that an organisation needs to be staffed in such a way that marketing analysis, planning, implementation and control can be carried out. According to Piercy (1992: 38), real customer-care is "not about building new bureaucracies and lip-service, it is about anarchic commitment to customer". Then he goes on to argue that it is about *how we manage the whole process*. Integrated marketing co-ordination is significant in moving organisations to build commitment in developing a marketing orientation for long-term survival.

In describing the meaning of *organisational co-ordination*, I will define it as:

The organisation is co-ordinated and managed within limited resources in such a way that the long-term relationships between the organisation and its clients (both internal and external) are sustained for the long-term survival requirement

³ In Kotler's article, he did not define the term "marketing effectiveness" but suggested that marketing effectiveness needs a combination of five activities: customer philosophy, integrated marketing organization, adequate marketing information, strategic orientation, and operational efficiency.

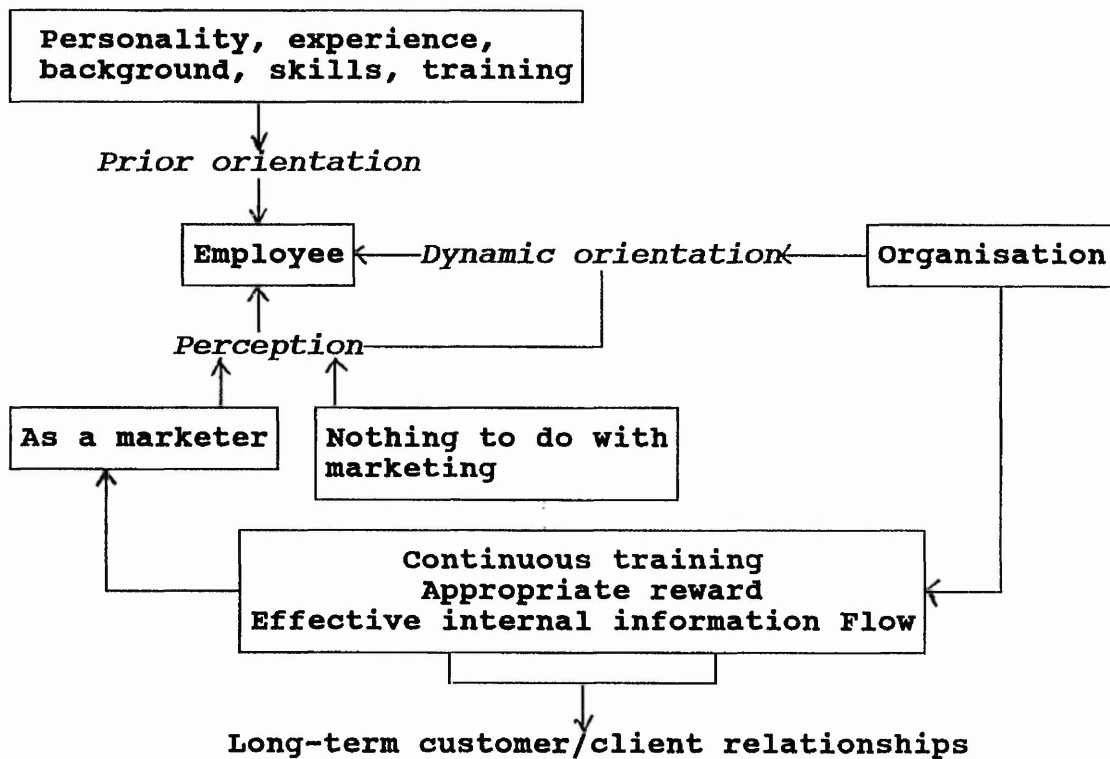


Fig. 2.6 Employee Orientation

In terms of co-ordinating an organisation for a marketing orientation, different aspects have been explored by a number of academics. Some stress the significance of appropriate structure and systems that make marketing orientation work (Narver & Slater, 1990; Selnes, 1991; Shapiro, 1988); others highlight the influence of cultural dimension (Canning, 1988; Deshpande & Webster, 1989). Piercy puts his emphasis on power and politics which can help or hinder a marketing orientation (1989a & b). Kohli & Jaworski have provided a rather comprehensive picture to view organisational co-ordination. They contend that the antecedents of a marketing orientation comprise "senior management factors", "interdepartmental dynamics" and "organizational systems" (1990: 6-12). I will investigate the literature at three levels, namely:

- . individual level
- . intergroup level
- . infrastructure level

Top Management as Change Agent

At the individual level, acting as a "change agent" (Buchanan & Boddy, 1992; Potter, 1989), top management's role is of significance to the future of an organisation. It is asserted that a marketing orientation originates with top management and that "customer-oriented values and beliefs are uniquely the responsibility of top management" (Webster, 1988: 37). Accordingly, top management commitment is considered to be the key factor for developing marketing orientation (Piercy, 1992; Witcher, 1990). If we agree that management's job is "pulling things together and along in a general direction to bring about long-term organisational survival" (Watson, 1986: 41), it is their main task to co-

ordinate resources in a such a way that it can ensure good long-run performance.

Top management has an inescapable responsibility for the success or failure of an organisation (Levitt, 1960). Drawing from his case study, Levitt observes that top management in the organisations puts a priority on product orientation at the expense of marketing orientation. Thus, the development of marketing orientation is dependent on their commitment of time and resources as well as their symbolic actions (cf. Grönroos, 1981; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Payne, 1988; Shapiro, 1988).

In reviewing the literature, there is no comprehensive framework indicating how top management should act in developing a marketing orientation. Nevertheless, it is widely agreed that they need to create an appropriate environment (Levitt, 1960), develop marketing-oriented strategies (Canning, 1988; Payne, 1988), and establish a flexible system (Canning, 1988; Grönroos, 1981; Payne, 1988; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Selnes, 1991) in the development of marketing orientation.

As *initiators*, the most important task of top management is creating a marketing-oriented climate. According to Webster (1988: 37), they should provide "clear signals and establish clear values and beliefs about serving the customers". Levitt advocates that an organisation should not think of itself "as producing goods or services" but "as buying customers, as doing the things that will make people want to do business with it" (1960: 56). This view is also espoused by Payne who claims that, in acting as a "champion for marketing" (1988: 49), senior management should change the existing attitude and direct it to the adoption of a marketing orientation.

In addition, they need to be a "top marketing *strategist*" (Canning, 1988: 34) to spread marketing culture all through the organisation (Grönroos, 1989). It is associated with Cowell's argument that marketing is "an attitude of mind" and that "the centrality of the customer to the enterprise will [need to] permeate all departments of organisations" (1984: 44). It is suggested that marketing activities cannot be left to those staff who have a marketing title but to all senior people who should develop marketing strategies and

participate in marketing by linking different divisions together to secure a genuine commitment (cf. Canning, 1988; Grönroos, 1989).

Furthermore, it is believed that senior management should be *encouragers* and *motivators*. A considerable amount of literature has pointed out the need to encourage open communication between functional groups and marketing staff (eg. Payne, 1988) as well as supporting informal systems and procedures in order to respond effectively to market signals (eg. Bonoma, 1986; Ouchi, 1979). In addition to this, top management can be motivators by rewarding marketing-oriented behaviours (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990).

In the light of the discussion, it is observed that top management plays a decisive role in contributing to the development of a marketing orientation.

Infrastructure Factors

Top management have their "free will" and "discretion" to "enact" (Weick, 1979) particular markets and utilise selected sources of inputs. According to Child (1979: 96), the decision-makers "regard success in these areas as particularly vital for the organisation's success". The decision-makers have the choice to "define and manipulate their own corners of the environment" (*ibid*). This results in the modification of the organisational *status quo*. The development of different infrastructures incorporating the marketing principles and practices is in response to the environmental change in the sense making process (cf. Weick, 1979). An understanding of the development of the infrastructure factors is essential for recognising the effectiveness of a marketing orientation (Payne, 1988). In terms of the infrastructure level, structure and culture will be emphasized and examined in terms of how they contribute to marketing orientation.

Child comments that even though environmental condition is a "direct source" of the variation of structure, it is the decision-makers who "evaluate" the organisational position and "take" action to change the internal structure (1979: 98). It has been discussed in the literature that the structural form of organisation is liable to foster or hinder the development of a marketing orientation (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Selnes, 1991).

Structure is defined by Child as:

The formal allocation of work roles and the administrative mechanisms to control and integrate work activities including those which cross formal organisational boundaries (1979: 92).

In his argument, "work roles" and "administrative mechanisms" are designated to integrate the internal activities. According to Daft (1989: 211), structure can be reflected in the "organisation chart". He identifies three components on the notion of structure, namely that:

1. it has "formal reporting relationships", namely the number of levels in the hierarchy and the spans of control;
2. it includes "the grouping together of individuals" into departments or divisions;
3. it encompasses "the design of systems" to ensure effective communication.

Daft classifies the first two as the "vertical" aspects and the last one as the "horizontal" aspect of organizing. The formal reporting relationships, also called the "chain of command", show the extent of authority and accountability. This is analogous to the notion of "centralization" which emphasizes the degree of concentration of power at the top. "Departmental grouping" is identified as a formal group in which supervisor and resources are shared. Daft suggests that such groups "facilitate unity of effort within departments" (1989: 213).

These key components need, according to Daft, to be linked by some devices for effective communication within the hierarchies. In terms of the *vertical linkages*, the devices include, for instance, "hierarchical referral" which employees use to refer their problems to the next level in the hierarchy. In addition, "rules and procedures" are adopted which provide a "standard information source" to help reduce the need to "process information up and down the hierarchy". Moreover, a vertical information system is regarded as another strategy, eg, written reports and memos, which help the distribution of information up and down without "face-to-face" communication. These

strategies are associated with the notion of "formalization" in dealing with information utilization.

According to Deshpande & Zaltman (1982), greater "formalization" and "centralization" are related inversely to information utilization and adaptation to environmental change (cf. Stampfl, 1978). As rules define roles and procedures, with decision-making authority concentrated at the top, the organisation may become inflexible and bureaucratic. It is unlikely to meet the demands of customers/clients and respond quickly to changes.

In terms of the *horizontal linkages*, Daft refers to "the amount of communication and co-ordination horizontally across organisational departments" which increases as the amount of "uncertainty" increases (1989: 218-9). Lundstrom (1976) states that greater "departmentalization" may create a barrier to communication (cf. Etzioni, 1964). It is common among traditional styles of organisation where every department is specialized in one function and is independent of other departments in terms of internal policies in order to maximize the efficiency of individual departments. In this way, communication and information flow may be inefficient between departments.

The devices used in linking departments together include (as suggested by Daft) "liaison role", "integrator" and "teams". In terms of "liaison role", a liaison person belongs to one department but is responsible for communicating with another department. The "integrator" is identified as a full-time person who is responsible for co-ordination. "Teams" are regarded as the "strongest horizontal linkage mechanism". Teams are permanent task forces each with a full-time integrator who co-ordinates and integrates different departments.

In the contingency approach, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) postulated that structure is "situational" and "depends on" environmental uncertainty. In their research on high-performing companies, they found that such organisations have differentiated units but need mechanisms to co-ordinate and integrate in a way that the interdependence can be achieved. Burns and Stalker (1961), in their *mechanistic-organic* model, highlighted the

notion of "environmental uncertainty as a structural determinant" (cf. Piercy, 1985). Facing a stable environment, they argued that organisations tend to adopt a mechanistic structure in which the system is specialised, departmentalized, formalized and centralized. However, in an unstable environment, an organic style was found among organisations. They are characterized by more integration among units, less rigid rules and procedures, less formal hierarchy for responsibility and higher commitment. The implication of the contingency model lies in the fact that the environment shapes the structure.

Nevertheless, it is the discretion of the top management, or people in power, to *make sense* of the change and mutate the structure to fit their political interest (cf. Weick, 1979). According to Pfeffer (1981a), differentiation within the organization is one important source of disagreements on goals and beliefs about technology. Thus the resolution of conflicts needs the employment of power and political behaviour (cf. Piercy, 1985). Piercy points out that

Formal structures themselves represent a statement of formal power and authority, they may be seen as a political outcome" (1985: 23).

In examining the structures incorporating marketing elements among three FE colleges, it is found that the development is different though they are simultaneously shaped by the government. The notion of structural change and management behaviour will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Structure and systems play an essential part in reflecting the "official culture" (Fook & Watson, 1992) of an organisation. According to Potter (1989: 22), "their [organisations'] formal structure and functioning are an expression of the wider culture in which they are located". Culture is regarded by Potter (*ibid*: 19) as "an emergent, negotiated pattern" rather than "static".

In the "classic" literature on culture, Jaques (1951) defines it as "its customary and traditional way of thinking and doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members". Since culture is, he argues, a "traditional" way of thinking and

doing things, it can "mark out the newcomers". It shows the existence of some basic values in organisations. According to Pettigrew (1979), he identifies culture as the system of "publicly and collectively accepted *meanings* operating for a given group at a given time". It is the role of "leaders" to generate not only "rational aspects" (eg. structure) but also "symbols, ideologies, language, beliefs, rituals and myths" of organisations (cf. Barnard, 1938). This argument gives rise to an implication that dominant coalitions use their official power to support particular structures and functions in such a way that their "desired" culture is developed (cf. Peters, 1978; Pfeffer, 1981b; Pondy, 1978; Weick, 1979). In the research of Peters & Waterman (1982) and Deal & Kennedy (1982), they found that those organisations which have obtained "dominant and coherent" culture perform "effectively" in the marketplace. They point out that a "dominant" culture can give appropriate *meanings* to members for sharing "values" which serve as a "powerful lever" for guiding behaviour. These writers have put forward an important idea that only a "strong" culture can guide organisational members in a direction desired by the dominant coalition.

In the marketing literature, culture is claimed to be an essential element in marketing orientation (e.g. Bertrand, 1987; Canning, 1988; Grönroos, 1984; Witcher, 1990). Piercy comments that "the concept of culture is too risky to ignore in pursuing an analysis of the corporate environment for marketing" (1990: 28). Witcher (1990: 2) uses the phrase "total marketing corporate environment" to describe the importance of a favourable corporate climate and culture to marketing orientation.

On the notion of a marketing culture, Narver & Slater indicate, after an extensive literature review, that such a culture can create

Effectively and efficiently the necessary *behaviors* for the creation of superior value for buyers, and, thus, continuous superior *performance* for the business" (1990: 21).

In their argument, they emphasize the development of "client-oriented" behaviours and the commitment of individuals to a "superior performance" for the organisation. It is suggested that the "marketing culture" should spread to the whole organisation and is not

the "monopoly" of the marketing department. Echoed by Gummesson (1987: 17), he points out that in order to develop a "marketing culture", "the boundaries of marketing responsibility are dissolved and are no longer identical with the marketing department".

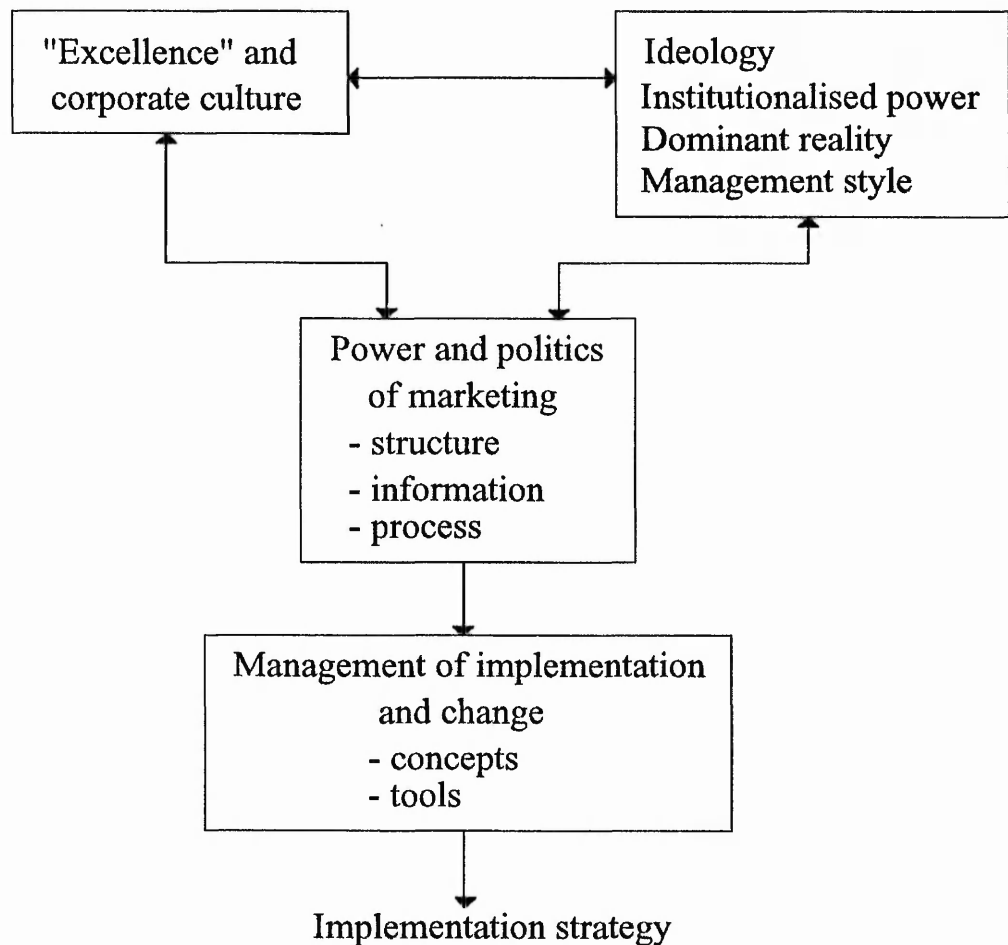
In terms of developing a marketing culture, some marketing academics stress the creation of an appropriate *internal atmosphere*. Emphasizing the significance of a win-win atmosphere, Sherer believes that "a cultural change must be communicated in the certain, undeniable, concrete terms of *commitment*" (1987: 43). Here, he implies the need to change employees' attitudes for a "marketing culture". According to Gummesson (1987: 16), it is necessary to "create a competitive and dynamic environment inside the firm".

There are other academics who suggest the need for an increase in communication. For instance, Sherer (1987: 43) talks about "communication improvement" and Witcher (1990: 5) points out the need for "cross-functional linkage" in the process of cultural change. They infer that "marketing culture" can be developed when communication and linkages are improved. In Piercy's model (see Fig. 2.7), he emphasizes that the notions of power and politics are significant in the context of cultural change and that the infrastructure is related to the intergroup dynamics.

Intergroup Dynamics

Intergroup dynamics are defined as "the formal and informal interactions and relationships among an organisation's departments" (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990: 9). It has gained more attention in recent years among marketing academics (cf. Ruekert & Walker, 1987; Piercy, 1985 & 1989b). Interdepartmental conflict is regarded as relating to the struggle for power and may be detrimental to the development of a marketing orientation (eg. Levitt, 1969; Lusch, et al., 1976).

Many academics have realised the significance of power and the political arena in managing organisational change. For example, in Culbert and McDonough's model of "radical" management (1979), they argue that politics should precede cultural change and managing the political context is needed in order to change the "dominant reality".



Source: Piercy, N.(1990) "Marketing Concepts and Actions : Implementing Marketing-led Strategic Change", European Journal of Marketing, No.24, Vol 2, pp28.

Fig. 2.7 The corporate environment for marketing and implementation strategy

Moreover, De Luca's "sociopolitical" context for planned change (1984) and Tichy's "technical-political-cultural model" (1982) have analyzed the importance of the political context to the management of change.

The dimensions of power and politics have been explored by many scholars. In Tom Burns's analysis of micropolitics (1961, 1977), he suggests that all organisational participants are *political actors* when they are making use of both physical and human resources in competitive situations in order to achieve greater control over others. Each actor may be attached to a particular group (both formally and informally) for protecting or extending their own interests. This "built-in feature" is conceived as "coalition groups". According to Watson, "because of the hierarchic nature of organisation structures, people use and compete with each other in the process of managing resources" (1986: 72). The coalition groups, or sub-units, may have different vested interests for more influence and control over resources, which may develop as a source of tension and conflict. Pettigrew (1973) emphasizes the significance of controlling information. He points out that sub-units have different interests, they compete with each other for scarce resources. Their success is dependent on their ability to manage important information. In the light of the literature, it is argued that, at the intergroup level, there are *coalitions of interest* which compete for resources and influence. The *control over information* is significant for success.

In the marketing field, Piercy's (1990) power and political framework has elaborated clearly the coalitions of interest and information. He criticizes the failure of the marketing literature to develop a satisfactory model on effective marketing implementation. In his model, he conceives that it is of limited value to argue whether culture can be managed, but we should know in what situations it can be changed. He suggests that corporate culture, a manageable variable, is a political phenomenon and that it can be operationalised in marketing through power and politics (see Fig. 2.7). In his argument, "structure" and "information processing" are the issues through which power and politics in an organisation can be analyzed.

In his argument over the relationship between structure and information processing, he points out that there should be a parallel between information flows and organisational structure. He assumes that, in order to match structure to surrounding contingencies, the "context of the distribution of power and the political system" should be approached pragmatically. His views are supported by a number of empirical studies (1989 c; Piercy & Morgan, 1989), which conclude that marketing effectiveness is dependent not only on formal structure but also on information dissemination and key corporate values.

On the notion of information processing, taking the view that "information as a resource processed within structural confines", he claims that

The control of the information resource is a major source of organizational power (1985: 26).

The reason is that "behaviour associated with information use (is) inherently political" and "the use of power and politics is inevitable to resolve the conflict implied by the pluralism of interests in organisations" (1989: 30). Here, he highlights the existence of a coalition of interests (cf. Cyert & March, 1963) and the necessity for the control of information. His empirical research has shown that the ability to implement change is contingent upon the ownership of critical information regardless of formal power (Piercy, 1989 a & b).

In the light of the literature, effective intergroup dynamics provide the focus for the consideration of coalitions of interest and information processing. They are the key behavioural aspects in affecting organisational co-ordination for the development of a marketing orientation.

To sum up, viewing organisational co-ordination as a behavioural aspect of marketing orientation, three levels are emphasized: individual (senior management commitment), intergroup (inter-units dynamics) and infrastructure levels (structure and culture). (See Fig. 2.8).

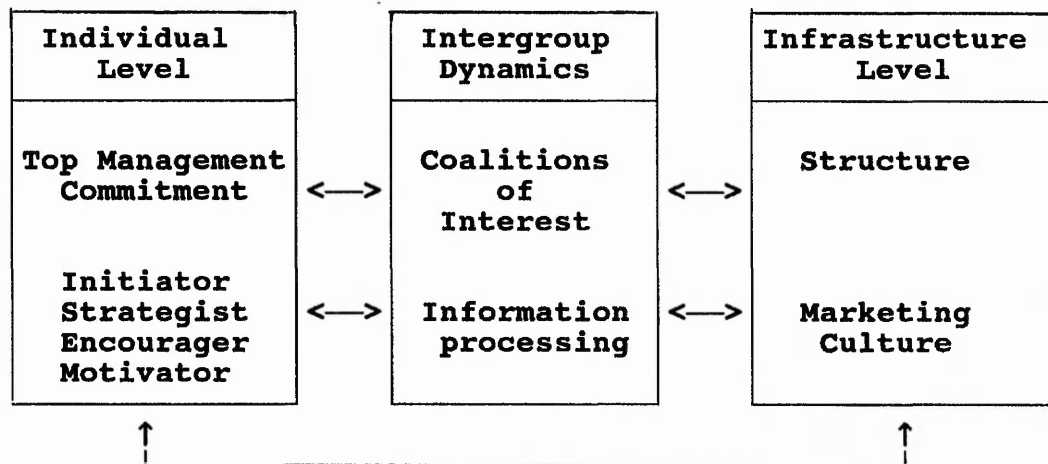


Fig. 2.8 The Framework of Organisational Co-ordination

Before moving on to my marketing-oriented framework, I will discuss the relationship between *marketing orientation* and the notion of profitability. In the marketing field, many academics tend to support the argument that profitability is a component in a marketing orientation framework. It is understood that business needs profit to survive. Nevertheless, in the implementation of marketing orientation is it justifiable to merely focus on profitability in a changing environment? This will be investigated in the next section.

2.4.3.4 Marketing Orientation and Profitability?

In the traditional marketing philosophy, profitability or profit direction⁴ is considered to be the most important reason for the existence of marketing. Profit direction is one of the behavioural aspects in the construct of the marketing concept (see Section 2.3.1). McGee & Spiro claim that "the marketing concept is intended to make money for the company by focusing attention on profit rather than on sales volume..profit is the most basic condition necessary for the firm's survival in a capitalist market" (1988: 41-42). Their views are echoed by other academics (cf. Felton, 1959; Kotler, 1991; McCarthy & Perreault, 1987; McNamara, 1972). In Wallis's marketing research report, it is stated that "the number-one marketing priority for manufacturers in the next three years will be maintaining - or, in some cases regaining profitability" (1987: 3). McKittrick (1957), Peterson (1979) and Grönroos (1984) also conceive that the marketing function should be co-ordinated in order to maximize corporate profitability for the greater organisational effectiveness. It is believed therefore that profitability should be a component in a marketing orientation framework.

Webster has attempted to associate profitability with the ultimate objective of an organisation. He says, "while one of the hallmarks of a marketing-oriented firm is a striving for profitability rather than sales volume or market share alone, it is long term

⁴ Profitability and profit direction are often used interchangeably among many marketing academics. Their differences lie in the fact that profitability is a relative measure of revenue whilst profit is an absolute measure of revenue.

profitability and market position that are the objectives" (1988: 38). His argument infers that the main purpose of "orienting to the demands of customers" is to earn profit and have market positioning. In this way, the effectiveness of an organisation is dependent on whether or not it has obtained long-term profitability. This profit direction has aroused a lot of controversy.

According to Bell and Emory, the traditional marketing statement is in conflict with the company's social responsibility to customers,

The purpose of customer orientation is to improve the firm's selling effectiveness. Providing customer satisfaction is a means to achieve a company's profit objective and does not imply protection of the consumer's welfare...what if the seller consciously compromises product quality in order to improve profits? How is the consumer protected from inferior products, misleading promotion, and exploitative prices?" (1971: 39).

In the light of their argument, the danger of only pursuing profitability is the neglect of the customer benefit. Customer orientation will become merely lip service. Arguing against the marketing philosophy, they suggest that consumer satisfaction should be placed first and profits second, "profit must be viewed as a *residual* that results from efficiently supplying consumer satisfaction." They are supported by Levitt who shows his strong objection to regarding it as a component in a marketing orientation and claims that it is "like saying that the goal of human life is eating" (1969: 236).

When we look at the notion of profitability in the context of a changing environment and severe competition, it will only lead an organisation in a "self-indulgent" way in that it is merely concerned about its own benefit at the expense of both the "internal and external customers". McGregor uses his psychological "tragic view" to argue that, in order to survive, an organisation needs to bring forward a "satisfactory solution" whereby "the basic ambivalence and conflicts within the *personality* can be recognised" (1966: 72). A social psychologist, Schein, adopts his "systems" point to reject the argument of measuring effectiveness in terms of *profit* and claims that

Acknowledging that every system has multiple functions and that it exists within an environment which provides unpredictable inputs, a system's effectiveness can be defined as its capacity to *survive, adapt, maintain itself and grow...*(1965: 95-97)

Both their statements are in line with my argument in the sense that all the *three behavioural components* of marketing orientation - *customer/client orientation, employee orientation, and organisational co-ordination* - need to have a *dynamic* balance between the "ambivalence and conflicts" as well as the "unpredictable inputs". By looking at the components, the framework of a marketing orientation can help an organisation to deal with the "changing environment". Thus, Baker (1989) put forward a view that marketing is concerned not only with profit but also with meeting *environmental change*. Organisational *effectiveness* is dependent upon the organisation's capability to *survive in the long-term healthily* (see Bennis, 1966) with limited resources.

In the light of the literature, in the next section, I will present a conceptual framework for marketing orientation which serves as a guide to my research in FE colleges, a recognised "professional" field.

2.5 DEVELOPING A FRAMEWORK FOR STUDYING MARKETING ORIENTATION

Building on the literature review and the points made in Section 2.4, I will concentrate on the following three behavioural components in setting up my framework for the empirical study:

- . *client orientation*
- . *employee orientation*
- . *organisational co-ordination*

Since it is inferred that they are of equal importance, the framework of *marketing orientation* is depicted as an equilateral triangle in the context of environmental change (because *marketing orientation* is the consequence of it). I would argue that the long-term survival requirement is the *ultimate objective* of an organisation for the adoption of a *marketing orientation*. It will be put in the centre of the triangle (see Fig. 2.9). In this section, the behavioural aspects will be explained in detail and a working definition will be presented drawn from the literature.

2.5.1 Client Orientation and The Environment

From my studies in FE, interviewees tend to use "client" to describe their students and employing organisations, showing their "sophistication" in coping with the changing environment. Thus, I will adopt the word "client". (It is mainly used in the professional services fields, see eg. Kotler & Bloom, 1984).

From the historical review of marketing development, it was observed that the impact of the environment can affect the balance of competition, the distribution of resources, and even expectation and vision. However, we cannot conceive that every notion in the environment will have an effect on an organisation. As Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) explain, it may be because "organization is isolated or buffered from them" (1978: 12) or "they do not notice every event, nor are all occurrences important enough to require a response" (*ibid*: 13). It is equivalent to the notion of "loosely coupled" (March & Olsen, 1976; Weick, 1976) where the effects of organisations on one another are frequently filtered and imperfect. Pfeffer & Salancik describe it as "an important safety device for organizational survival" because it provides an organisation with some discretion and the capability to act "across time horizons longer than the time it takes for an environment to change" (*Op Cit*: 13). They use the term "enacted environment" (*ibid*: 63) to illustrate that organisational environments are not given realities but are created through the process of individual perceptions and the interpretation of its own environment.

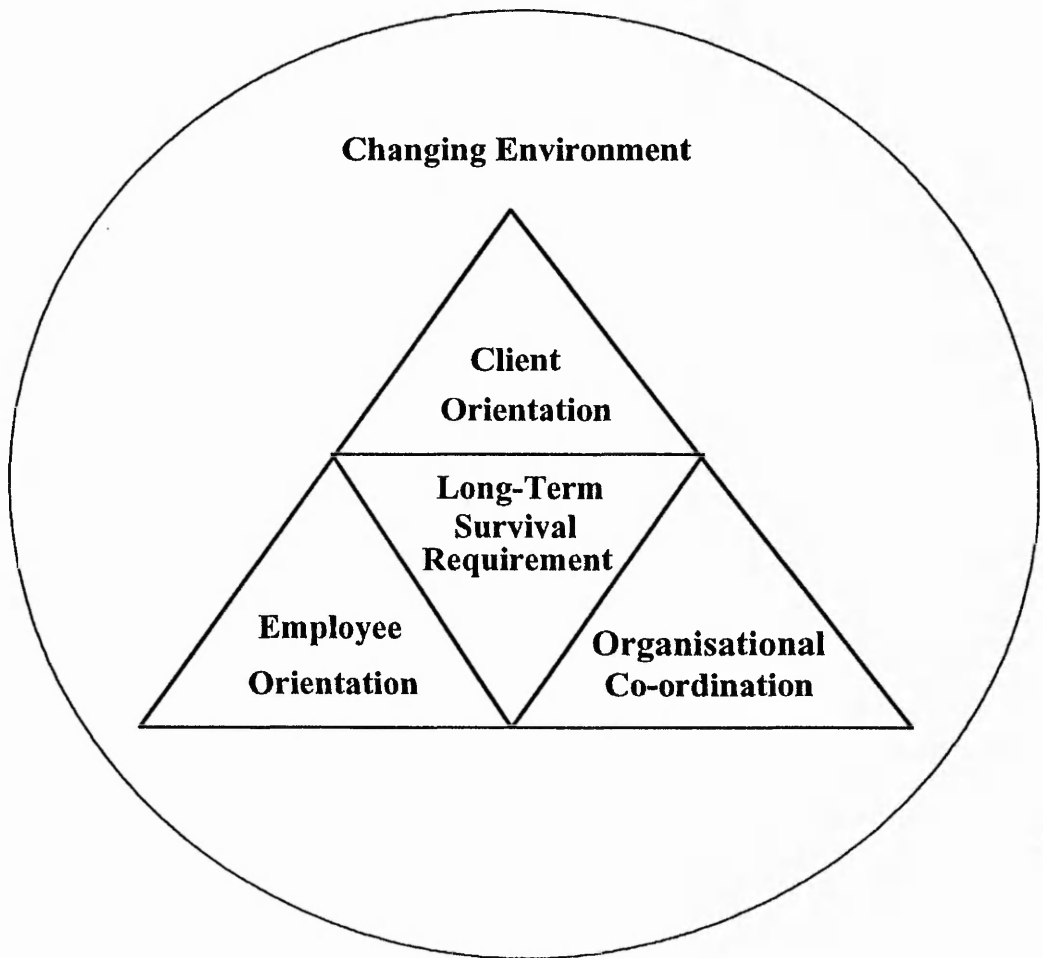


Fig. 2.9 Marketing orientation construct

Based on the current marketing philosophy, maintaining buyer-seller long-term relationships is considered to be an important element of an organisation's enacted environment. Organisations need to initiate the role of promise and expectations between the two parties. Prolonged relationship is contingent upon the correct definition of promise and the appropriate approach of mutual expectations in the changing environment. That means, it is associated with the value and beliefs of both organisation and clients to perceive and interpret the relationship. The roles of promise, expectations and experience are taking place when there are interactions between employees and clients, among clients themselves, between clients and the environment and the course provisions, as well as between clients and systems & procedures (see Fig. 2.10).

2.5.2 Employee Orientation

Clients are needed for an organisation to survive, similarly employees are required for a corporation to function. Thus, employee (internal clients) orientation is incorporated in my conceptual framework. In the light of the literature review, employees are categorised into two types: those who have direct contact with their "clients" (ie. full-time marketers) and those who have no direct contact with the "clients" (ie. part-time marketers). Their perceptions of marketing are influenced by their prior backgrounds and experience, their work orientations and their continuous interaction with the organisation. Individuals tend to use their own values and attitudes to scan the environment for what they think is significant to them. When desirable rewards are incompatible with corporate expectation, low motivation and morale may arise (cf. Grönroos, 1981). Long term "professional" training may narrow the gap, but personal discretion will still dominate their world views. Thus, through continuous employer-employee interaction by means of training, reward and information flow, the role of promise and expectation may be established and clarified (see Fig. 2.6).

2.5.3 Organisational Co-ordination

On this aspect, three levels are identified in the light of the literature, they are: top management behaviour, inter-group dynamics and infrastructure factors.

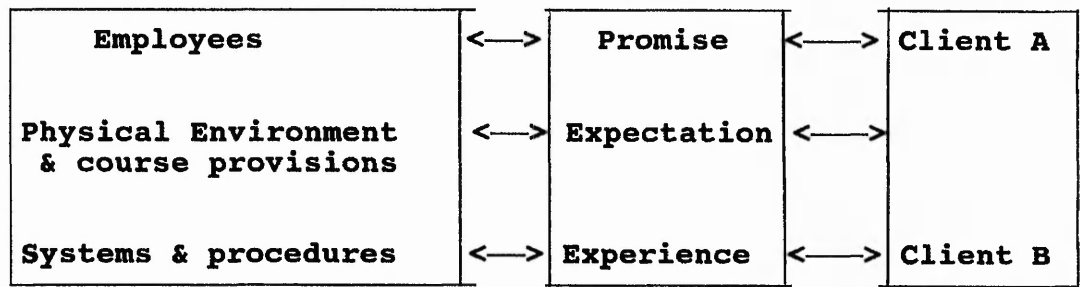


Fig. 2.10 Conceptual Framework of Client Orientation

Change agents play a very significant part in developing a marketing orientation. They are usually associated with "powerful leaders" (Hedbey, 1977; Ranson, et al., 1980; Tushman & Romanelli, 1985), or senior management, or even new chief executives (Pettigrew, 1985; Grinyer, et al., 1988; Stopford & Baden-Fuller, 1990). They are *initiators, strategists, encouragers and motivators* in developing a marketing orientation. An organisation is undergoing two great forces, one from external clients and one from internal clients. In establishing a vision, change agents question and break down the strong adherence to cultural and political norms of the past. Their purpose is to build up "symbolic and political mechanisms" (Johnson, 1990: 187). They may alter the distribution of power, change the infrastructure and strengthen the corporate culture. The process of implementation is by no means easy. They need to keep on evaluating the existing pressure, the new infrastructure and the balance of power and politics.

Inter-departmental dynamics always involve a lot of disputes and rivalry due to power and political problems. According to Pfeffer & Salancik (1978: 24), "in describing adequately the behavior of organizations required attending to the coalitional nature of organizations and the manner in which organizations respond to pressures from the environment." There are both formal and informal groups in every organisation. Individuals join in because they are able to pursue certain desirable interests. A group is likely to gain political power when it has owned the critical information (see Section 2.4.3.3). Communication break-down or even conflict may happen among different groups when they neglect others' existence or compete for resources. Kohli & Jaworski (1990) have suggested that a way to solve the problem is by a concern for other departments' ideas (see also Argyris, 1966). Thus, organising coalitions of support and enhancing the inter-group connectness constitute an important step in the process of marketing orientation.

Concerning infrastructure factors, I will highlight the structure and corporate culture. Appropriate management of this infrastructure is likely to drive an organisation to work both effectively and efficiently (this will be examined in Chapter 5). An organisation's survival is contingent upon whether or not the infrastructure developed by the management is compatible with the expectations of both internal clients (ie. its

employees) and external clients (its enacted outside environment) (see Fig. 2.8).

2.5.4 Long-term Survival Requirement

It has been discussed (Section 2.4.3.4) that organisational effectiveness is dependent on whether an organisation can survive in the long-term. In the FE field "profit direction" or "profitability" as an ultimate objective of the "business" cannot be justified. The reason is that the main purpose of education is not earning money. Also, the "traditional" staff members who regard educational institutions as non-profit professional organisations may resist against this notion. Thus, in my framework, the *long-term survival requirement* is placed in the centre because I would argue that it is the ultimate aim for an organisation in implementing marketing orientation.

According to Bell & Emory, the notion of "long-run survival" can serve as a "bridge" to fill the gap between the "operational marketing concept" whereby "profit direction" is emphasized and its "social responsibility to protect the consumer" (1971: 39). They conceive that both the buyer and seller need to be "reconciled in the short run" in terms of orienting to the "needs" of customers for long-term relationships. Narver & Slater (1990) adopt "long-term survival" as one "decision criterion" in their *market orientation model*. In terms of "long-term survival requirement", it is argued that, instead of merely satisfying the "needs of customers", the purpose of implementing a marketing orientation is to *seek a dynamic balance* among orienting to the "demands" of "clients" and "employees", co-ordinating the infrastructure of an organisation and coping with the "unpredictable" environment within resource limitations for *long-term healthy survival*. Marketing orientation has its long-term nature of continual improvement over the performance of an organisation. It is inferred that the adoption of a *marketing orientation* helps organisations to enhance their organisational effectiveness, and in turn, survive on a long-term basis (see Fig. 2.11).

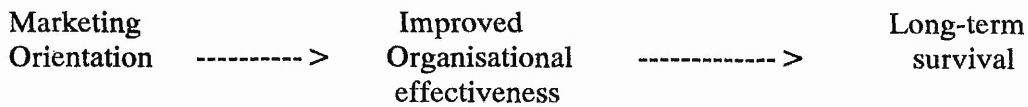


Fig. 2.11 The relation between marketing orientation and long-term survival

2.5.5 Definition of Marketing Orientation

In the light of the literature and the conceptual framework, a working definition has been devised. It is believed that a definition should be developed covering the dimensions of client orientation, employee orientation, and organisational co-ordination aimed at long-term survival requirement of the organisation.

The definition is as follows:

An organisation follows a marketing orientation to the extent that its structure, culture, systems and procedures are established and developed in a way that ensures long-term customer (both clients and employees) relationships within the resource limitations and long-term survival requirement of that organisation.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, first of all, the development of marketing has been discussed. By tracing marketing history - mainly based in America - it is observed that the emergence of marketing is due to environmental necessity. The inadequacy of production- or sales-oriented approaches to meet environmental needs has been recognised and the marketing concept has been adopted in business. Then, the marketing concept is presented and criticized because it emphasizes the importance of satisfying "customer's needs and wants" as the sole key for the success of an organisation. In order to implement the

marketing concept, people have adopted different components in their frameworks of marketing orientation. The cornerstone of the marketing philosophy on customer/clientfocus remains unchanged. Nevertheless, we should not overstate the demands of customers/clients. The organisational capabilities need to be balanced with client orientation, which comprises employee orientation and organisational co-ordination. In the light of the literature, my marketing orientation framework is a triangle of three behavioural aspects, namely: client orientation, employee orientation, and organisational co-ordination. The framework is in the context of environmental change which engenders the need for a marketing orientation. The ultimate objective of a marketing orientation is the long-term survival of an organisation which is in the centre of the triangle. The working definition for marketing orientation is derived from the framework.

This conceptual framework will be used to shape the empirical investigation of marketing orientation in the FE field. First, however, it is necessary to consider the investigative techniques to be used in applying the framework. In the next chapter, therefore, the issues of research design and method will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3: INVESTIGATING MARKETING ORIENTATION IN A PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATION: RESEARCH DESIGN AND TECHNIQUES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter considers the issue of the appropriate research methods to be used to investigate the notion of marketing orientation in the three FE colleges - "professional organisations" - selected for the empirical part of the present study. In the last chapter, a broad conceptual framework and a working definition of marketing orientation were developed in the light of the literature. Research methods now need to be used to apply this framework to particular organisational situations. Questions regarding the research design and the specific techniques to be used will be addressed and consideration given to some of the personal attributes of the researcher - factors which are always significant in any research process. Insights will also be drawn from the experience of the researcher in the process of examining two professional fields - the accounting field and the FE field - which were looked at.

The overall approach to the research design can be regarded as qualitative because it is concerned with human subjectivity within everyday social life (Wilson & Fook, 1990). This research began as a case study of an accounting firm but developed to focus on FE colleges and the development of their "marketing orientation". In Section 2, the research design and techniques will be discussed in detail. In undertaking case study research, gaining access to the field and remaining there are significant but difficult. These issues will be explored in Section 3. Because the personal characteristics of the researcher may affect the research process and the outcome, in Section 4 there will be a discussion about the implications of the personal attributes of the researcher. This will be followed by the examination of the data analysis approach adopted. Finally, the chapter will review my research experience in the accounting firm where access was terminated after a year; and the experience in the three FE colleges in which the qualitative data was gathered successfully.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND TECHNIQUES

All research designs and techniques are guided by the philosophy of researchers towards their studies. The paradigms of positivism and phenomenology will be examined and it will be explained that a broadly phenomenological approach has been chosen to investigate marketing orientation in organisations because I believe that meanings are socially constructed rather than having an external and objective existence. Also, the reasons for the use of a case study approach and of the specific research techniques will be explored - techniques which are consistent with the broad methodological philosophy followed.

3.2.1 The Philosophy of the Research Design

Our views about how a piece of research may best be conducted presupposes a philosophical position (explicit or not) about the nature of "knowledge" and "reality" (Archer, 1988: 270). My choice of the specific research design and techniques was influenced by my philosophical stance. Before discussing my philosophy to the study, I will discuss the concept of paradigm. The concept - "paradigm" - has gained popularity among organisational theorists in recent years having originated in the work of Kuhn (1962) on scientific communities. He defines it as:

The entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques and so on, shared by the members of a given scientific community (1962: 175).

Gummeson (1991b: 15) elaborates it as representing "people's value judgments, norms, standards, frames of reference, perspectives, ideologies...that govern their thinking and action". In the social science field, the concept has been used in terms of an antithesis between two schools of philosophy: the positivistic and humanistic schools (*ibid*), the latter school also being named the phenomenological approach (cf. Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991; Mmobuosi & Huczynski, 1987).

Each of the two paradigms - positivism in the blue corner and phenomenology in the red corner - has "to some extent been elevated into a stereotype, often by the opposite side" (Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991: 22). Generally, positivism has been defined "in terms of the logical and measurable correlation of objects with behaviour" while phenomenology has been defined as "the study of how objects are in a subject's consciousness as a basis of their behaviour" (Mmobuosi & Huczynski, 1987: 31).

Auguste Comte, an influential early proponent of positivism, claims that

All good intellects have repeated since Bacon's time, that there can be no real knowledge but that which is based on observed facts (1853).

In his argument, the key concept of positivism has been illustrated: that reality is only external and observable and that knowledge is significant only when it can be measured by objective methods. This, he believes, is the essence of science. On the other hand, based on the opposing belief, the key idea of phenomenology is that reality is not external and objective but is socially constructed and given meaning by people (Husserl, 1946). Easterby-Smith, et al., observe,

Human action arises from the sense that people make of different situations, rather than as a direct response from external stimuli (1991: 24).

From their point of view, human beings can make sense of the world and have their own subjective interpretations and response. Thus, Mmobuosi & Huczynski (1987: 39) question any researcher imposing any causal relations on the subjects' accounts because "in the process of giving an account of their experiences, the causes of behaviour are experienced and established in the subject's consciousness". In terms of researching, Schwartz & Jacobs advocate that "what's going on out there is what the actors say is going on out there... He lives there, he knows better than we do what it is like and how best to describe it" (1979: 6). In this way, science is replaced by access to meaning or "understanding" (*ibid*).

Different paradigms affect the way of viewing the world and the use of research methods. According to Brown (1992: 13), "[organisational theorists and researchers] bring to their subject of study a frame of reference which reflects a whole series of implicit or explicit assumptions about the nature of the social world and the way in which it might be investigated". Two research approaches - quantitative and qualitative approaches - are believed to be derived from the concept of positivism and phenomenology (cf. Bryman, 1989; Mmambuosi & Huczynski, 1987).

The central characteristic of quantitative research is "propelled by a prior set of concerns" and the "application of the scientific methods" while qualitative research has its emphasis on the "perspective of the individual being studied" (Bryman, 1989: 24 & 27) and "coming to terms with the meaning" (Van Maavian, 1983). Many academics describe the qualitative approach as "a different way of knowing" (Bryman, 1989; Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991) or "another perspective" (Bryman, *ibid*). The research techniques involved in the former approach may include survey and experiment, whereas those in the latter approach comprise observation and interviewing which reduce the possibility of constraining people (cf. Bryman, 1989; Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991; Hammersley, 1989).

Using Smircich's research in an insurance company as an illustration, Bryman (1989: 137) identifies the nature and merits of the qualitative approach. It allows the "actors" to interpret by using their own languages; the piece of research provides a strong sense of context; it emphasizes "process - the unfolding of events in time"; the approach can be unstructured and flexible; the sources of data are multiple; the meaning is socially constructed; the last but not least, due to the proximity, the flow of interaction can be observed "at first hand" and understanding can be developed.

The use of different paradigms is dependent on the scope of the research. If a researcher intends to investigate the ongoing changing process in a "field", s/he is unable to gather "valid" data by using a positivistic approach because s/he does not get close to the "real social reality" (Schwartz & Jacobs, 1979). This research is investigating the marketing orientation of a professional field in a changing environment, in which three aspects are

focused: client orientation, employee orientation, and organisational co-ordination. All of these are involved with a changing process and the "actors'" responses. Hirschman (1986) argues that the essential characteristic of marketing is socially constructed, like human beliefs, behaviours, perspectives and values. In order to make sense of people's realities and, metaphorically, "let the marketplace speak to us" (Gummesson, 1991b), I believe, based on the stance of phenomenology, that the qualitative approach is the more appropriate one for examining the research problem.

This study has used case studies to gather the empirical data. In the next section, I shall examine the values and significance of case studies in investigating the phenomena under consideration.

3.2.2 The Use of Case Studies

In the early days various scholars adopted from the wider social science tradition a case study design to study organisational problems (eg. Blau, 1955; Gouldner, 1954; Roy, 1954 & 1960). Nevertheless, by the 1950s, the quantitative research methods in the form of survey and experiment had become the dominant approach (Daft, 1980; Hammersley, 1989). The case study was deemed to be "inferior to methods that are based on random statistical samples of a large number of observations" (Gummesson, 1991b) and it merely became "a minority practice" (Platt, 1986). Since the late 1970s there has been a "slight renaissance" (Bryman, 1989) for the case study, which could be attributed to the development of qualitative research (Daft, *ibid*). In recent years, case study design has received more recognition in both Europe (cf. Gummesson, 1991b) and in the USA (cf. Bonoma, 1985a & b).

Case studies, in the sense being adopted here, involve:

The collection and presentation of detailed, relatively unstructured information from a range of sources about a particular individual, group, or institution, usually including the accounts of subjects themselves" (Hammersley, 1989: 93).

It is usual to adopt more than one case [eg. Sutton (1987) who uses eight cases and Yin (1979) who uses nineteen cases] to allow the emergence of special features from the comparisons. In my research I have adopted three cases (ie. three FE colleges - two in Nottingham and one in Leicester) in the FE field. It is significant in terms of contrast and comparison.

Some people lose confidence in the case study mainly because they are sceptical about its scientific soundness. Hagg & Hedlund's criticisms (1978: 7-13) of case studies are based on the notions that "they lack statistical validity", "they can be used to generate hypotheses but not to test them", and "generalizations cannot be made on the basis of case studies". It is believed that when evidence is derived from only one or even several case studies which may not be "typical organisations", it is difficult to interpret as well as to generalise the results. Thus, it is regarded as an "idiosyncratic" and "low status activity" (Bryman, 1989: 170 & 178).

The advocates of the use of case studies present a variety of arguments. The main ideas include the possibility of generalization (cf. Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Gummesson, 1991b; Normann, 1970) and "particularization" (Patton, 1980). The case study is a distinctive research design approach with its own discrete features and value. In terms of generalization, Gummesson (1991b) argues that it can be approached in different ways. Glaser & Strauss, the advocates of grounded theory, believe that even one single case is able to demonstrate a general conceptual category or property. They stress that:

Since accurate evidence is not so crucial for generating theory, the kinds of evidence, as well as the number of cases, is also not so crucial. A single case can indicate a general conceptual category or property; a few more cases can confirm the indication (1967: 30).

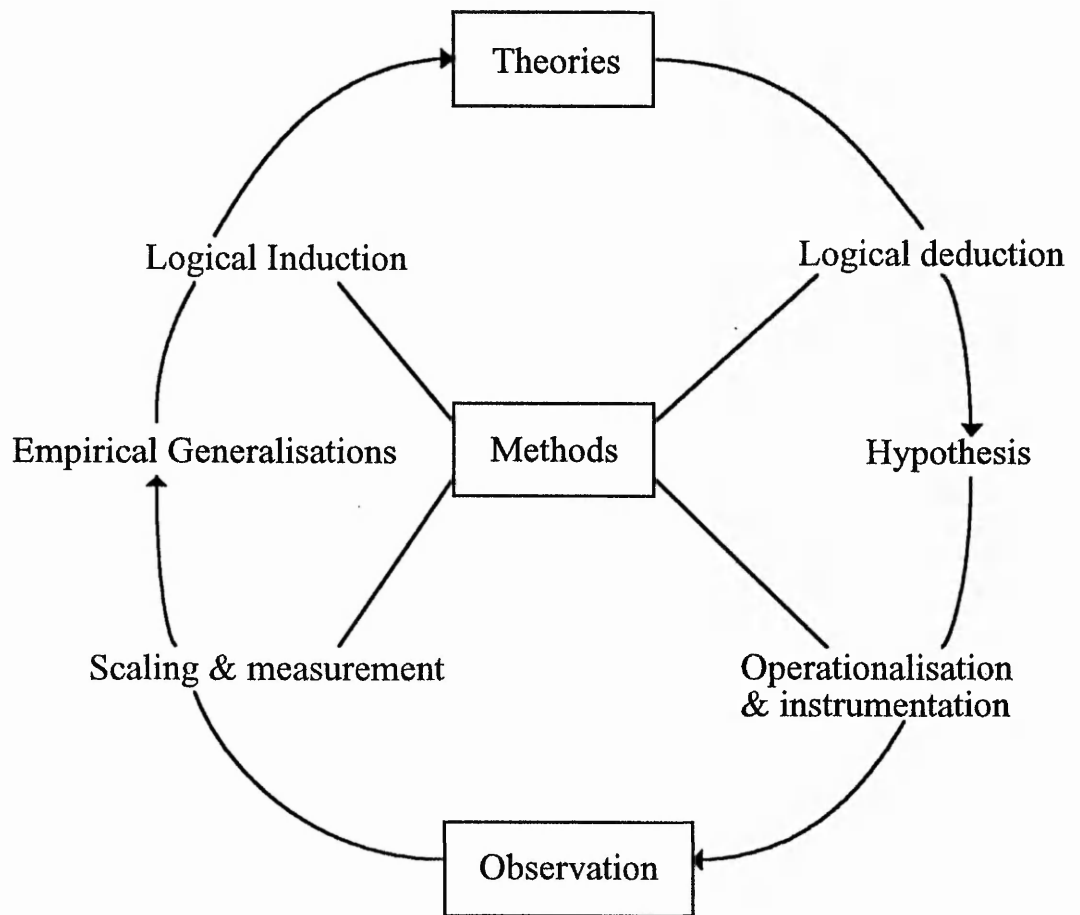
The possibility of generalization from the case study arises from its own particular nature. The case study design allows the use of comprehensive analyses which can enable the understanding of "the structure, processes and driving forces" (Normann, 1970: 53) instead of the "external counting" in order to identify the phenomenon and access to the meaning.

On the other hand, Patton (1980: 280) advocates the concept of "particularization". He contends that every social phenomenon has its distinctiveness, it changes depending on its circumstances. It is thus difficult to allow meaningful generalization. Generalization in his argument is unnecessary. In this way, theory becomes "local theory" which can help to deal with specific situations. But, whichever view one takes of these matters, one has chosen from the various types of case study which are possible.

Yin (1989) identifies three types of use of the case study: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Concerning exploratory purposes, the case study can achieve insights "into a previously uncharted area" (Bryman, 1989: 174) and help in developing more precise hypotheses. It can be used to describe the social phenomena through a thorough investigation and analysis. According to Gummesson (1991b), both exploratory and descriptive case studies have had low status traditionally. They are regarded as supplementary to other research methods. On the notion of explanation, it is questioned and suspected by mainstream scientists (cf. *ibid*: 75). However, Valdelin argues that the case study provides us with a "holistic view of a specific situation" because the detailed observations enable the detailed examination of the process within its total environment (1974: 47). In this way, theories can be generated (cf. Gummesson, 1991b; Mitchell, 1983; Yin, 1989). This is what we call an inductive approach. Bryman stresses that

The aim [of case study] is not to infer the findings from a sample to a population, but to engender patterns and linkages of theoretical importance (1989: 172).

Theories can be used to explain and predict the phenomenon. This is called an deductive approach (Fig. 3.1). According to Znaniecki (1934), the statistical method can increase the reliability and precision of knowledge but can only give us the superficial features of the phenomena. Nevertheless, it cannot bring us knowledge of the crucial notions of phenomena. The value of research with a high level of reliability but low level of validity is doubtful. The case study has a low level of reliability in the sense that the scale is small and the study is unique. Another researcher engaging in the same methods on the same group may not produce the same results. However, it provides us with an "understanding" of the essential features of phenomena.



Source: Smith, H. W. (1975) Strategies of Social Research: the Methodological Imagination, Ch.2.

Fig. 3.1 Inductive and deductive approaches

Organisations are considered to be in "processual" terms within an existing framework of operations (cf. Gummesson, 1991b; Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991). In order to study the human activities, we need to

Look at its development over time and at its environment, at the configuration of social factors that make up the situation in which it occurs, and the way in which these factors interact (Hammersley, 1989: 93).

It is noted that human actors follow "rules" rather than laws (cf. The Open University, 1979a). Order and regularity in social life comes from the sharing by individuals of common beliefs, values and purposes. To understand human behaviour, Hammersley reminds us to investigate the development, the environment and the social factors which interact with each other. Researchers need to be there to study and understand the common culture and purposes of actions. In this case, the closeness to the context and its ongoing change is very significant. The case study, with its emphasis on "local culture and problems" (Davila, 1989), is far more internally valid¹ and meaningful than "the preoccupation with often abstract variables that characterizes much quantitative research" (Bryman, 1989: 178).

In adopting the case study strategy, Yin points out that the use of multiple sources of evidence is significant. He means "the evidence from two or more sources, but converging on the same set of facts or findings" (1989: 84). The sources may include: documents, archival records, interviews, observation and so on. Based on different sources of information, it allows an investigator to address a broader range of historical, attitudinal and observational issues and draw "convincing and accurate" conclusions (*ibid*: 97). Thus in the research, with regard to this triangulation principle, a variety of research techniques have been adopted.

¹ Internal validity is defined as the question of whether an experiment is a good test of the experimental hypothesis under those particular experimental conditions (The Open University, 1979b).

3.2.3 The Use of Research Techniques

Bryman has attempted to distinguish between research designs and research methods (or techniques of data collection). He states that designs are "the overall structure and orientation of an investigation" and this structure, "provides a framework within which data are collected and analyzed" (1989: 28). Certain research designs are associated with certain research techniques.

In the research, a number of techniques have been adopted which, it is believed, can help to collect appropriate qualitative data. The techniques comprise: participant and non-participant observation, unstructured and semi-structured interviews, and the collection of archival information. They will be discussed and examined in the following sub-sections.

3.2.3.1 Observation

All modern science is rooted in observation and, as every scientist knows, observations at first hand are the most satisfactory... (John Madge, 1953)

Here, there is "an implicit adherence to a positivistic conception of social science" (Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991: 1). Madge, at the same time, also suggests that "if you want to know about something, do not readily accept what others tell you but go and look at it for yourself" - which suggests something beyond the narrow confines of the positivistic style of observation.

Schwartz & Jacobs (1979) describe observation as one of the "unobtrusive measures". It means that the investigation itself does not readily affect the context studied. The application of observation is based on the assumption that the phenomena are not "purely historical" and that some behaviours and conditions in the "field" can be observed (Yin, 1989). This procedure of observation is regarded as a documentary method of interpretation. The phenomena being observed are treated as the document of, pointing out or standing on behalf of some underlying pattern. Schwartz & Jacobs (*ibid*: 79)

suggest that "we listen to what they say as an indicator of what they mean. But we also use our own knowledge of what they mean in hearing and interpreting what they say". In my research, an observation form designed by Perkins, et al. (1981) (see **Fig. 3.2**) has been adopted to record the phenomena of interest, ranging from formal meetings to casual observation.

Setting:
Site:
Event:
Variables:
Date/Time:
Title of Observation:
Overview of Event:
Detailed Observations:
Interpretations:
Observer Feelings:
Attachments:

Source: adapted from Perkins, D.N.T., et al. (1981), "A Method for Structured Naturalistic Observation of Organizational Behavior", in J.E. Jones & J.W. Pfeiffer (eds.), The 1981 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego, Calif.: University Associates.

Figure 3.2: Observation Form

The degree of observation is in some way dependent on the extent of participation in the field. Bryman (1989: 152) has identified four types of participation: total participant, semi-participant, interview-based, and multi-site. Concerning the "multi-site" type, it emphasizes interviewing or observation in six or more organisations. My research does not fall into this category: one case in an accounting firm and three in the FE field. Thus, I will concentrate on discussing the other types.

In Bryman's terminology, "total participant" means that the researcher is a "full or nearly full observer in one or two organisations" and emphasizes participant observation. According to Becker (1958: 652),

The participant observer gathers data by participating in the daily life of the group or organisation he studies. He watches the people he is studying to see what situations they ordinarily meet and how they behave in them. He enters into conversations with some or all of the participants in these situations and discovers their interpretations of the events he has observed.

In terms of "participating in the daily life", researchers are usually holding positions in the group or organisation (eg. Dalton, 1959 & 1964; Klein, 1976; Taylor, 1947) so that the phenomena of interest can be observed through daily interaction with the subjects. Due to limitation of access, I only acted as a participant observer in a limited number of occasions in ACC - the accounting firm being studied. For example, I was given a name tag which showed I was a member of staff at their conference; I was standing in their exhibition stand to welcome their clients. These situations facilitated my interaction with other employees and the clients of the organisation.

In most situations, however, I acted as a "semi-participant" in ACC since my role was an "indirect" observer. This kind of research is usually accompanied by "interviewing and examination of documents" (Bryman, *ibid*). My presence in the field was sporadic over a period of time - which can be described as "interrupted involvement" (Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991). I did not have a great deal of actual participation in work, but "moving in and out of the organisation to deal with other work..." (*ibid*: 100). The range of observation includes observing in formal meetings, training courses or in canteens (it happened often when I was doing research in FE). Easterby-Smith, et al. suggest that observation alone is not likely to secure people's accounts of their own actions "because of their detachment" (*ibid*), especially when one is not a participant observer. Thus, other research techniques needed to be considered.

Regarding the "interview-based" type, its emphasis is on interviews in a number of organisations. Observation occurs only between interviews. In the case of FE colleges, the "semi-participant" type is found to a lesser extent whilst the "interview-based" type is found to a greater extent (and will be discussed in detail in the next sub-section). Because three cases were being investigated and time was limited, data collection via

interviews was regarded as an efficient way to gather information, thus interviewing is emphasized. Data from observation is considered as supplementary and as a "sounding board".

3.2.3.2 Interviewing

Interviews are regarded as an essential source of evidence in case study design because the case study is about human behaviour (Yin, 1989). He claims that:

These human affairs should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of specific interviewees, and well-informed respondents can provide important insights into a situation. They also provide shortcuts to the prior history of the situation; so that the investigator can readily identify other relevant sources of evidence (*ibid*: 90).

Since meaning is socially constructed, we can appreciate their views of reality from the subjective response of the actors to the issues that are not structured in advance by researchers' assumptions (cf. Burgess, 1982; Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991). This understanding can help explain and predict events in their world (Stewart, 1982: 45). In addition, the interviews enable more efficient gathering of relevant data. We can obtain some background information about the context through interviews. Such data helps us to focus and continue the search.

Interviewing can range from unstructured casual conversation (eg. informal chat) and semi-structured discussion, to highly formalised interviews (eg. survey type). In qualitative research interviews it is necessary to have a loosely structured interview schedule so as to elicit the actors' responses to the phenomena of interest (cf. Bryman, 1989). The structured interview schedule has not been used in my study due to a preference for a more loosely structured approach. The purpose of adopting unstructured interviews is to minimize researchers' imposing their frames of reference on the interviewees. Researchers may only use "aide-memoires" to remind them of the areas they intend to cover (*ibid*). Respondents have freedom to say what they want.

However, Easterby-Smith, et al. state that this may not be the best way of obtaining desired information and of putting interviewees at ease (1991: 79). The semi-structured interview is regarded as a "better and more cost-effective" technique (Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991) because it enables researchers to focus on particular lines of inquiry whilst leaving flexibility for both the interviewers and respondents to explore the issues. According to Bryman, such interviews provide "considerable latitude to respondents and are more responsive to lines of answering initiated by respondents" (1984: 149). The semi-structured interviews have been mainly used among the three FE colleges (See App. 3). Since I have identified the particular phenomena of interest in my framework, when carrying out the one hundred and eighty interviews (ie. one hundred and seventy-three interviews which took place in the three colleges and seven in their related institutions), I could easily bring the interviewees into the track that I desired. In this way, time could be used more effectively.

Indeed, the use of different interview schedules is dependent on the degree of access to the context. In my research in ACC and the three FE colleges, unstructured and semi-structured interviews have been adopted. In ACC, I did not have a pre-existing schedule but merely had some areas of inquiry in my mind. Informal chat was mainly used in the initial months. By the time the semi-structured interview schedule was set up, the access was terminated. Thus, I could only use the unstructured interview to gather information. Within the three FE colleges, both unstructured and semi-structured interview were "welcomed" by the "gatekeepers" and respondents. In terms of the latter technique, I have adopted individual and group interviews. In order to supplement the information and increase my insights into development in the FE field, I interviewed the managers in related institutions (eg. Training and Enterprise Council, County Councils and other FE colleges). Interviews continued until the data was considered to be "saturated", ie. no more features or themes emerged from the interviews (which will be discussed in Section 3.5).

Although interviews can provide researchers with an understanding of the context, we need to pay attention to some notions. First of all, interview data should be considered as "verbal reports" only (Yin, 1989). In her research on assessing the meaning and

significance of becoming a grandfather, Cunningham-Burley found out the limitation of the interview in that the interview data may not reflect the "underlying attitude or variables" and we cannot assume that "people always say what they mean or mean what they say" (1984: 333). She suggests that a study of "non-verbal behaviour, hidden response or negative evidence" and the use of other qualitative methods are needed (*ibid*: 334). In fact, the use of the triangulation principle may increase the degree of construct validity because the multiple sources of evidence provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon. Moreover, since interview data is qualitative and sometimes complicated, some aids are needed to record the data for easy retrieval. Apart from note-taking, tape recording is common practice among researchers during interview. It has its significance but also some drawbacks.

3.2.3.3 Tape Recording

During semi-structured interviews tape recorders are generally used. The main advantage of this is that all the verbal information in an interview can be recorded and the data can be retrieved anytime. It is easier for the researcher to concentrate on the conversation instead of attempting both intensive note-taking and communicating together.

The response to tape recording among interviewees varied in my experience. Whenever tape recording was adopted, I would ask for permission. If interviewees felt uncomfortable about their voice being recorded, I would first of all explain the reasons for it clearly and assure one of confidentiality. Usually permission was granted. However, when some of them really rejected the use of the tape-recorder I would just take notes during the process of interviewing. Sometimes interviewees allowed me to tape the conversation initially and when the sensitive issues came up, they might ask me to switch the recorder off for a moment. This showed that they were very cautious about what they said and aware of the existence of the machine. Still others were nervous about the machine at the beginning when the conversation started, they forgot its existence and felt more relaxed as matters progressed. This is dependent on the interpersonal skill of the researcher.

Yin reminds us that tape recorders are not a "substitute for listening" (1989: 91) throughout the course of an interview. It is merely an aid in collecting the information. As a researcher, one needs to record the non-verbal behaviour and the attitude of the respondents during the dialogue.

3.2.3.4 Archival Information

To enable the process of triangulation, the collection of archival information is very significant. It is believed to be an essential element in qualitative research (cf. Bryman, 1989; Yin, 1989). Bryman describes it as a "different level of analysis" from other methods (*ibid*: 149). Archival information is defined as "pre-existing materials" which are used by researchers to carry out the analysis (Bryman, 1989: 30), eg. historical documents, minutes of meetings, leaflets, marketing plans, existing statistics and so on. For instance, the minutes of the course advisory committees of different faculties in a FE college show how they attempt to respond to environmental changes; the examination of copies of the advertising leaflets among colleges can tell us how vigorous their advertising plans are; and a review of a college's historical pictures enable us to understand its traditional image.

The significance of archival information lies in the fact that it not only helps to verify the correct spellings of titles and names, but also to check the construct validity of the information derived from other sources of evidence (cf. *ibid*). In addition, it may provide some information which cannot be obtained or at least is difficult to obtain by using other methods. The obvious example is the statistical trend of the 16-19 year-olds. According to Shaffir & Stebbins (1991: 95), it enlightens us about "the culture or social group under study". For example, when we notice from an organisational chart of a traditional FE college that a marketing department has been created in recent years, it can give the researcher some clues about the management's attempt at developing a new culture. Nevertheless, Yin suggests that it should not be relied upon heavily but should be treated as a source of clues for further inquiry (1989: 88). Since some documents reflect communication among different parties, they can be utilised by people to achieve

some objectives. Yin reminds us not to be misled but to be correctly critical in interpreting the contents of such evidence (*ibid*). In my experience, some senior persons were willing to provide me with documents showing a glamorous picture of the change. However, behind the scenes, many lecturers were "frustrated and lost". Thus, a researcher needs to read between the lines of the secondary information and carry out further investigation.

3.2.3.5 Sampling

Along with other research techniques, sampling should be dealt with cautiously. Since researchers cannot be everywhere at once, sampling strategies need to be employed. In an inductive process, it is contended that data gathered from sampling on a particular phenomenon of interest can help to develop empirical generalisations (see Fig. 3.1) . In the case study research, data gathered from sampling is not for the purpose of generalisation but rather for the development of some theories on particular lines of inquiry.

In the initial stage of research, securing access is often in the hands of the gatekeepers. Researchers need to grasp every opportunity to access to different points of entry in the empirical field. Convenient sampling is usually adopted and this can give some ideas about the functioning and human relationship within the chosen context. As the fieldwork goes on, it is necessary to draw samples for detailed investigation and data collection.

There are three main criteria for sampling in fieldwork: time, people and events (The Open University, 1979c). Time sampling is significant because it is impossible to gather good quality data from "long uninterrupted periods of observation" (*ibid*: 72). It is believed that social activities are undertaken differently at different times. Thus, "carefully planned presence in the field will provide for the sampling of weekly or seasonal variation" (*ibid*). For example, observing the activities in colleges, I was present at different times in different days, trying to identify the schedule of their regular activities.

With regard to people sampling, organisations are normally characterized by "well-defined categories and strata of personnel" as well as role differentiation (*ibid*). Thus, careful sampling of particular categories of actors can help in understanding social patterns and culture. Actors may be sampled according to "member-identified categories" or "observer-identified categories". Individuals in social settings may tend to label each other in a way which is shared among members of staff. Understanding their own "folk" classification is important for us to comprehend their everyday life. Being in a FE college, I was told by an officer that I should interview a man who was a "marketing sceptic", and I obtained from him some important insights about people's reactions to marketing. Concerning "observer-identified categories", I used my discretion to interview a group of people in each stratum within each college, namely lecturers, senior lecturers, heads of departments, and principals. It is believed that people holding different positions may have different political reactions towards change. Intertwining with these two categories, snowball sampling has been employed. This is basically a method of "building up a sample by starting with a small base of informants and getting from them the names and addresses of other people who fall into the same group, or share the same characteristics" (The Open University, 1979c: 12). Not only were people from the same group identified but also those from different groups. I found it very useful to help identify more and more informants and sharpen the research focus.

Furthermore, sampling events is essential because it serves as a base from which the flow of information and strategies can be recognised. Activities comprise routine and occasional events. It is not easy to plan systematically for particular activities due to the blocking of access or information unavailability. I was allowed to attend some management meetings as a non-participant observer but not others.

Sampling is needed in order to "generate potentially relevant categories for data collection" (*ibid*: 73). It is suggested that an investigation will complete ideally when "such categories have been fully explored and documented" (*ibid*). However, in practice, the limitations of time and resources will affect the sampling approach.

To sum up, observation, interview and the use of archival information are crucial research techniques in case study research because they enable researchers to understand the complicated pictures which face them. In each research technique sampling strategies are significant in collecting appropriate data. However, such methods are only aids to gathering the appropriate data. Whether or not we can obtain valid data is dependent on the degree of access to the field. During the course of investigation in the chosen context, the researcher needs to tackle a lot of political and methodological issues. The personal skills of the researcher are important to the success of any investigation.

3.3 ACCESS TO THE REALITY

Access is defined by Gummesson (1991b: 11) as "the opportunities available to find empirical data (real-world data) and information". Gaining access to the field is both exciting and challenging. Agar (1986) calls this experience "breakdown" since many outsiders in organisations or groups encounter new things which they do not understand. The researcher confronts a variety of novel experiences which may stimulate further investigation. However, s/he needs to deal with the notion of gaining continuous access to different actors in the chosen context. In addition, the role of the researcher is an important issue to the case study inquiry.

3.3.1 Gaining Access

Generally there are two types of access: access to organisation (cf. Brown, et al., 1976; Gummesson, 1991b; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984) and access to individual (cf. Brown, et al., *ibid*; Gummesson, *ibid*). The former means access to both the physical settings and the system, which is a basic access for the researcher to study the social context and change process. The latter means the individual actor in the chosen context. As qualitative researchers we need to understand how actors describe and experience the subject of inquiry as well as their social relationships. Gaining access is clearly significant to gathering data and information for understanding and analysis.

Barnes notes that the "social scientist may well find that gaining access to the people that he wants to study may be as difficult and lengthy a process as gaining financial support for his work" (1977: 8). He observes that gaining access is by no means an easy job for researchers. In the research process, Jackall (1983) and Sutton (1987) were denied access by thirty-six and twelve companies respectively. Politics permeate through the research (Bryman, 1989). The powerful members of the organisation under study can block any access to information for researchers or refuse to accept any interview (cf. Gummesson, 1991b) since it may involve issues of confidentiality and publication rights (cf. Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991). Thus, Bryman (1988) reminds us to handle the delicate web of relationship in a cautious manner.

Some academics have suggested strategies to gain access to the field. Van Maanen & Kolb (1985: 11) claim that "[the strategies] involve some combination of strategic planning, hard work and dumb luck". It shows that the success of getting into an organisation involves both the personal skills and the luck of researchers. Bryman (1989: 162-3) suggests four common strategies for gaining access: the opportunistic approach, access at the top, offering reports and clear explanations about the research intentions.

Buchanan, Boddy & McCalman (1988) are proponents of adopting an opportunistic approach. They argue that friends and relatives can be essential facilitators in initiating the web of relationship. Easterby-Smith, et al. (1991) claim that the social class of researchers may affect the access. In my research on FE, my colleagues and professor have been my facilitators in securing contacts with some FE colleges. Secondly, access at the top is recommended (cf. Crompton & Jones, 1988) because people at the top have ultimate authority. On the other hand, it is argued that people at the lower level may act as "sponsors" to bargain with those at the senior level if the research interests them (cf. Buchanan, Boddy & McCalman, *ibid*; Van Maanen & Kolb, *ibid*). Nevertheless, it is important to have the "right" contacts. From my experience in the FE field I sought access at the top which was successful and efficient - mainly because the contact people were interested in "marketing orientation".

Thirdly, offering reports is a common practice to researchers and is part of "the basic trade". It is regarded as an essential negotiating tool. According to Watson, Riggs & Fook (1991: 9), "the basic position of the researcher in the organisation is one of a trader: offering various things to various parties, formally and informally, in order to be provided with access, information and experiences which the research requires". During the course of research, I have offered an evaluation report to ACC based on my experience; help to a college in translation work; and reports on the feedback of students to colleges.

Lastly, clear explanations about the research are crucial to reduce worries and suspicion. Gaining access is not a simple event but is continuous while, for example, different departments are being approached. Obtaining co-operation and trust are significant. Thus, researchers need to explain clearly their research interests, providing copies of a written proposal, in every access situation.

Once the doors of organisations are opened, the next step for researchers is to deal with different actors in the chosen context. According to Easterby-Smith, et al., whether researchers can "get on" within an organisation is largely dependant on their personality and skills in dealing with complicated interpersonal relationships (1991: 62).

3.3.2 Network of Relations: Dealing with Gatekeepers and Informants

As a case study researcher, it is necessary to identify the roles played by different actors in the field. Building up the network of relations is vital for the success of the investigation.

In undertaking fieldwork, there are three key roles: gatekeepers, patrons and key informants. Gatekeepers are "those individuals in an organisation that have the power to grant or withhold access to people or situations for the purposes of research" (Burgess, 1984: 48). These are those people with whom researchers lay down the "basic trade" to so that the doors may be opened. It is by no means straightforward because different departments or divisions have their own gatekeepers. Seeking access is a continuing

process. Researchers need to use their own interpersonal skills negotiating access with these powerful members of organisations. The gatekeepers in my research include senior marketing personnel, principals, and the heads of departments in FE colleges.

Patrons are those who have power and influence over primary resources such as people and money (cf. Boissevain, 1974). They are crucial individuals who can "open doors for one and make introductions" (Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991). Gatekeeper and patron may be the same individual because a person in charge of resources can control the access to those resources. Identifying and building up relationships with patrons are significant in order to seek appropriate informants and information.

Moreover, a network of key informants needs to be built up if researchers intend to succeed in their investigation via case studies (cf. Yin, 1989). It is widely recognised that key informants can provide valuable information, suggest insights about issues and smooth the way to other sources of evidence (cf. Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991; Gummesson, 1991b; Yin, *ibid*). For example, "Doc" in Whyte's classic Street Corner Society was a key informant who played a crucial role in that study. In my study of FE, there were several key informants within the three colleges. My relationship with Tom was especially important. We had lunch frequently and shared jokes. He shared with me details about his family affairs and "secret" information about his college. Through him, I was able to gain access to other informants who then introduced me other informants - the "snowball" effect. The course of interaction with actors enables researchers to comprehend the complicated conditions in the field. In order to increase understanding of the context, researchers need to have reflexive skill in handling the complexities of organisations.

3.3.3 Understanding and Reflexivity

The essential role of a case study researcher is to develop an "understanding" and knowledge about the organisational culture and patterns of behaviour. This concern stems from the belief that "human activities cannot be described without reference to social meanings and that these meanings are the product of cultures or perspectives

generated by actors in particular social locations" (The Open University, 1979d: 127). The concept of reflexivity is important here.

Gummeson suggests a comprehensive model using the notions of "pre-understanding" and "understanding". "Pre-understanding" refers to "people's insights into a specific problem and social environment before they start a research program...; it is the input" whilst "understanding" refers to "the insights gained during a program...; it is the output. This output in turn acts as pre-understanding before the next task" (1991b: 12). According to Odman (1985), "no understanding without pre-understanding" and "an understanding of the parts assumes an understanding of the whole". This "hermeneutic circle" is like a spiral in which understanding develops when knowledge is provided in each stage. For example, my previous working experience in organisations has helped me to develop a certain receptivity to signals in the social environment (Gummeson, 1991b). By spending time in the field for a period of time through which both pre-understanding and understanding have been continuously developed, not only has the "cultural shock" reduced, but it has also enabled me to acquire more and more understanding (see Fig. 3.3).

In the cycle of pre-understanding and understanding, it is necessary for researchers to develop a "reflexive" attitude. For example, what did certain jargons mean in the context? Why did the information flow like that? Why was the marketing department moved to that building? After each observation I reflected on my experience in the field. This experience has enhanced my insight and understanding which have become my pre-understanding of my next observation. Mead (1962) refers to "reflexivity" as a "bending back of one's experience upon oneself". Researchers need to continue the monitoring of their actions and interpretations in the course of their research. The persistent "reconsideration and reflection on the data collection process and his[her] own role" (The Open University, 1979d) can form a basis for data analysis.

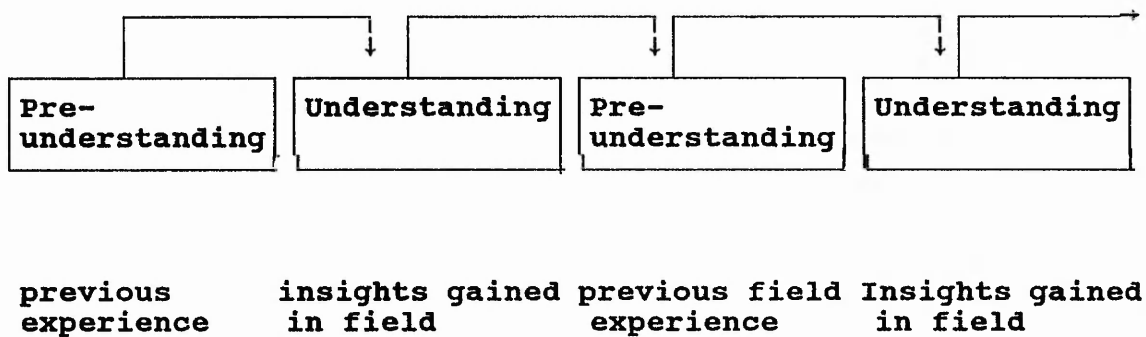


Fig. 3.3 Hermeneutic circle of pre-understanding and understanding

3.3.4 Insider and Outsider

Researchers in the field need to "make and remake bargains with individuals and groups, establish and re-establish their credibility" (Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991). From my own experience, interpersonal skills are essential so that one can be accepted as an insider while, on the other hand, maintaining one's role as an outsider so as to give legitimacy to the raising and putting of questions.

My involvement as an insider and outsider varied between ACC and the three FE colleges. The "typical" participant observer is tied to a particular post in an organisation, the advantage of which lies in enabling a sense of "ordinariness and continuity" (Klein, 1976). When I was in ACC, I was not tied to a particular position. However, on some occasions (for example, in an exhibition and in some business conferences) I was asked to act as a member of staff to receive clients. Also, I acted as a "quasi-consultant" in assisting a senior manager to gather and analyze some data. The offer of this basic trade helped me to contact key informants. However, since the interaction and participation with the organisation under study was peripheral, many actors still regarded me as an outsider. In this way, my role was defined as *a researcher from a university* instead of being labelled as *an assistant* of a senior manager. This might reduce the political barrier in interviewing the personnel in the other departments, especially those who were frustrated working in ACC. This could enhance the authenticity of the dialogue in interviews.

3.3.5 Progressive Focusing

It often takes a whole year to find an acceptable focus, which may include false starts, drifting and moments of despondency and elation. Indeed, the whole research project may be seen as a continuous process of focusing (Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991: 18).

Here, they have highlighted both the difficulty and the significance of progressive focusing. At the beginning of case study research researchers tend to adopt a

"discovery-based approach", ie. a wide focus. They are guided merely by "very general theoretical presuppositions and foreshadowed problems" (The Open University, 1979d: 137). This approach facilitates the study of organisational culture and the generation of theory. When the research problems are more clearly formulated in the process, the particular areas of inquiry are focused. This progressive focusing demands "greater selectivity in observation" and facilitates "a concern with detail" (*ibid*: 138).

Access to organisational "reality" is like walking "through the wilderness" (Shaffir & Stebbins, 1991: 87). Researchers need to negotiate with the actors and find their own direction continuously. Apart from the interpersonal skills, the personal attributes of researchers can contribute to the success or failure of every piece of research.

3.4 PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES OF THE RESEARCHER

The personal attributes of the researcher are regarded as of "decisive importance" to the outcome of any research (Gummesson, 1991b). In this section, I will discuss the basic attributes of myself as a case study researcher, as well as being a woman and Chinese.

3.4.1 Basic Attributes

The basic attributes of the researcher can be divided into two aspects: attributes relevant to the piece of research and attributes relevant to the field. Phillips & Pugh (1987) have offered some advice on how to finish a research project. Determination and single-mindedness is required. Since for collecting case study data are "much more demanding" (Yin, 1989: 62), researchers need to have commitment to the work because the task often becomes greater than it appeared to be at the outset. Self-motivation is crucial in confronting obstacles in the research process. It is so often the case that support from a supervisor is a source of strength to researchers.

Yin has provided guidelines to the attributes relevant to the field which are needed. A case study researcher should be: a good question asker, a good listener, adaptive and flexible, a good grasper and have lack of bias (1989: 63-65). "A good question asker"

means that the researcher "understands that research is about questions and not necessarily about answers" (*ibid*: 63). One needs to be sensitive and skilful enough to apprehend respondents' views and to help them in exploring their own beliefs (cf. Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991). This attribute is associated with good listening skill. A good listener is one who can listen, observe and sense. S/he can "capture the mood and affective components, and understand the context from which the interviewee is perceiving the world" (*ibid*). Easterby-Smith, et al. observe that merely listening and refraining from "projecting" researchers' ideas or feelings into the context is difficult because "one of the ways of obtaining trust is to empathise with the respondent" (1991: 76).

Thirdly, adaptiveness and flexibility mean the willingness to "change procedures or plans if unanticipated events occur" (*Op Cit*: 64). Here, Yin reminds us that researchers need to be adaptive in order to deal with social interactions and flexible enough to modify the study plan when it is necessary. According to Jones (1985), our interaction with actors is dependent on how they define the situation. Our priority is to win trust from the interviewees. Jones indicates that interviewees tend to "suss out" what researchers are like and judge whether they are trustworthy. Thus, facing different situations and different interviewees, researchers need to be adaptive and employ "impression management", paying attention to their own attitudes, use of words, non-verbal behaviour, general style, clothing and so on. In terms of flexibility, no one can guarantee definite success in developing case studies. I had experience of changing planning quickly. My original research plan was to investigate marketing orientation in an accounting firm. When access was terminated after a year, I needed to switch my research from the accounting field to the FE field. However, my research purpose and areas of inquiry remained the same (as will be discussed in the later section).

A good grasper is one who can grasp the issues being studied (Yin, *ibid*: 65). It is essential for researchers to have the attitude of "controlled naivety" (Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991). It suggests that "one is a basically wise but unpretentious person who doesn't yet know why things are like they are" (*ibid*: 16). We need to reveal naivety in certain respects so as to ask questions which are vital to the study. Yin states that

investigators must be able to interpret information and find more evidence if some appears contradictory. The lack of bias in Yin's term does not mean that researchers need to have an objective attitude as it is impossible due to our inherent bias. Social research is concerned with the study of human subjectivity. What Yin means here is that investigators should be able to open themselves to any contrary findings.

3.4.2 The Notion of Gender

Generally, male and female researchers may have similar experience. However, according to Kuper & Kuper (1985: 273), "some problems they face are specific to their gender". Warren (1988) claims that the gender issues are of considerable relevance in every stage of the fieldwork.

Warren observes that women in organisations "have traditionally been file clerks, secretaries, and more recently, data processors and computer workers" (*ibid*: 18). Being in a male-dominated context, women researchers may confront a lot of difficulties. Scott describes that,

Several dimensions of male dominance: not only sexual hustling, but also assignment to traditional female roles and tasks such as mascot, go-fer, audience, butt of sexual or gender joking, or "cheerleader" (1984: 177).

Thus, we need to develop a style to handle such "subtle and not so subtle sexism" in the research situations (*ibid*), so as not to invite rejection of co-operation from male informants. Klein - in her study in Esso as a participant observer - received resentment from other departments. One of the main reasons was that she was a woman (Klein, 1976). Being in ACC, a traditional male-dominated environment, I was always "tested" by different male gate-keepers and informants. No matter how professional I presented myself to be, the question like "what can I do for you, girl?" could be heard. Also, male informants may take advantage of the close relationship developed and step into the researcher's personal boundary. I was asked to go out on a date by a head of department who had provided me with a lot of vital information previously. After the invitation was rejected, he no longer took initiatives to contact me.

Nevertheless, female researchers have some advantages over male ones. It is believed that the communication skills of women are better than men (cf. Warren, 1988: 44). According to Douglas (1979: 214), "the ultimate sociability specialists are women" because they are "low-key" and "do not threaten either the women or the men". Several male informants had praised my "cheerful and nice" characters and "sincere" attitude. A department head even said, "your nice character can win people's trust and support!" In this way, I found myself to be easily accepted by actors generally in the field. Not only that, women researchers can access feelings more easily. Warren indicates that respondents may find it easier to allow women to "access to inner worlds of feeling and thought" (*ibid*). Having a "person-oriented" quality (Nader, 1986), female fieldworkers are "more open to emotional communication than men" (*Op Cit*). However, it is dependent on the individual's personality. Some people do not like to open themselves in any way. For example, it was quite frequently that interviewees shared with me some claimed "confidential" information and afterwards requested me not to disclose it; also, in a public setting, like a staff canteen, a member of staff in a FE college expressed her discontent towards the marketing people in front of me when we had met each other for the first time just ten minutes earlier.

Being a female case study investigator, I encountered certain problems and barriers. However, it was exciting and challenging from a methodological point of view because it has revealed some truths of human relationships.

3.4.3 Being Chinese

According to Warren (1988), skin colour is an essential issue for anthropological fieldworkers. In my opinion, it is also relevant to social researchers.

As a Chinese researcher, the first task I needed to tackle was language difference. Especially in the initial stage, everything was novel to me. I communicated with a lot of people in the organisations, trying to identify key informants and further information. I was confronted with different accents, different speaking paces, slang and jargon. This was indeed my "breakdown" experience. Much effort had been used to adjust myself and

to build up with actors in the chosen context a level of rapport which would encourage respondents to speak freely but which would not be so strong as to threaten the "neutrality" of the researcher on significant issues. Luckily my cheerful character facilitated my survival in the organisations. Also, I needed to be cautious about my non-verbal behaviour, eg. the choice of clothes, the brief case, my mannerisms and gestures, in order not to offend or upset anybody in the field. As the "pre-understanding" and "understanding" developed over the course of research, these problems became less and less serious.

In the case study research process it was found that there were benefits in being a Chinese fieldworker. Many actors appeared very curious and interested about my presence in the field. They started by asking me many questions about my origin, my opinions about the situation of Hong Kong after 1997, etc. Through this chance, I not only introduced myself but also sought further information from them. Moreover, I might be more sensitive towards values and attitudes. According to Kuper & Kuper (*ibid*), "variables which naturally occur together in one culture can be unconfounded". Certain values and attitudes are shared not only among individuals in given organisations but also across the whole society. In this way, people may not question but accept them. Being a "foreigner" in the context, variables that are different from those in my home culture might stimulate my further enquiry and searching.

From the above discussion, it is observed that the attributes of researchers may have an impact on survival and data gathering in the field. Likewise, the methods of data analysis can affect the approach of the study.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

In practice, it is difficult to divide the stages between the collection and the analysis of data in case study research. Easterby-Smith, et al. point out that if a researcher conducts an investigation from a social constructionist perspective, "she will attempt as far as possible not to draw a distinction between the collection of data and its analysis and interpretation" (1991: 104).

Bryman identifies three approaches in data analysis: a "tabula rasa" approach, grounded theory approach, and prior framework approach. The "tabula rasa" approach indicates that qualitative researchers "delimit the area they are investigating as little as possible and wait for interesting themes to emerge" (1989: 166). However, this approach is suggested for use at a later stage of the research to prevent the "premature closure" (*ibid*). Developed by Glaser & Strauss (1967), grounded theory is described as a "more open approach" (Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991). It differs from quantitative data analysis in which an external structure is imposed, in that the generation of theory is derived from data (*ibid*: 108). Bryman observes that "this approach seeks to generate theory which is grounded in data and entails a constant moving backwards and forwards between data and emerging theoretical notions" (Bryman, 1989: 167). Concerning the prior framework approach, suggested by Harris & Sutton (1986), it is claimed that a rough theoretical framework should be developed before the initial data gathering to act as a guide to the study (*ibid*: 168). The argument is based on the belief that the lack of a prior framework may lead to difficulties in the data analysis stage (cf. Miles, 1979).

The choice of the approach is dependent on the aims of the research. The three-year project was initiated by a professor who intended to start a study on "marketing orientation in accounting firms". The idea and focus had been established from the outset. After access was terminated after a year, the fieldwork had to be changed to FE, giving only a year to collect data. Due to the limitations of time and resources, the establishment of a prior framework did help me to focus on some essential areas and guide me in the analysis stage.

Based on this framework, I stepped into the field to experience the life there and to interact with actors. A number of ideas were tried out. I was in and out of the field to allow time to contemplate what I had done and what my future action would be. During the stage of abstract conceptualisation, I tended to relate to a wider frame of reference than my experience in the field in order to externalise the ideas in new and interesting ways (Easterby-Smith, et al., 1991). This process continues until the data is saturated and understanding is clear. Nevertheless, sometimes in practice, due to the time limit, the process had to be completed when the data gathering was at a "satisfactory" stage

instead of a "saturation" stage. Next, the empirical experience in both fields, an accounting firm and three FE colleges, will be examined in detail.

3.6 THE EXPERIENCE OF RESEARCHING

To a case study researcher, the experience of fieldwork can be considered as a substantial gain. Firstly, over the course of researching, the researcher can collect data and generate theory from the "reality" - the chosen empirical field. Moreover, such experience can facilitate one's personal development. According to Easterby-Smith, et al. (1991), researching can improve an individual's self-motivation, enhance judgment and independence. When researchers throw themselves into an environment, what they face is complicated and messy. They need to learn not just how to survive but to be able to achieve the purposes of the study. The pressures from the field, time pressures of the studies, the sponsors, supervisors and themselves drive them to become more agile and flexible in the research environment.

The fieldwork experiences in ACC and three FE colleges have been invaluable to me. The process of studying has increased my knowledge and adaptability to the milieu. The problems I confronted in the field can be regarded as notions which other researchers should be aware of in their fieldwork.

3.6.1 Researching in an Accounting Firm

3.6.1.1 Gaining Access

ACC is a medium-sized accounting firm with 36 branches in the British Isles. In 1990, during the research period, this firm was suffering from the economic recession. Redundancy became a common phenomenon.

The project was initiated by a professor whose chair was sponsored by ACC. The initial access was granted after a lengthy interaction about role clarification and the resolution

of suspicions regarding the research direction and content (Wilson & Fook, 1990). My work was mainly within the marketing function. My crucial concern was about how a marketing culture might be introduced into the traditional accounting profession and how the counter-forces were faced.

The "basic trade" was an important part in the negotiation process. Due to my previous business knowledge and experience, I was considered to be able to provide some advice to the marketing function. This is described as infusing an element of "reciprocity" (Bryman, 1989). In addition, I needed to give the firm periodic reports about the progress of the research to ensure its credibility.

In the first four months, I was involved in three points of entry, namely the marketing department, the training department, and the business development team (or BDT), taking the role of a non-participant observer on some occasions (eg. just sitting in at a marketing meeting or on a marketing training course) and of a participant observer (eg. presented as a member of staff on an exhibition stand) in others. Gatekeepers in each access point had to be dealt with. It was observed that gatekeepers were concerned about "the amount of their own and others' time that is likely to be consumed by the investigation" (*ibid*: 2). It is all dependent on how the gatekeepers perceive the role of researchers. Since a senior member of the marketing department was the link between ACC and my University, the initial access to the department was not difficult. I mainly spent the time in the periodic national marketing co-ordinators' meetings and in some marketing seminars as an observer. John, a head of the BDT, welcomed my involvement in his project: he said, "I'm more than happy to have an assistant". He stated that I could be of some help to him. However, the head of the training department felt threatened about my presence despite my assurance of confidentiality. Although I was allowed to sit in on one of his training courses, the further investigation (ie. a request to observe some relevant training courses) was blocked. In the meantime, the archival information was gathered.

3.6.1.2 Researching Organisational Problems

After a few months' observation, I expected to gain access to the "inner life" of ACC. Initially, the involvement in a marketing project was approved by Maggie, the marketing manager of a branch. Nevertheless, only two weeks' later, my access was blocked. She explained to me that the firm was undergoing a "rationalization process" and the project was cancelled. Later, when I last met her in a meeting, she was made redundant by the firm and said to me with some feelings, "I don't want to work for an accounting firm any more".

Afterward, I shifted my focus to the BDT. Entry into this department was very significant because they had just developed a new niche market (education) which would be beneficial to the empirical interests of the research. Although my main focus was the BDT, I still continued to attend the periodic national marketing co-ordinators' meetings to keep a close eye on the development of marketing.

John was regarded as a key informant in the later stage. Since he had substantial academic experience, he could understand what I was doing. The first question he asked me when he brought me to his office was, "tell me what is the methodology of your research?". He allowed me to attend some marketing functions (eg. an exhibition day) as a participant observer and some marketing meetings as a non-participant observer. Although I wanted to be involved in anything that I could, a political boundary had been established. He mentioned, "you can't go to any meeting you want because some information is highly confidential". I was anxious about the quality of the data. For example, I was only notified about a marketing conference for educationalists after the event when he wanted me to evaluate the questionnaire filled in by the attenders. Although he appreciated my report, commenting "brilliant and professional", it could not serve as a stepping stone to further my access. "Scheduling" him was impossible because his base was in another branch which was more than fifty miles away from ACC.

Due to the severity of the economic climate, the budgets of training and marketing were cut. Some marketing co-ordinators were sacked, others were demoted to become secretaries. The national marketing co-ordinators' meeting has become regional and the meeting times were decided by the regional groups. The atmosphere was described as "gloomy and frustrated". One senior member of staff discouraged me to continue my research in ACC.

The status of marketing and women was questionable in ACC. In such a traditional "male-dominated" firm almost all the marketing co-ordinators were formerly secretaries without practical marketing experience. They were "command-followers". Their daily jobs included, "cleaning windows", "buying sandwiches for people", and "sending partners to airports". A marketing manageress (who was formerly a secretary) was asked if she wanted to stay in a job, she needed to move back to her former post. Under such a low-trust atmosphere, being a woman researcher studying marketing orientation, I received some sarcastic comments. For example, after introducing me to a client in a meeting, the manager said, "maybe she can greatly improve our firm, ha!"; a senior officer even spoke to me like, "what can I do for you, girl?" even though I tried to present myself to be very "professional". In the sensitive environment, such a "harmless girl" might still be a threat (Watson, Riggs & Fook, 1991). So high was the level of tension in ACC that almost any observer was feared as a source of destabilization.

3.6.1.3 Termination of the Access

As potential points of entry turned out to be blocked, I decided to use another approach to gather more data instead of merely staying in ACC. Taking out a map showing the locations of ACC's 36 offices, I intended to draw samples of offices in which semi-structured interviews could be undertaken.

John was nervous about the interview schedule. Firstly, he commented that some partners might not want to spend the time with me as they were "anti-marketing", and a number of the questions were too sensitive for partners to answer - especially in such a climate. After a lengthy discussion in his office, he was willing to give me some

names of partners whom he thought were more "open-minded".

When everything was ready, the last gate was blocked by Nick, the senior person in the marketing department. He felt threatened by my bold intrusion to the partners' boundaries in different offices. He insisted that "the partners are very sensitive about that area". My presence there might lead to what he described as "opening a can of worms". A marketing manager depicted Nick as "he takes things very personally, and he fears that this will backfire on him". In order to protect his position, Nick did not want to arouse any anger or suspicion from other partners as his relationship with some partners was not very smooth. A case study researcher needs to be aware of the political dimension of the study. According to Easterby-Smith (1991: 45), "the nature and direction of research may be shaped by contextual factors and by different people who feel they have a right to exert their influence".

The access to individuals became more and more difficult due to the increase of low trust and defensiveness. There was a reluctance among people to talk to anyone they did not know well. All the promises of confidentiality were in vain as ACC was in a state of "organisational paranoia", a remark made by a marketing manager.

As the access was terminated after a year (from January to December 1990), I needed to shift my research focus to another field. As I had obtained some secondary information about the education field (which is one of the niche markets of ACC), my director of studies suggested that I could continue my research in FE, where marketing has been gradually introduced in recent years due to the changing environment. During the second year, I concentrated my empirical work on three FE colleges.

3.6.2 Researching in three Further Education Colleges

3.6.2.1 Getting in

The three FE colleges will be called AFE, BFE and CFE, the first two (AFE and BFE) being in Nottingham and the last one (CFE) in Leicester. They are considered to be

large-sized colleges. AFE and BFE have two campus sites, catering for different types of students. Between 1990-91, they began to develop more activities associated with marketing and more marketing personnel were employed.

The main reason for choosing more than one college was to ensure that the investigation could still continue even if access was terminated in one or even two colleges. There was also the potential for comparison and contrast. The opportunistic approach was mainly adopted to get access into the field: regarding the access to AFE, a colleague from another department of Nottingham Trent University introduced the assistant principal of AFE to me; on BFE, I met the marketing manager of BFE in an education conference and he showed an interest to my research; regarding CFE, a lecturer from another University (in Leicester) introduced a head of department of CFE to me and from him I managed to meet a senior marketing person. Personal networking was crucial because, through introduction and face-to-face contact, personal credibility could be established. The access was very smooth because all the contact persons (who were both gatekeepers and key informants) were senior people who had political power. They were all in favour of marketing. I had also tried to send letters to other colleges inviting co-operation but received no replies. This, again, showed the significance of personal contact.

The basic trade played an important part especially during the initial stage of the research. My research proposal was ready to be shown to any gatekeepers and informants. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured. A report about the feedback of their "employing organisations" and students towards each college was promised. The negotiation was successfully completed. In return, I could get into the colleges to interview the actors and observe their daily lives. I acted as an "analyst" in CFE, helping by doing some translation work, which was considered as a "favour" in exchange for trust and credibility.

3.6.2.2 Stages of Researching

The fieldwork lasted from January 1991 to March 1992. The investigation was interview-based. Firstly, three case studies (ie. AFE, BFE and CFE) did not allow too much time to be spent on one particular site. However, more importantly, the access to become a participant observer was not available. Non-participant observation could still take place in periods between interviews. Archival information was collected continuously throughout the process. The research was mainly divided into three stages. They were: seeking co-operation, experiencing the field, and interviewing.

In the stage of seeking co-operation, notification of my presence to the management stratum and identification of the key informants were achieved. Within this phase, the personal skills of the researcher were very important. I was able to win support and trust from the initial gatekeepers. They not only provided me with some inputs for the semi-structured interview schedule, but also introduced me to a number of key informants in different departments, acting as a lubricant to smooth my further access.

In experiencing the field, my initial focus was the marketing department or the marketing personnel. In AFE, a marketing person was employed only to organise some "promotion" tasks, and she had no experience of marketing. She invited me to attend marketing meetings and some training courses as an observer. I used non-structured interviews with her "clients". In BFE, there was a marketing department of three employees. Bill, the marketing manager (also without previous marketing experience), was the key informant. He always explained to me the details of organisational functioning and provided me with the names of lecturers. The marketing department of CFE was relatively more "sophisticated". Julia, the head of department, had obtained some marketing experience before and so had her subordinates. She had a clear idea about the present situation and the direction of the marketing department. She invited me to attend an FE marketing conference and introduced me to some senior people. (See Section 5.3.1 for the organisational charts of the three FE colleges).

I spent a great deal of time in observing and having informal chats with the members of staff and students at this stage. Canteens, students unions, classrooms and staff rooms were the usual places for non-participant observation. My presence sometimes generated curiosity from people and I often used such opportunities to ask questions relevant to my study.

A closer relationship was established with some informants in this phase. Tom was a prominent example. He always invited me for lunch whenever I went to CFE, chatting with me about his family problems and the "secret" information of his department. Bill (from BFE) was another good example. He was willing to give me his home telephone number and to chat with me even after office hours. However, our relationship became distant when I rejected his invitation to go out for a trip. Women researchers are perceived to be "less threatening" but simultaneously are vulnerable to "sexual hustling". I had to balance my need for "data collection" opportunities with the need to maintain personal integrity and, indeed, safety.

During the interviewing stage, four groups of people - college staff, people from industry, students, and people from related institutions - were interviewed. Three sets of interview schedules were used for the first three groups of people which acted as guidelines for the researcher to prompt answers from respondents (see App. 3). To the college staff, the areas of inquiry included:

- the college culture
- the change of the college (ie. the development of the infrastructure)
- the general marketing development
- the development of courses
- the development of advisory committees
- the interaction with students
- organisational effectiveness

To the people from industry, the areas of inquiry comprise:

- their perception of their interaction with the particular college
- their perception of the prospect of the particular college

To the students, the areas of inquiry were:

- the reasons for the choice of the particular college
- their perception of the particular college in terms of courses, facilities, environment and so on

To the people in the related institutions, the researcher had only some areas of interest in mind, the interviews were mainly unstructured. The focus was mainly on their opinions of the marketing development in the FE field.

In total, one hundred and eighty semi-structured interviews with tape recording were undertaken to investigate the attitudes and values of the respondents toward marketing in the colleges. The distribution is as follows (also see **Fig. 3.4**):

- a) the college staff: 42 individuals
- b) people from industry (or employing organisations) who were using the services of colleges: 16 individuals
- c) students: 115 individuals
- d) related institutions and individuals: 7 people in the management level

In terms of college structure, four strata were identified, namely:

- . principals (including assistant and vice principals)
- . heads of departments
- . senior lecturers
- . lecturers

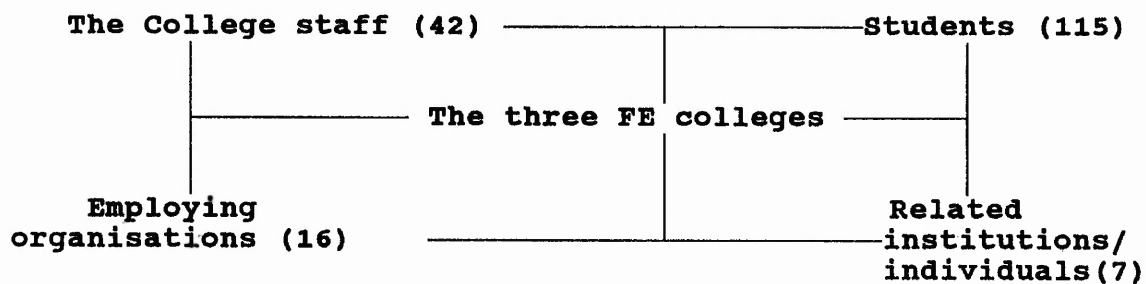


Fig. 3.4 The groups being interviewed in the research

Usually the key informants provided me with the list of the staff and commented about the characters of individual members. Interviewees were selected by convenience and judgemental sampling. I interviewed six principals, eleven heads of departments, thirteen senior lecturers and twelve lecturers.

The identification of the list of employing organisations was by no means an easy job. It was all dependent on the co-operation of informants in each department (who could be both senior lecturers or lecturers). Some were willing to help me by giving me a copy of a computer printout and even contacted the relevant people for me, but others promised to contact me later but nothing happened. Sometimes by snowball sampling I managed to contact other employing organisations recommended by an employing organisation. In total, I have conducted sixteen interviews in different fields (see **Table 3.1**).

	AFE	BFE	CFE
Number of employing organisation	4	8	4

Table 3.1 The distribution of interviews among employing organisations

Interviewing students was also a difficult challenge. Each of the three colleges has more than a thousand students, comprising full-time, part-time, day release and block release. The sample was obtained in two ways. In one way, a number of students was selected from each department, recommended by the members of staff based on judgmental sampling. It was dependent upon how many of the staff members in each department who were willing to co-operate with me. I explained to them my research projects and asked them to introduce a variety of students for me in order to get the responses from different angles. They often arranged the interviews by asking the students to meet me in the classrooms. In the other way, whenever I went to the colleges (either during the daytime or evenings) I invited students to take the interview by convenience sampling where, for example, the interviews took place in the car park, in canteens or classrooms.

Both individual and group (which varied from 2 to 4 people) interviewing was undertaken, depending on the arrangement. I interviewed in total one hundred and fifteen students at the three colleges (see **Table 3.2**). The data provided me with some idea of the relationship of students with the individual colleges.

Age	AFE	BFE	CFE
20 and below	13	13	32
21 -40	17	14	8
41 and above	5	6	7
<i>Total</i>	<i>35</i>	<i>33</i>	<i>47</i>
Gender Distribution	AFE	BFE	CFE
Male	17	12	23
Female	18	21	24
Nature of courses	AFE	BFE	CFE
Full time	15	14	40
Part time	15	4	3
Day release/Block release	5	15	4

Table 3.2 The distribution of interviews among students in individual colleges

Time sampling was also a crucial notion in interviewing students due to the nature of their study mode. I interviewed different students at different times on different days. For example, I spoke to students at a conference on a Saturday; sometimes, in order to interview the students who were doing evening courses, I needed to be in the field at nine o'clock in the evening.

Regarding related institutions and individuals, seven formal interviews were conducted at different institutions which were perceived by the "actors" as having connections with particular colleges. They are namely, Derbyshire Training and Enterprise Council,

Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire County Councils, three heads of departments in three other FE colleges who had carried out some marketing tasks, and a lecturer in a former Polytechnic who was once a senior lecturer in a FE college. They were my "sounding board" in providing me with some insights and clearing my queries in the process of researching.

3.6.2.3 Continuous Focusing until Data Saturation

Over the course of the research, progressive focusing occurred. Glaser & Strauss (1967) mention that there is always tension to have a focus on the one hand and a qualitative commitment to allow issues and themes to evolve in context on the other. Thus, a flexible framework was used to manage the information and guide the interviews. I intended to avoid sharpening the problems into a particular research hypothesis until considerable investigation had occurred. During the interviewing process, the themes became clearer and clearer so the content of the interviews became more and more focused. In theory, the focusing continues until the data is saturated but only one year was allowed in my project to collect the data. Due to this time limitation, the data gathered was considered to be satisfactory rather than "perfect".

3.7 SUMMARY

A qualitative approach was adopted in my research which was consistent with the philosophical stance of phenomenology. The nature and the merits of this approach were mentioned: interpretation from the actors' side, contextualization, process-orientation, flexibility, proximity and multiple sources of data. In terms of research design, the case study approach was adopted to investigate the processes of organisations. My aim was not to generalize from samples but to theorize or help "understand" social phenomena.

Three types of research technique were used to facilitate the triangulation process: observation, interview, and the collection of archival information. A range of observation from participant to non-participant styles was undertaken. The interview was considered to be an essential source of evidence for both the unstructured and

semi-structured interviews with tape recording being used. Archival information formed an essential part of data collection. Sampling was crucial due to the researcher's time limitation. The criteria for sampling included: time, people and events.

Access to organisations was challenging and difficult. Strategies were needed to gain access, not just the first access but the continuous access to different units. "Basic trade" was significant in gaining access. The researcher needed to be cautious in dealing with gatekeepers and informants once she was in the field. Reflexivity was necessary to seek a clearer understanding of social phenomena. The researcher was required to balance her role as insider and outsider. Progressive focusing was a crucial method in identifying the phenomena of interest.

The personal attributes of the researcher could affect the degree of success. First of all, the researcher needed to be committed and determined to her own research. Moreover, she needed to be a good question asker, a good listener, adaptive and flexible, a good grasper, and lacking in bias. The notions of gender and being Chinese have been discussed. They generated some barriers but also advantages to the researcher in the fieldwork. With regard to the data analysis, a "prior framework" approach was adopted.

In the last section, the experience in ACC and the three FE colleges was examined. Although access into ACC was granted initially, due to "organisational paranoia" this was terminated after a year. In contrast, the investigation in FE was relatively successful. Gaining access to the three colleges was by means of an opportunistic approach starting at "the top". The stages of researching comprised a discussion phase, a phase of "experiencing" the field, and an interviewing phase. The focusing was continuous until the data was considered to be "satisfactory" after a year.

CHAPTER 4: MARKETING ORIENTATION IN THREE FE COLLEGES: THE CHANGING ENVIRONMENT AND THE EMERGENCE OF "MARKETING ORIENTATION"

I came to FE after being the head of a school. FE is always changing it seems. When people say there is another change, I will say "what's new?" ... We've gone through not only external change but also internal changes...

- a head of department at CFE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to the head of department who made the above statement, change seems to be the normal phenomenon in the FE field. There is constant change in a number of fields and FE colleges are no exception. He suggests that there is a need to respond to external change by changing the internal structure, systems and so on in order to fit with perceived environmental needs.

In Chapter 1, we examined how environmental elements influence and shape the FE field and help the emergence of *managerial principles* incorporating the marketing concept (in contrast to *professional principles*). This chapter will tackle this notion in detail by looking at the three FE colleges closely to see how individual actors make sense of the environmental changes, and at the emergence of marketing orientation.

This chapter will, first of all, investigate the relationship between FE colleges and the environment. The external environment of FE colleges, encompassing the "external constituencies", will then be discussed, covering the government sector, the socio-demographic sector, and the economic and technological sectors, as well as the related institutions sector. The third section will explore how people in the field define *marketing orientation* and the development of tension between the two camps, ie. between top management and lecturers.

4.2 ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FE COLLEGES AND THE ENVIRONMENT

It is widely recognised that no organisation can live independently from its environment as "closed systems". Organisations are shaped and influenced by the environment. When we talk about organisations being "shaped by the environment" we can draw on various theories about the relationship between organisations and the environment to help conceptualise the process. If we see these theories on a continuum, we can say that at one end there are theorists who stress the passive reaction of organisations to the environment in the process of "natural selection". At the other end of the continuum, theorists emphasise the "free will" and "sense making" of individuals in organisations in reacting to the environment. This will be discussed in this section and the notion of sense making stressed as important to my research. When the actors in each college were interviewed about the significance and the effect of the change upon the FE field, even though they were working under the same "domain", they might give different answers. This section will examine this issue.

4.2.1 Organisations and the Environment

The relationship between organisations and the environment centres on the fact that organisations need to *survive*. In order to survive, organisations need to change to meet the demands of the environment. Gawthrop (1973: 18) uses the term "organism" to describe the organisation. He argues that:

Due to the fact that no organism has complete control over its total (internal and external) environment, forces of change constantly are being exerted on the organism, changes which require adaptive responses if survival is to be achieved.

The quotation which opened this chapter can be understood in these terms. FE colleges can be seen as undergoing constant change in order to achieve survival. There are three possible approaches on which we can draw to help us understand such processes.

First, derived from Darwin's The Origin of Species (1928), there is population ecology theory (Aldrich, 1979). This sees the world as being made up of populations of organisations which have developed different characteristics in the process of *variation*. Due to the scarce resources (the ecology) they need to go through a process of *natural selection*. Only those which have unique and superior characteristics (or so-called attributes) fit the environmental conditions, and can survive and achieve *retention*. This theory emphasizes the concept of survival for the fittest. That means organisations are totally at the mercy of their environments (cf. Hampton et. al., 1987).

The second approach, that of contingency theory, presents a different viewpoint. Like population ecology theory, this theory recognises that the form of organisations should fit the environment. However, it highlights the *free will* of organisations to change their forms according to the degree of *complexity and turbulence* of the environment. Organisations which change their form according to environmental demands will be more successful and vice versa. Galbraith (1973) argues that organisations must develop particular internal parts and control processes in facing particular degrees of complexity and turbulence (cf. Hampton et al, 1987). This theory acknowledges the influence of the environment but also the discretion of organisations to mutate.

In terms of the degrees of organisational dependency upon the environment, the third approach, that of strategic theory, holds the view that organisations can help create as well as react to the environment (cf. Summer, 1980). This theory points out that the environment is not only assessed by the degree of complexity and turbulence but it is composed of a broad range of "constituencies" (cf. Watson, 1986). Each of the constituencies will exert particular demands on organisations for certain outputs. Organisations need to design their own *internal resource competencies* to meet the *external outputs* demanded. Organisations have their own discretion to "visualize" and "conceptualize" the outputs and internal elements. In other words, they can create their own environment (Hampton et al, 1987).

In line with this strategic theory, Weick's enactment theory (1979) provides us with a key insight into the processes whereby organisations respond to their environment. In his

argument, both the environmental and internal organisational elements are full of puzzle and confusion. Individuals in organisations solve the puzzle and problems in the process of *sense making*. They adopt their own cognitive visions and maps to make sense of the strategic system. It suggests that individuals have definite freedom to *enact their environments* in the process of constant scanning. According to Hampton et al (1987: 773), there can be a subgroup of persons that "makes sense of the situation and gradually assumes positions of leadership, based on the learned competence to make sense of the situation" whilst other subgroups are "less interested and less competent to make the alignment" and "select" to stay away from the decision-making process. This helps to explain that in the sense making process, individuals can select either to involve themselves or distance themselves from the decision making process; either to respond to or neglect the changes.

This perspective can be used to explain why different interviewees in my research responded differently to the changes in the FE field. For example, a head of department stated that the Education Reform Act exerted the greatest effect on the FE colleges. However, a lecturer from the same college had not heard of this Act until I mentioned it. On another occasion, a principal said there had been a lot of important changes happening in the last few years whilst another lecturer from the same college claimed, "I don't see that there has been any significant change". These individuals are all "enacting" the environment differently: they view it in different ways, thus each is predisposed to act towards it differently. The differences in their perception may be affected by their positions in the college (see Section 4.4). Weick's fundamental point is that we always act towards an "interpreted environment" as opposed to an "objectively existing" environment.

When we employ the notion of sense making to examine behaviour in organisations, we notice that this process is related to individuals' and groups' power and influence inside the organisation. Anthony Ferner (1990: 26) in his research in National Power in 1989 states,

Environmental changes, therefore, provide an impetus to changes in organizational structures, strategies and roles. But the organizational response is mediated by the actions of interest groups who struggle to assert their own definition of the changes, link them to overarching corporate 'paradigms' and use them to legitimate claims to greater power and influence.

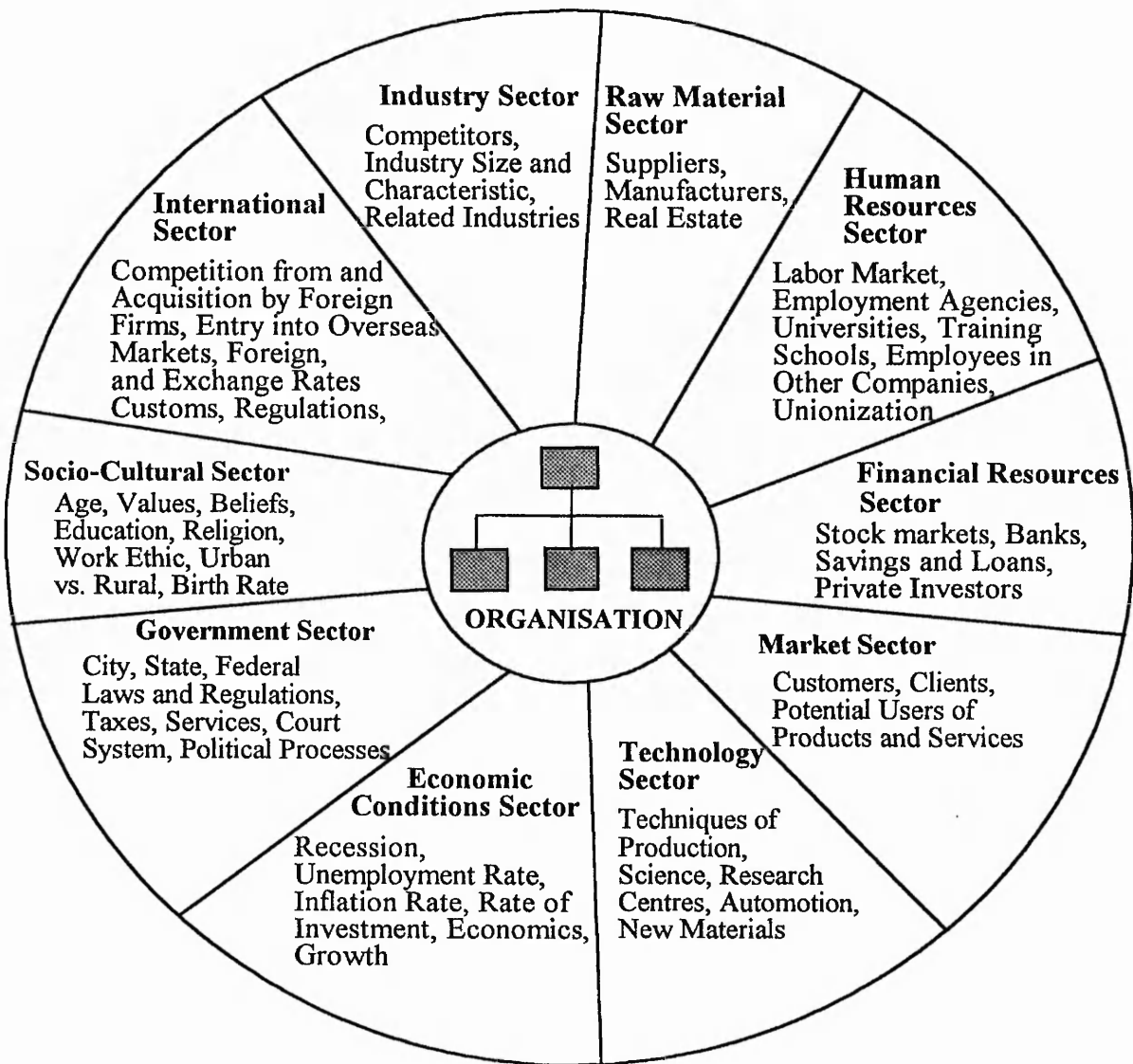
Here, he reminds us that organisation is not merely an organism or entity but is composed of a coalition of interest groups. They make sense, define and link the changes to the "corporate paradigms" and use them to strengthen or even enlarge their power and influence. Management may respond to the changes swiftly to consolidate their power while those who have lesser political power may reject the changes in order to protect their interest. That is the source of tension between the two camps which I mentioned briefly in Chapter 1 (and which will be discussed in detail in Section 4.4). Next, I will examine the enacted environment and its relationship with the three FE colleges.

4.2.2 The Enacted Environment of the FE Colleges

The word "environment" used here is a general concept to delineate the external influences on organisations. Daft (1989), an organisational theorist, adopts the term "domain" to describe the "environmental field of action". Domain is

A set of environmental elements that the organization seeks to interact with or has to interact with to accomplish organizational goals (1989: 45).

According to Daft, organisations constantly interact with their domain. It is easy to understand that the significance of the interaction lies in the fact that organisations can gather signals or information about the demands of their domains and mutate according to their own wills. There are several *sectors* in each organisation's domain, which are "subdivisions of the external environment that contain similar elements" (*ibid*). Daft identifies ten sectors for each organisation, namely industry, raw materials, human resources, financial resources, market, technology, economic conditions, government, sociocultural and international. The relative importance of each sector may differ among individuals inside each college in the process of sense making (see Fig. 4.1).



Source: Adapted from Daft, R.L. (1989) *Organisation Theory and Design*. 3rd edition, St.Paul: West Company Publishing Company, P.46.

Fig 4.1 An Organisation's Environment

In each sector, there are a number of constituencies which the colleges depend on continuously for particular resources. For example, in the FE field, there are: the local education authority (or LEA)(it has become less influential - see Section 1.5.2), Training and Enterprise Council (or TEC), the ethnic community, the neighbouring colleges and so on (see Fig. 4.7). According to the resource dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Ulrich & Barney, 1984), the domain is the source of the scarce resources for organisational survival. Each organisation gets hold of certain resources. In order to control the critical resources, organisations strive to initiate inter-organisational relationships to reduce resource dependence. Again, it is the discretion of each college to make sense and adopt the relationships with its own constituencies.

My research suggests that there are five main sectors in the FE domain which are significant in the process of change. They are the government, the economic, the technological, the socio-demographic, the related institutions sectors (see Fig. 4.2). In the next section, I will discuss how individual actors in the field perceive the sectors in the domain and the influence the sectors have upon them.

4.3 THE DOMAIN OF THE THREE FE COLLEGES

4.3.1 The Government Sector

The government includes "the regulatory, legal, and political systems that surround an organization" (Op Cit: 49). Thus, it plays an important role in shaping organisations in many aspects. The FE colleges are no exception. As discussed in Section 1.4.2, FE colleges have traditionally functioned as a bridge between school leavers and society by providing vocational *training* to the 16 to 19 year-olds. However, the government is regarded by some respondents as "irresponsible" in relation to training in Britain.

"The UK compulsory education and training for the population has been disastrous." (from the Vice Principal at CFE)

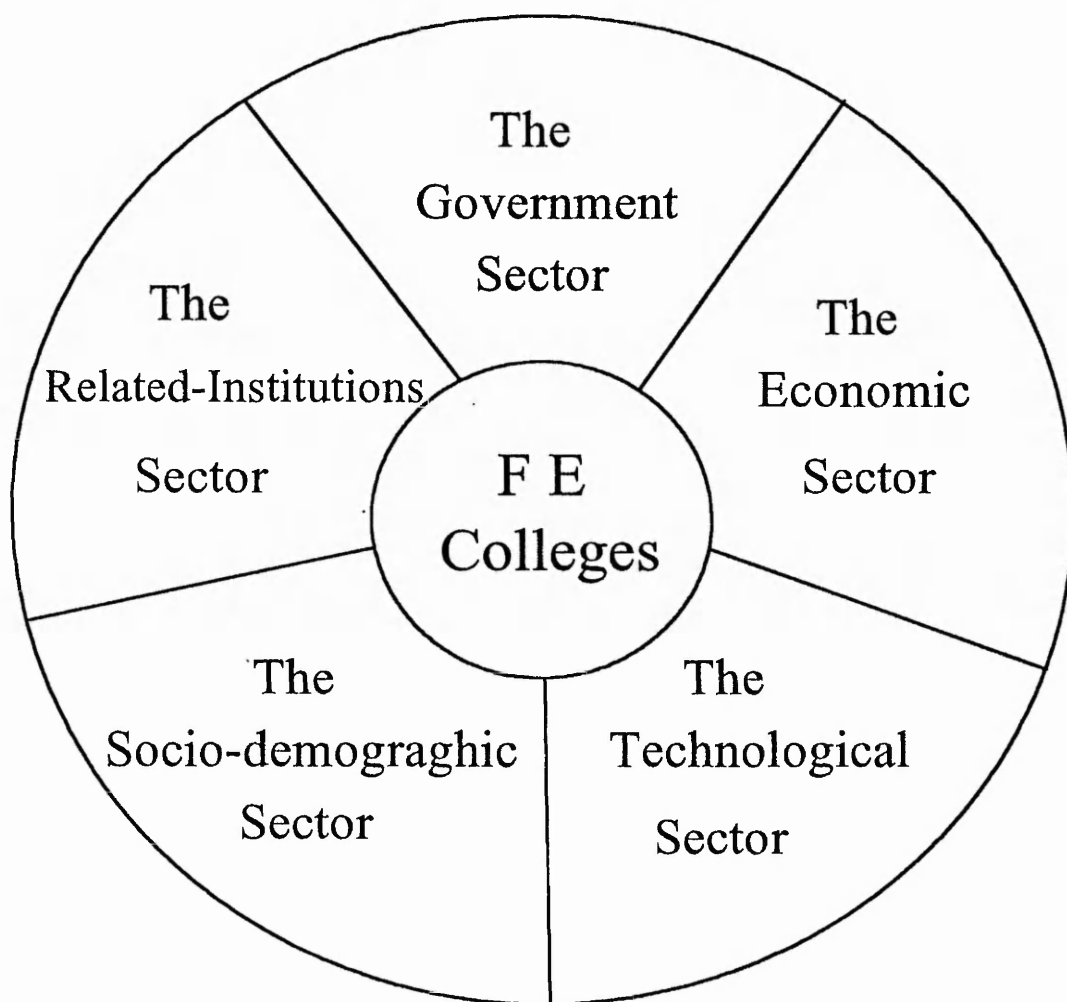


Fig 4.2 Five main sectors in the FE domain

"Training in Britain has a very low profile...Last year, the figure showed that in terms of expenditure on training, it's less than 1% compared to those in Europe or Japan which are about 7 to 8%..." (from a head of department at BFE)

No matter it was "disastrous" or "low profile", it meant that the government's training policies had been disappointing. Since training has not been supported on a significant scale, FE colleges appeared to be "marginalised" for a long time (Woolf, 1991: 15). Nevertheless, in the last couple of years, many people, especially those who are at management levels, have seen a change in the government's attitude towards training and FE colleges. The head of the engineering department at BFE said that "I am beginning to see signs that finally there is the recognition of the importance of training in national government policy" and that the FE colleges are now "at the core of these new developments" (*ibid*).

4.3.1.1 The Government's Policy

In recent years, the government's stated policy has been to *improve the image of the FE colleges* and push them to be *more responsive* (a document from Leicester LEA, TEC to Leicester FE colleges, 1990). The government claims that the public perception of FE colleges is poor and the "Cinderella image" still prevails. Co-operation among FE colleges is encouraged so that the profile of FE colleges can be raised. For example, a group called "Marketing Network" has been established (encouraged by the LEA), formed by 10 Nottinghamshire FE colleges to adopt a "corporate marketing strategy". Also, the government has said that FE colleges need to be more responsive to meet the changing demands of the market. Thus, it is recommended that "coherent, appropriate and effective marketing strategies"¹ be developed. In 1989, the Student Entitlement Scheme² was launched with the declared intention to "improve the quality of post-16

¹ Ref: the MSC funded Nottinghamshire Work-related NAFE (WRNAFE) information systems pilot project (1986-87)

² Ref: the Committee Paper "Post-16 Education in Nottinghamshire" (December, 1989)

education and training." The government claims that they will "help" to change the attitude of the individuals and raise the profile of marketing in FE colleges. *Marketing* has become a term that always appears in the communications between the government and the FE colleges. In another project³, the colleges have been encouraged to "increase their flexibility in terms of the timing of course delivery, providing tailor-made courses". It is significant to note that the government suggests that "marketing is the responsibility of all staff, including support staff, not just the marketing director/officer" (PICKUP, 1991). The government has encouraged a lot of training, for example, in the areas of customer care, strategic planning, training needs analysis, total quality management and public relations. However, the effectiveness of communicating such messages to the staff among FE colleges is another matter. A lecturer at AFE was sceptical about the attitude of the government,

...[the government] have certain attitudes to education, you never know what it is, whether they try to force privatization into education or not, they don't say, or they want to run it down or not, you get peculiar feelings...politicians are very good at manipulating things.

This sceptic has put forward the notion that you can have a group of people who hold a similar view towards the government's policies. Their perception may affect whether or not they intend to be involved in the change (see Section 4.4).

4.3.1.2 A Fundamental Change

It has been explained in Section 1.5.2.3 that the government has used the 1988 Education Reform Act to change FE fundamentally through implementing formula funding in 1990. Then in 1991 the White Paper was published in response to the Act. The government's policies have set up a political system to constrain and shape the FE colleges, which need to act promptly to meet the changes.

³ Training Agency MDF project (1988-89)

In this section I will concentrate on examining how the actors in the FE field respond to these government policies. In my interviews it was found that most people on the management side together with the senior lecturers said that this Act has a profound effect and it is the biggest single factor leading to radical change in FE. However, many people at the lower levels seldom took the initiative to talk about this Act. Those who see this great impact of the Act upon FE tend to highlight the aspect of budget devolution. There are also comments like:

"We have to be more accountable for what we do"

"We will need to manage that budget with very little support from County Council"

"According to the local management of colleges (LMC), we are given a single line of budget to do what we need to do"

This Act has reduced the power of the LEAs to influence the colleges. In the past, LEAs allocated the budget to different items and colleges merely needed to execute it. After this Act, colleges have the discretion to manage and manipulate the single line budget. However, there have been some anxieties among the colleges. For example,

"The FE budget has gone down" (from a senior lecturer at CFE)

"The government tended to take some of the money from the successful colleges to prop up inefficient colleges over a period" (from a lecturer at AFE)

"The government changes its mind, as to where the emphasis should be, quite often. It's not in line with what the colleges want" (from a senior lecturer at BFE).

"The government keeps on telling us to provide good quality training...we cannot expect people to turn out students of good quality if they [the government] are not willing to find finance to train them" (from a lecturer at CFE).

It is noticed that some particular external resources are beyond the control of the colleges, eg, those dependent on the policies of the government and the level of input of

government funding. In order to reduce the uncertainty, some colleges have started to initiate the alternatives to avoid dying off.

Facing the falling role of the government, some perceive it as involving opportunities but others see it as posing threats. A marketing manager at BFE claimed that "it's an exciting time...it's a good development". In the same college, Mark, the Principal stressed that,

We will develop a business-like system...we will have more freedom to be entrepreneurial, to create new markets for our services...my perception is that we are a strong institution with a good solid base.

BFE is a large college with its own specialisms. Thus, he believes that there is an opportunity for them to explore some new developments. His idea of "being entrepreneurial" and "creating new markets" is associated with the development of full-cost courses which help the colleges to increase their income. Indeed, many people at management levels have recognised the "increase of flexibility" in shifting their own resources to the desirable areas.

Nevertheless, some interviewees have pointed out that it can create threats to colleges. A senior manager from a small FE college pointed out that his college needed to spread its resources everywhere in order to provide a variety of college services, and there may be possible "collapse" after "serious competition". It shows that the destiny of the colleges is dependent on what they describe as *market forces*. A head of department even prophesied that "it is difficult for the smaller colleges...in the end only two large colleges can remain in Nottinghamshire" due to the process of "rationalisation".

It is an "exciting time" for some people but a difficult time for others. In response to this Act, Mark (Principal of BFE) stressed that BFE needed to have the efficiency of the college's delivery and the effectiveness "which is the quality commitment that *meet the needs of clients*". The attitude has been shifted towards the satisfaction of the "clients' needs" as a priority, in order to compete in the turbulent environment. In this way, a

marketing department has been established at BFE in which three jobs were created. Four other colleges where I have interviewed are moving in a similar direction in that they have started some "marketing" posts albeit at a different pace. According to Brooks (1991), the senior chief executive with Lancashire LEA, speaking at a conference,

ERA, and formula funding, stimulate marketing activity, because income depends on customers. This has resulted in a raised awareness that marketing is a total activity and concerns all staff-support staff and academic staff.

Whether or not individuals in the colleges regard "marketing" as a "total activity" will be discussed in Section 4.4. However, it has been shown that the change in the political environment has aroused people's interest towards the notion of "marketing". This Act has a fundamental effect upon the colleges in the sense that they not only change the structure but also intend to change their traditional culture to become more responsive to the environmental demands for "survival". A head of department at BFE claimed that "at this stage, we need to work hard to improve the performance in order to survive".

Although the people at the upper level generally emphasize the need to be entrepreneurial and more proactive, it seems that many of those at the lower level, especially the lecturers whose main activity is lecturing, either do not know about the changes or do not like the changes. A senior lecturer at AFE commented about the attitude of the lecturers that

Lots of lecturers don't see that change. In fact, they don't want to know.

In my interviews with the lecturers, they seldom talked about the Act or the White Paper in the conversation. When I asked a lecturer whether or not he had heard about it, his response was "what's that?"; while another lecturer said, "I've got no idea. To be honest, I haven't read the White Paper, so I don't really know the situation". It has raised some intriguing questions: what makes the lecturers select to neglect the external changes: the information system or their personal discretion? This issue will be discussed again later.

There are other groups of lecturers who simply do not like the change. A lecturer at AFE merely said, "these kinds of things are very political". When the notion of full-cost courses was mentioned, another lecturer at AFE responded with a negative attitude. He said,

We tend to put them on top as a means of raising money. That's not what we are here for, it's rubbish. *We are providing a service and not selling something.* I don't think you can put them together.

Here, he associated the change with the commercialisation of the FE colleges. It is not, he claims, the correct philosophy of education which should be one of "providing a service". There are still other lecturers who are worrying about the capability of management to deal with the change. Examples being:

"Does the management have the skill to own the budget?" (from a lecturer at CFE)

"My opinion is that college is not structured for those things, we haven't got staff for that, Principal and management are not trained for that" (from a lecturer at AFE).

It is not accidental to hear similar responses from two different colleges in two cities. Historically, the management did not need to adopt such wide responsibilities since they had obtained considerable help from the LEAs. The recent changes in the government's policies have affected management's perception and attitude to their roles: they are aware of the need to manage and plan the financial matters, personnel issues and so on. That is why a lecturer claimed that management need to update their personal management skills, resource management skills and forward planning skills. Their scepticism may affect their confidence towards the internal change initiated by the management. Thus political development has indeed set a scene for tension to emerge between management and the lecturers (see Section 4.4.2).

4.3.1.3 From College-led to Industry-led

The college has now very little input into writing a programme and testing for NVQ...the government decided that it should be industry-led, not college-led...(from a senior lecturer at BFE).

From this piece of conversation, it is noted that the government "decided" to push the FE colleges to be more responsive to the "needs" of the employing organisations by launching National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs).

Under the control of the National Council for Vocational Qualification (NCVQ), NVQs are associated with the establishment of the standards or competence set by industry (see also Section 1.5.2.3). The intention is, according to a senior lecturer at AFE, "the need to reorganise training to start where the client is". In this way, the employing organisations may exert more power in influencing the way the colleges run. Among the three colleges I studied, NVQs have started to develop within the vocationally-oriented courses. For academic subjects the government has started to develop an accreditation called General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ).

NVQs have changed the "traditional" system of the colleges. This is what a department head described in the following terms "we may be selling a product which is different to the one we've been selling in previous years". In the past, the colleges "wrote lots of programmes and set the examinations" and the part-time or day-release students from the employing organisations took the lessons mainly in the classroom. Colleges were an important place for training. However, with NVQs, many programmes are written by industry and the evaluation is carried out in the workplace.

A number of people are conscious and worried about the changes in training:

"They don't have the expertise. Industries are making things, not writing texts or training" (from a senior lecturer at BFE)

"I don't think they can deliver appropriate quality in their own sites" (from a senior lecturer at AFE).

and also the possibilities of losing jobs:

"We will be asked to undertake small parts of training compared to the traditional role...we finish up with fewer students coming to this unit...the possibilities of redundancies" (from a head of department at BFE).

"They can do their own training, can choose any college to do it...That means we would lose work" (from a senior lecturer at CFE).

Such role and power shift may create a big threat to the stability of colleges. This scheme is not merely affecting the quality of the curriculum but also the destiny of the staff in colleges. Facing this uncertain environment, the general response of the people at the management levels was summarised in the following words spoken by a department head at BFE, "we are looking at developing new courses and for people to come to college for specific training ... increasing the full-time students number for either practical skill or managerial skill...so that the short fall in student intake from day-release students is balanced or improved upon by full-time students..." The FE colleges are playing different roles under the government policies, the management generally is aware of the need to interact constantly with the external environment and respond swiftly by shifting resources accordingly.

In the next section I will discuss the relationship between the three FE college and their perceived constituencies in the government sector. This will help us to understand how the interaction works and how it changes in a turbulent political environment.

4.3.1.4 Three Key Institutions

In my interviews with members of staff at the three colleges, three institutions were often mentioned when we talked about the external changes in the government sector. They are: the local education authority (LEA), Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs), and Business & Technology Education Council (BTEC). Nevertheless, LEA and TEC were frequently discussed in the conversation, which shows their significant relations with the three FE colleges.

Local Education Authority

We were responsible for funding education: to give budgets to FE, responsible for planning and development, ie. strategic plan, specifying what colleges should be doing, setting requirement in terms of students, specifying how colleges meet the needs...(from an education officer in a County Council).

In the light of the above statement we can note that, traditionally, there had been close "daily" relationship between the colleges and the LEA. Under the control of the LEA, the competition among the colleges was minimized because they had encouraged colleges to develop their own specialisms without an overlap with those in other colleges.

In terms of interaction, the LEAs have been playing an "advisory and consultancy role" in helping colleges to develop their curriculum and strategic plans as well as to train their staff at colleges. In recent years the LEAs have raised the profile of "marketing" by recruiting "marketing officers" in the education section. According to a marketing officer in an LEA, "now we take marketing seriously". Their work is mainly helping colleges to develop "brochures, advertising and conferences".

The Education Reform Act (1988) has reduced the influence of the LEAs upon the FE colleges which has had an effect on resources. A senior lecturer at CFE said that "we can control our own resources, we have to go away from traditional FE". However, a department head pointed out that "nobody knows what change is going on, whatever change, we lose some of our resources". Here, they both emphasize the significance of the resources to the survival of the colleges. On the one hand, the colleges are now more in control of the budget and decision-making process but, on the other hand, they may lose experienced advice and consultancy from the LEAs. In order to remain viable and stable in the environment they need to seek more resources from the environment (which is in line with the resource dependence perspective). The employing organisations have become more influential in this way. An education officer in an LEA claimed that "the bigger employers may be the significant players, they are responsible for economic development, bring money and influence". Since the influence of the local government

has been decreasing, the power of the employing organisations has been increasing in recent years towards the colleges who get hold of the monetary resource and the expertise in particular fields.

Training and Enterprise Councils

The extension of the employers' influence is, in part, facilitated through the Training & Enterprise Councils (TECs). Back in 1973, the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) was established when the LEAs and FE colleges claimed that "both LEAs and colleges were not responsive enough to meet the training needs" (according to an education officer in a LEA). During the next decade, it had grown in importance as a role of trainer mainly as a consequence of rising unemployment (cf. Sunday Times, 1987). In 1987 the government took all job centres out of the MSC's control and placed them under the control of the Department of Employment (DOE). MSC was being left as a "training agency" only (*ibid*). According to research carried out by the Unemployment Unit, among the 840,578 interviewees of whom 88% were made an offer of training, only 0.5% found employment (Financial Times, 1987a). At the end of 1987, being aware of the need to involve local employers, both the officials at the MSC and the DOE started an attempt to increase the private sector's role in programmes for the adult unemployed (Financial Times, 1987b). In 1988 the Training White Paper put forward the plan to establish about 80 employer-led local Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) over the next four years (Financial Times, 1988). Local groups of employers were invited by the DOE to submit proposals for setting up the Councils. The objectives of establishing the TECs were to enable the employers to draw up local training strategies, to deliver appropriate training programmes and to support training in small businesses (*ibid*). At national level the Training Agency (formerly the Training Commission) continued to develop national training strategies. The Agency was responsible for signing contracts with the local TECs and monitoring their performance in providing programmes for youngsters and the unemployed and in promoting training within companies. The TECs were launched in March 1989 and the response from the employers was described as positive (Guardian, 1989). The government aimed to set up the TECs with budgets ranging between £20m and £50m a year (Financial Times, 1989a) and it was an attempt

for the TECs to be seen as "a break from the past" (Financial Times, 1989b).

During the research process, when we were talking about the government's attitude to the improvement of training interviewees (mainly staff members in the FE colleges) generally were sceptical of the establishment of the previous training institutions. Comments include:

"The funding format was always different" (from a principal in AFE)

"I think it [the Training Agency] was rubbish...it dictated centrally...it didn't mind that people didn't want the delivery, it's delivering what the government want them to do..." (from Jane, the chief executive in a TEC)

"FE colleges don't have faith in TA because it is made up of civil servants. They are not educators, trainers. What they have got is the money" (from a senior lecturer in an FE college)

"They [the government] don't know what they are doing, it's going to have a severe effect on us" (from a department head at BFE).

Thus, the TECs may be regarded by Jane as "the last chance". TECs have been developed since 1990 in order to meet "local training needs" and offer "high quality and flexible provision". Eighty-two TECs were in operation in 1991 in Britain. The government observes that private industry was not involved enough in the past. Now, the TECs are run by the "private sector" in the sense that all the chief executives are from private companies: according to Jane, "they come together to form the board". They have all obtained a budget between £15 million and £50 million and "the operation is flexible in terms of the finance". TECs need to "consult the employers and ask what they think we are doing and get the feedback". In this way, TECs are industry-oriented.


The role of TECs comprises two parts: vocational & training and education. With regard to vocational & training, they need to train school leavers and unemployed adults. Jane stressed that "I need to make sure what the people, the companies want, and to make sure that the college can match the needs". It highlights the significance of the clients' demands. On the educational side, the short-term courses are organised for those who can obtain particular skills to "allow them to operate in the human context". Indeed,

Jane claimed that she has spent about 50% of her time with the LEA and 50% with the private sector, trying to close the gap between them.

TECs will have more and more influence upon the colleges. William, a department head at AFE, was anxious to say that "TECs control 50% of the financial budget, they are keen on quality assurance..." Because the TEC is controlling significant resources, in order to "please" them, William has to develop a "quality programme" even though the concept of quality assurance is "new" to him and he needed to "struggle to some degree". In addition, since the TECs will take over the "youth training", the role of FE is accordingly reduced. The FE colleges need to "struggle" to shift and balance the resources.

Business and Technological Education Council (BTEC)

In my conversations with interviewees, they rarely mentioned BTEC. This may be because the main issues are dominated by the changing role of the LEA and the development of TECs. However, a senior lecturer at AFE did discuss the change of teaching method led by the BTEC. He said, "the emphasis on the differences of teaching and learning method which is encouraged by the exam boards such as those of BTEC, is away from purely teaching to student-centred learning". Here, it is observed that there has been an awareness of the priority to meet students' needs by moving towards student-centred learning methods. In the next section, I will examine the change in emphasis in the students' groups.

To sum up this section, the government's "industry-led", "student-led" and "marketing-led" initiatives and policies have brought colleges into a situation where they need to be "more responsive" to the demands of the environment and seek resources from various organisations (see  Fig. 4.3).

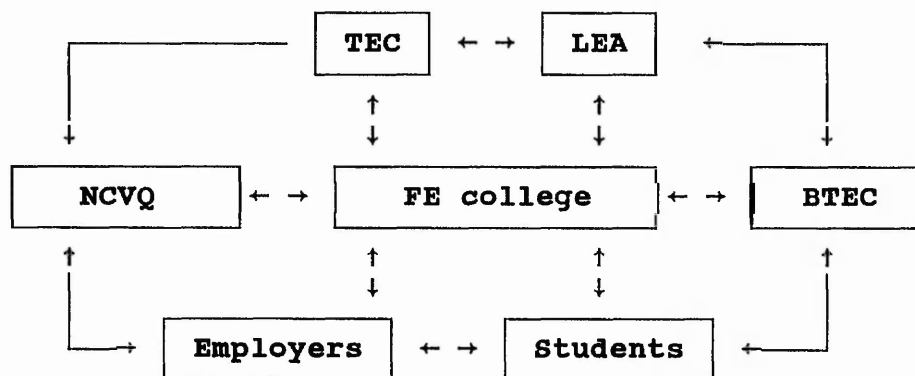


Fig. 4.3 The Constituencies in the Government Sector

4.3.2 The Economic and Technological Sectors

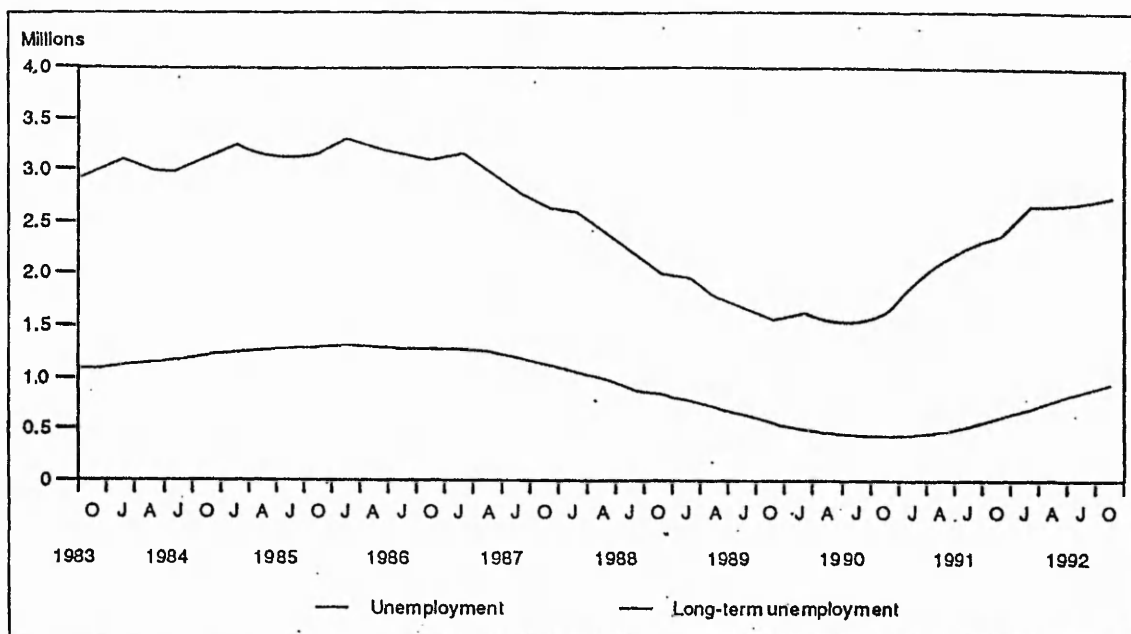
Both the development of the economic and technological environments has played a part in changing the role of the colleges in relation to their clients.

The economic environment has affected the composition of the student groups (the details about different groups will be discussed in the next section). During the period of my empirical research (ie. 1990-91), the unemployment rate has been increasing quickly. According to the Labour Market Quarterly Report (1991: 9), there were 1,869,000 unemployed people in spring 1990. This gave a 1990 unemployment rate of 6.7% of the labour force, compared with 7.1% in 1989. In December 1991 the unemployment rate has increased to 8.5% (ie. 2.4 million people) (Labour Market Quarterly Report, 1992a: 1) (see also Fig. 4.4 for the unemployment trends). The rising unemployment rate in recent years has stimulated people to look for opportunities to re-train. Many unemployed adults have started to take courses in FE colleges. A business lecturer in CFE envisaged that due to the unemployment situation, the student intake in recent years has been "very successful". A senior lecturer from BFE pointed out, "Years' ago, our students were apprentice types. Now we have nearly all adult unemployed".

According to Joan, the Principal at AFE, the society is now in a "service economy" (see also Section 1.5.2.2);

We start to look carefully "who is our provision for?". We used to run courses according to the staff that we had. Now in curriculum committees we try to oversee all the provision... We try to fit in to a service economy; we need more flexible people. We need both general education and other courses...

She pointed out that the "service economy" has transformed the ethos of FE. Defining the term "service economy" here is beside the point. The emphasis and attitude of FE colleges has changed so that they no longer provide the packaged courses from the shelf, but intend to "oversee" the provision to ensure that it is demanded by their clients. She also emphasized the need for "more flexible" staff. In this way, both the management



Source: Adapted from *Labour Market Quarterly Report*, Great Britain, Feb. 1993, Employment Department, P.3, Fig. 4.

Fig. 4.4 The unemployment trends from 1983 to 1992

and the front-line staff need to respond well to those who consume their provisions in such a turbulent environment.

The development of technologies has also aroused the need for staff re-training. Especially in divisions like computing and engineering, "in-service training" is regarded as crucial for developing "flexible and responsive" staff. The head of the engineering department at CFE claimed that "you have got to have huge investment for retraining staff in service training".

These two factors have exerted influence upon colleges to respond to the clients' demands (see Fig 4.5). The socio-demographic sector is another significant force in shaping FE colleges.

4.3.3 The Socio-demographic Sector

Demographic change has had a major impact upon FE colleges not only in terms of their provision but also their attitude towards the students. The phrase "the change of age cohort" was frequently heard in the interviews. The 16-19 year-olds used to be described as the "bread and butter" of the colleges. Due to the falling birth rate, this group of people has been decreasing. According to Social Trends (1993: Table 1.11), the crude birth rate has been decreasing since the 1970s and in the 1980s the figure was steady at around the rate of 13. By the time of the year 2025, it was projected that the rate will only be 12.5 (see Table 4.1). In Table 4.2 it is noted that there were 726,673 students aged 16-19 in 1981 (49.5% of all ages) whilst there were 753,745 students in 1989/90 (only 38% of all ages). In the empirical field, according to a marketing manager at CFE, this age cohort had been reduced by 30-40% recently and he forecasted that it would be decreased to 50% by 1994. However, another marketing manager at another FE college predicted a lower rate of decrease. He believed that there would be 25% fewer by 1995 in the market place (see Section 1.5.2.1). Both the official figures and the actors' perceptions show that the FE colleges cannot only rely on this group.

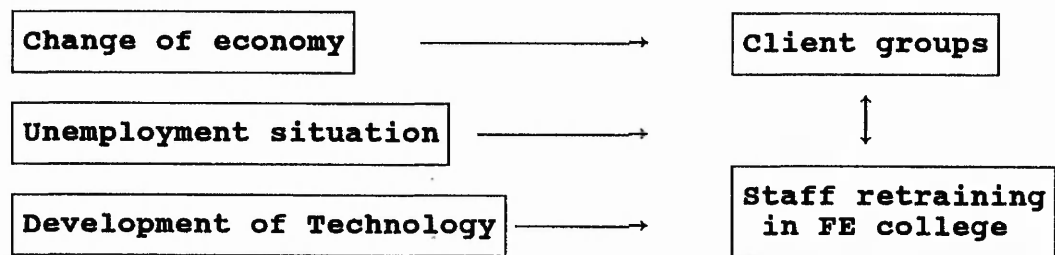


Fig. 4.5 The Relationships between the Economic & Technological Environment and FE college

Live births and age of mother

United Kingdom

	Total live births (thousands)	Crude birth rate ¹	General fertility rate ²	Total period fertility rate ³	Mean age of mother at birth (years)
1951	797	15.9	73.0	2.15	28.4
1956	825	16.1	78.8	2.36	28.0
1961	944	17.9	90.6	2.80	27.7
1964	1,015	18.8	94.1	2.95	27.3
1966	980	17.9	91.5	2.79	26.9
1971	902	16.1	84.3	2.41	26.2
1976	676	12.0	61.3	1.74	26.4
1977	657	11.7	58.9	1.69	26.5
1981	731	13.0	62.1	1.81	26.8
1986	755	13.3	61.1	1.78	27.0
1987	776	13.6	62.3	1.82	27.1
1988	788	13.8	63.2	1.84	27.2
1989	777	13.6	62.4	1.81	27.3
1990	799	13.9	64.2	1.84	27.5
1991	793	13.8	63.8	1.82	27.6
Projections⁴					
2001	769	13.0	64.5	1.99	28.6
2011	728	12.1	64.1	2.00	27.8
2025	763	12.5	68.3	2.00	28.1

1 Total births per 1,000 population of all ages.

2 Total births per 1,000 women aged 15-44. Also includes births to mothers aged under 15 and 45 and over.

3 The average number of children which would be born per woman if women experienced the age-specific fertility rates of the period in question throughout their child-bearing life span.

4 1989-based projections.

Source: Adapted from *Social Trends 23* (1993), Central Statistical Office, London: HMSO, P.18, Table 1.11.

Table 4.1 The birth rate from 1951 to 2025

The decrease of this cohort has been followed by an attitudinal change among the management of the colleges. A woman head of department at BFE stressed that:

We need to be more *proactive* with regard to the ranges of course that we provide. In the past, we made assumptions about what we did...if the pass rate was high, we assumed that it was a successful course, we would do it again...we didn't sit down to evaluate the effectiveness of the course. We should establish an effective way of evaluating the quality and effectiveness of what we do. That means that we need to *talk to people* about the service we provide. It's a *new approach* to FE in Britain.

In the conversation, what she meant by this "new approach" is the need to evaluate course provision and tailor-make courses so that they meet the demands of different groups of clients. Her focus is not on the external evaluation of competitors' provisions, which is emphasized in a number of pieces of marketing literature (see Section 2.4.3), but on the internal evaluation of service. It is akin to what a marketing manager from CFE said, "as a professional institution, we view the service we actually provide to our customers, our students". Providing what the clients' need is believed to be "professional". In this way, the concept of marketing has become more widely recognised. According to the vice principal at AFE, "the function of marketing is to develop a suitable curriculum for students...we have to try in what we are doing at the moment to redesign the courses". The management of the colleges always associates marketing with *proactivity* and *meeting the customers' needs*.

In recent years, two groups have emerged in the socio-economic environment following the decreasing number of 16-19 years olds. They are access group and women returners (see Fig. 4.6). The development of the access group is regarded by a management person as a way of "finding something to replace" (ie. replacing the 16-18 year-olds group) or else the lecturers "have to look for another job". Such one-year access courses are mainly for those adults who intend to enter higher education but are without normal educational qualifications. However, their previous experience is accredited (under a scheme called Accreditation of Prior Learning). Added to the unemployment factor, the numbers in this group have been increasing. The development of the access group is regarded as a proactive way to meet the changing demands of society.

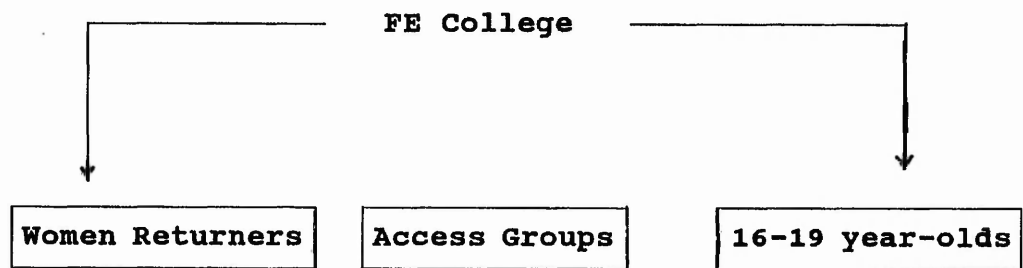


Fig. 4.6 Three Main Client Groups of FE College

Women returners are a group who want to enter the labour market again after a long time being at home bringing up children. A head of department in control of the resources at CFE mentioned that the aspirations of many women are high and they want their own careers. In my interviews with some women returners they mentioned that the courses provided them confidence and knowledge to return to the working environment.

From the access groups and women returners, together with the individual groups of adults, it is noted that the market for mature students has been expanding and it has become an important client group to FE colleges. It is evidenced by the official figure shown in the Labour Market Quarterly Report (1992b: 11) that in 1981 49.5% of students were 16-19 years old, but by 1989 58% of the students were aged 20 years and over (see **Table 4.2**). According to the report, since there has been a large growth in the number of adults aged 25 and over, they have become "the main consumers of FE".

Indeed, these various elements of the environment are inter-related in shaping the development of the FE colleges. Under the "macro environment components" (Hodge & Anthony, 1988), ie. the political, economic, technological and socio-demographic changes, the management at the FE colleges need to continuously response to changes for the survival requirements. The change of the macro environment components have an impact upon the relationship and the interaction between the FE colleges and their related institutions.

4.3.4 The Related Institutions Sector

Change in the environment has enabled the re-allocation of scarce resources in the FE field, which in turn alters the nature of the co-operation and competition between the FE colleges and other institutions in the sector. Also, it is noted that some new institutions have developed in response to societal demands and the changing culture of the FE colleges.

AGE GROUPS	1981				1989/90			
	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL		MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	
16-19 Years	416,457	310,216	726,673	(49.5%)	411,676	342,069	753,745	(38.0%)
20-24 Years	97,042	82,152	179,194	(12.2%)	116,065	132,299	248,364	(12.5%)
25+ Years	199,841	361,808	561,649	(38.3%)	311,071	586,526	897,597	(45.2%)
Unknown	--	--	--		30,726	55,513	86,239	(4.3%)
All Ages	713,340	754,176	1,467,516	(100.0%)	869,538	1,116,407	1,985,945	(100.0%)

Source: Adapted from Labour Market Quarterly Report (1992), Great Britain, November, P.11, Fig. 2.1.

Table 4.2 Age of students in further education

Intensity of Co-operation

"Following the White Paper, competition will increase. At least now we are [FE colleges] co-operating well" (from a lecturer with marketing responsibility at AFE).

"Here, principals of FE are trying to collaborate although there is some competition. It's trying to hold some sort of stability, rather than trying to pick each other off" (from a head of department at CFE).

In our conversations, both of these people admitted that due to political change, the competition is increasing. However, the FE colleges generally are willing to co-operate to gain some "stability". In the light of the resource dependence perspective, in order to cope with the uncertainty, their co-operation can enhance the mutual benefit by sharing some scarce resources which allow for viable development.

In Nottinghamshire this development is taking place through a team called the Marketing Network formed by the representatives of each college who have responsibility associated with marketing. The ten FE colleges have gathered certain resources together by organising a number of joint activities to raise the profile of the colleges. They have meetings once every three weeks on average to discuss events like Opportunity Fair, Adult Learners' Week, and Further & Higher Education Week.

In these meetings they have discussed offering some materials that their colleges have to help joint events, joint advertising pamphlets, etc. Their co-operation even extends to a degree where a marketing lecturer from AFE was willing to refer some students to a college which had a particular specialism. She believed that "in this sense resources are utilised well".

Nevertheless, the co-operation is not always smooth. A marketing manager from a small college said that it was not easy to "overcome people's reluctance to open themselves up". He mentioned that before a joint exhibition, all colleges in Nottinghamshire agreed to perform certain activities on their own stands to ensure fair competition. However,

one college, without notifying other colleges, used a funny-clothed man who suddenly jumped out from behind its stand aimed to attract people, especially the youth, to its stand. This college was regarded as a "betrayal" by other colleges.

Besides co-operating with other colleges, some colleges have also developed courses with higher education (HE) institutions by means of franchising. According to an assistant principal, students were doing foundation courses in the colleges before entering the HE institutions which "prefer their staff to teach degree course". In this way, the HE institutions may use their manpower more effectively and the colleges can "increase their income". This is considered as a way of increasing their competitive edge in a turbulent environment.

Intensity of Competition

A principal from a small college indicated that the decreasing influence of local government was followed by severe competition,

Traditionally because of the LEA, competition was prevented, every college has their own specialism...now it's becoming more intense..."

The competition can be in the form of developing courses which are overlapped with other colleges. According to a senior business lecturer at CFE,

X college used to be a good friend of CFE as they promised to each other that they didn't overlap each other. But now they start their GCSE courses. The smaller colleges have got to be more aggressive in order to survive.

The smaller colleges are believed to be suffering substantially because of small budgets. A department head at CFE told me that four small colleges in Leicestershire were "undergoing some redundancy". The tough environment has prompted the colleges, especially the smaller ones, to increase their competitiveness by developing some courses which they can afford in terms of resources in order to survive, even breaking their

promise of not developing the same courses as their neighbouring colleges do.

The competition can also be in the form of enhancing their advertising. A department head in a management meeting at AFE spoke in a "worrying voice",

Those (A-level students) who decided to leave could choose any colleges...it could be that *high-powered advertising* by some colleges has reduced our enrolment and changed the student profile.

Moreover, competition has taken place between the colleges and the schools, even where there are school liaison officers at colleges who maintain some connections with particular 6th form schools in terms of career advice, exhibitions and the like. The falling number of 16-19 years olds has increased the intensity of competition. The comments include: "they only want to retain the students", "some constantly discourage students to go to FE colleges", "they don't want to tell students about FE colleges".

Furthermore, competition has developed between the colleges and the private trainers. Ben, a deputy head at CFE, claimed that "because of privatisation and the enterprise idea from central government, the courses traditionally done by FE have now been carried out by private trainers". Private trainers are considered to be competitive because "they don't have overheads of staff and facilities they need to pay". In this way, they are capable of taking away some of the colleges' responsibilities.

Amalgamation

Facing an unstable and hostile environment, rumours about *amalgamation* between FE colleges or between colleges and schools have been popular. Amalgamation was explained by an education officer at an LEA as the effect of the *market driven system*. One lecturing staff member at CFE "foretold" that "maybe in the future all small colleges would be gone or combined with large ones". It is assumed that the resources of the small colleges are regarded as too limited to be sustained on their own. Others commented on the amalgamation between the 6th form schools and colleges as being "economically viable but students have no choice" (from a lecturer at AFE) and "a way

to survive" (from a marketing officer at an LEA). It is considered as one of the solutions in competing for the scarce resources.

The Emergence of new institutions

Significantly, in my view, some new institutions have been developed in response to the environment and are associated with the development of marketing. The Marketing Network and the Lancashire Responsive College Unit (LRCU) are two examples.

Formed by a group of further and higher education personnel initiated by the Further Education Staff College, the Marketing Network aims to "promote marketing in the education field" and create a network of support to marketing people. Some colleges (like those in Nottinghamshire) have connections with it from which they seek help in organising marketing activities. LRCU is a specialist unit funded by Lancashire LEA. Its establishment is regarded as "a response to the marketing and development needs of colleges in Lancashire". However, it also offers its consultancy services to colleges in other counties. FE colleges do need all these institutions for particular resources in terms of consultancy and guidance (see Fig. 4.7).

Having discussed the FE college and its sectors, it is recognised that the colleges depend upon their constituencies for resources in order to survive (cf. Watson, 1986) (see also Fig. 4.8). The constant influencing and shaping of the constituencies of FE colleges have contributed to the development of an "enterprise culture" among the colleges espoused mainly by the top management.

Enterprise, Marketing and Responsiveness

In response to a general question about how various changes are affecting FE, Mike, the vice principal of CFE, said,

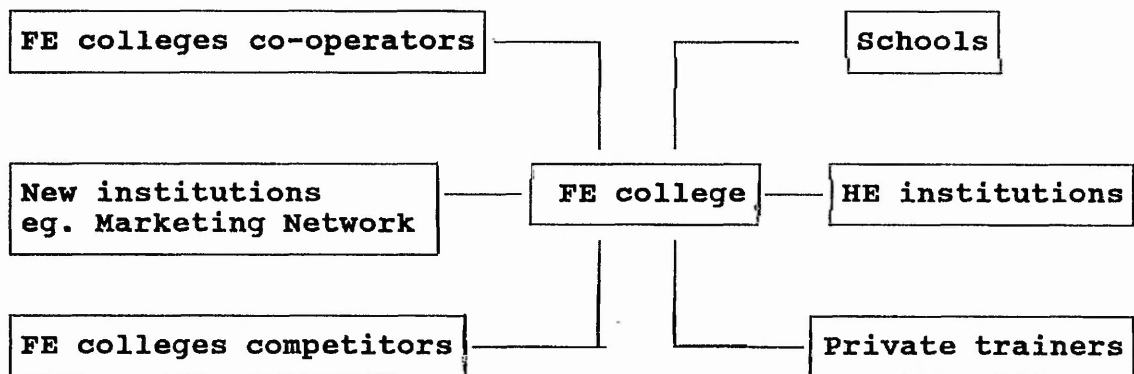


Fig. 4.7 The Groups in the Related Institutions Sector

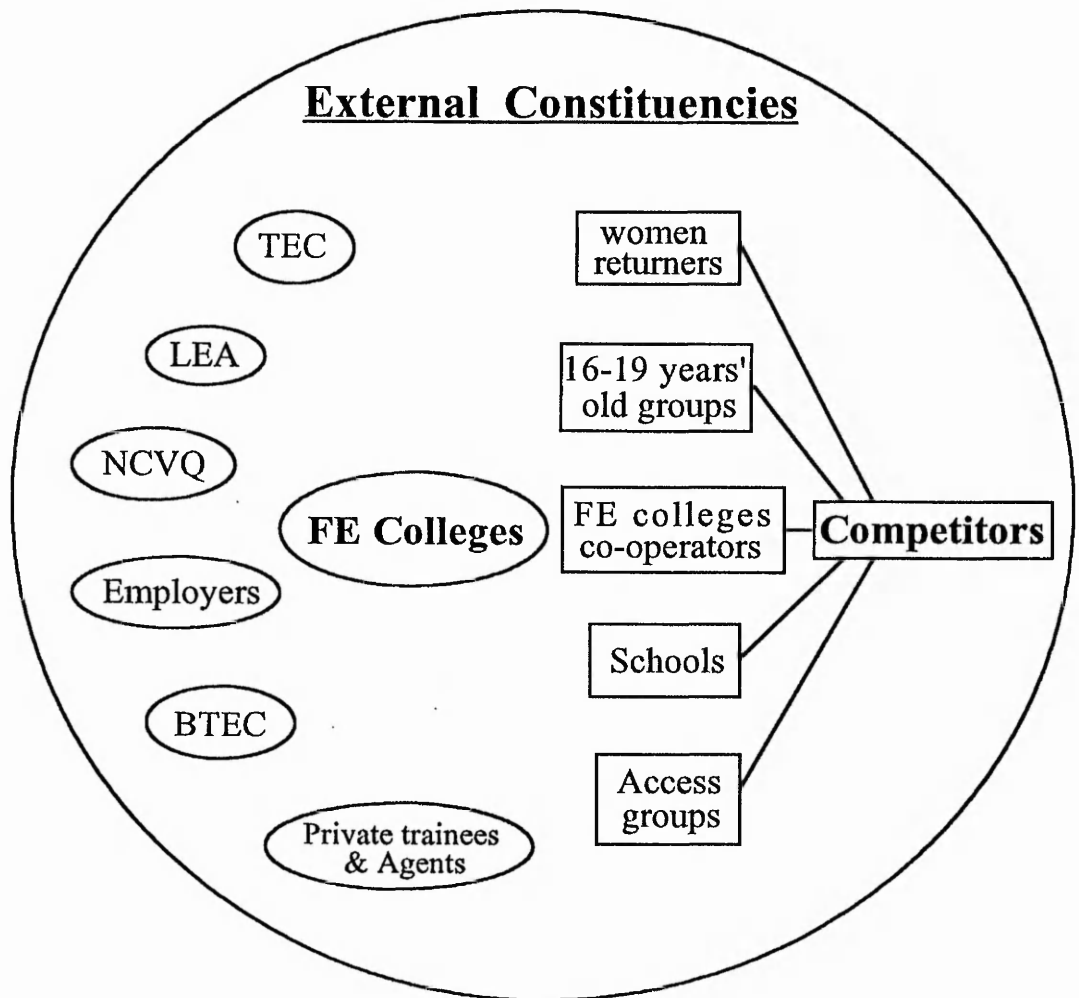


Fig 4.8 The external constituencies of the FE colleges

The major change is the development of an *enterprise* culture. We are more *market-oriented*, more *responsive* to customers and more client-centred. We are running more full-cost courses to make money for the college and running total customer-oriented courses. The *marketing concept* has become more and more important...

Having been involved in some "patchy marketing activities" for several years, Mike has finally seen the emergence and recognition of the marketing concept. The expressions "enterprise", "marketing" and "responsiveness" are always mentioned together, especially by the top management, presumably in order to show their attempt at changing the FE culture to be more marketing-oriented. In Nottinghamshire a few FE colleges have even dropped the phrase *further education* in the names of their own colleges in order to get rid of the old FE "Tech" image. For example, Clarendon College used to be called Clarendon Further Education College. In its promotional literature, the phrase FE has disappeared so that a new image is being projected to the public.

In the next section, I will single out the notion of marketing orientation and examine what this notion means to various people. The significance of the differences lies in the development of tension between two "camps".

4.4 THE PERCEPTION OF MARKETING ORIENTATION AMONG FE COLLEGES

"We've been too *product-oriented* in the past" (from Mike, vice principal at CFE).

"This college like most colleges is finding its way to *marketing*...Education has always been accepted as a right for an individual, now the criterion for education is changing, it's important to *market* ourselves effectively. We employ people in *marketing*" (from Joan, assistant principal at AFE).

Such statements suggest that the changing environment has transformed the colleges from being product-oriented towards becoming market-oriented. Marketing is gradually gathering momentum in the colleges. The crucial question is about how the concept of marketing is being applied in colleges. In this section, I will discuss findings from

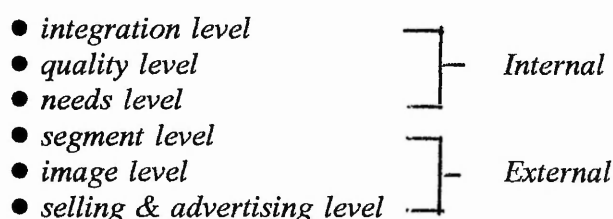
several coalition groups in the colleges, ie, top management, senior lecturers and lecturers. It is found in my research that different groups of actors have different perceptions of marketing orientation (which will be discussed in Section 4.4.1). Their perceptions will affect how they react and behave in the working environment, and influence levels of tension and conflict. Emerging tensions will then be examined in Section 4.4.2.

4.4.1 The Definitions of Marketing Orientation Among Groups

In order to understand different groups' perceptions of marketing orientation (which will be discussed in Sections 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2 & 4.4.1.3), a *Scale* of six levels (see **Fig. 4.9**) has been developed in the light of the data gathered in my research. Each level represents the meaning of marketing orientation adopted by different people. It varies from a functional and operational level (selling & advertising) to a holistic level (integration). The significance of this scale is that it helps us to comprehend the levels at which people in the field understand marketing orientation. In fact, I used the term "marketing orientation" in the interview, asking, "what do you understand by the term 'marketing orientation' in the context of a further education college?". Some interviewees found the term "marketing orientation" difficult to understand, especially those who had had nothing to do with marketing before. Then I would ask them how they perceived the implementation of marketing. Different concepts and opinions have been derived from the interviews, through which the scale has been developed. After the scale is presented, I will relate the empirical data gathered from different groups of actors to the scale in order to identify different emphases in their perceptions.

This scale (see the scale below and Fig. 4.9) is an interpretative device aimed at showing how I make sense of people's perceptions of marketing orientation. It is believed that using levels is appropriate in this research. All the six items in the scale are about marketing and the items are not mutually exclusive. For example, if one believes that marketing orientation is about integrating the whole organisational effort and changing people's attitude (integration level), one still needs to use marketing tools, such as advertising (selling & advertising level) and public relations (image level) to maintain

contact with the community. The fundamental emphasis of marketing orientation is on attitudinal and cultural change instead of highlighting the adoption of marketing tools (the emphasis is on internal organisational change rather than merely on an interaction between the organisation and the external environment, particularly in the professional fields, such as FE). Applying the scale to the data can give us a better picture of the level of understanding that people have. We must remember that when interviewees talk about certain marketing terms, they do not necessarily understand their full meanings. The six levels are from the top to the bottom:



The last three levels relate to external aspects, in recognition of the focus of relating the organisation to external circumstances, whilst the top three are associated with internal aspects. These are concerned with the internal consolidation of resources so as to find out client needs and to improve services to clients.

The *selling & advertising level* emphasizes selling by using advertising, promotion, publicity and supplying brochures. That means there are people in FE who believe that marketing orientation is only associated with the notion of selling or advertising. This level is related to certain marketing *activities*. The main emphasis here is to sell whatever services a college has to the community. It is analogous to what Robinson & Long (1988) call a *pigeon-hole model*. In this model, colleges tend to apply the traditional marketing mix to the college's functioning, emphasizing the need for promotion. As a result, the college "marketing officer" needs to have a good media and sales background and is mainly involved in the external environment of the college. More and more stalls are being set up in local markets, information is being given out over local radio and T.V. and so on (cf. Theodossin, 1989). Because of this, according to Miklich (1988), it is one of the most criticized of the marketing methods in the education field due to its being "non-traditional in nature".

At the *image level* marketing orientation is related to projecting a desirable image to clients in order to sell the college. Kotler & Fox (1985) state that people often respond to the institution's image and not necessarily its reality. Thus, in their argument, it is important for an educational institution to learn about its "images" in the marketplace and make sure these images "accurately and favourably" reflect the institution. The concept of image projection is at a higher level than that of the selling & advertising level in the sense that the emphasis of the former level is on an *attempt to know* how the publics perceive the college and to continue to maintain or improve the image so that more clients will be attracted. This level explains the reason for the use of advertising (non-personal communication) and public relations (personal communications - by means of open days and evenings, for example). Both selling & advertising and image levels stress the importance of selling for the benefit of the organisation.

The *segment level* comprises the notion of segmenting and targeting particular markets. It is dangerous for an institution to attempt to provide all things to all people. In his argument on setting an agenda for the marketing of higher education which needs to be beyond advertising and public relations, Walle (1990: 3) highlights that one needs to choose a target market and decide how to serve that target market by "manipulating the strategic controllable variables in an organized and synergistic way to please that target". It is what Kotler calls "market focus" (1991: 17). The difference at this level compared to the former two levels lies in the fact that the segment level stresses a *strategic approach* to mobilizing limited resources to serve particular segments whilst the other two emphasize functional activities. I define these three levels as external aspects because the emphasis is on building up the relationship with the market and meeting the market demands. However, the organisational capabilities and internal changes are not stressed.

The *needs level* means that marketing orientation is associated with meeting clients' (the prospective and present ones) needs. This is akin to what Johnson (1989) describes as "client orientation". He states that a college must design its offerings in keeping with the target market's needs and desires. This is echoed by Vittles (1993: 28) who asserts that the purpose of marketing is to "meet needs or to satisfy expressed demands". Since the

demands are "expressed" ones, they can be discovered by means of, for example, market research. As a result, some courses are offered at certain times and places convenient to certain client groups. This is a means for improvement in traditional educational institutions like FE. The danger of this concept is that one can lavishly follow market needs and violate societal responsibilities. An educationalist has a societal responsibility not only to find out the expressed demands but also the hidden demands of the community. It can be done by continuously questioning and improving the quality of services. This is what the next level is about.

The *quality level* is concerned with giving the clients the best of the limited resources in the process of interaction. In terms of quality, Grönroos (1991) identifies two dimensions: technical quality and functional quality. Technical quality is what the clients get whilst functional quality is how the service is provided. Grönroos claims that the service product does not vary much between different service providers. In other words, in the same subject, two FE colleges may provide a similar course programme to their clients. Nevertheless, they can vary in terms of how the services are provided which is concerned with the psychological interaction taken place during the process of exchange. According to Webster (1993), there is no room for "quality control" between the employee's behaviour and the client's purchase due to the fact that the service delivery brings the employees and clients physically and psychologically close. Thus, it is essential for colleges to be conscious in satisfying the demands of clients by means of continuously improving the quality of services through improving the course provision, improving the studying environment, reminding employees to understand clients' demands and the like. Both needs and quality levels emphasize a process adopted by organisations in which the benefit of clients is identified. However, the benefits of employees (ie. the internal clients) are not stressed at this level. Without staff commitment in improving the quality of the services it is doomed to failure, especially in service organisations. If they feel insecure or doubtful about gaining any rewards, they would not involve themselves in the change. This needs senior management's understanding and support in developing an integrated approach where staff can gain rewards by performing in terms of client-conscious behaviour.

At the *integration level*, people associate marketing orientation with a way of thinking whereby everyone is a marketer and activities need to be integrated in meeting the demands of both external and internal clients. Kotler used the term "integrated marketing" (1982) to argue the significance of developing an integrated marketing system where every staff member has a customer-conscious attitude and recognises that the actions they take have a profound effect on the organisation's ability to attract and retain clients. Thus, the crucial point of developing a marketing orientation is to encourage every staff member to be client-conscious. It is by no means easy to "control" the performance. In the education context individuals tend to protect their own staff autonomy. Robinson & Long (1988) state that a successful service organisation must first sell the job to employees before it can sell its services to customers. Thus, in order to motivate client-conscious attitudes and behaviours, suitable training programmes and associated rewards and incentives tied to individual and group performance in attaining marketing goals are needed (cf. Kotler & Connor, Jr., 1977; Scribbins & Davies, 1989). In this way, everyone takes on the role of marketer. Marketing is not merely a number of marketing tools co-ordinated by those who are in marketing posts but an attitude permeating every layer of a college which is picked up by every staff member especially those who have direct contact with clients. This is what Robinson & Long (*ibid*) call "total marketing". The *needs*, *quality* and *integration levels* are classified as internal aspects because they are concerned with internal processual change for the benefit of clients.

Relating this scale to the orientations framework (see Fig. 2.2), I have associated the bottom two levels with *sales orientation* due to their stress on the use of marketing instruments in boosting sales for the benefit of organisations. The *segment level* is between *marketing and sales orientations* in the sense that segmentation is essential for organisations in identifying particular markets in order to channel limited resources to meet the demands of customers. However, the emphasis is still on the external aspects of organisations. I have associated both the *needs level* and *quality level* with the *quasi marketing orientation* concept I have developed. This orientation represents an approach which has certain characteristics of marketing orientation but has some crucial elements still missing. At these two levels, customers' needs and wants are emphasised and the

continuous process of improving quality is suggested in order to meet clients' needs and demands. However, the stress is merely on the external customers whilst neglecting the demands of internal customers. Associating the *integration level* with *marketing orientation* recognises that a continuous integrated process of meeting the demands of both external and internal customers is simultaneously essential. (See Fig. 4.9).

Having presented and explained the scale, I will examine three groups of people and how they perceive the notion of marketing orientation in relation to the scale. They are: the top management, the senior lecturers, and lecturers. From their different perceptions of marketing orientation, we can have a better understanding over why the tension have developed among these groups (which will be discussed in Section 4.4.2).

4.4.1.1 Top Management

During the seventeen interviews with people at the top management level in the three FE colleges, nineteen responses were received about the definition of a marketing orientation. That means, marketing orientation might mean two levels of definition to an interviewee. For example, a Vice Principal believed that marketing orientation was a way to project the image of a college (image level) and to find out the appropriate market segment (segment level). A majority of the respondents emphasized the internal aspect.

a) The selling & Advertising level

All the people claimed that marketing is "more than advertising" and "different from publicity" although it is still necessary to supply "good brochures". Mark, the Principal of BFE, said that "I don't understand what marketing orientation means". He used to think that marketing was related to advertising and prospectus, but now he believed that it was not merely promotion. Some comments could be heard like:

Aspects	Levels	Orientations
Internal Aspects	Integration level	Marketing
	Quality level	Quasi Marketing
	Needs level	Quasi Marketing
External Aspects	Segment level	between Marketing & Sales
	Image level	Sales
	Selling & Advertising level	Sales

Fig. 4.9 *The Scale associated with Marketing Orientation*

Sometimes people meant it as advertising...as brochures.

Most people see marketing as advertising and the local press, having presentation on the local radio. But it's only one element of the marketing mix.

They feel it's commercial. It's advertising.

These remarks imply that they do not belong to these group of people but have obtained a wider view. These interviewees did not devalue the value of advertising to colleges, but emphasized clearly that this is only an elementary level of marketing orientation.

b) *The image level*

With regard to this level, only Mark (Principal of AFE) stated that marketing orientation was "used to create an impression of clients or potential clients and desire to do business with them" and was something to do with credibility. In his college, the logo has been changed because they intended to project a different image to their clients.

c) *The segment level*

Marketing orientation...where you try to *segment* your market or try to meet the market (from a head of faculty at CFE).

Four top management people have mentioned the concept of segmentation in defining a marketing orientation. Marketing orientation is spoken of as an orientation where the colleges "get out there [to the market]" to identify the segments to see "what business you are in, and what market segment you go for". A vice principal at AFE suggested that "...choosing segments within those markets you are heading for because you've got expertise. You sell your expertise". Another faculty head at CFE still regarded "16-19 year-olds group" as their "bread and butter". He pointed out that by segmenting particular markets, the resources of the colleges can be used more effectively and efficiently. Also, the notion of exploring new segments has been remarked, "I also need to look at the other market- the leisure type provision".

d) *The needs level*

Turning to the internal aspect, out of fourteen responses seven people emphasized that marketing orientation meant "meeting the needs of clients".

"There is a need for locality, we need to meet that need as an education establishment".

"Finding out what the people's need are and meeting those needs".

"...put clients first, to meet the clients".

"...know their need in terms of their benefits".

"We try to adapt what we've got to fit what people want".

"Our service is to provide for them effectively".

"I try to look at the employer's need and young people in industry".

According to the marketing literature, meeting the needs of clients is always regarded as the crucial component in marketing. In the commercial field, "meeting the needs and wants of customers" is used as a slogan to tell customers they care. As the FE field is becoming more business like, the word *needs* is always highlighted. Whether or not people only pay lip service is dependent on how they meet the needs of clients. Are they merely adopting deliberately the terms from the commercial field or planning seriously for it in the delivery process? For example, a head of faculty responsible for resource management at CFE claimed that it was important to meet the needs of the customers but he did not see himself doing marketing. Thus, if one merely says marketing orientation is something to do with "meeting the needs of clients" without considering clearly how to go about it or how to get involved in it themselves, it seems to be rather superficial to their clients. Nevertheless, it is a starting point for developing a marketing orientation.

e) *The quality level*

Fewer people (only four) mentioned the "quality" of delivery in defining marketing orientation. According to Joan, Assistant Principal at AFE, "quality is more important than promotion" and it is "quality of teaching and provision" and "quality of caring for students". She pointed out that it was important to develop a sense of excellence with the limited resource. In other words, in order to meet the needs of clients, she stressed the significance of quality interaction between the college and the clients in the delivery *process*. This is a commitment to the constant satisfaction of clients within the resource limitations.

f) *The integration level*

Three people stated that marketing orientation is not a function but a "way of life":

It's the way an organisation organises itself. Marketing is not another function...it is *integrated* into the whole process of curriculum and development...it's a fundamental term...

We're all marketers, and need to be aware of what is happening.

If lecturers are good teachers, they are good marketing people.

Indeed, they have raised two interesting points: first, marketing orientation is not a function but should infiltrate into the whole process of the college; second, because it is a way of thinking, everybody in the college is a marketer no matter which position they are holding (cf. Grönroos, 1981). This notion is associated with a revolutionary attitudinal change in the FE field because lecturers, especially the traditional ones, usually consider themselves to be only "educationalists" rather than "marketers". We will continue to investigate how the other two groups perceive the definitions of marketing orientation before we compare the pattern of findings.

4.4.1.2 Senior Lecturers

Thirteen senior lecturers were interviewed formally. Sixteen responses about the definition were received from them. Out of the thirteen interviewees, almost half have related marketing orientation to the *needs level*. Three people believed that marketing orientation was something to do with advertising. In the interviews, no one associated marketing orientation with the *integration level*.

a) *The selling & advertising level*

I understand it as a strategy in *broadcasting* its product and what you aim to do.

...*selling* and do something for the employers like producing attractive pamphlets.

...more entrepreneurial activities, *advertising*, PR.

The notion of "broadcasting", "selling" and "advertising" has put marketing orientation into merely a functional level incorporating the concept of sales-orientation.

b) *The image level*

Here, one senior lecturer at AFE stated that marketing orientation was to do with "corporate identity, higher profile". Again, marketing orientation was regarded as a way to *benefit the organisation* by projecting a good image to outside parties.

c) *The segment level*

Four people commented that every college has certain "target groups", marketing orientation was an orientation where they identify the group they want to address.

d) *The needs level*

Six people have mentioned the "needs" of the clients as an essential element in a marketing orientation. The orientation includes "finding out" the needs, being "responsive" to the needs and "meeting" the needs. One senior lecturer was sceptical about this notion of needs. He observed that people were not always acting for the benefit of students. He has reminded us that we cannot just talk about meeting needs by lavishly racing after the market or disregarding resource limitations.

e) *The quality level*

Only two people brought forward the notion of "quality" in defining marketing orientation. They believed that it was a waste of time if quality was not there. Quality to one interviewee meant

Pleasant environment, good teaching and learning record, students coming here are happy, they can achieve whatever the result they are aiming for.

Having been trained in the USA for several years, this senior lecturer (from AFE) realised the significance of the teaching and learning environment upon students. He regarded this as his personal definition of marketing orientation because not every lecturer perceives marketing orientation in the same way.

4.4.1.3 Lecturers

Twelve lecturers were interviewed among the three FE colleges. However, only six answered the question on defining marketing orientation; the rest did not intend to answer or claimed they did not know the answer. It did reveal some negative views about the concept of marketing orientation. Among the six lecturers, Seven responses about the definition were received. Views on the *segment, quality and integration levels* did not emerge.

a) *The selling & advertising level*

Out of the six, four people have associated a marketing orientation with selling or advertising.

"...*selling* these courses..." (from CFE)

"...*sell* the college..." (from BFE)

"Try to *sell* courses to attract people. It is *advertising*..." (from AFE)

"If we *sell* ourselves, we can get better response from the community..."
(from AFE)

In line with the comments made by some of the top management (see the formal section on "top management"), marketing is analogous to selling or advertising. In fact, during the process of observation and informal conversation, I realised that quite a lot of lecturers did not like the marketing people (ie. those who are working in marketing divisions) because they perceived that the job of the marketing people was to *sell* rather than to *educate* which is contradictory to the principle of education.

b) *The image level*

Only one lecturer related marketing orientation to the image level. He stated,

The place should be planned, right colour, right size, "welcome to AFE".
The reception should be pleasant, open plan, that is how I interpret marketing...

He believed that an appropriate image was needed in order to impress people. He called this a "persuasive approach".

c) *The needs level*

There were four people using the jargon "needs" in the definition. Two of them claimed,

"..it's market-led, meeting the needs of local industry" (from CFE).

"You are producing something for the market demand, producing courses that students demand" (from AFE).

However, they did not identify clearly how to meet the needs of their clients. Although two others have also mentioned the term "needs", they only related it to selling the courses. The purpose of meeting the needs is only for the benefit of their own colleges. In fact, they equated marketing orientation to recruiting more students for increasing the income of colleges as the ultimate aim. Thus, a lecturer said with some feeling, "if you can get more students, you have more money. It's a wrong attitude..." (from AFE).

Table 4.3 summarises the response from the three groups of actors. It is noted that the number of interviewees in each group is small. It is likely to be criticized as having a relatively low degree of reliability. That means another researcher using the same methods at the same FE colleges may not obtain the same results. Also the degree of external validity is relatively low in the sense that the results of the study may not be able to generalized to other groups of people in other context. However a pattern associated with the actors' perceived meanings on marketing orientation has emerged from the formal interviews. This is consistent with the data I gathered from observation and informal interviews. It helps us to *understand* the differences of their perceptions (cause). And this can help to explain the underlying tensions (effect) among the three groups in FE which I will examine in the next section. Thus I would argue that there is a relatively high internal validity in the study.

LEVELS	TOP MANAGEMENT	SENIOR LECTURERS	LECTURERS
Integration Level	3 (15.8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Quality Level	4 (21.05%)	2 (12.5%)	0 (0%)
Needs Level	7 (36.8%)*	6 (37.5%)*	2 (28.6%)
Segment Level	4 (21.05%)	4 (25%)	0 (0%)
Image Level	1 (5.3%)	1 (6.25%)	1 (14.3%)
Selling/ Advertising Level	0 (0%)	3 (18.75%)	4 (57.1%)*
Responses	19 (100%)	16 (100%)	7 (100%)

Table 4.3 The Response from Three groups of people at the Three FE colleges on the Definition of Marketing Orientation

From the pattern of findings, it is noted that almost half the people in both the management and the senior lecturer grades emphasized the concept of needs. In other words, they relate the concept of marketing orientation to a *quasi-marketing-orientation level*. The difference between them was not as big as that between management and lecturers. However, about 50% in total in management stressed the *quality and integration levels*. A majority of management perceived marketing orientation as quality improvement and attitudinal change. The responses from senior lecturers were only up to the *quality level*. Their emphasis was relating marketing orientation to customers' needs and segmentation. On the contrary, more than half of the lecturers associated marketing orientation with merely functional aspects, ie. selling or advertising. That means marketing orientation to them is a sales-oriented notion. Their responses were up to the *needs level*.

The significance of identifying the patterns centres on the fact that it highlights two contradictory views over the definition of a marketing orientation. The differences in their sense making affect how they respond and behave against the emergence of the enterprise culture.

4.4.2 The Tension Between Two Camps

4.4.2.1 People in Power versus People in the Front-Line

Bill, the Marketing head at BFE, had been teaching in the college for over ten years before being promoted to his present job. He has no background in or formal training for marketing,

From an ideological and political point of view, marketing had been to me an alien function...If we accept marketing as a set of activities - a concern about quality and service and meeting people's needs -there is integrity in it...marketing is a very fundamental term. It's much more than simply promotion and advertising.

Quitting teaching has caused him a "great pain". However, he was willing to perceive marketing from a broader view and has taken a positive attitude towards it. In line with Bill, a majority of the management people and senior lecturers have no marketing background. That is why in recent years a number of in-service training courses on marketing have been carried out. A number of management people perceive marketing as a way of thinking and a way of organising the colleges. However, they realised that they are confronted with a negative force against marketing mainly from the front-line lecturers.

"I don't think people are happy with it [marketing]" was often heard during the interviews. Those people in the higher level who are pro-marketing claimed that the lecturers either did not understand it (like "we are not selling product!") or did not think it was important (like "who decided that the college needed a marketing post?"). A senior lecturer (from CFE) who has obtained some marketing responsibilities shared with me the view that,

People feel what's the point of doing it, apart from July and August when we produce our brochure, that's enough. What do we need to do anything more? We don't need marketing.

It implies that marketing to the lecturers is only a function in terms of producing promotional materials. Joan, Assistant Principal from AFE, commented that "they think marketing will distract them towards commerce. Their role is teaching rather than promotion". This hostile response does affect co-ordination and communication - especially between the faculty of marketing and the other delivery faculties (which will be discussed in detail in the next chapter). They were described by Ben (deputy marketing head at CFE) as a "concert party", ie, a large group of people making a loud voice against the marketing faculty.

From the lecturers' point of view, some told me that they need more information and others criticized their colleges for a lack of sufficient advertising when I asked them about their feelings regarding marketing. These responses are consistent with the remarks made by the pro-marketing people. Since the lecturers may not have a clear picture about what marketing is (teaching is more important to them than advertising), even though some of them were invited into working teams on marketing, they were "half-hearted" (from Joan, AFE). A lecturer, Joe at AFE, was also "half-hearted" in his marketing job. He insisted that "I am not happy about it". His unhappiness was related to status. He argued that he needed to perform a lot of marketing work (eg. setting up publicity boards in career convention) but was not given enough "time and status to do it". He did not gain personal interest from an excessive workload. These activities to him were a burden given by the management. The lecturers *selected* themselves out of the decision-making process because they need to protect their interests.

4.4.2.2 A Necessary Evil

In fact, a few senior lecturers were uncomfortable about adopting the concept of marketing in colleges. Susan from AFE said, "it is a necessary evil and it is distasteful...it is very much a business style, which doesn't fit with college"; whilst another interviewee, Richard (from CFE) stated, "a great deal of work going on...I suspect it, I don't know about it". However, they admitted that marketing was an "evil" but "necessary" to the colleges. Being in the position they are, they need to involve themselves in the changes shaped by the environment in order to protect their interests.

Here, we can observe an interesting phenomenon where, officially, both the management and senior lecturers have started to implement policies and activities related to marketing. However, unofficially, the feelings are rather mixed, some of them either do not understand it or do not like it, which is akin to the reaction of the lecturers. What makes the difference is that they are in a political position whereby they select to meet the demands of the external environment in order to strengthen their positions.

4.5 SUMMARY

In the light of theories, the environmental changes which have had an effect on shaping and influencing organisations have been explored. I particularly emphasise the significance of the *enactment theory* which stresses that, in relation to the environment, individuals in organisations have the discretion and free will to make sense of the changes and behave accordingly.

With regard to the domain (the external environment) of FE colleges, five main sectors have been identified: the government, the economic, the technological, the socio-demographic, and the related institutions sectors. We have discussed the changing relationship between FE colleges and their constituencies in the domain due to environmental impacts. FE colleges constantly seek relevant resources in order to increase their independence and viability as a survival requirement.

The emergent recognition of the concept of marketing in the domain has been adopted mainly by the management of FE colleges. However, the enactment of different individuals (ie. top management, senior lecturers, and lecturers) among the colleges has developed some tension and conflicts. In discussing the actors' perceptions of the definition of marketing orientation, I have used a scale identifying the perceived concepts of marketing orientation derived from research in the investigation. The scale comprises six levels, from bottom to top: *the selling & advertising level*, *the image level*, *the segment level*, *the needs level*, *the quality level*, and *the integration level*. The management generally emphasize more at the top three levels, which they claim can help the organisation to respond to environmental demands. The senior lecturers associate the

orientation more with the *needs and segment levels*. The gap between the management and senior lecturers is not as wide as that between the management and the lecturers. The lecturers mainly relate marketing orientation to the concept of selling or advertising, which they say is a violation of their educational principles. The different understanding of the concept, added to the protection of the coalition groups' own personal interest, has affected their involvement in the changing process.

In the next two chapters, I will use three concepts, ie, organisation co-ordination, client orientation, and employee orientation (as in my conceptual framework) to explore the development of their marketing orientation among the three FE colleges. It is noticed that under the official infrastructure, there are tensions and conflicts between the managerial principle and the traditional principle which may in turn threaten the effectiveness of the college's functioning.

CHAPTER 5: MARKETING ORIENTATION IN THREE FE COLLEGES: ORGANISATIONAL CO-ORDINATION AND UNDERLYING TENSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Having set the scene in Chapter 4 about the environmental changes which have brought forth the emergence of the marketing concept and different perceptions of marketing orientation among staff members in the three FE colleges, attention now turns to the first aspect of my conceptual framework: *organisational co-ordination* (Fig. 2.9).

According to my definition of *organisational co-ordination* in Section 2.4.3, I have identified five aspects:

1. the organisation needs to be co-ordinated and managed;
2. this co-ordination must be within resource limitations;
3. the primary objective is sustaining a long-term relationship between the organisation and its customers;
4. its customers include both external (clients) and internal (employees) ones;
5. the ultimate aim is to meet the long-term survival requirement.

It is argued in the previous chapter that, in facing an unstable and turbulent environment, the top management of an organisation have the political power and free-will to varying degrees to modify the whole structure and culture. They may become significant architects in developing a marketing-oriented organisation suitable for the management's perceived needs. As at the three FE colleges, the managements are attempting to modify the existing systems and styles in order to move in a "desirable" direction incorporating marketing principles. However, behind the official infrastructure, we can see a variety of coalition groups which represent different vested interests. Coalition groups consist of those people who have shared interests and act together. Such groups are often attached to an official arrangement such as a department or a working team. The differences among groups provide sources of tension and conflict. In this chapter, I will examine the tension between a new wave espoused by the management and a traditional

wave supported by the lecturers. Although it is something of an oversimplification to talk in terms of two "camps", it is nevertheless a useful way of identifying two basic positions.

In order to understand the development of a marketing orientation among the three FE colleges in terms of *organisational co-ordination*, I will divide the chapter into three parts: firstly, the management commitment to marketing orientation and their role-taking; secondly, the development of a marketing infrastructure, whereby the change of structure and of culture will be emphasized. Finally, the intergroup dynamics in which the coalitions of interest and information processing will be examined.

The understanding of top management's approach to a *marketing orientation* and the *organisational co-ordination* will provide indications of various problems and gaps from which strategies may be developed (which will be tackled in Chapter 8) to improve the situation for long-term survival.

5.2 MANAGEMENT COMMITMENT AND ROLE-TAKING

Top management is the place where all the organizational components and the environment converge (Daft, 1989: 489).

The significance of top management lies in the fact that they hold the official power and influence in governing the organisation. Daft points out that their responsibility is to "interpret the external environment and define *responses* to the environment". These responses include defining the internal activities and dynamics and carrying them out for long-term organisational survival. In terms of "response", McGregor (1966: 216) put forward a psychological view that "human behavior is seldom a direct *response* to objective reality, but is rather a *response* to the individual's perception of that reality". In organisations, they play a number of roles for "pulling things together" (Watson, 1986) in the process of initiating the infrastructure. This is what we describe as "change agents" (cf. Buchanan & Boddy, 1992; Potter, 1989). Their role-taking can exert an impact upon the development of a *marketing orientation*. In Section 2.4.3.3, we identified four kinds of roles that top management tend to play related to *marketing orientation*, ie.

initiators (by creating a marketing-oriented climate), *strategists* (by spreading a marketing culture to the whole organisation), *encouragers* (by encouraging open communication between functional groups and marketing staff), and *motivators* (by rewarding marketing-oriented behaviours).

In the previous chapter, it was noted that senior management mainly associated the definition of a marketing orientation with the internal aspects of the *Scale* I have devised (ie, the needs level, the quality level and the integration level). In fact, when individuals enact the definition differently, it will affect their role-taking in the process of *marketing orientation*. In this section, I will apply the four roles to the top management people within the three FE colleges in order to investigate how and what roles they play in individual college which contribute to the development of the colleges' own infrastructure. Two people at the top management level in each college will be focused on as case studies and their approaches towards developing the infrastructure will be examined.

5.2.1 Flexible, Commercial and Responsive

Stuart Major, the Principal of AFE, was cautious in answering my questions. Having been working at AFE as principal for six years he said that the job was becoming more "challenging and rewarding" because of the devolution of budget. When I asked him to define a *marketing orientation* in the context of FE, his quick response was "I don't know" because he had not obtained any working experience related to marketing. After thinking for a while, he claimed that marketing orientation should be able to help them improve the quality to clients for long-term survival requirements:

I think marketing orientation means providing quality to clients. We need to change the college in order to meet the requirements of the environmental change. The implementation of marketing orientation helps the organisation to *survive* in the long term.

He expressed the view that the implementation includes the whole process of "designing, providing, delivering and evaluating the services" by which quality of provision could be

improved. That means, by adopting this internal process to the provision, the clients' demands can be identified. This, he saw, was significant for long-term survival. In his view, marketing orientation is a process whereby the relationship between the college and its clients can be strengthened. Relating his opinion to the Scale that I established, I will argue that it is at the *needs level* due to his emphasis on satisfying customers' needs. In fact during the whole process of conversation his argument was concentrated on the importance of interaction with the external customers (ie. clients) of the college and did not mention the importance of the demands of internal customers (ie. the employees).

In my interview with him, he repeatedly stressed three words - "flexible, commercial and responsive". He defined them as "providing services to the public, paying attention to the courses, to the college's efficiency and effectiveness". He said that flexibility, commercial-orientation and responsiveness needed to be built into the structure and culture. As an *initiator*, I will argue, he has developed a new structure and new culture incorporating some marketing elements which helps strengthen the relationship with their clients.

In terms of new structure, he suggested that,

The history here is that we've got a very traditional departmental structure. People working in departments were always in isolation from one another. I wanted to change that.

The new structure had been established for about a year at the time of the interview. Under the new structure (which will be discussed in more detail in the next section), they had course teams which were working under "schools", several schools formed a "faculty". Altogether, three faculties had been established. A number of co-ordinators has been employed to co-ordinate the activities of AFE, linking the faculties together. A marketing co-ordinator was one of them and she used to be a senior lecturer without any marketing experience. Her work was described by many staff members as "mechanical", ie., organising publicity and liaising with the local community, enhancing the connections with particular industries. She took a role which I would name as *an*

advertiser. Although his argument over the definition of a marketing orientation is related to meeting the clients' needs, the new marketing structure developed by him emphasized a sales-oriented aspect. (AFE's new structure is shown in Fig. 5.2).

The new structure, he observed, can help develop a new culture. According to him, "changing people's attitudes and perceptions" is significant. Thus, his role was to initiate an "entrepreneurial culture" in which people can be more "flexible and responsive" to the clients' needs. In his opinion, marketing could help clients know what the courses were.

Although he has created a new climate incorporating marketing elements, he did not, it would seem, act as a *marketing strategist* in spreading the marketing culture to the whole organisation. When I asked him how to go about developing a marketing orientation, he claimed that they had an evaluation officer and a marketing officer, whose jobs were to improve the quality of provision to their clients. It implied that they would do the jobs rather than himself.

In fact, he realised that many people were stressed under the changes. First of all, lecturers were uncomfortable, he observed, with the word marketing because it was commercial to them. Also, their workload had increased due to the development of new courses. As for the team leaders, they needed to be responsible for the budget. However, when I asked him how to change people's attitude towards marketing, he answered,

Telling or writing to them and saying we *should* do things differently. And this is what was happened.

His "telling and writing" behaviour suggests that he tends to use his official authority to impose the changes. In other words, he did not encourage or motivate the opposing members of staff to understand the change or involve themselves in the decision-making process. Although he related marketing orientation to quality improvement for clients, he regarded it as a function which could be performed by other people (eg. marketing officer or course evaluation officer) rather than as an attitudinal change which needed his involvement and commitment. Whilst he had organised some team building workshops

for the senior people, changing people's attitude was not his priority. Thus, in our conversation, he did not talk about what I would call *employee orientation*: bringing demands of employees into consideration. Nevertheless, the assistant principal perceived marketing orientation as more to do with changing people's attitudes.

5.2.2 Marketing is Quality

Joan Heard, the Assistant Principal, was my key informant at AFE. Although she has been at AFE for more than ten years, she only took the post as an assistant principal six months previously, describing herself as one of the "change agents" because she wanted to improve the college. In her relationship with the delivery faculties, she had faced a lot of challenges and difficulties.

In line with Stuart, she claimed that *marketing orientation* was associated with quality;

They [a considerable number of lecturers] feel it's commercial. They don't like the notion of having it ourselves. I translate it into quality...I think everything is marketing.

Her point of view is different from Stuart's in the sense that she did not just relate marketing to strengthening the relationship with the clients or use it simply as a function. In her view, everything was marketing. It included the "tutorial system, staff planning, direct marketing" and so on. She did not perceive herself as a marketer, but everything at the college was related to marketing. Although she had no marketing background, she was committed to spreading her concept of marketing orientation to the members of staff so I would see her as a *marketing strategist*;

There is no understanding of marketing...[my role is to] help people understand marketing which is about quality and everything we do. It's not about short courses and publicity...

In the light of her argument, she was more committed than Stuart in the sense that she saw everyone's work was marketing and everybody could contribute to marketing

development. She related marketing to the work rather than the roles people took. In other words, she did not perceive everybody as being a marketer. Thus, her perception would suggest that she is at the quasi-marketing-oriented level.

Marketing orientation, to her, was about a processual change and attitudinal change affecting what people do rather than merely a mechanical kind of function. She had tried to facilitate communication between the faculties and the marketing officer. But "being" an *encourager* was not an easy task, she found.

Joan was responsible for managing the co-ordinators and ensuring integration between faculties and co-ordinators. However, she was aware that "structure may not make people work" because some people were "mavericks" within the new system and only concerned about their own teaching and the faculty heads were busy in their own faculties. Thus, she asserted that it would be better if she was one of the faculty heads. It showed that due to her power limitation she could not be an effective *encourager* in integrating the activities. According to her, it would take a long time to change people's attitudes.

From the above two examples, although Stuart and Joan were in the same senior management team, they perceived *marketing orientation* differently and played different roles in developing *marketing orientation*. Since Stuart perceived that marketing orientation was a process whereby the relationship was improving between the college and the clients, he only acted as an initiator and neglected spreading the marketing culture to and sharing his vision with other members of staff. Joan perceived *marketing orientation* as something to do with quality improvement. Thus, she acted as a *marketing strategist* and an *encourager* trying to spread her marketing message. However, due to her political limitations, she had experienced a lot of opposition and tensions. Next, we will look at another two top management people from BFE to see their perceptions of *reality* and role-taking.

5.2.3 By Chance Management

In my interview with Mark Barlow, the principal of BFE, he often mentioned his philosophy of management - "by chance management". Before taking the principalship two months ago, he had worked at BFE for five years as vice principal. He said,

Learning to manage people is a rough road. The need is by chance rather than by plan. My theory of management is that it needs to be open, participative, consensus- building, based on data.

Due to the environmental changes, the delegation to colleges has pushed colleges to adopt a flexible administration. He suggested that a more "open participative objective approach" was necessary to reduce the tension between a principal and his staff.

The new structure was established by the previous principal two years' ago and a marketing division was set up. Mark was not involved in the development of the new structure because he described the structure as "being imposed" by his predecessor. At that time, he just concentrated on developing a data base system for the college.

In terms of *marketing orientation*, he twice stressed that he did not understand a great deal about it. However, other people, he observed, knew less than him:

Most people don't understand marketing, I don't see myself understanding it, but other people are less advanced than I am. It's not well done...We don't feel we market the college.

Although, according to him, he did not "understand" it, he pointed out that the college's marketing was not "well done". In fact, he stated that he used to relate marketing to advertising and the prospectus, but now he "thought" that it was something to do with quality and credibility. What he meant by quality was developing appropriate curricula to suit the clients' needs in order to maximize the business. . His argument is akin to that of the marketing manager who claimed that curriculum development was significant for quality improvement. Applying his philosophy of "by chance management" he argued

that he needed to position and to sell the college by chance. He tended to relate the notion of marketing to the interaction between the college and the outside world. On the one hand, he said that he did not know how to define marketing, while on the other hand, he could state some terms used in marketing. His views of "maximizing" the business and "selling" the college are analogous to the notion of *sales-orientation*, whereby selling is boosted for the benefit of organisations (see Section 2.4.2).

His management style was described by Bill, the marketing manager, as "democratic and open". However due to his "limited" understanding on the notion of marketing, he merely related marketing orientation to a sales-oriented level (in my devised scale in chapter 4), he did not see himself as a marketer. He claimed that Bill would communicate and spread marketing to other faculties instead of doing this himself. In this way, relating his argument to the *role-set*, he did not play the roles of an *encourager* and a *strategist*. Let us look at Bill Bamford, the marketing manager of BFE, and the roles he played in comparison with Mark.

5.2.4 Integration into the Process

Bill Bamford, one of the senior management people, was my key informant during the research process and through him I met a lot of other members of staff. Having been working at BFE for more than ten years, he identified himself as a change agent in the change process (ie. shaping and improving the organisation to meet the requirements of the environment in his definition). He took the post of marketing manager a year ago. It was, he suggested, an "exciting time".

He had not obtained any marketing background before. Thus, he undertook some staff training. In his argument over marketing orientation, in line with Mark, he asserted that it was associated with quality assurance:

Marketing is a basic set of activities that are concerned with quality of service and with meeting people's needs. It is integrated into the whole process of curriculum and development.

Here, he argued that marketing was a "basic set of activities" which needed to be integrated into the process of "curriculum and development". His "quality" view has caused him to spend a lot of time in developing curricula and has left the advertising and promotion work to his marketing assistant.

Unlike Mark, he had taken a role which I would label as an *initiator* of marketing culture. He used the term "enterprise culture" to avoid the political problem of the notion of marketing. Under the new culture, he suggested that everyone was encouraged to develop quality courses to meet the needs of clients. He stressed that "innovation is the key to potential quality of future development."

Also, since he was committed to spreading the enterprise culture to the whole organisation, he acted as a *marketing strategist*. In our conversations he stated that he accepted all good ideas for new courses:

It's more open now...When someone comes to me wanting some marketing support for new courses, if I am convinced that it's an excellent idea, both Mark and I will back it up.

According to him, he used to be a "structuralist". Due to past mistakes he realised that "people-orientation" was important: he said "Interpersonal interaction is far more important than structural procedure". Thus, in spreading the enterprise culture, he emphasised open communication:

We need to talk to people...It's people who make it work in the end...You must trust people.

Being an *encourager*, he had tried to facilitate the open interaction between coalition groups in order to reduce the tensions during the changes. It was by no means an easy job. The new wave espoused by top management and the old wave supported by the traditional lecturers were in conflict with each other because they stood on different grounds. Next, I will investigate two other cases from CFE to see what different roles they took.

5.2.5 From Product-Orientation to Marketing-Orientation

There is a different picture in CFE compared with those in AFE and BFE. In terms of structure, CFE has developed a relatively sophisticated marketing faculty in which many staff members have obtained some marketing background. Mike Armstrong used to be involved in the marketing activities before the establishment of the faculty by using his previous marketing experience in industry. Now he concentrates on staff development and student affairs.

Before being a vice principal, Mike had been a head of a department for six years. He entered the new post six months' ago. Through his experience of organizing a lot of "patchy marketing activities" in the past for CFE, he argued that "FE to a large extent is still product-oriented, they offer courses off the shelf". Marketing orientation to him was "offering what the customers want rather than a set range of products". Here, he emphasized the priority of customers' wants. Then he went on to say that in order to achieve it,

We need to make sure that everyone working in the college knows about marketing and thinks in a marketing way.

Here, he pointed out that marketing orientation was a process whereby all people should know about marketing and think in a marketing way in order to meet the customers' wants. In fact, each staff member in his opinion should act as a marketer. It was, he argued, a fundamental attitudinal change to the traditional FE culture which was needed. In my argument, his opinion is at the *integration level* of my Scale.

Although he was not involved in the establishment of the new structure which was implemented a year ago, he was committed to developing a marketing-oriented culture. As a *marketing strategist* he stressed that in his position, he would "support marketing" by strengthening staff development to ensure that staff members understood about marketing and by improving student services which included counselling and the image of the college. Also, he contended that "marketing planning should be at the forefront

of college planning and should not just be added on the planning process". According to him, it was an important way to re-orientate people's thinking.

He mentioned the tension between the marketing culture and traditional thinking. However, he did not see himself in a role (which I call *encourager*) to facilitate communication between the marketing faculty and the other delivery faculties. He argued that it was the work of the marketing faculty. The reason may be because he has not obtained an official label as a marketer. What he would do was "to be patient" about the tension.

5.2.6 Marketing Stage

Although Julia Waite has only been appointed as the head of the marketing faculty of CFE for about three months, she identified herself as a change agent which showed not only that the role she took was a key institutional role but also showed her commitment to improve the organisation. She described herself as "part of the new process". She had been head of marketing at another college for three years; however she still perceived herself as a lecturer. According to her, CFE was now in the "middle marketing stage". In the elementary marketing stage, there was only a marketing committee headed by Mike Armstrong. All the other people did not know the marketing information. Now, in the middle marketing stage, they had a marketing faculty responsible for developing marketing orientation. In the next stage, she stated that she wanted to have "a corporate image, new visual identity" and have more committed people developing a marketing orientation.

In her definition, in line with Mic, marketing orientation was "putting clients first and meeting their needs". However, she also pointed out that,

If lecturers are good teachers, they are good marketing people.

She did not confine marketing to activities performed by people who have obtained marketing posts, but every lecturer, she stated, was a marketer if they performed well

in their positions. Marketing needed, according to her, to be "diffused" to every job and it involved an attitudinal change. In this way, the clients could benefit for a good performance.

Although she had only been in the post for a few months, she was committed to spreading the marketing culture to staff members. As a *marketing strategist* she stated that it was important to let people know that marketing was something to do with providing good services to clients and that they were all doing marketing.

In short, to take a closer look at the perceptions of the top management, many of them claimed that marketing orientation was associated with "quality" and "meeting clients' needs". Nevertheless, their perceptions differ when one looks behind the words they used. Some may mean improving the relationship with the clients; others may suggest that it is an approach to doing things; still others claim that everybody should be a marketer. Thus, their *sense making* has affected the roles they play in developing the infrastructure during the change process. In addition, their roles are attached to their *official power*. For example, Joan from AFE found difficulties in gaining co-operation from the other faculty heads due to her political limitations. Thus, it was not easy for her to act the role of a *marketing strategist*. Moreover, in my interviews with top management, "rewarding marketing-oriented behaviors" (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990) was not mentioned. The reason for this is that generally there is no unity of understanding on the notion of marketing orientation, there is no appropriate system to motivate the marketing-oriented behaviour (see Fig. 5.1).

If we put the notion of top management's role-taking into the *traditional-sales-marketing orientations* framework, we can see the differences. In a *traditional* culture, the top management did not take any marketing role because they did not understand the meaning of marketing and marketing was not in a high profile in a stable environment. When the new culture has developed due to environmental changes, different top management people *respond* in different ways which affect their role-taking. In the light of the findings, we can note that some people were *sales-oriented* in the sense that they did not take any marketing role but assigned somebody to be the *advertiser*. Other management

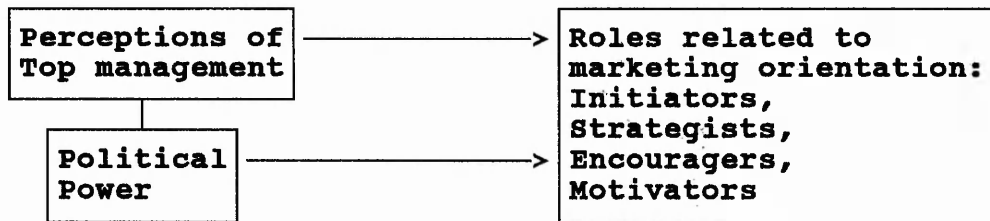


Fig. 5.1 Role-taking by Top Management

people intend to develop a marketing culture but faced some political problems. Thus, I would identify their role-taking as *quasi-marketing-oriented* due to their limitations. In an ideal *marketing-oriented culture*, top management will understand the meaning of a *marketing-orientation* and will take the roles of *initiators*, *strategists*, *encouragers* and *motivators* (see **Table 5.1**).

Traditional orientation	Sales orientation	Quasi-marketing orientation	Marketing orientation
No marketing role is taken	No proper marketing role is taken, but assign somebody to be the "advertiser"	Initiators, strategists, encouragers with limitations	Initiators, strategists, encouragers and motivators

Table 5.1 Role-Taking of Top Management and a Marketing Orientation

In the next section, I will examine how the new structure and culture are being developed by top management in contrast to the traditional ones in their response to *reality* and how the tensions have emerged between two opposing waves.

5.3 INFRASTRUCTURE FACTORS

It has been suggested, in Chapter 2, that the variations in organisational infrastructure are shaped by contextual factors. Decision-makers enact the environment and exercise the choice to change the internal structure and culture to meet the survival requirement (cf. Child, 1979).

From the three FE colleges I have studied it is apparent that they implemented the new structure incorporating some marketing elements two to three years' ago in response to environmental changes. This was associated with the development of a new culture. Nevertheless, due to different arguments and responses given by top management, the ways of organising and developing have varied. In this section, the development of their own structure and culture in the three colleges will be examined.

5.3.1 The Change of Structure

According to Daft (1989), structure is composed of three components, ie, formal reporting relationships, the groupings of individuals (or departments), and the design of systems. Both vertical and horizontal linkages are needed to enable effective communication, especially the horizontal linkages since these increase as the uncertainty of the environment increases (see Section 2.4.3).

In terms of the hierarchical structure the lecturer grade in FE has changed in recent years. Traditionally, there were L1 and L2 lecturers and L1 was the lowest grade in the hierarchy. However, they have been combined into just one lecturer grade. And senior lecturers are given more management responsibilities under the new structure.

Many FE colleges have implemented structural changes in which certain marketing elements have been incorporated. According to a chief executive in a County Council, the marketing post did not exist five years ago and the spread of marketing was still patchy. He argued that "you've got some colleges who may release a staff member for two hours to do marketing, in other colleges, you've got full-time marketing people". His comment has described the situation of the three FE colleges researched. We will now look at these colleges' changes on the issues of structure.

5.3.1.1 From Vertical to Democratic Structure

"The college is moving away from a *vertical* block into a much more *open democratic structure* which has given lots of people opportunities", said Steve, a cross-college co-ordinator at AFE.

In the light of this conversation, it is understood that AFE had been undergoing a change of structure from a closed and centralised style to an open and flexible one. Indeed, due to this change, he was offered the opportunity to be a cross-college co-ordinator.

Historically, there were five departments, each of which had two schools. They had their own polices of organising and managing. The formal reporting relationship was

described by many staff members in AFE as "hierarchical" and "vertical". The heads took all the decisions while teachers only taught in classes and clerical staff did the support work. According to an administrator, "teachers or people who've got teaching background didn't always see administration as their problem". People had very clear-cut tasks to perform. Everyone was specialised in their own areas. It is analogous to what Lundstrom (1976) describes as "departmentalization" and Mintzberg's notion of "the machine bureaucracy" (1983).

In order to respond to change the principal implemented a new structure two years' ago which was defined by many staff members as "open and democratic". Generally, people commented that the structure was more responsive and flexible to what the clients wanted. Five departments were replaced by three faculties. There are several schools within each faculty. Course teams are formed in each school. Eight cross-college full-time co-ordinators have been set up to integrate the activities of the delivery faculties (see Fig. 5.2).

The chain of command has been moved from a vertical and centralized one to a matrix and decentralized system. An individual may have more than one superior and have more interaction with other groups in different projects. For instance, a lecturer is accountable to a head of faculty. In the course team, s/he is accountable to the team leader. In some marketing activities, s/he needs to interact with the marketing co-ordinator to obtain particular resources. Also, the structure of four schools in each faculty has replaced the old structure of two schools in a department. Integration and communication increases through the course team system. The team leaders (who are senior lecturers) are given power to allocate budgets. Moreover, cross-college co-ordinators, or *integrators* in Daft's term (1989) are regarded, by a faculty head, as "crucial devices" because they ensure effective communication and integration due to the increase of horizontal linkages. The formal reporting relationships are blurred instead of clear-cut. A senior lecturer commented that it was less secure because he did not know what the expectation was.

Information flow : —————>

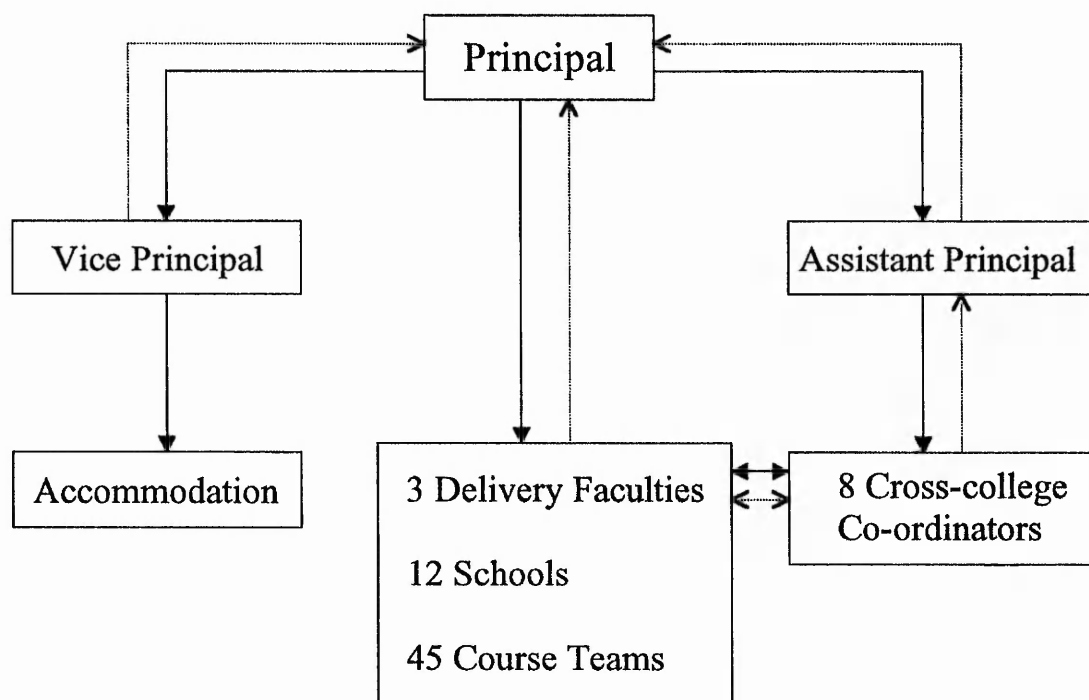


Fig. 5.2 The new structure of AFE

Acting as an integrator, the marketing co-ordinator (one of the eight co-ordinators) executes and integrates marketing activities among the three delivery faculties. She was a former senior lecturer specialising in the printing area and without a marketing background. Since she is not at the management level, she has not obtained official power to take any strategic decisions. The assistant principal identified her work as merely "mechanical", ie, printing and public relations. Part of her main job is to generate income for the college. Thus, she has organised some full-cost courses related to printing, the subject area with which she was familiar. When we associate AFE's structural development with the framework I have devised in chapter 2 (ie, tradition orientation-sales orientation-marketing orientation), it is moving away from the *traditional* one to a *sales-oriented* style in the sense that the job of the marketing integrator is to boost sales rather than re-evaluating the service in light of the changes (see Section 2.4.2).

Due to her background and power limitation, a head of faculty did not approach her for marketing support when he performed some marketing activities. He stated that "our marketing is being done by an amateur..It wouldn't work...I do my own publicity and public relations". And the vice principal, who was from the traditional departmental structure, stressed that "my instinct tells me that the new structure would not work". The new structure, according to some staff members, engenders more integration and communication. However, Joan, the assistant principal, remarked that,

Structures are there but it may not make people work. It's people who make it work.

Her argument implies the significance of individual *perception* and *vested interest* which have an impact upon the willingness of *co-operation*. The new structure was designated by the principal so that his political interests could be attained by achieving certain levels of performance. However, there are a number of coalition groups which have their own vested interests. The extent of their *commitment* to the change is dependent on whether or not their interest can be attained and achieved.

5.3.1.2 From Secretive to Participative Structure

In line with AFE, the traditional structure of BFE was very hierarchical and vertical. The previous principal was criticized by a senior manager as autocratic: "he didn't listen to people". The marketing manager stated that,

I could not go to see another head of department or the vice principal or principal without notifying my head of department.

In the past, there were six departments which had their own policies without much integration. It was described by a senior lecturer as "secretive and disjointed". A senior management meeting was held once every two weeks without achieving any decisions because "all decisions were taken by the previous principal who was dictatorial". It was noted that the power was centralised solely at the top.

The new structure was designed by the previous principal five years' ago in response to the local management of colleges and was implemented two years ago when the previous principal left the college, according to a division manager. Six departments were replaced by four divisions. Under each division there were a number of course teams (there are in total twenty-two). A full-time marketing *team* in the form of a division (Daft, 1989), one of the support functions, was developed to co-ordinate the marketing activities (see **Fig. 5.3**).

In the new structure, all the heads (of divisions and of teams) are labelled "managers" and into this role are incorporated some business elements. Team managers are given responsibility to allocate budgets, market the work that teams do and find out the needs of clients. They need to develop their own marketing plans and do limited market research.

The new principal was regarded by Bill, the marketing manager, as "open and objective". Basically, he supported what Bill did. Being in the senior management team, Bill has the official power to implement marketing strategies. Due to his lack of marketing

Information flow : —————>

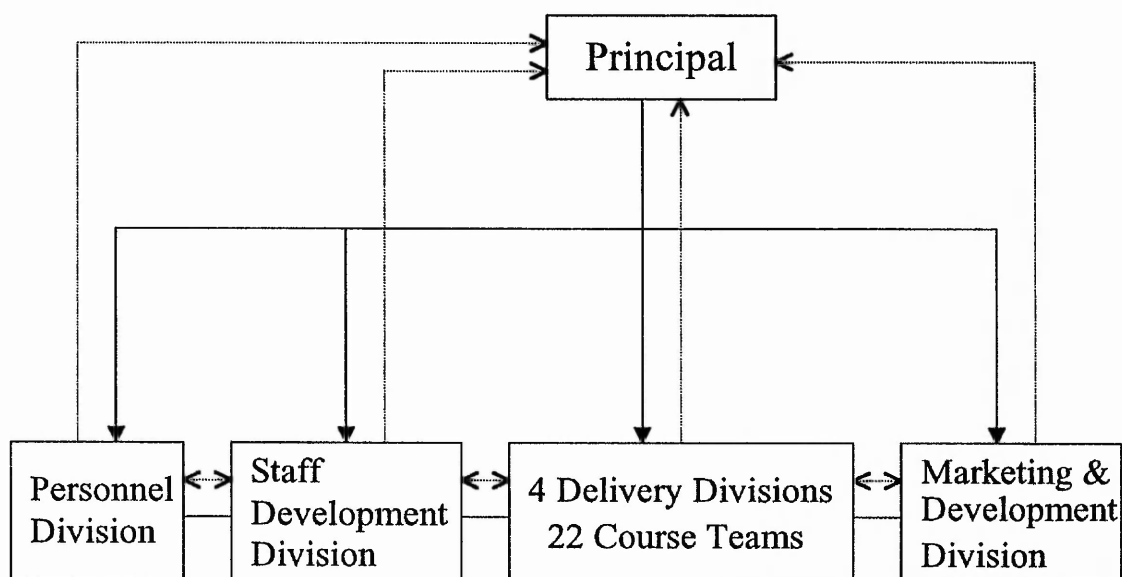


Fig. 5.3 The new structure of BFE

background and his personal interest in developing curricula, he mainly concentrated on development work. He argued that in order to meet the clients' needs, a high quality curriculum was crucial. And he has established closer relationships with team leaders, and acts as an informal *liaison* to facilitate the co-operation between teams and the marketing division. The publicity work was being carried out by his newly-recruited assistant who had obtained some advertising experience.

The profile of marketing here at BFE is higher than at AFE in the sense that BFE has established a full-time team to deal with marketing issues. A marketing assistant was recently recruited to co-ordinate marketing activities. Bill's concern is not just to sell the services: he stressed the significance of quality provision for clients. Due to his official power, he could sit in at management meetings and team meetings to develop courses to meet the needs of the community. However, because of his background and experience, he was uncomfortable with some of marketing language, eg, customers and advertising. Also, he was discontented when people labelled him as "public relations person". He commented on the marketing development at BFE to the effect that "we have a long way to go...we are moving towards the direction of a marketing orientation [which was the term he used himself]". Compared to AFE, the structure here is more than sales-orientation but not yet reaching a *marketing-oriented model*. I will label the structure as a *quasi-marketing-oriented* one.

When we talk about structural development, *individual perception and commitment* needs to be taken into consideration. The manager of a division distanced himself from marketing by saying that "we've got a marketing manager, he gets on and does it". Some groups of people merely criticized the colleges' marketing activities. The comments include:

"They just spend time in supplying promotional materials without considering any market segmentation...We don't need a marketing division" (from a divisional manager).

"There is no overall marketing strategy, no differentiation, no focus...Bill just gets on with his development work" (from another divisional manager).

In spite of their criticisms, they did not give any suggestion about how to improve the marketing co-ordination. Instead, every divisional manager claimed that they had their own marketing activities in developing relationships with their clients, eg, career evenings, setting up a stand in a open market once a week and school convention events. In terms of managing their own divisions, they tend to move back to the traditional style.

On the surface, the new structure is supposed to enhance co-ordination and communication. Behind the organisational chart, individual divisions have their own marketing policies in order to *sustain and protect their interests*. Echoed by a senior lecturer, he stated that "I don't think the new structure makes a lot of difference, it's people who operate the structure".

5.3.1.3 From Isolated to Whole-College Approach

In the last ten years CFE has been re-organised twice. Before the establishment of the present structure there were seven departments. As in the traditional structures of AFE and BFE, people were located in specific departments. According to a senior lecturer, they were isolated from one another. It was top-down and vertical. Although there was a marketing committee to co-ordinate the marketing activities which drew people together from different departments, it was considered to be taking only a subsidiary role in supporting the departments.

Two years' ago, the new structure was put in place, in which the seven departments were replaced by three delivery faculties and three support faculties. Their political power and influence is regarded as equal. The change was described by a head of faculty as "an attempt to break down barriers". There are a number of divisions (which are the same as "teams" at AFE and BFE) under each faculty headed by senior lecturers. The power is devolved downward to the divisional leaders. Their roles are to manage the budgets and broader issues related to their own divisions. The support faculties act as cross-college co-ordinators to integrate the college activities. It was regarded as moving from a "departmental management system" to a "whole college system" by a lecturer (see Fig 5.4).

Information flow : —————>

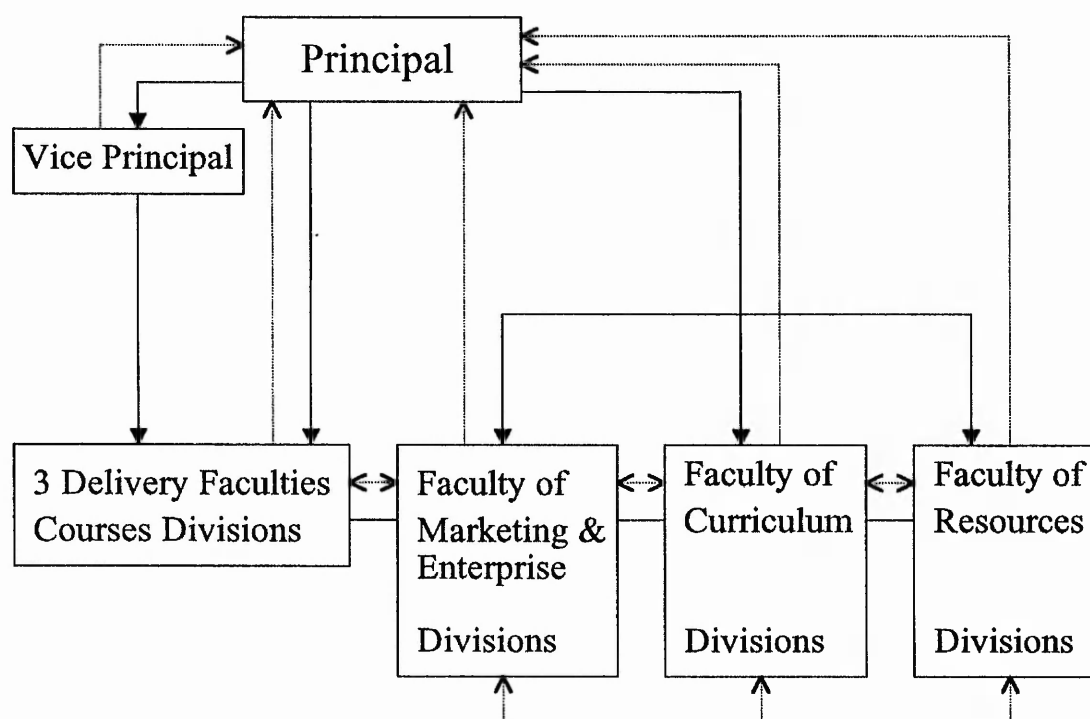


Fig. 5.4 The new structure of CFE

Compared to those at AFE and BFE, the marketing faculty here at CFE is a relatively sophisticated team. The full-time integrator, ie, the head of faculty, has obtained some marketing experience in another FE college. All the divisional leaders in this faculty are senior lecturers. Apart from teaching, they arrange four hours every week in which they need to perform some marketing duties. There are in total six divisions within the marketing faculty responsible for six areas of work which include: community, training, marketing services (eg. overseas marketing and funding liaison), short courses, small businesses and school liaison. An individual is assigned in each delivery faculty to interact with members of the marketing faculty regularly, acting as a liaison for information exchange. In this way, under the official re-organisation, every faculty is inter-linked with the marketing faculty (the comparison of the marketing structures is seen in **Table 5.2**) and marketing is diffused into every group of people. In the light of the marketing literature (see Section 2.4), this college has obtained a *marketing-oriented* structure (see **Table 5.3** comparing three FE colleges' structure).

	AFE	BFE	CFE
MARKETING LIAISOR	NIL	Informal Relationship between marketing manager and team leaders	Official network: a person is assigned in each faculty to interact with the marketing team
MARKETING INTEGRATOR	Full time; Power limitation; co-ordinating advertising & promotional activities; No experience	Full time; Senior position; Curriculum development; No experience	Full time; Senior position; developing marketing strategies & activities; Obtained experience
MARKETING TEAM	NIL	Full time; Marketing assistant has experience	Full time; Half of team members have experience

Table 5.2 Comparison of the marketing structures among the three FE colleges

	AFE	BFE	CFE
Traditional Orientation	Sales Orientation	Quasi-Marketing Orientation	Marketing Orientation

Table 5.3 Comparing the orientation of structures among three FE Colleges

Although CFE has obtained a relatively sophisticated marketing structure, there were still some people who stated that the new structure might not work in practice. According to Keith, a lecturer at CFE,

The college was organised in a way that the divisive pull of the different departmental interest was minimal...but in practice, in my level, the divisive pull is still there, now it's between faculties.

In the light of Keith's comment, the *human factor* is significant in affecting the effectiveness of the new structure. The divide now is between faculties instead of between departments. The deputy head of the marketing faculty observed that "some people will never change, they are insular and don't want to know new things". This group of people do not want to integrate into the new structure. People's commitment is dependent upon their choice of involving themselves in or distancing themselves from the new system.

There are still other groups of people who do not think that integration with the marketing faculty is necessary. The head of an engineering faculty stated that they preferred to do their own marketing because their area was too technical for the marketing people to handle and they had been doing it themselves for a long time. His argument implied his distrust of the official marketing function and the protection of his own interests.

When the three cases are compared and contrasted, we can find some similarities among them. First, some political power is delegated from the principal down to the team levels headed by senior lecturers and they are responsible for managing budgets, marketing,

recruitment and student welfare, and the like; second, Lecturers are given more administrative work outside classrooms. For example, they may need to attend a considerable number of meetings which include developing new courses or organizing some promotional activities, etc..; third, the horizontal linkages among faculties are increased by establishing co-ordinating roles. The rationale is for reducing the communication barrier, better understanding, and using the college's resources more effectively; fourth, there has been an emergence of some marketing principles and activities out of the new structure. In other words the three FE colleges have marketing roles established in different ways to organise marketing activities.

Let us look at how different their approaches are in developing marketing roles. In AFE, only a full-time integrator is employed to co-ordinate the activities and she has no official political power. In BFE, a whole team has been developed with a full-time integrator (who is at senior management level) to deal with marketing issues. Due to the background of both integrators, they concentrate more on their particular interests. In CFE, there is a whole team with an experienced full-time integrator. Also the liaison roles are set up in each delivery faculty.

Despite the differences in structures incorporating marketing posts, the marketing people all face obstacles from other faculties as discussed in the above subsections. Whether actors in the FE field choose to involve themselves in or distance themselves from the new structure is dependent on their perceptions and attitudes towards the meaning of the new structure. In addition, whether the new structure will or will not affect the vested interests of individual groups may have an impact upon their willingness to provide commitment and co-operation in the change process. In the light of the data Fig. 5.5 is developed which shows the problems behind the establishment of a new structure.

Designated by the top management, the new structure is developed in order to achieve certain levels of performance. However, it has been mentioned before that it is *people* who make the structure works. Individual perceptions and groups' vested interests have aroused some tensions between management and lecturers as well as between faculties. Now we turn to look at how management develop a new culture to meet the survival

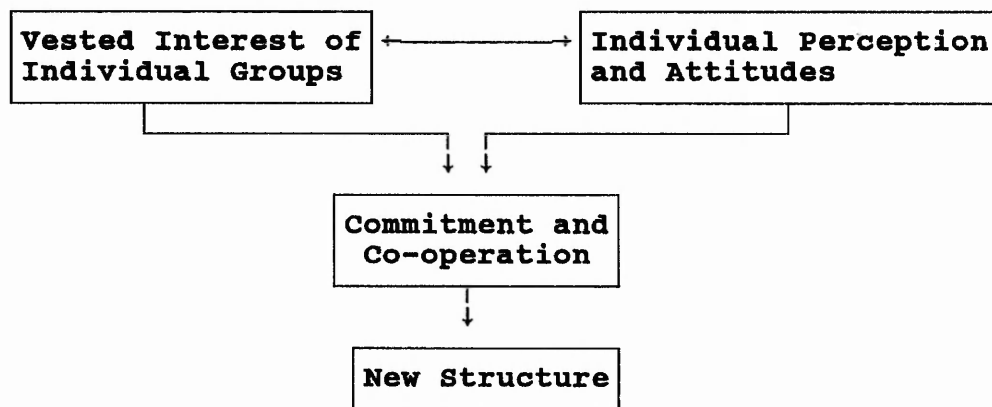


Fig. 5.5 The new structure and group dynamics

requirement, and the tensions underlying it. In the next section we will examine the official and unofficial cultures in the three FE colleges.

5.3.2 The Change of Culture

The structure of an organisation can be seen as containing both an "official control structure and unofficial aspects of structure" (Fook & Watson, 1992: 4), the latter involving informal arrangements and practices, micropolitics and the like (Watson, 1987: 208-9). It is argued that unofficial structures are, in large part, "an outcome of the prevailing culture of the organisation" (*Op Cit*). Culture can be identified as both *official culture* and *unofficial culture*. In terms of *official culture*, we define it as *the system of meanings, values and norms espoused by the managerial dominant coalition*; whilst *unofficial culture* is *the system of meanings, values and norms actually prevailing in the organisation* (Fook & Watson, 1992: 4). On the notion of culture, the similarities of the three FE colleges lie in the fact that the managements are attempting to transform their own colleges from a traditional FE culture to a marketing-oriented culture. That means the traditional culture used to be the official culture and is now being replaced by another official culture, executed by the top management in response to environmental change. However, some individuals still attach themselves to the traditional culture from which they can seek meaning. In this way, tension has developed between two cultures.

Traditionally, FE colleges were called "Techs" [Technical Colleges] or "night school", which mainly catered for the working lads who studied in evening classes on a part-time basis (see Section 1.4.2). Under the traditional FE culture the working hours were described by many staff members of the colleges as "nine till five, four or five days a week, thirty-six weeks a year, long summer holiday". Since the traditional structure was basically vertical and top-down, teachers' work was specialised in their own area and related to teaching. A senior lecturer pointed out that,

A lot of traditional FE lecturers walk into classes, deliver their training, walk out, and that's it.

In the light of the above comment, those who still value the tradition perform in a traditional way. The traditionalists are individualistic in performing their works. They do not need to have a huge amount of interaction with their fellow workers but merely get on with their own teaching and training courses. A lecturer used the word "educationalists" to delineate the working area in which the teachers' job was to educate their students in classrooms, without extra administrative work. Also, there was not much communication between departments. According to one lecturer, "we trod on each other's toes...three of us were doing the same thing, we didn't co-ordinate well".

A change in the financial situation is perceived by many college staff as an important factor in the change of culture. The colleges are given a limited single-line budget, financial awareness has become the main concern - especially among the management and the team leaders. An administrator at AFE mentioned, "they've got to watch the budget all the time...we have to think about money first".

In response to the environmental changes, the senior management or dominant coalition has developed a new culture which incorporates a lot of marketing language. This is consistent with Pondy's view (1978): he observed that leadership is a kind of "language game" in which leaders "make sense of things and put them into language meaningful to large numbers of people". This "need for meaning" (Peters & Waterman, 1982) view is important for the development of a clear and strong culture.

In the FE field, there have been a lot of colleges starting to recruit people to jobs such as "marketing manager", "director of marketing and development", "publicity and promotions officer" and so on (cf. Evans, 1990). Under the "enterprise culture" labelled by the management, students and the employing organisations are identified as clients or customers. The new language used by the management includes: client-centred, responsive to customers' needs, oriented to the market-place, entrepreneurial, flexible, adaptable, ownership and quality. Such language reflects the assumption that the management develop a culture whereby the system is flexible and adaptive, employees are given more freedom to become involved in the decision-making process, and their clients are seen as a priority. It is argued that a *client orientation* will lead to effective

performance. This culture echoes the definition put forward by Narver & Slater (1990: 21) (see Section 2.4.3), who identify marketing culture in the sense that client-oriented behaviours and superior performance are emphasized. In my argument, I will identify this new culture as a *quasi-marketing oriented culture* because the emphasis is on the quality and clients' needs and wants. However, the notion of employee orientation is not seen as a priority. In this way, tension has developed between the traditional and new culture.

Apart from the generation of new language, the new culture comprises a new system: first, the increase of administrative work among staff members; second, the increase of full-cost courses; and third, flexible working hours also. In terms of administrative work, not only the management but the team leaders need to manage their own budgets. Once a lecturer is promoted to senior lecturer, his/her teaching time is reduced and s/he needs to spend more time in managing the budget. Under the system of course teams, individuals are involved in more meetings and administrative work than before. A head of faculty at CFE commented that,

This time years' ago, you would find a lot of staff sitting around in the pub playing games, but now you can't find it, they are all working...That's a big change.

Also, due to the financial restrictions, more full-cost courses, in which the marketing concept is embedded, are developed in order to earn more income. According to the vice principal at AFE, "we need to run more full-cost courses which should be customer-oriented so that we can earn money for the college". Moreover, management encourage their staff members to work in a flexible way, ie, working during the weekend, in the evenings and in summer vacations.

The management have used both the language and new systems to strengthen the official culture in order to achieve certain levels of performance for long-term survival. However, the official culture is not shared by every individual member of staff. The unofficial culture still exists among some people. There is a group of traditionalists who state that the new wave was against their "professional principle" (their notion of

profession will be discussed in Chapter 6) and that their aim in FE was not to put financial viability as a priority, do administrative work and market the courses but to "educate the students with their professional knowledge". Many argued that interaction in meetings was unnecessary. They did not mention the benefit of the meetings for the organisation, but emphasized the unnecessary length of team meetings. According to their argument, they ended up in working for forty-five hours without extra rewards. The new culture is *meaningless* to them because they do not find personal rewards. Also, the new culture is associated with a shift of power and influence from the traditionalists. According to George, a lecturer who has been at AFE for over ten years without being granted any promotion,

The whole structure and culture *undervalue teaching*...the higher the progression you go, the less teaching you do, it is automatically believed that teaching is not highly considered.

Although management has emphasized the need for quality provision for clients which is consistent with the notion of traditionalists over "educating students with professional knowledge", this point has been neglected by the traditionalists. This group of people is attached to the traditional value in the sense that they pointed out the need for spending time in classes because of their "professional" requirement. Also, many people were sceptical about the new system in the way that less teaching was related to more political power. For those individuals who have not obtained the chance to be promoted under the new system, like George, they tend to use the label of profession to protect their interest and resist the system (see Fig. 5.6). This corresponds to Watson's (1986) argument which identifies human beings as "political and economic animals" who create *meanings*. Apart from meeting economic needs, human want to acquire some political ends. This is associated with the development of interest conflict among different coalition groups to which we now turn.

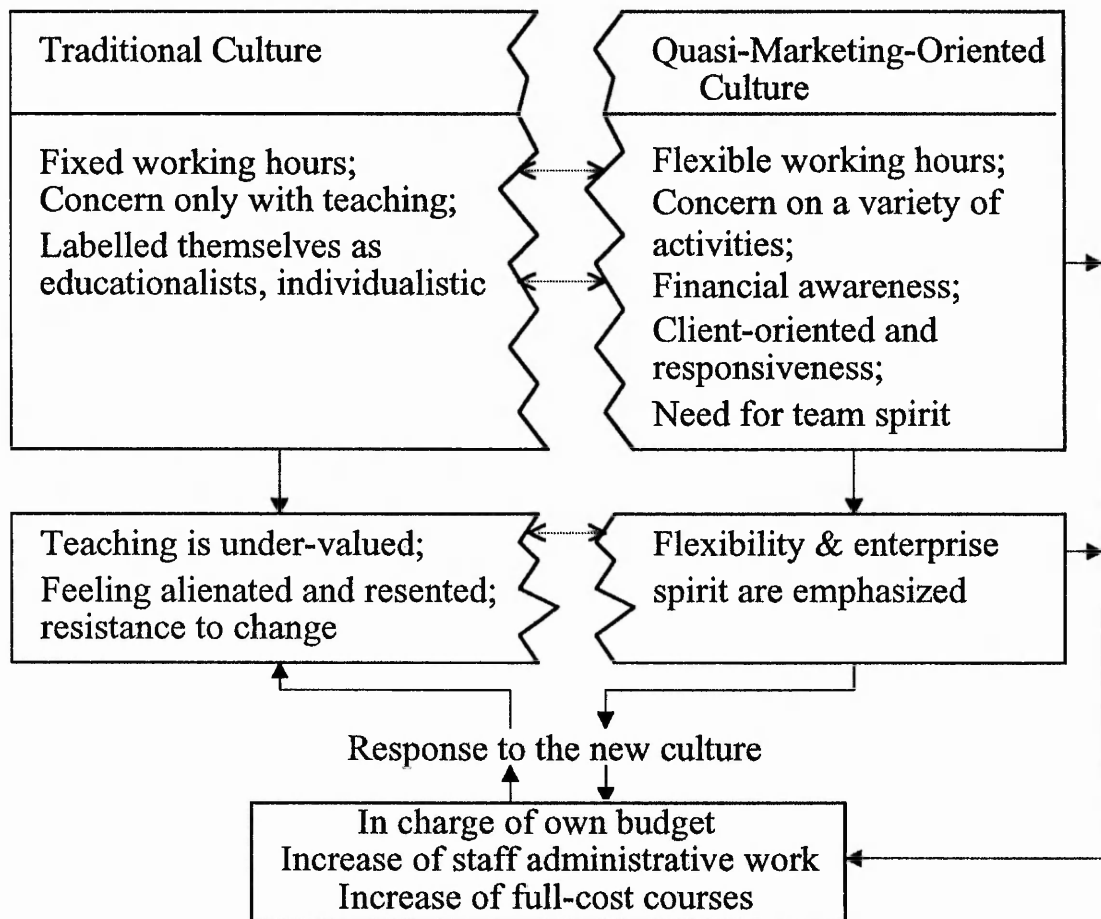


Fig. 5.6 *The traditional and quasi-marketing-oriented cultures*

5.4 INTERGROUP DYNAMICS

It takes a long time to change people's attitudes. Some feel it's great, others feel they are left out. They may relate the change to their degree of *benefit* (from Stuart Major, the principal of AFE).

In the light of Stuart's comment, it is noted that changing people's attitudes is a priority in the process of change. People's perceptions of change is related to their own vested interests (ie. how much they may gain or lose). Those who have the same vested interests may come together to protect their rights and interests. We call them *coalition groups*. The interest of the groups may be linked to their official positions. Thus, we can see the opposition between management and front-line lecturers, a new wave against an old wave. In this section we will investigate the tensions raised due to the development of a new structure and culture.

5.4.1 A Divide between Cross-college Co-ordinators and Faculties

It has been explained that traditionally the departments at the colleges had their own policies and functions. There was a great divide between departments. The task of the cross-college people is mainly to co-ordinate and facilitate the activities between the delivery faculties. In this way, the barrier may be reduced and communication can be enhanced. However, in practice, a new tension has developed, which is a divide between the cross-college co-ordinators and faculties. In AFE, not only the marketing co-ordinator, but also the other co-ordinators have faced the problem of interaction with the heads of delivery faculties. According to Joan, the assistant principal,

There is tension between cross-college things and faculties...the heads of faculties want to get on with what they are seeing as faculty business, they don't want us to interrupt.

Indeed, the new faculties are acting in the same way as the traditional departments in that the faculty heads have to become mainly concerned about their own faculty business. Although they are the senior management team and are facilitating the process of

structural development, they themselves do not seem to support the cross-college coordinators. In her argument, Joan shows that faculty heads have their zones of influence and power. They do not want other people to interrupt their interests. That is why a head of faculty claimed that they had their own marketing people within the faculty. Next, we can see a divide between another two groups of people for political reasons.

5.4.2 A Divide between Team Managers and Divisional Managers

Since power is devolved to team managers, they are responsible for allocating the budget and managing certain groups of teaching staff members within their teams. This group of people is described as a "threat" to the divisional managers (whose positions are the same as the faculty heads at AFE). Bill, the marketing manager, said that

Divisional managers see the new idea of having team leaders as threatening to their *position*.

His observation puts forward the notion of the protection of interests. It echoes Burn's argument (1961, 1977) that he sees all organisational participants as *political actors*. Divisional managers are seen as a group of political actors who intend to consolidate and protect their vested interests. As a result of the increased power of the team leaders Bill has a closer working relationship with them,

I would normally consult the divisional managers first. However if there is a situation where the divisional managers do not understand the needs and support the marketing activities of the team, I would work directly with the team managers.

Under the new structure, the marketing integrator can work with the team managers independently without involving the head of the delivery division because of the financial and management power of team leaders. It is noted that the power of divisional heads is weakened because they cannot manage or control the activities of their subordinates. That is why they may feel threatened. The relationship between both sides (on one side, the team managers and marketing manager, and on other side, the divisional managers)

is regarded by Bill as "probably worsening in the future".

Here at BFE, we can see the power struggle both within and without divisions. At CFE, there is an increasing tension between the marketing faculty, the cross-college team, and the delivery faculties.

5.4.3 A Divide between Marketing Faculty and Delivery Faculties

The marketing faculty is regarded as a relatively sophisticated structure with its own political power. However, due to the large extent of its influence and power upon the delivery faculties, there is a cold war between the marketing people in a support faculty on one side and staff members in the delivery faculties on the other side.

The explanation of Tom, a senior lecturer working in a marketing faculty, was that "the communication flow was bad" and "faculties don't talk to each other". Nevertheless, in the light of the findings, it is understood that there has been political struggling among the faculties. First of all, there was a struggle between the heads of delivery faculties and the marketing faculty. According to Ben, the deputy head of the marketing faculty,

They [the heads of faculties] don't want to free them [the lecturers with marketing duties] to do the marketing job even though it is agreed officially...They think the staff belongs to them, we think the staff belongs to us.

It is noticed that official compromises do not make the structure work. The struggles centre on the fact that they all fight to gain *control* of human resources for their own benefits.

Additionally, there was a clash between the marketing people and the teaching staff over marketing activities. Some staff members stated that they were not consulted when new courses were opened,

Marketing people want to open some courses without talking to us. They just want us to do what they want, we are on the teaching staff but not consulted, isn't it ridiculous?

It corresponds to the notion of the effectiveness of communication and information processing. Due to the contact of marketing people with the outside world, they own information about the demands of the clients. They develop new courses, according to them, in response to societal demands. However, this information may not be passed to the teaching members. The teaching staff members may perceive the act of putting on new courses without consulting them as a form of power manipulation. The ineffectiveness of communication has brought forward a situation where no teaching members can teach the new courses. For example, a lecturer indicated that the marketing people had advertised some courses that they could not teach. The solution was that they had to recruit a part-time lecturer within a week.

In another instance, a lecturer had some significant information about the employing organisations which had a connection with his faculty. I asked him if he had passed the information to the marketing people so that they could update the database for the future marketing work. He claimed that he would not share this with the marketing people because he did not believe "so called marketing" and did not want them to gain the credits. Political protection can be detrimental to the smooth communication and function of the college.

5.4.4 Information Ownership

The tension between two coalition groups within the three FE colleges centres on the fact that the political actors intend to protect their own vested interests during the change process. Information ownership is related to the notion of power and politics (cf. Pettigrew, 1973; Piercy, 1990). In Piercy's argument, only those who have access to and own information are likely to sustain political power. They are espoused by Burns & Stalker (1961) who argue that the possession of relatively rare information is a significant "strategy" because particular resources are under their control (cf. Mechanic, 1962). The ownership of information is related to the rank they occupy and the prestige attached

to their functions. Thus, it is pointed out, marketing people should possess official political power (eg. Piercy, 1990). In the examples we discussed in the previous section, Bill relies on the team managers, who own the information about the teams, for developing marketing strategies, but this has caused a threat to the divisional managers; the marketing people of CFE own the information about the need for starting new courses, but this has caused tension with the teaching staff members. Also, although the senior management own information, they were perceived by some lecturers as secretive. The comments include:

"There seems to be a lack of communication from senior management. They don't tell us what is happening, when it's happening and why it's happening" (from a senior lecturer at BFE).

"We don't know what senior management are doing, they don't pass information down to ordinary people" (from a lecturer at CFE).

Under new structures and cultures it is noted that particular coalition groups emerge which have owned certain information which is essential for achieving some level of performance. Due to information ownership, these groups have become more powerful. Thus, information ownership is regarded by many academics as political. It is argued that information ownership may help sustain political power but owning information alone may not help those in power succeed in the long term because of discontent and disillusionment among people. In order to reduce barriers between different coalition groups, under an *ideal marketing-oriented culture*, it is important for the dominant coalitions to process and communicate information to the relevant groups in such a way that their interest is secured and they do not feel threatened. This can be done by using various means such as interdepartmental training programmes, cross-functional activities by directing them on the market needs and reward system. It would inevitably involve high levels of communication, leadership and negotiating skills (see Fig. 5.7).

In a *quasi-marketing oriented culture*, top management tend to emphasize the need for flexibility and an enterprise spirit to respond to the clients' needs. However, the notion of intergroup dynamics was neglected in the sense that the vested interests and the information processing were not considered. Thus, it has resulted in an opposition

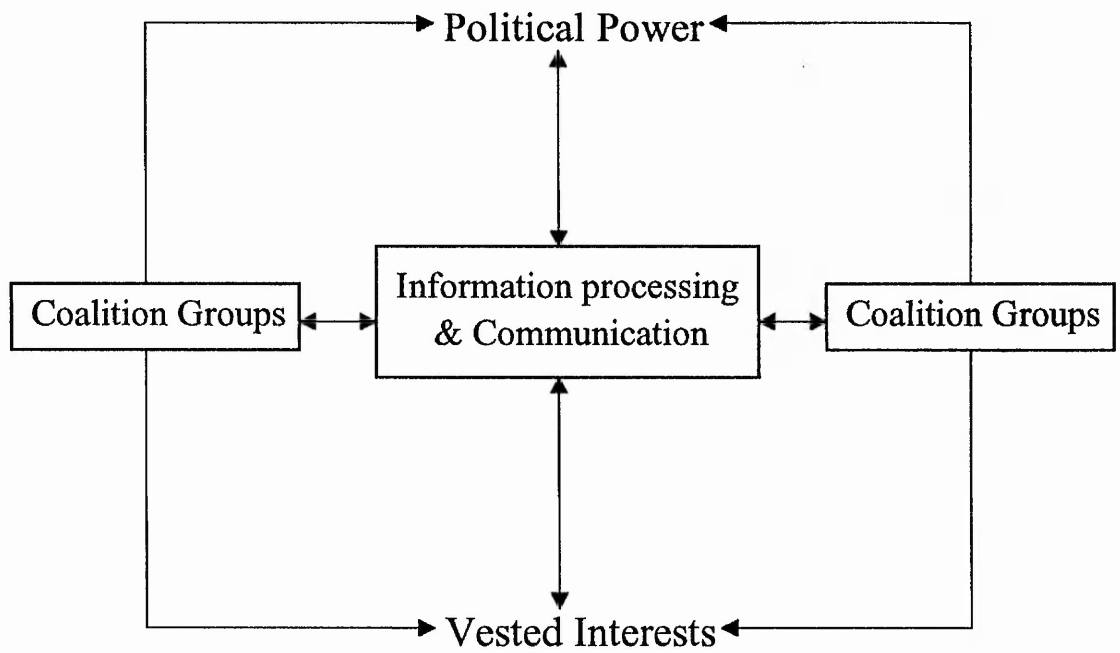


Fig. 5.7 Inter-group dynamics

between the traditional wave and the quasi-marketing-oriented wave. In order to develop an ideal marketing-oriented culture (ie. *the fourth wave*), the *intergroup connectness* needs to be considered by identifying the group interests and developing an efficient information processing and communication system (see **Table 5.4**).

	Traditional orientation	Quasi-marketing orientation	Marketing orientation
Culture	Fixed working hours; people are concerned with their own teaching areas; "educational" approach is emphasized	Improved flexibility; "enterprise" spirit and "client-centred" approach are emphasized; lack of inter-group connectness	High flexibility; client orientation; concern with inter-group vested interests and information processing

Table 5.4 Comparison among traditional, quasi-marketing oriented and marketing oriented cultures

5.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has identified the crucial elements of *organisational co-ordination*, one aspect of my conceptual framework for marketing orientation. Organisations need to be organised in a way which ensures long term relationships with its internal and external customers (ie. employees and clients). The establishment of this co-ordination can help facilitate the relationship between organisations and their other stakeholders. The elements include: the top management's role-taking, the infrastructure factors, and the inter-group dynamics.

The literature (see Chapter 2) suggests that there are four marketing roles which can be taken by the top management. They are: initiators, strategists, encouragers and motivators. Their choice of different roles is dependent on their perceptions of the definition of a marketing orientation and the extent of their political power and influence.

I have chosen two case studies from each college to investigate the role-taking of senior management.

Designated by the dominant coalitions, the infrastructure reflects the development of their own marketing orientation. In terms of structure, there has been a transformation from a closed and centralised (traditional) structure to an open and democratic (new) one incorporating some marketing elements. Due to different perceptions of the notion of a marketing orientation, the structural developments among the three colleges have varied. They range from a *sales-oriented* and *quasi-marketing-oriented* to a *marketing-oriented style*. The official culture has changed from a traditional one to a quasi-marketing-oriented one. A lot of new language and systems have been adopted in order to develop a strong new culture. However, the traditionalists are still attaching themselves to the unofficial culture to protect their vested interests. Both the traditional and the new cultures are in conflict with each other.

When we take a closer look at the coalition groups within the organisations it is discovered that their perceptions and their political interests affect how they act and interact with other coalition groups. Since it is seen that owning information is a way of gaining some political power, the quality of information processing and communication tends to be neglected. Thus, it is suggested that in order to reduce human barriers and enhance the development of their *marketing oriented models*, information communication needs to be developed in such a way that the coalition groups' vested interests are not threatened in a direct and challenging way.

The development of a marketing orientation is examined in this chapter at *organisational* level. In the next chapter I will move on to investigating the colleges' *employee orientation*, the second behavioural component of my framework, in the development of their marketing orientation.

CHAPTER 6: MARKETING ORIENTATION IN THREE FE COLLEGES: EMPLOYEE ORIENTATION AND UNDERLYING TENSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Having examined the notion of *organisational co-ordination* in the previous chapter, we now turn to the second behavioural component of my conceptual framework on *marketing orientation: employee orientation*. Employees are regarded in much of the marketing literature as "internal customers" of an organisation (as has been discussed in Chapter 2). Their perception and role in the context of change is seen as affecting how they perform at work. It therefore needs to be taken into consideration in the process of developing a *marketing orientation*. In my definition of an *employee orientation* (Section 2.4.3.2), four aspects are included:

1. the demands of employees need to be addressed and satisfied;
2. this must be done within resource limitations;
3. the aim is to achieve a satisfactory long-term employee-client relationship;
4. the ultimate aim is for long-term organisational survival.

As it has been argued (*ibid*) that, particularly in services fields, due to the nature of intensive buyer-seller interactions, it is necessary to have *satisfied employees* in order to have *satisfied clients*. Employees' "satisfaction" will have an impact on how they interact with their "clients". This, in turn, will affect whether the organisation will survive in the long term. In this chapter I will use six case studies from the three colleges to investigate employees' perceptions and behaviour in the change process. These cases represent the range of approaches found across the three colleges. The people involved typify the various positions taken by the staff members, from whom some underlying tensions will be explored and some themes drawn out.

6.2 INVESTIGATING EMPLOYEE ORIENTATION

Of the forty-two members of staff I interviewed, almost half have been working in their present colleges for more than ten years. I would argue that they have experienced and adapted to the "traditional" college life. More than half of these interviewees said that their previous job was related to teaching. Their reasons for working in FE, or what I would call their *prior orientations* (see Chapter 2), were different. It varied from the need for "promotion", "variety", "status", "longer holiday" and so on. These bring different expectations to the membership of the colleges. As was discussed in Chapter 2, the orientations are *dynamic* over time during the process of interaction with their own organisations, eg. the changing circumstances. Their satisfaction centres on the fact of whether or not they continue to obtain the rewards in which they are interested, the relevant information and the appropriate training they need. All these interactions may affect how employees see the notion of *marketing orientation*. When we investigate the colleges which have changed from a traditional style into a new approach incorporating marketing elements, the important point is whether or not the colleges provide a means whereby the members of staff can continue to gain the rewards they desire.

In the next sections I will adopt two cases from each college to illustrate the notion of employee orientation. It comprises the demands or work orientations of employees and how the colleges orient towards their demands.

6.3 A REVOLUTIONARY AND A LOYALIST

In this section I introduce two characters - Karl and Ann. Both of them were working at AFE. Karl was a "front-line" lecturer who had constant contact with his students. He was discontented with current changes. He could be described as a revolutionary because, in the interview, he shared with me his revolutionary model on how to revolutionize the present new culture. Ann was a faculty administrator. Different from Karl, she was delighted with the change. I would call her a loyalist because she "loved" her job and showed her "commitment" to her work. From these two examples we can see how the rewards affect an employee's attitude towards their jobs.

6.3.1 A Revolutionary Model

Before working at AFE, Karl taught in a smaller college for five years. He has been a lecturer in Science at AFE for twenty years and he was described by other colleagues as a "marketing sceptic". In our conversation it was apparent that his work orientation, which was tied in with the notion of rewards that he desired, affected his perception of and his involvement in the change. He shared with me his revolutionary model, the one which reflected his dissatisfaction with the new systems.

A key purpose for Karl working at AFE was to gain promotion. He claimed, "I felt it was quite grand to see the new building [AFE was a new college twenty years ago] and new equipment...Promotion was one of the main reasons for me to come". He became a L2 lecturer from a L1 lecturer when he started to work at AFE. Our conversation went on and he said that he was still a "lecturer" at the time of interview (the lectureship grades changed from having grades L1 & L2 to only having one "lecturer" grade). Due to the change of the lectureship system he was at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy. He claimed that "I should point out I'm on the lowest grade in fact, although I came here for promotion". It implies that the reason for the job move was for the reward of promotion and prestige. However, due to system change, he could not get a desirable official title which showed that he was different from "L1 lecturer". Since he was dissatisfied with the whole promotion system, he described his feelings as ones of "disillusionment". He began to blame the new system.

In his view, the new structure of promotion "undervalued teaching";

Our Principal doesn't teach. The progression is that the higher you go, the less teaching you do, that means teaching is not highly considered...If you introduce a business-like approach, you've got to have something for the teachers...I once asked a governor "if a teacher earns a profit [from full-cost courses], can they receive two free tickets to Spain for two weeks?". This reward happens in the business world but not here.

Teaching, he claimed, was his main work. However, he saw that other lecturers were "preoccupied by other things". Under the new system, the higher up the promotion

ladder people had climbed, the less teaching they did, the more power and money they obtained. The front-line lecturers did not obtain appropriate rewards. That means teaching and lecturers were devalued. He pointed out that it was "unprofessional" because "as a professional teacher, we've got to see the teaching first". When I asked him what a professional teacher was, he answered,

To enable students to learn and fulfil their potential to whatever level, creating their opportunities and building their confidence.

In fact, his definition is consistent with the idea of the new culture where student demands are emphasized. However, what concerned him was that under the new system he did not get the appropriate rewards that he desired. Since his interest was threatened, he adopted the label of profession in order to seek a morally praiseworthy reward and to protect his own interest (see Section 1.2.1.4).

The lack of desirable rewards has affected his perception of the senior management. He argued that

Not even one senior person will come to say that they are interested in seeing your class and want to know what problems you've got in new courses...I don't think the Principal is caring about his teaching staff...

From his point of view classroom teaching was a priority in FE. Since the senior people did not involve themselves a great deal in classrooms, he said that they were not capable of being leaders. A lecturer echoed his view by saying that "the management people do not spend time managing people. They only manage data and policy and do it wonderfully".

In terms of his *understanding* about the changes, it was found that he did not perceive any significant changes in FE in recent years. Within AFE, although there were staff bulletins, meetings and memos explaining the internal changes, he still "did not understand" the change. He said that the reorganisation made by the Principal was merely a way "to show that he has arrived". He *selected* to distance himself from the

information flow and the change was a kind of "defence strategy", identified by Silverman (1970), to resist the change and to protect his vested interests.

His purely teaching background and his "cynical" view towards the senior management influenced how he saw the notion of marketing orientation. He defined marketing orientation as "advertising" and claimed that it was used by the management people to "sell courses and attract people to come". This notion was "nothing to do" with him.

Having expressed his cynical attitude towards the new system, he shared with me his revolutionary model whose ideas were borrowed from those of medical practice. He said that "the practice managers are relatively junior people. He is not as highly qualified as general practitioners but they manage the practices. They run the practising not the practitioners". In the same way, an ideal FE college to him was an institution where the power was centred on teachers,

The practising teachers should be the core and everything we need is defined by lecturers. There should be no principal, teachers have more autonomy, we should rely on the teaching function.

Karl's argument implies that the new system was not "ideal" to him because the role of front-line lecturers was devalued. In other words, in practice the organisation did not orient to his demand by giving him the reward he desired. We notice that his prior work orientation was for promotion and prestige. Due to system change, his desirable reward was lost and no other reward was given by the organisation. Karl's dissatisfaction has affected his attitude towards the management and his co-operation during the change process.

Let us now look at another example. The difference with this case lies in the fact that desirable rewards were secured.

6.3.2 A Great Place to Work

Ann was married with two children. Her husband is a public relations officer in a company. Having been a student there, she has been working at AFE for three years. The first two years were on a temporary basis. At the end of the second year, she was promoted from the post of temporary secretary to a new full-time post called faculty administrator. She said that "I love it and it's a great place to work".

The reasons for her choosing AFE to work were that it was a familiar place to her, people were friendly and it was near to her children. Throughout the two years, her work orientation had changed during the interaction with the organisation. In our conversation, she pointed out that an ideal college was where

The staff members are getting job satisfaction.., a friendly working environment, you feel that you are appreciated.

Apart from the need for a friendly environment, she added that "job satisfaction" and "feelings of being appreciated" were simultaneously important. Her happiness in her new post was because the organisation had provided a channel for her to secure these demands.

Her comment on the re-organisation was "good" and "worthwhile". Under the new structure and culture she was given more official power to monitor the faculty budget and voice her opinions to the senior management team. Her relationship with her faculty head was described as "superb". In our discussion she said that

He [the faculty head] has been superb to me, he always listens to my opinion, tells me a lot of things. He sees me as an individual...I would give more of my effort to the work.

Since the faculty head showed his respect and trust in her, she was willing to work harder than she needed to. This case demonstrates that her satisfaction was derived from her gain of particular rewards that she desired. These rewards have driven her to have a

positive attitude towards change as well as involving herself in the change process.

On the notion of marketing orientation, her perception was influenced by her husband (who is a public relations officer) and the information given by management. She related marketing orientation to "publicity, public relations and image projection" and saw it very much her thing because part of her job was to "tell people what they offered". She conceived that in order to be a "professional teacher", apart from "teaching students subjects so that they get good results", one needs to be "taught about marketing". In this way, the teacher could "build up the relationship with the press and the local radio one way or another". In addition, she argued that a "marketing co-ordinator" job should be done by "a professional marketer" because s/he "knew the best way to market". In our conversation, differently from Karl, Ann associated the label of *profession* with marketing. Although her definition of a marketing orientation only emphasized the external aspects of my devised Scale, the importance of her argument centres on the fact that a *professional* lecturer's job is not to avoid marketing but to do some marketing work so that the organisation may perform more effectively.

From the above two cases it is noted that the notion of desired rewards have affected how the individuals involved perceived their roles in the organisation, their relationships with the management and the extent of their willingness to be involved in the change process. Also, they used the concept of profession to pursue different ends. Due to his discontentment over the lack of appropriate rewards, Karl adopted the label of profession to *resist* the change. On the other hand, due to her job satisfaction because she gained the desirable rewards, Ann adopted the label of profession to *show her agreement* over the change (the notion of professionalism will be discussed in Section 6.2.7).

In the next section, I will examine another two cases from BFE to see how the rewards desired affect perceptions and role towards the change and how the organisational systems affect employees' interaction with an organisation.

6.4 A DOUBTER AND AN ENTHUSIAST

I have selected two characters - Martin and Elaine - from BFE who had contrasting experiences of change. Martin was a front-line lecturer who I would call a doubter. In our conversation, he often mentioned his feelings of "unrest and uncertainty" in the changing process. In contrast, Elaine was pleased with the change because she was promoted to be a senior lecturer responsible for a course team. I describe her as an enthusiast because she was enthusiastic in discussing with me how she would use her "realistic model" to improve her team. These two cases highlight the relationship between the rewards and performance at work.

6.4.1 Unrest and Uncertainty

Before working at BFE, Martin was a technician in industry for over ten years. Then, due to the recession, he moved to FE for "job security". He has been at BFE as a lecturer for seven years. In our conversation, he described his feelings towards the change as "unrest and uncertainty".

According to him, his original reason for moving to FE, his prior orientation, was for "security" and "money" (or *instrumental orientation*). As our conversation went on, he repeatedly complained about the lack of promotion opportunity for lecturers under the new system. Obviously, "promotion" (or *bureaucratic orientation*), was more important to him than merely instrumental orientation (see Section 2.4.3.2) after several years working at BFE. He pointed out that,

I'm stuck here now because I can't get promotion. It was started with L1 and L2 lecturer. It was a ladder to be promoted from L1 to L2. Now, under the re-organisation, only the senior lecturers are allowed to apply for certain posts...It cut off my career...

He stressed that he was "stuck" as a lecturer and would continue to be a lecturer because of the limited promotion chances. On the other hand, he conceived that although the senior lecturers were stressed because of the uncertainty, they had "more on the pay and

they were safer since they were given more responsibilities". Due to his discontent with the change, he claimed that he had "lost a lot of enthusiasm for quite a while" and "started to look for another job". He perceived that the only way out was to quit the field and find another job so as to get the rewards he desired. His frustration, he mentioned, has affected his performance in classrooms.

Also, our conversation brought forward two important notions relating to the process of change: *information flow* and *staff development*. He used the terms "rumour and counter-rumour" to describe the situation of information flow at BFE and this, according to him, was a main source of "unrest and uncertainty",

You hear different versions of a story within a short time. Somebody said this is going to happen, afterwards the other said, "no, this isn't going to happen, that is going to happen". When you are doing this, the other said, "no, you are not going to do this, we are going to do that"...You could only find things through rumours going round the college.

According to his argument, the internal information flow was ineffective in the sense that he could only receive the new information through the rumours. He explained that it was the fault of management because they "did not pass the information down the ladder" and there was "no meeting that people could pass the information". He went on to suggest that the management needed to inform them of the new directions and changes, "everybody should be kept informed about the direction that the management want the college to take". He associated all employees with "internal customers" of BFE to illustrate that the management needed to satisfy their demands.

Also, he complained about the inadequacy of the staff development programme. In his argument, staff members were trained on-the-job and a "trial and error" basis was adopted instead of formal and systematic in-service training. Under such an "uncertain and unsettled" internal environment, he emphasized that training was important not just for information flow but also for developing staff to meet the changes.

On the notion of marketing orientation, he defined it as "selling the college" and said that "it was a good idea" because of the "resource constraint", especially on finance. The only problem he perceived was that the marketing manager did not communicate with people and the marketing staff members were not formally trained in marketing. He did not see himself doing any marketing job and his argument implied that marketing jobs were confined to the marketing division. However, he highlighted two important points - the significance of information flow and internal training in meeting environmental change.

In Martin's case, it is noted that his work orientations had changed over the years through his interacting with the organisation. He was dissatisfied with the new system because it restricted him from obtaining his desired rewards. Within the organisation, the system of information flow and the training system were both inefficient in the way in which they have increased the unrest and uncertainty among employees. This, in turn, had affected lecturers' interactions with their clients. Thus, an organisation needs to be aware of employees' work orientations by developing an appropriate information processing system and training system in order to pass down information as well as understanding their *orientations*.

6.4.2 A Realistic Approach

Applying Martin's phrase to Elaine, she had "more on the pay" because she was promoted to be a senior lecturer from a lecturer under the changes after working in her department for three years.

She moved her job to BFE from another FE college because she could get more money from it and the department she worked for had a reputation in the Midlands area. She had been senior lecturer for 6 months at the time of interview. Due to the increase of workload, she often needed to work on Sunday even though she did not want to. Nevertheless, in our conversation, she was zealous in talking about her "intention" to improve some systems. For example, when we talked about the student follow-up system and the course evaluation system, she commented that "I'll *make sure* there will be some

progress" and "I'll *make sure* it's on".

In fact, according to her, the changes gave people "heartache" but provided her with an opportunity for promotion,

The change makes people's jobs difficult, thus they resist the change. I'm fortunate because I was promoted where the opportunity came within FE. I applied for the job through the internal advertisement.

Her argument highlights the notion of the relation between vested interests and the perception of change. Since she obtained a desirable reward in the change process, her attitude towards the new structure and culture was positive.

She conceived that a "realistic approach" needed to be adopted to internal development and student services. In terms of internal development, she said that "staff needs should be considered". She realised that the large size of BFE might have an adverse effect to internal communication. Thus, she suggested that more activities, such as courses, needed to be set up to improve communication as well as training staff members for the changing needs. Like Martin, she pinpointed the significance of information flow and internal training.

On the notion of student services, defining marketing orientation as "meeting the requirements of students", she stressed that the college should give the "client group" [she meant students] a "realistic view of what they offered". In her view, "a *majority* of staff accepted *aggressive marketing*" and "developed a sense of excellence for courses". She went on to argue that a realistic approach was needed in order to "survive". She said that she did not do much previously but she would design a programme for a realistic approach in the near future to improve the system in her division. Here she implied that she would involve some aspects of marketing (according to her definition of marketing orientation) in meeting students' requirements and offering them *realistic* provision. From our conversation it was noticed that during the change process she has gained a certain desirable rewards which has enabled her to have a positive attitude towards the change and her new work.

Let us look at another two cases from CFE. They illustrate the relationship between desirable rewards and employees' assumptions as well as perceptions towards change. Also, the problems of inefficient systems will be examined.

6.5 A TRADITIONALIST AND A POWER SEEKER

Barry and Sue were at different hierarchical levels. However, both of them were frustrated by the change. Barry was a front-line lecturer. He was described by some of his colleagues as a traditionalist because he often complained about the change and the work of management. Sue remained as a senior lecturer during the change. Nevertheless, her political power was reduced after the structural change. As a power seeker she lost some "rewards" that she desired and her discontent was obvious. From the experience of these two characters we can see not only how rewards affect the perception of the change, but also how the problems in the role of the management and the systems affect employees orienting to their demands.

6.5.1 The Lack of Communication and Training

Barry was described by a staff member in the marketing faculty as "a traditionalist". He has been a lecturer at CFE for nine years. His working life was, he claimed, "both good and frustrating".

Before working at CFE, he was a teacher in a private school. The reason for his changing his job from a school to CFE was, according to him, the need for "a higher status". Throughout the years of changes at CFE, he said that he still enjoyed contact with students in the classroom and seeing them progressing. This was the place where he could gain his status. However, outside the classroom, he said that there was a great deal of frustration from the inefficient communication system and the lack of in-service training. In fact, underlying his complaint about the inefficient system was his dissatisfaction over the loss of his rewards.

In terms of the inefficient communication system, first of all, he complained about the matrix *structure* which he thought was "very confusing" and provided a "lack of clear direction". Under this new structure, lecturers were accountable to two or three managers. Thus, when they wanted some actions taken, they needed to go to ask all the managers. The pattern of support, according to him, was not clear. In fact, it is a common problem in a matrix structure. Then, he went on to talk about the incompetent management skills of the senior people. He said that the poor communication system could be attributed to *management* who made an assumption that "other people have no intelligence". He pointed out that the meetings between management and the lecturers were "one-sided",

Management are always telling us what's happening, if we want to discuss our concerns, they disappear...Management should listen to the staff instead of merely talking and judging.

Throughout our conversation, unlike Karl (AFE) and Martin (BFE), Barry did not mention promotion. What he intended to obtain was *being respected* and *support*. However, the new system could not enable him to get his desired rewards. He envisaged that there was no internal bulletin or centralized pigeon-hole system where the staff members could receive information about what was happening. Since the management own the critical information and did not pass it down effectively, employees at the junior level were only "in the dark". The result of this was insecurity and grievances.

Also, the inefficiency in the communication system could be reflected in the *interaction* between the delivery staff members of the faculties and the members of the marketing faculty. Although Barry was working in the same building as the marketing people, he did not know them well. Marketing was given a high profile at CFE, yet the members of the marketing staff were not officially introduced to other staff members. He knew the name of the head of marketing just because her office was near to the staff room he was in. Due to the limited interaction, he merely "guessed" what the marketing people were doing and was "cynical" about the abilities of the marketing people. When he was asked to define *marketing orientation* he said that it was a continuous process whereby "one should find out the needs of the relevant groups, then put it into practice and

evaluate the needs". Then he emphasized that he was not sure whether or not the college had the right kind of people to do it. His argument implied that marketing was only done by those who have official marketing titles and who should do it well.

In terms of the training system, he also showed his frustration and discontent. He stressed that the existing system could have been improved "if there was a continuous training programme". In his argument, the employees were "confused and unsettled" due to the "inefficient information processing and inadequate training system". He cited an example: the management asked him to teach a new class, but only gave him a week to learn the new computer packages, and he was not told what should be included in the syllabus. He went to see the management people, and the answer was "a *professional* computing lecturer should be able to teach any package" (here the label of professional is used for the purpose of managing staff by the management). In the end, he needed to learn along with the students. This example highlights the fact that the college seems to concentrate on meeting the demands of the market under the enterprise culture at the expense of employees' wants and the problems they faced.

Then he went on to argue that both front-line lecturers and management needed continuous training. Continuous training for the present lecturers and the new employees was needed so that they could be "kept informed about the changes" and could acquire "updated skills" to meet the changing needs of the market. On the notion of management training, he said that it was of the utmost importance. He declared that the "entrepreneurial approach" was significant in meeting environmental changes. However, according to him, management did not have the skills to adopt this approach because of their lack of adequate training. The skills he meant included: financial management skill, personnel management skill, resource management skill, good forward planning skill and the like. And their lack of skills was, he argued, reflected in the fact that they did not listen to their subordinates, did not provide any training to the lecturers as well as failing to give employees a clear direction.

In the light of this case, it is noted that, under the new culture and structure, management's skills were not adequate for developing new systems to meet the demands

of employees. Thus, Barry was frustrated that he could not obtain his desired rewards. His discontent has to a certain extent affected his interaction with students and the quality of provision in the end.

6.5.2 The Problems of Management style and Communication

In the process of change Sue had obtained the title of division head a few months before the interview took place. She said that she was "not happy" with the change. In our conversation she complained about the management style and the communication system.

Sue used to work in another FE college as an L2 lecturer. The reason for her changing jobs was promotion. She became senior lecturer when she started her work at CFE in 1988. Then, after a year, she obtained the title of deputy head of a department (before the re-organisation). Although she was still a senior lecturer her power and status was enhanced. Then, under the re-organisation, her department was placed within a delivery faculty and she became one of the six division heads in the faculty. She stressed that "I used to be able to do a lot of activities, but now I am just involved in a small part of the faculty". In other words, her new post reduced her official power and status. Since she could not maintain the rewards she used to have, she was "unsettled" and felt "unhappy" about the change.

Her dissatisfaction was reflected in her complaint about the management and the system. First of all, she claimed that the management style was "idealistic",

Senior management is a little bit idealistic about what they think they can do...things won't change until they are aware of the problems.

Then she went on to say that the management often stated "this was what we had to do, this was what we had to provide". This argument implies that, in response to the environmental needs, the management developed some activities and strategies without adequately consulting other staff members at the lower levels and passing down information. The more important point was that they were not aware of employees'

demands.

Also, she discussed the employees' orientation at work which was reflected in the inefficiency of communication,

A bulk of people don't care who is managing the division, all they care about is who they work with, what is their teaching area. They want to be *secure*.

In the light of her argument, people generally need a sense of security at work. However, she said that the communication was "inefficient", the main-grade lecturers were only given pressure to work more without "direction or knowing what was happening", they only felt "unsettled and insecure". When the employees feel insecure and are not satisfied with the job, it may have an effect upon their delivery of the provisions.

When we talked about the notion of a marketing orientation she defined it as "finding out what people want and how to deliver" and claimed that it was important to the college. However, she observed that the marketing people did not go to ask the delivery staff members what they wanted the marketing staff to do. That means, according to her, the marketing people were not trying to *find out* the demands of the delivery faculties. Here again, she highlighted the significance of effective internal communication between faculties which could facilitate the development of marketing orientation. Our conversation brings out the fact that both vertical and horizontal communication is crucial, especially in the change process, for the overall performance of the college. Also, she saw that marketing was a kind of activity initiated by the marketing people.

In Sue's case her source of strain was the loss of particular rewards she wanted under the change. The existing system worsened her relationship with the organisation. She told me that she had tried to look for another job. In fact, this case brings forward the notion of the role of management in the change process. They are seen as playing a crucial role in smoothing the frustration and uncertainty as well as understanding the demands of employees. If such a role is not fulfilled, they are the people who receive the blame.

During the process of interviewing, the word "professional" or "unprofessional" were often heard. They were used by both traditional or pro-marketing actors as a way to justify their views in the new wave. However, it seems that a number of traditional people in the FE field tended to use it more in order to seek or protect their vested interests. The significance of the concept of *professionalism* in the field lies in the fact that being "professional" teachers the traditionalists see it as a right to adopt the label of "unprofessional" to distance themselves from the change. In the next section the concept of professionalism perceived by the actors will be examined in detail. It is intriguing to realize that, although the traditional wave and the new wave are in conflict with each other, in viewing professionalism, they share a common ground. This may provide a hint for the management to break the ice and reduce the tension.

6.6 EMPLOYEES AND PROFESSIONALISM

In the previous sections I have mentioned that some people used the label of profession in order to achieve particular purposes. *Professionalism* is adopted as a symbol for people to seek praise-worthy and highly-valued rewards, which is consistent with Becker's "symbolic interactionist approach" (see also Section 1.2.1.4).

During the interviews the notion of professionalism emerged a few times. When the interviewees used the terms (eg. "professional teacher" or "professional organisation") to express their opinions, I would ask them to define the concept of professionalism. In order to understand this notion perceived by the actors at different levels, I will divide the interviewees (who had defined the terms) into two groups, the management people on the one hand, and the senior lecturers and the lecturers on the other.

Of two management people who talked about the meaning of professionalism, Bill, the marketing manager of BFE, said that in a formal sense, teachers should not be classified as "professional teachers". In his argument, the "professional" people like doctors and lawyers had a very "high degree of independence in the way they operated" and a collective body to "oversee their performance and licence them as operators". However, teachers were "working as paid employees of the local authority" (FE colleges were still

under the control of LEAs at the time of the interview). Indeed, he adopted a concept which we called the *structural functionalist approach* (see Chapter 1) to view profession in the sense that there are some trait characteristics associated with the notion of professionalism. Then he went on to state that, in an informal sense,

People use the word 'professional' to give some indication of doing a job in a competent and high quality manner.

In his argument he highlighted the aspect of a professional's *competency* in performing a job. It implied that the competency can allow an autonomous status without interference. In fact, this is a kind of lay definition used by some groups of people in order to seek autonomy. Even Bill himself used the word "professional" to describe that he had an appropriate attitude and ability to perform his marketing job before I asked him to define the notion, even though he had no experience in developing marketing work and had once said he did not know how to start marketing.

Andrew, a head of division at AFE and a *pro-marketing* person, associated the notion of professional with *working attitude*. According to Andrew, a "professional teacher" was

A teacher who cares and is concerned with students' progress and prepared to work long hours.

His statement highlighted two aspects: a teacher's commitment to clients' needs and to work. Under the new wave the term "meeting clients' needs" has been often mentioned. As a head of division he claimed that he had the duty to encourage his colleagues to meet clients' needs. Thus according to him professional teachers should commit themselves to meeting needs. In addition, the process of change has brought forward a considerable number of meetings and administrative work. Andrew often needed to stay in the office until 9 in the evenings. Although he had once complained in front of me that there were "too many meetings", he still stated that a professional teacher needed to "work long hours". In fact he implied that he was a professional teacher because he had performed these two aspects. No matter that the word "professionalism" can be associated with complacency or working attitude, it is a popular label (eg. used by both Bill and Andrew)

for seeking praise-worthy rewards.

In looking at the other group, I will examine six people: three can be associated with a *pro-managerial principle* and three can be associated with an *anti-managerial principle*. For those who agreed with what I call the managerial principle, two were senior lecturers and one was an administrator. They define "professional teachers" as

"Someone who enjoys what they are doing and whose work is useful to the organisation. They don't count their hours..."

"Those who are responding to the college's needs and taking a co-operative approach. They treat each other and students in a responsible and conscientious way"

"Those who are trained to teach students so that students can get a good result"

In the light of their definitions, three aspects of professionalism emerged, they are: commitment to the organisation, commitment to their work, and commitment to their clients.

For those associated with the *anti-managerial principle*, two were lecturers and one was a senior lecturer. Three of them expressed their discontent towards the new culture and claimed that it was not "professional" because the management only emphasized "following the market needs" and "income earning". When I asked them to define the notion of professional teachers, their answers included:

"They perform a guaranteed minimum standard at work. They have commitment at work, experience and training"

"They enable students to learn and fulfil their potential in whatever levels, building their confidence for the future"

"They care about their job and students"

In terms of "a guaranteed minimum standard", the lecturer's argument was in line with what Bill called "the need for a competent and high quality manner". That means,

teachers should have a so called *guaranteed quality performance* (or competency) at work. Also, they emphasised caring for students and giving them the best in the process of learning. This is akin to what is called *altruistic motivation* (see Section 1.2.1.1).

By comparing the definitions put forward by the two groups of people we could find similarities in them. They both emphasized the *symbolic side* of professionalism in the sense that all professional teachers pursue altruistic motivations (ie. placing a priority on students' needs) and esoteric knowledge. However, in practice, as Bill implied, they had no absolute autonomy because they were working in a bureaucratic organisation. This was echoed by a lecturer at AFE who said that self-governing was impossible in practice because "other people are still making decisions on whether or not you will run those courses". Thus, it is argued that the traditionalists adopting the label professionalism is a way of resisting changes, protecting their limited autonomy, and seeking some morally praiseworthy rewards. It is crucial for the management to understand this notion in the process of developing a marketing orientation and develop an environment in which employees can express their orientations and continue to obtain particular rewards in which they are interested. Having examined the six cases and the notion of professionalism, we now turn to the development of an *employee orientation*.

6.7 THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN EMPLOYEE ORIENTATION

The examination of the six cases enables us to understand the *meanings* of the notion of *employee orientation*. It is argued that whether or not the employees are satisfied with the job is dependent on the degree of desired rewards they obtain during the changing circumstances. Their discontent may affect how they perceive the role of management and their role in the change as well as how they perform at work. Also, it was found that management's marketing culture did not infiltrate effectively down to the lecturing staff. Generally, people perceived that marketing needed to be performed by marketing people. In fact, from Ann's and Elaine's cases, we realise that particular rewards and the organisational system affected their attitude and behaviour on the notion of marketing. Every organisation has its resource limitations. Nevertheless, I would argue that, in terms of the implementation of an employee orientation, it is the role of the management

to be aware of employees' demands, to develop appropriate rewards within resource limitations, to establish appropriate systems for information flow and to provide continuous training so that the visions of the management philosophy can be passed on and the employees can be integrated into the change process (see Fig. 6.1).

Applying employee orientation to the notion of the traditional-sales-marketing orientations framework (which was developed in Chapter 2), we can establish the differences in employee orientation within the orientations framework.

Under a traditional culture, the environment was relatively stable. Employees were more individualistic. (This has been discussed in Chapter 5). Since they merely needed to concentrate on teaching, in-service training was not considered as a crucial issue because they were familiar with the subjects that they taught. They were used to the traditional style of the communication system. They were satisfied with the particular rewards before they joined the organisation. Relatively speaking, the stable environment enabled them to maintain the rewards they obtained. When the environment became more unstable, the colleges responded in different ways so as to meet the needs of changes. Under the new culture and structure, they emphasized the "customer-centred" approach and the "enterprise culture". I would identify those colleges as adopting a *quasi-marketing-oriented approach* because they tend to concentrate on finding out the needs of the external customers but neglect finding out the needs of their internal customers - their employees. Employees are an important part of organisation, especially in services fields. In the change process, employees tend to be confused and unsettled because the directions are unclear and they do not have a sense of security. The crucial point is that the vested interest they desire can be lost during the change and only a few obtain what they want through opportunities. The result of their dissatisfaction in the new situation may distance themselves from the change process, resisting co-operation with the management, or finding some symbols (eg. the label of profession) to seek their rewards. If an organisation only emphasizes meeting the needs of its customers at the expense of employees' benefits, the relationship between employees and the organisation may be detrimental. It may, in turn, affect the relationship between the organisation and its external customers because of the ineffective performance of employees.

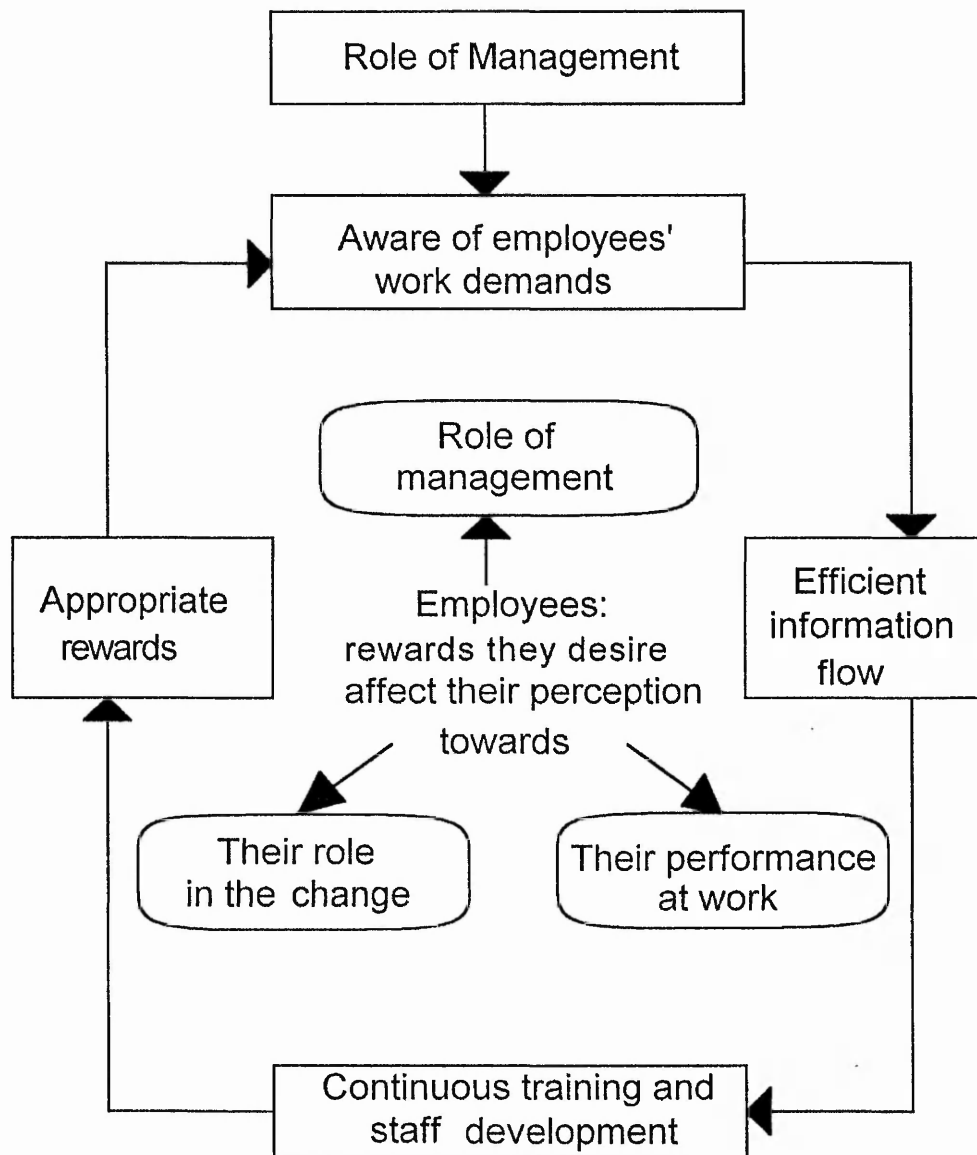


Fig. 6.1 The implementation of an employee orientation

If an organisation intends to move towards a *marketing-oriented direction*, it is necessary for the management to be aware of the employees' work orientation, bearing in mind that the rewards employees desire can affect their perception of their relationships with management, their role in the change and their performance at work. The management need to try orienting to employee's demands within resource limitations by providing appropriate rewards (ie. the desirable interests). The information flow needs to be efficient in the sense that employees are kept informed about crucial changes. The training programme and staff development is continuous for all levels of staff members so that their competence and skills can be updated and they can meet the changing needs (see **Table 6.1**). By adopting this approach, an organisation is more able to sustain its relationship with employees and the performance of employees in interacting with their clients can be more effective. In this way, the organisation can survive in the long-term.

In the light of the model I have developed it is argued that only in a marketing-oriented organisation can employees find a way to express their demands and protect their vested interests through the commitment of the management and the development of efficient systems.

	Traditional-orientation	Quasi-marketing-orientation	Marketing orientation
Employee orientation	Environment is relatively stable; employees only concentrated on teaching; they are used to the vertical communication system; training programmes are not crucial	Environment is unstable; management only emphasize the demands of customers and neglect employees' work orientations; information flow and training are not adequate	Environment is unstable; management are aware of employees' work orientations; appropriate reward system is developed; information flow is efficient; training and staff development is continuous and effective

Table 6.1 Employee orientation and the traditional-quasi marketing-marketing orientations framework

6.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the notion of an employee orientation by considering six characters from three FE colleges. The characters included: *a revolutionary, a loyalist, a doubter, an enthusiast, a traditionalist and a power seeker*. Through their perceptions and experiences in the change process we can see some underlying tensions when the colleges concentrate on orienting to the demands of their clients but neglect orienting to the demands of their employees.

From the six cases we can note how the rewards employees desire affect their perceptions of the role of the management, their role in the change, and their performance at work. An important theme has emerged which is about the role of the management: they need to be aware of the employees' demands; to develop appropriate rewards for them within resource limitations; to establish efficient systems of information flow and training.

By presenting the concept of an employee orientation against the framework of traditional-quasi marketing-marketing orientations, I would argue that in a *marketing-oriented college* there will be an appropriate employee-oriented approach whereby the employees can express their demands and find ways to satisfy these through management's commitment and efficient systems. Their satisfaction will allow them to perform more effectively at work in interacting with the clients. A satisfactory employees-clients relationship is an important component for an organisation to survive in the long-term.

CHAPTER 7: MARKETING ORIENTATION IN THREE FE COLLEGES: CLIENT ORIENTATION AND THE UNDERLYING PROBLEMS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Having examined *organisational co-ordination* and *employee orientation*, we now turn to the third behavioural component in my conceptual framework of marketing orientation - *client orientation*. As discussed in Chapter 2, the word "clients" is commonly used by FE in describing their students and employing organisations. There had been stated commitment among the management people at the three colleges to moving from a traditional to a client-centred approach. Related to this is their determination to inject some business philosophies into FE and to place their buyers in a priority position in the new culture.

The definition of a client orientation has been laid down in Section 2.4.3.1, in which four aspects were included:

1. orienting to the demands of the clients;
2. this orientation is within resource limitations;
3. the aim is to sustain a long-term relationship;
4. the ultimate aim is for long-term organisational survival.

In this chapter, I will use the conceptual notion I presented in Fig. 2.6 to investigate the *client orientation* of the three FE colleges from which I will seek to examine their underlying problems. In a client orientation four types of interaction will be identified, namely: interaction among clients; interaction between employees and clients; interaction between the tangible aspects (ie. the course provision and the environment) and clients; and interaction between the intangible aspects (ie. the systems & procedures) and clients. The role of promise, expectation and experience during the process of interaction will be explored.

7.2 INTERACTION AMONG CLIENTS

"A satisfied customer will tell *three* others about their satisfaction, but a dissatisfied customer will tell *five* others about their dissatisfaction", said a lecturer at CFE.

There is an important philosophy behind the numbers mentioned by this lecturer. First of all, it is noted that customer has the sovereignty to use their judgment to perceive the quality of the provision. Second, they can affect how other potential customers see the organisation. Third, when the customers are dissatisfied with the provision, they may spread the negative comments about the services. This, in turn, may affect the long-term survival of an organisation.

In the FE field word of mouth is a common means adopted among clients in gathering comments about colleges. In my interviews with the students at each college, although some heard bad comments about the colleges at which they were studying, more than half claimed that they studied there because of their friends' recommendation. Their friends (or their friends' friends) had been studying at the particular college before. The positive comments included: "it's got reputation in both academic and non-academic studies", "she said it's one of the best colleges in this country", "my friend loves it" and the like. It was echoed by several lecturers who claimed that people knew the colleges mainly through word of mouth. A senior lecturer at AFE said that "'word of mouth' is very effective, but first of all, you've got to have quality before you can attract people to come". This interesting linkage shows that the previous clients have become what Gummeson calls "part-time marketers" (see Section 2.4.3.1). They have experienced good quality provision and are willing to "sell" particular colleges to their friends.

In terms of the employing organisations, more than half of the organisations interviewed had been using the services of particular colleges for more than ten years. This *long-term relationship* determined their choice. The general opinion was that they had "good rapport" with the staff members of the colleges, the colleges had certain "specialisms" that they needed, and the examination results were satisfactory. The trust between the

parties was built throughout the years. This is echoed in the notion of *exchange episodes* in the interaction process of industrial marketing (as discussed in Section 2.4.3.1). It is argued that the routinisation of these episodes over a period of time leads to clear expectations and responsibilities in both parties. One director of an organisation said that "the tradition dictated the choice...we've known each other for twenty years, we are part of their life". In the light of his statement it is noted that, once the relationship is established, provided that the interaction is satisfactory in the sense that the promises are fulfilled, the relationship will continue.

In fact, both the previous and the present clients can have an impact upon how *the publics* or *the general public* (see Kotler & Levy, 1988) view the colleges by means of word of mouth. According to Kotler & Levy, *the publics* are defined as "those who take a specific interest in the organisation" and *the general public* as "those who might develop attitudes toward the organisation that might affect its conduct in some way" (1988: 41). People from the publics or the general public may develop an attitude towards the colleges or may become clients of particular colleges in the future through word of mouth.

It seems from the findings that the three colleges have achieved sufficient quality to be able to elicit recommendations from their previous clients. However, a senior lecturer from CFE commented that "it's easy to be complacent when you've got some good things...some staff members think that getting students in is not a problem". This statement implies that some employees of colleges are still holding traditional views that there is no problem in recruiting students. Philip, a division head of BFE, put forward a view that "people like self-congratulations when we are good at something. They are confident because they are ignorant". Under the unstable environment where the competition among colleges is getting more serious, it is necessary for colleges to strive for improvement in order to survive. In terms of orienting to the demands of clients for a satisfactory long-term relationship, it is important for colleges to understand the whole process of interaction with their clients. During the process, the employees of colleges are playing the role of marketers to deliver the provision and caring for the clients.

Next, I will examine the interaction between employees and their clients within the three FE colleges.

7.3 INTERACTION BETWEEN EMPLOYEES AND CLIENTS

In discussing the interaction between the staff members of the colleges and their clients the two parties can be divided into two groups. The staff members can be classified into: teaching staff and other staff members. The clients can be divided into: students and employing organisations (Fig. 7.1). From the interaction of the various parties, it can be noted how each college is moving towards a marketing-oriented approach.

On the notion of the interaction between the teaching staff and the students, the attitude of teachers and the teaching approach will be discussed. Concerning the interaction between the teaching staff and the employing organisations, the nature of the interaction, the significance of the interaction, and the suggested ways in which the organisations may improve will be investigated. In terms of the interaction between other staff members and the clients, I will explore some cases and from them the problems can be identified. The relationships between the colleges and their clients were described by Bill, at BFE, as "an interactive process" because it was not a one-time purchase but each party was involved in a lengthy learning process whereby the expectations were identified and the promises were fulfilled. I would argue that the long-term relationship is dependent upon whether the *expectations* are consistent with the *promises* through the *experience*.

7.3.1 Teaching Staff and Students

In my interviews with the teaching staff members, when I asked them about the strengths and weaknesses of their own colleges, most of the interviewees claimed that one of their strengths was obtaining good quality of classroom teachers. The comments about the teaching staff included: "hard-working", "committed and caring", "professional", "experienced" and the like. Some staff members from the three colleges mentioned that their teaching styles had changed in recent years in meeting the needs of the change. For instance, a senior lecturer at AFE felt that

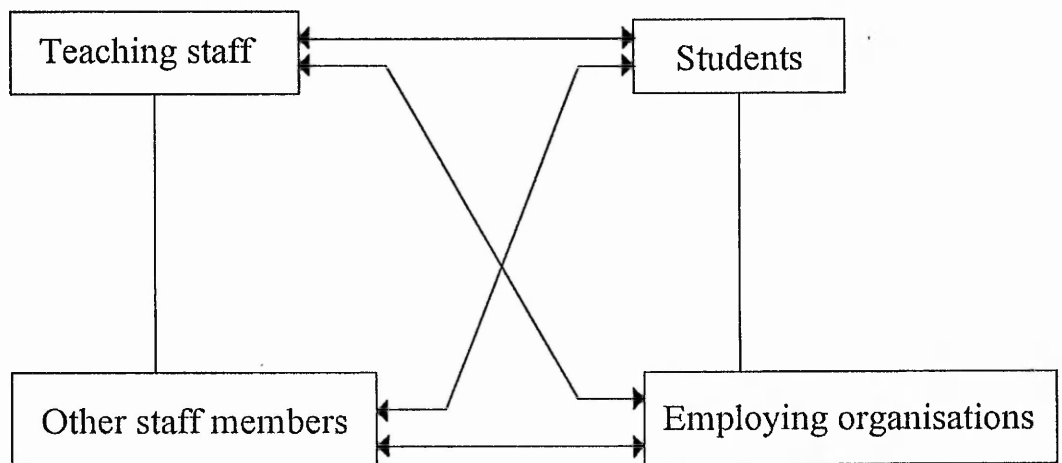


Fig. 7.1 Interaction between employees and clients

The relationships between staff members and students have changed. Teachers become more *flexible* and realize the importance of teaching.

In marketing terms, the lecturers are the *full-time marketers* who have continuous interaction with their clients during the learning process. Whether or not the students are satisfied with the provision depends on the *attitude and the teaching approach of the lecturers*. From the view point of some staff members, there had been improvement by adopting a flexible approach in orienting to the demands of students. Let us look at how their students perceive particular colleges' performance.

In terms of the *role of teachers*, this was considered by many students at AFE as being one of the most significant factors in the learning process. For example, two students said on different occasions that,

"A good teacher is important, the other things don't affect me."

"It really depends on tutors who motivate students, colleges usually have similar facilities".

In the light of their argument, the quality of teachers may differentiate a college's competitive position from others. A good teacher can not only provide students something important that they want in the learning process but also enhance the relationship between the two parties. In terms of teachers' *teaching attitudes* towards students, the comments among the students were diverse. The general comments were "depending on individual teachers". Quite a few students claimed that some tutors "actively involved them", but comments like "they [the lecturers] are still laid-back", or "they only use chalk and board" were commonly heard. It was echoed by the assistant principal of AFE who admitted that "in some parts of the college, we are flexible like the BTEC courses, but in other parts like A-Levels, we just rely on 'talk and talk', and there is *very little interaction between staff members and students*". Concerning teachers' caring attitude towards students, the feedback was also different. Generally, students interviewed conceived that if the problems of students were related to courses, tutors would help. However, about 30% of students voiced their discontent in seeking help

from teachers. For example,

"If you ask their help, they give you more homework"

"You've got to chase them round"

"Some tell you to see them, when you go there, they say they are too busy"

In terms of the *teaching approach*, about one-third of students interviewed said that teachers did not relate the courses enough to the outside world. The reasons were, they argued, that,

"They've never been in industry for a long time"

"Some of the staff have been there [at the college] for ever"

These negative comments showed that the students were dissatisfied with some lecturers who failed to keep up-dated about the outside world. This not only affects the quality of provision but also the trust of students toward the teachers' knowledge. A lecturer admitted that "in some areas, we've got good teachers, but in other areas you can still see the traditional way of teaching, people just read their notes...". It is noticed that the teaching approach is not consistent in adjusting to students' demands.

Compared with AFE, the picture at BFE was slightly different. Many students had noticed the changing *attitude* of the lecturers. Among those students who had studied there for more than a year, about 30% of students interviewed claimed that their lecturers were willing to listen to their suggestions. However, on the notion of inviting students' participation, the feedback was still diverse. Many students said that some "old-fashioned" lecturers still prefer to use only a traditional method without any discussions and they found it so boring. Concerning the caring attitude of teachers, the general comments were positive, eg. many students said that they were "approachable", "down to earth" and "not treating you like a kid". For those students who were discontented with insufficient help, their opinions were mainly on two aspects: teachers did not offer

help whole-heartedly, or they were difficult to find. In terms of the *teaching approach*, it was generally satisfactory. The findings showed that more than half of students interviewed said that the teaching was related to the outside world.

The *attitude of lecturers* was a big concern of some students at CFE. About 35% of students interviewed said that there was no genuine communication between students and staff members and that they expected to see improvement in this area. Whether students could participate in the learning process inside the classroom depends on individual subjects, some students said. They stated that some lecturers might involve students actively but others merely taught and taught without involving students. On the notion of receiving help from teachers, the feedback was varied. It varied from "they are helpful", "they come to class late and scold students in front of the class", to "they sometimes don't turn up, other teachers have to find someone to cover their teaching". Indeed, two management people said to me that they still had a few aging and traditional staff members who were a barrier to change. To those dissatisfied students, their experience showed that some lecturers did not fulfil their role of meeting the demands of their clients. Concerning the *teaching approach*, a large number of students said that the teaching was related to the world. Some gave the reason that many lecturers had worked in industry before and could thus apply the theory to practice.

By comparing teachers' attitudes and teaching approaches among the three cases, it is evident that all are moving at different paces towards a student-centred approach. The role of teachers is important in affecting the quality of delivery as well as the relationship between the college and the students. If the colleges attempt to move to a *marketing-oriented culture*, it is necessary for the teachers to take a caring attitude and an interactive teaching approach towards their students. Also, the colleges need to orient to the demands of another group of clients - their employing organisations.

7.3.2 Teaching Staff and Employing Organisations

Generally, the perception of the employing organisations (usually called "employers" by FE staff) towards the *attitude* of the teaching staff under the new culture was positive.

The comments included: "they are more proactive now" and "more willing to listen to our comments". Trust is built when a sincere attitude from the staff is seen and this is a crucial factor in enhancing the long-term relationship. In this section I will discuss the *nature of the interaction* from which the *significance* and *how to enhance the interaction* will be explored. The attempt is made to identify some themes from the problems.

7.3.2.1 The Nature of the Interaction

In terms of the *nature of the interaction* between the staff members of particular colleges and the employers, there are three main aspects: the employers being on the advisory committees of the colleges, the employees of the organisations studying at the colleges, or the students/staff members of the colleges being trained at the organisations.

At AFE, the nature of contact with the employers was considered by Joan, the assistant principal, as "uneven". The staff members had "their own ways of contact". Formally, they had advisory committees in each faculty involving a number of employers (which will be discussed in Section 7.5). The effectiveness was dependent upon the commitment of the committee members. A lecturer stated that the informal way was more useful in building up the relationship. They had organised a number of activities in order to invite participation from different organisations, eg, buffet breakfast or a dinner dance. Also, some literature about the college had been sent out to inform the employers about what courses were available. They had made visits to the organisations to gain up-dated information about developments in certain industries. However, according to a faculty head, some divisions were organising more regular visits than others.

In the same way as at AFE, the nature of contact at BFE was generally seen by both the staff members and their employers as "informal and regular", eg. regular telephone contact. Julian, a senior lecturer, said, "we want them [the employers] to be relaxed". This was echoed by an employer who stated that "trust and understanding can be built up through the informal contact". On the notion of the types of interaction, three main points emerged during my interviews with the staff members. Firstly, *visits* to the employers were common. In fact, a lecturer mentioned to me that part of their job

description was to go out to industry, meet and co-ordinate with industry. Staff visited the employers either to discuss what the employers wanted or see the students' progress at the organisations (it is called "work experience"). Secondly, some employers might *ring in* to ask the college to put on some courses. Then a liaison meeting would take place "closely" in developing new courses. Thirdly, some ad hoc *teams* might be set up with some employers in evaluating the existing training courses for further improvement.

These interactions have established some form of expectation and promise. The long-term relationship is dependent on whether or not the two parties continue to keep their promises. At BFE I came across one case which highlighted the significance of *expectations and promise*. A manager of a furniture company was annoyed when BFE had broken its promise. At the beginning he was promised by several teaching staff members that he would be sent the relevant literature and be invited to sit on an advisory committee. However, even after two years nothing had happened. He claimed that "they tend to have lots of promises, but rarely live up to the expectation". He said that if he could find another college which was doing the same course he would prefer to send his employees there. In the light of his argument we can see the effect of breaking promises and the impacts on long-term relationship. The relaxed attitude of some teaching staff members was always in this client's mind. Now, BFE could still enjoy their specialisms in certain courses which some employers needed to buy the services in the conurbation area. Nevertheless, if other colleges decided to develop the same specialisms, the experience of the employers during the interaction may determine whether the relationship will continue or whether they will switch to another college.

At CFE, Ben, the deputy head of the marketing faculty, described their relationship with the employers as "a heavy link". This was echoed by Vera, a faculty head, who stated that "we have organised a lot of training for employers. They come back again and again". A manager of an electronic company provided a reason for their continuing to use the services of CFE, which was "the low turnover rate of lecturers". It gave them a sense of security and stability.

There are both formal and informal contacts between the two parties. As at AFE and BFE, many staff members at CFE conceived that the informal way was more effective. The contact involved *frequent visits*. For instance, there was a team within the engineering faculty which went out to visit their employers half day every week in order to build up the linkage and information network. Also, there was *constant liaison* with the employers in developing and evaluating courses. There had been a number of successful examples given by the teaching staff members. Mike, the vice principal, told me about one instance: last year, the County Council intended to find some training for its middle management people. Mike went along with some other staff to discuss this with them. They had carried out detailed training needs analysis with the personnel people and tailor-made the certificate course. Mike described this example as "orienting to the customers' needs". His "success" was centred on the fact that he had a client-oriented attitude and he knew the significance of understanding the needs of his clients.

7.3.2.2 The Significance of the Interaction

In terms of the *significance of the relationship* between the college and its employers, the employers from the three colleges had similar views that the benefits were on both sides.

To the FE colleges, the interaction helps them to *understand the particular needs* of industry. In other words, the colleges can learn what is required in the work place. According to a director of an engineering company (from BFE), "if the college knows what we require, they can specify the training needs and provide good service". Also, the interaction can help the college to *understand societal needs* in general. Some employers still commented that FE colleges had a school image and took a traditional approach in some areas. The co-operation could assist the college to become "less purely educational". In addition, through constant interaction, the *third party* can benefit, ie. those students of the FE colleges who are also employees of organisations. According to some employers, these students could be looked after well by gaining help from both their tutors at college and their superiors at work. Furthermore, the colleges may *receive suitable help if necessary*. For instance, the training manager of a food company mentioned that "we can provide some employees for them as part-time lecturers"; a few

employers sold some equipment to the colleges at a cheap price.

To the employers, first of all, the interaction helps promote a *good image* of their organisations. Practically, they *know what is on offer* at the colleges. The manager of an insurance company stated that "I can know what kinds of facilities or courses are available...I don't need to shop around". It will facilitate further co-operation or interaction in the future.

7.3.2.3 Enhancing the Interaction

Since the relationship is significant not just for the present but also for future development, regular improvement of the relationship is needed. From the conversations with the employers from the three colleges there appear to be gaps for the colleges to fill in order to achieve what I would call an *excellent relationship*.

In order to enhance the relationship the employers interviewed from AFE said that there was a need for the college to strengthen its link with the employers. One suggested that the employees should pay more *visits* to the companies. Another argued that AFE still had a school image but it was recognised that they had some technological knowledge which some companies were "grateful to have access to". Thus, they should "go out to *identify the potential market*" and "play a consultancy role". Also, a director of a company perceived the problem of some lecturers being out of industry for a long time and their teaching materials and methods being very old-fashioned and out-dated. He recommended that there should be a *refresher system* (ie. one year in seven in industry) for lecturers so that their teaching approach could be more "realistic".

When we talked about how the relationship could be improved, the employers from BFE stated that the college needed to take a more enthusiastic approach to "going out". The suggestions included, first of all, more *visits*. A manager from a nursing association argued that "they always pay lip service. They should go out more and communicate...Educationalists should up-date themselves and be aware of what industry is doing". Second, more attention to the *identification of potential markets* was needed.

The principal of a comprehensive school told me that it was he who took the initiative to contact BFE inviting co-operation. He claimed that "there is a market, it's not been fully taken up". Also, a director of a building company recommended that more *part-time people could be employed from industry* so that the right sort of knowledge can be passed on. These examples have shown that the behaviours of the teaching staff are still not fully consistent with what the college calls a customer-centred approach.

Similar to the above views, the employers at CFE generally suggested that the staff members needed to *identify the needs of industry*. It was considered as a way to improve their services. Also, another view point was the need for the teaching staff to be involved *more in organisational life*. The suggestions included: some college staff could sit on the management committees of organisations if possible, or they could go out and train people in organisations.

In the light of the discussions what the employers hope to see is a closer linkage with the colleges for their mutual benefit. In order to orient to the demands of the employers, it is important for the colleges to be able to *understand before they can satisfy the demands*. Thus, it is crucial for the teaching staff members to have an enthusiastic attitude to literally "go out from the colleges to identify the market", to "visit", to "be trained", to "take some consultancy role" and the like. In addition more part-time lecturers might be recruited from industry so as to provide practical industrial knowledge and experience.

Trust can be built up between the college and the clients when the promises continue to be fulfilled. And the promises need to be *executed* not only by the teaching staff but also by other staff members.

7.3.3 Other Staff Members and Clients

"Who are the most influential people at the college?...Telephonist, receptionist, admissions counter, librarian, refectory workers, care takers and cleaners," said Trevor Davies, director of JPH-Marketplan in a conference.

It sounds funny on the surface. However, when we contemplate the actual meaning of the statement we can see the significance of it: these people mentioned by Davies have frequent contact with the clients of the college one way or another. Their services have become part of the provision package. The quality of their services can have some important impacts on how clients view the provision. Their way of treating clients can affect the image of the college as a whole. In this section I will use two examples to illustrate the significance of other staff members' services to the clients.

The manner of *answering telephone calls* often emerged during the interviews (ie. how it affects the clients' perception of the attitude of the colleges towards them). An employer from BFE was dissatisfied and stated that

The staff should answer the 'phone calls promptly..they are not organised. When the message was left, they would 'phone you back after several weeks.

This employer had an *expectation* that BFE would take care of the organisation quickly but found that they only contacted the employer after a lengthy time. If a college is seriously moving towards a customer-care approach it needs to establish an effective communication system so that clients' calls can be dealt with right away.

To CFE, the problem of no one answering the telephones related to the attitude of the switchboard people and the staff members in staff rooms. The staff members at the switchboard of the colleges are considered as front-line people who connect the outsiders to the staff in various faculties. The attitude of the people working at the switchboard (who were also receptionists) at CFE was described even by some of the staff members as "bad and annoying". A lecturer mentioned to me that one day her husband 'phoned her up because her son was ill, but there was nobody at the switchboard answering the phone. Then she went on to say, "if you ask them to leave a message for someone, they will say 'you can do so but the person may not get it'". Tom, a senior lecturer working for the marketing faculty, echoed her in saying that "I came here two years ago. I started complaining about their attitude but it didn't work. It's good to have someone from outside to complain about it". Indeed, in my conversations with some students, they

complained about the laid-back attitude of the receptionists. The statements like "they often pointed me to wrong places when I ask for directions" or "they just ignore you" were heard. In addition, the staff members in staff room had the "habit" of picking up the telephone only after five minutes. One day when I was interviewing a senior lecturer in a staff room, there were several other lecturers in the same room. The telephone rang which disturbed my conversation. I stopped for a second but the interviewee asked me to continue. It had been ringing for about three minutes, but no one went to answer the telephone. Then at last, after about five minutes, a staff member picked up the telephone slowly. I asked the interviewee whether this situation was normal. His response was "Oh! We do it all the time...No one likes to answer the 'phone because people don't think the call was for them". It was interesting to see the phenomenon that, on the one hand, the management talked a lot about "client-orientation", but, on the other hand, some staff members at the lower levels did not even want to answer the telephone.

Apart from the notion of answering the telephone, some other staff members did not have what might be seen as an appropriate attitude towards the clients. At CFE quite a few students complained about the attitude of the librarians which put them off. The complaints included "they are awful", "they never smile", "they just treat us like kids", "they always shout at us when we are discussing courseworks in a low voice" and the like. Thus, many students interviewed said that they did not often go to the library because of the librarians. FE colleges are identified by many students as having an "adult atmosphere". Under such a culture they wanted to be treated as adults. However, they were disappointed to know that some staff members still treated them like kids. In the light of the instances such as these it is noted that both the attitude and the behaviour of other staff members have affected the perceptions of clients over the image of the colleges.

The management of the three colleges have emphasized their commitment to "putting their clients first". Nevertheless, the findings showed that, in terms of the attitude and the behaviour of the staff members, there were some promises which were not fulfilled. The salaries of staff account for around 70% of the whole recurrent expenditure of a college and their performance will have an impact on whether or not a college's resources

are used in an optimal way. When the clients are not satisfied with provision they may pass on negative comments to others, and it may not only affect the long-term relationship between the colleges and the clients but also the formers' long-term survival. Thus, I would argue that if the colleges intend to be truly *marketing-oriented* they need to orient to the demands of their clients in every way and establish the long-term relationship as their essential objective (see Fig. 7.2). Continuous in-service training and feedback to staff members is needed so that appropriate attitudes and behaviours towards clients can be established.

Apart from the human interaction there are some tangible aspects which can affect the overall performance of a college. Next, I will investigate the interaction between the tangible aspects and the clients as one component of a *client orientation*. The notion of "tangible aspect" represents the *course provision* and the *environment*.

7.4 INTERACTION BETWEEN TANGIBLE ASPECTS AND CLIENTS

"We've got a lot more competitors now...We need to look at not just the course contents itself, but also the accommodation, the facilities and the like, which go with courses", said Mike, the vice principal of CFE.

In the light of his argument it is understood that, due to the unstable and "hostile" environment, FE colleges need to be aware of environmental changes and to provide a more competitive package in order to compete with more groups of people for survival. On the notion of competitive package, I mean not only course provision, but also the study environment and the facilities which are the *tangible aspects* to which colleges need to pay attention.

In recent years there has been a reduction in funding from LEAs to FE colleges. Thus, the development of new courses, the purchase of extra equipment, and the refurbishment of the buildings are by no means easy. Under resource limitation long-term survival is dependent on the free-will of the management to choose what the priority is to improve the colleges so that the colleges can gain a competitive edge. Of the three colleges in which I conducted my research there were staff members in each who claimed that they

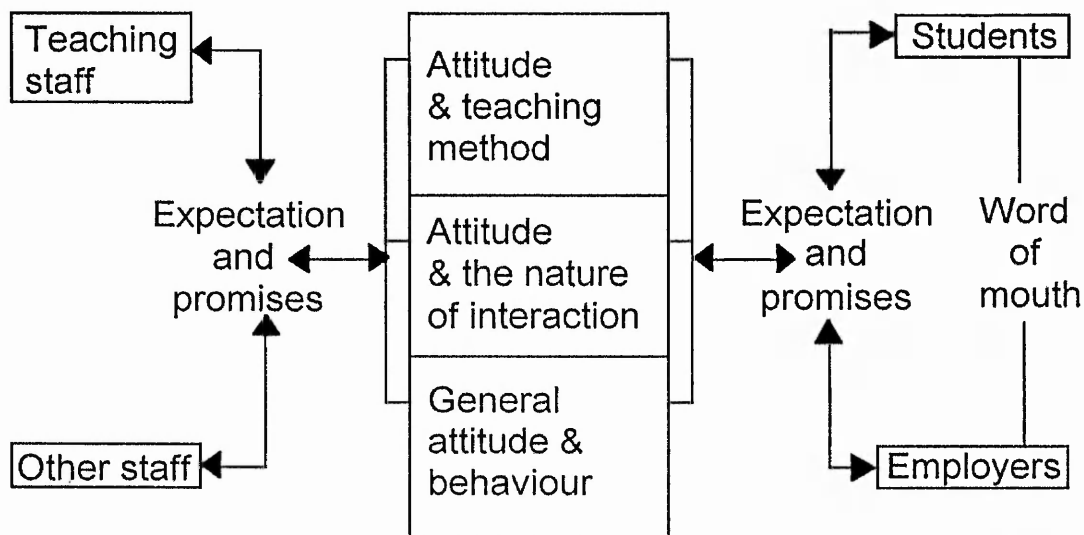


Fig. 7.2 Expectation and promises during the interaction between the employees and the clients

had better resources than other local colleges. These claims were based on a large student intake and on financial soundness. I will use two aspects - *course provision and the environment* - to explore how colleges allocate their resources in developing a competitive edge and how their clients perceive their tangible aspects.

7.4.1 Course Provision and Clients

In terms of course provision, traditionally every college has its own specialisms which are not offered by other colleges in the county area. However, the overlapping in certain courses among colleges has been getting bigger recently (eg. business courses) because they involve lower overhead cost and are more popular in the market. Also, in meeting the needs of the adult market, they have widened course provision instead of merely emphasizing their traditional 16-19 year-old client group. Thus, there have been a number of courses developed by many colleges at the same time aimed at similar markets.

Many staff members at AFE felt that their college was competitive because they had specialisms and the courses were vocationally-oriented. A faculty head said that "we adapt to what people want and offer a wide variety of courses". This was echoed by some employers who generally agreed that AFE was "business-oriented and realistic".

The notion of a *realistic approach* is in contrast to an *educational approach* which means traditional and the emphasis on theory instead of practice. Indeed, what the employers want from FE colleges is for the colleges to train people who are required by industry. That is why the employers often emphasized the need for a realistic approach. To the students, their expectations of their courses are diverse. In general, the students interviewed gave positive comments on the courses. In terms of the content, it was considered to be rich and covering a wide variety of aspects. Learning skills were taught and initiative as well as self-motivation were encouraged in the design of courses. A mature student told me that stress management was taught for a group of women returners as a supplementary provision.

There were specialisms in two main areas at BFE. As at AFE, a majority of the staff members at BFE interviewed claimed that they offered "good quality of provision". The principal said, "If clients want quality and proper price, they still want our college, that's my impression". Nevertheless, there were some courses which were "less successful". A division head explained that it was mainly because "we are not marketing enough". Here, the word *marketing* is used in a casual way. What he meant is the inadequacy of promotion instead of a holistic view of marketing. Since BFE concentrated more on certain areas, the assistant principal stated that the drawback was a lack of wide choices for clients. That is why another division head stressed that in order to meet market needs they needed to have an attitude that "if the students want to do a certain course, that course must be provided".

On the employers' side, in general, they mentioned that BFE was acting in line with their needs. A director of a firm laid down a principle for purchasing the services of colleges. He said,

If courses at colleges are relevant to our needs and they can do better than what our own trainers can do, we'll buy their services.

Nowadays, colleges need to compete not just with other colleges and private providers, but also with the trainers working for the employers. Providing good quality must be more than a matter of "lip service". It must be an essential element of provision. Concerning the students' comments over the provision, most of them were satisfied with their courses in terms of the content and design.

When we look at CFE, they also offered some specialisms and what they claimed were "good" courses. Some staff members described CFE as having a reputation for being a "quality trainer" in the conurbation. A faculty head argued that "the employers keep on coming over the years, it tells us that we provide what they want". Apart from providing what the clients' need, CFE offered a wide range of provision. Several employees told me that the diversity of courses was one of the main strengths of CFE. However, Vera, another faculty head, put forward a view that "since we are already competitive, people [the staff members of CFE] can't see the need to do more than we are doing". Her point

was in line with Sue's (a senior lecturer) comment who pointed out the complacency of the staff members. This relaxed attitude can affect a college in adopting an enthusiastic approach to identify more potential markets and moving to become truly marketing-oriented. Obviously, there is a need to develop and modify services continuously because of continual environmental change.

To the employers CFE was perceived to be more business-oriented and catering for their needs in recent years. A manager of an accounting firm held the view that "Courses are organised more flexibly...the short courses are not tied in with the academic cycle". Also, a large number of students described their courses as "good". The comments included: "there is a good range of courses", "the level of achievement is high", "it encourages self-motivation" and the like.

Comparing the course provision of the three colleges, it is noted that they all have their specialisms and a number of "good courses". These are a crucial means to attract their clients to stay in. However, since the competition is getting more serious, as Mike argued, some supporting elements are needed in order to differentiate their own colleges from the others. This is the environment of the three colleges to which we now turn.

7.4.2 Environment and Clients

By the term the environment here, I mean the studying environment, the accommodation and the facilities. They are what I call *supporting elements* which not only help in projecting an image about a college to its clients but can also facilitate the learning process of students.

In terms of location, the three colleges were said by their clients generally to be "accessible" or "fine". And a majority of them described the study culture as "adult-like" and "informal". When we examine closely the three colleges we can identify their different priorities in allocating their resources in developing their own *environment*.

In order to upgrade the image to become more client-oriented, AFE has improved the accommodation and increased some facilities. In 1990, a student centre was established in order to provide welfare support. Also, several classrooms were carpeted for mature students. The reception hall was recently decorated to project a pleasant image. In addition, in order to emphasize its equal opportunity policy, different languages from different countries could be seen on the signboards. Physical access had been improved for the disabled with an increase in the use of wheelchairs and in the provision of the ramps in some areas. Facing a variety of demands from different client groups, prioritising the budget was by no means an easy task. Some complaints could still be heard.

From both the staff members of the college and the clients I heard some negative comments about the look of the buildings, like "there are a lot of cracks on the walls", "like a shell", "looks depressing" and so on. Some mature students still complained about the noisy studying environment due to their classrooms being adjacent to those of youngsters and about the facilities being "too basic". A woman returner said that "I don't think there are facilities for us". Another commented that "students come here to learn, the college needs to spend money on equipment and material, not on a gymnasium or swimming pool". On the other hand, a lot of youngsters complained about the inadequacy of recreational facilities.

BFE had also adopted a client-oriented slogan. Recently, a board was placed by the reception on which the word "welcome" was written in different languages. The manager of a division stated that the purpose of this board was to show a "respect to students who were from different countries". However, on the notion of *environmental* provision, of all the staff members interviewed, only one faculty head (who had newly joined BFE at the time of interview) said that BFE had "good facilities". Even the principal stated that "our weakness is that we've got very poor student facilities". He was supported by a senior lecturer who held that "our physical resources are not sufficient for the potential growth..if you want to develop a new course, it can't go ahead simply because there is no room for that course in the college".

The client groups of BFE put forward opinions which emphasized different aspects of the environment. Some mature students complained about the "crowded and noisy environment" and the "cold and damp classrooms". One disabled student was annoyed by "too many stairs" and "lack of disabled toilets". A number of youngsters criticized the gloomy outlook and the lack of recreational facilities. The findings showed that the environment of BFE was felt to be worse than that at AFE. This is a significant problem for BFE to deal with in order to increase the competitiveness of provision.

As at AFE and BFE, CFE intended to win the adult market. "Customer-care" or "student-centred" were often mentioned among the management. Given the prospect of more adults studying there, some classrooms were covered with carpets, and a multi-study centre was established with staff support so that students, especially the mature ones, could learn in a flexible way. A faculty head argued that "we want to make the place more receptive and comfortable...we want to give them a five-star hotel treatment". However, this "five-star hotel" did not provide consistent service to all groups of clients because a majority of classrooms still looked like what Ben (the deputy head of the marketing faculty) called 1950's style. The refectory and the library were the focus of criticism to many clients.

A student remarked, "only the classrooms are o.k., not canteen or library...". The comments about the refectory included "disgusting", "not hygienic" and "terrible". Concerning the library, apart from the "rude attitude" of the librarians, the space was "small" and the selection of books was "narrow". Thus, many students often mentioned going to the nearby supermarket or going to town after the class. In addition, the arrangement of the buildings was like a "maze". During my first day of research in this college I got lost due to the lack of proper signboards and the inappropriate location of the reception.

Limited resources had restricted the development of the colleges with regard to their tangible aspects. In order to remain competitive it is important for the management to have a client-oriented attitude in allocating the resources in an effective way and the staff members to have a client-oriented attitude in delivering quality so that the mixed groups

of clients are satisfied with the provision (see Fig. 7.3). In fact, many colleges have started an attempt to increase their monetary resources to fund the development of their facilities. For instance, money was raised for the installation of a lift for the disabled at AFE. In order to maximize the usage of resources constant communication is needed between the college and the clients so that relevant information can be collected about their opinions and demands. In this way, resources may be arranged in a more effective way in orienting to the demands of the clients.

Next, I will explore the interaction between the intangible aspects of the colleges and the clients from which the problem of communication is investigated.

7.5 INTERACTION BETWEEN INTANGIBLE ASPECTS AND CLIENTS

"We have shifted the resources from full-time to short courses, looking at retraining, women back to work, looking at different parts of population...thus the system should be more *flexible*", said a senior lecturer at CFE.

In response to a wider client base, the system of the colleges has changed from a regular to a flexible one. For instance, the academic cycle has become less rigid by developing more short courses during the summer time; some staff members have started to work during the weekend and so on. The assistant principal of BFE held a view that "we are moving from a "take it or leave it" attitude to providing *service*, ie, offering courses for individual needs". This is the present principle of the dominant culture, ie, client-centred. In this way, the colleges need to have two-way communication in order to know clients' demands. On the notion of the *intangible aspect*, two aspects will be examined - *input system* and *output system* - to illustrate the information exchange between the college and its clients (see Fig. 7.4).

The phrase *input system* means a system by which the information is gathered about the clients' levels of achievement and their opinions about the college, whilst the *output system* represents a system by which the relevant information is channelled to the clients.

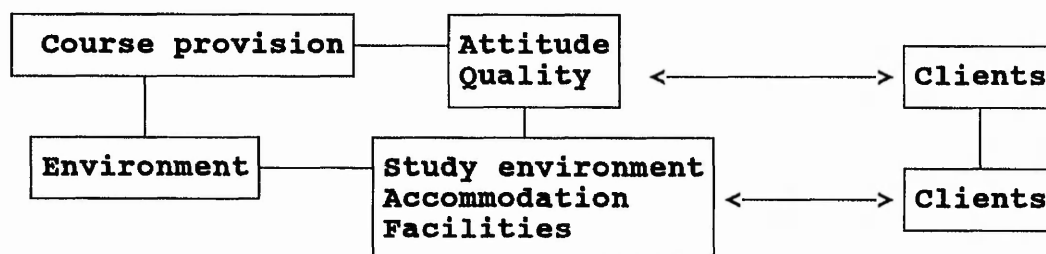


Fig. 7.3 The interaction between the tangible aspects and the clients

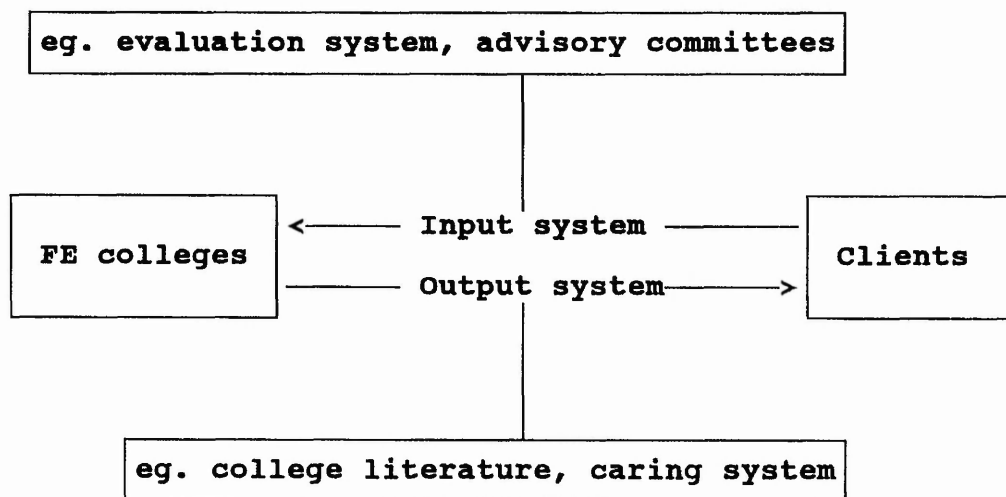


Fig. 7.4 Input and output systems

The notion of the *output system* was espoused by Bell & Emory (1971) who stated that an organisation could show its "consumer concern" by supplying more and better services information to the buyer.

The traditional communication system at AFE was departmentalised without a consistent and coherent policy. According to Joan (the assistant principal), "we allowed different teams working in different ways". In terms of the *input system* from students, there was no formal evaluation system, it was dependent upon the initiative of the tutors. The evaluation of students' progress used to be done once a term. In 1990, the college attempted to use a course review questionnaire designed by the Further Education Unit to evaluate the students' perceptions of their courses. In the same year a programme (called the *Record of Achievement*) was introduced on which the profile of students was identified and they were monitored by their tutors continuously. Since these systems were still new at the time of interview the response of the staff members was diverse. Some lecturers claimed that they were not aware of it, while the others said that they had a formal evaluation system. On the students' side, half of those interviewed said that they had not been asked for their opinion about the college. For those who had been asked, they had not received any feedback about the results. For instance, a student stated,

They sent out a questionnaire to ask about banning smoking. In the end, *they did what they wanted*. When we come back from holidays, the signs of non-smoking were everywhere...they *should* inform us of the result.

The questionnaire to this student was felt to be a kind of cosmetic which purported to show that the college was client-oriented. However, they did "what they wanted". These findings showed the inadequacy of the input system at AFE.

The *input system* of AFE was more effective when the interaction with the employers was taking place. It has been explained that their communication took place in both formal and informal ways. In a formal sense, there was a system of *advisory committees* where the employers can advise and also receive information. There were three levels of

advisory committees and they were usually composed of teaching and non-teaching staff, employers, student representatives and governors, the combination of people depending on the levels. The first level was called the course committees or steering groups (established in 1990) which discussed the actual nature of the courses; the second level was the faculty committees which discussed what the principal called "more strategic jobs", eg. courses development, the expansion of new markets and the like; the third level (or the highest level) was the governors' committee which all governors attended and the focus was reporting the progress of the college. In general, the advisory committees at the higher levels were commented on by many management people as being ineffective. A senior lecturer depicted the governors' committee as an "institutional evil" and claimed that "the employers don't know what they want". Since the course committees were described by an employer as "action-oriented" the college often received some good advice. I attended a course committee meeting in which some fruitful effect was seen through the co-operation. For example, a training officer from a big computer company offered a training workshop to the senior management team, and the personnel manager of a big supermarket sold some equipment to a faculty at a cheap price. That is why the development of the steering groups was highly promoted within each course team by the management.

In terms of the *output system*, almost half of the students interviewed (16 in total) said that they had not received sufficient information. For instance, a full-timer stated, "I don't know what to do next after this course"; a part-timer complained, "there is no clue where you go to make a complaint". On the side of the employers, they did receive relevant information regularly. However, they still suggested that AFE should communicate "more" to the constituencies about what courses were offered, eg, via publicity and open days.

In terms of the input system of BFE, it was less advanced than those at AFE. At the time of interview, according to Bill, the marketing manager, they were in the process of establishing a formal evaluation system about students' performance and their perception of the college. The present evaluation system was "informal" and "not systematic". Most of students interviewed said that they had not been asked for their opinions about

the college. A full-time male student felt that "the principal should give a priority to what our customer needs...". In identifying himself as the "customer" of the college, he expected a "satisfactory service" provided by BFE. On the notion of the advisory committees, they had only obtained the Division (the same level as faculty at AFE) committees and the governors' committee. The steering groups were on the way to being set up. The significance of these committees lies in the fact that they are a symbol of a bridge between employers and FE colleges. However, their effectiveness was doubtful among many interviewees. A majority of the staff members interviewed criticized their ineffectiveness because their nature was merely reporting work progress and some employers did not know what they wanted.

BFE had also received a lot of criticism on its *output system*. Students usually receive a prospectus. However, some argued that it was not enough. What they wished to have was more advice about what was the best course for them. A few day-release students commented that the information they received was not sufficient. For example, since they were not provided with copies of a map, they merely "knew the rooms for attending the class, but not the rest of the college". For those employers interviewed, they seldom received the literature from BFE. An employer suggested that "marketing is important to FE colleges...BFE doesn't do a lot to promote themselves". The recommendation included sending out the relevant literature on courses regularly, organising more open days and the like.

Compared to BFE the *input system* of CFE was more sophisticated. They had standardised course evaluation questionnaires for every full-time student. However, for the part-timers, Mike, the vice principal, argued that "it was still very patchy". Concerning the advisory committees, as at BFE, they only dealt with the top two levels. Their effectiveness was dependent on the individual members. For instance, the original advisory committee for the engineering faculty was too large to communicate. The faculty head divided it into three smaller committees on a subject basis. Then it became more effective.

Concerning the *output system*, almost half of the students interviewed said that they did not receive sufficient information. The criticism included "they don't tell you which course is better", "no one told me what to do, there was no direction" and so on. A manager of a company said that "a big problem is that CFE is too big...it's difficult to know what's happening". Some employers were eager to see CFE have an energetic approach to market itself. The suggestions consisted of "publicizing the services better", "identifying the needs of industry", "having more exhibitions" and the like.

In the light of the findings, it is noted that both the *input and the output systems* need to be organised in a flexible and systematic way so as to communicate with their clients, from which the trust can be built (see Fig 7.5).

7.6 THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CLIENT ORIENTATION

When we talk about orienting to the demands of clients, the findings are from the present clients of the three colleges. In fact, apart from meeting the demands of the present clients in terms of the three aspects of interaction, it is important for the colleges to identify potential clients due to "latent demand" (from the Vice Principal of BFE). This is what some employers called "identifying the market".

On the one hand, the client base of FE colleges is becoming wider, and, on the other hand, their real resources are declining. It is the role of management to identify *the boundary of the market*, which is consistent with the available resources, including finance, experience and knowledge, and develop appropriate strategies to reach particular markets. It is also the role of the staff members who have constant interaction with particular clients to recognise the change and identify the new market. From the three colleges we can see some examples: BFE put more emphasis upon the local market whilst AFE and CFE had started their overseas marketing at different paces. The overseas students went to AFE to study mainly on the basis of word of mouth, but CFE adopted a more vigorous attitude by sending some staff members abroad every year promoting the college and recruiting students. Nevertheless, the principal of BFE mentioned to me

Intangible aspects

Clients

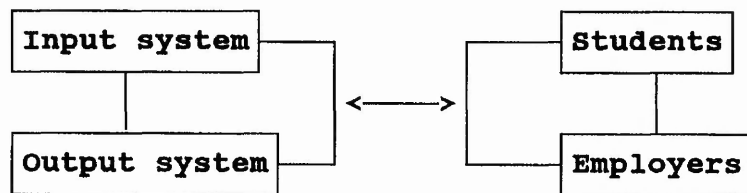


Fig. 7.5 The interaction between the intangible aspects and the clients

that in five years' time he would "reposition" the college by expanding the market to include Central and Eastern Europe.

In the light of the discussion, the appropriate attitude of the staff members towards their clients is crucial. Their *client orientation* will affect how they interact with the clients. A faculty head at AFE said that

To work in FE nowadays you've got to be very *sensitive* to what people need. If you don't have the right attitude, the right atmosphere and the right ability to give what they want, you will *fail*.

It is the "sensitive attitude" that affects the performance of the colleges during the process of interaction. Also, the need for a vigorous attitude of "going out" is significant. According to Deborah, a Division head at BFE,

We should go out to the community and know what the clients want. Now the competition is more serious, any college can put on any courses.

In the light of their comments the staff members at whatever levels need to be *sensitive* to market needs and to *go out* in order to understand the demands of the present clients and of the potential markets. Only this attitude and behaviour can fulfil the *expectations* of the clients and the *promises* established during the interaction process. This is what the clients *expect* in the competitive environment. In Section 1.2.2, we discussed the notion of professional pride in which the "professionals" believe that they have the responsibility and the ability to judge the needs of clients without the need to understanding their demands. I would argue that it is not justifiable since it may neglect the changing demands of clients and the power of their free-will choices in a society which has become more complicated.

In applying the *client orientation* to the *traditional-sales-marketing oriented* framework it can be seen that the traditional oriented approach is gradually being replaced by what colleges call "customer-centred" or "marketing-oriented" approaches because the traditional orientation does not fit with the demands of the environment. However, I

would argue that the three colleges are still adopting a *quasi-marketing-oriented approach* in the sense that the development in orienting to the demands of their clients is patchy and non-systematic. A marketing-oriented college is one in which the staff members have an client-centred attitude and are able to prioritize resources in meeting the demands of both potential and the present clients.

In terms of the interaction between the employees and their clients, a traditional college is reliant on its individual departments. The attitude of the employees is often too relaxed. The teaching method is routine with chalk and board. There is limited interaction between the two parties. Thus, if an FE college desires to move towards a marketing-oriented direction, it needs to have employees whose attitudes are enthusiastic with regard to identifying the demands of present and potential clients. The teaching methods need to be vigorous and flexible involving students. The interaction is continuous in caring for the needs of the clients.

In terms of the interaction between the tangible aspects and the clients, in a traditional college both the course provision and the studying environment cannot fit in with the societal change. The specialisms are always emphasized and the provision is more "educational". The studying environment relates to the school image. Nevertheless, in a marketing-oriented college, there is a good balance between an educational and a training-oriented approach. The environment is both pleasant and business-oriented.

On the notion of the interaction between the intangible aspects and the clients, in a traditional college both the input and the output systems are dependent on the commitment of individual departments. The communication is not systematic and effective. In a marketing-oriented college both the input and the output systems are established in a sophisticated way such that good quality of information can be exchanged constantly for mutual benefit (see **Table 7.1**).

It is by no means easy for colleges to reach the ideal stage of the marketing oriented model. However, it is necessary for staff members to have a marketing-oriented attitude to begin with and move in the right direction. It is only when all the staff members, not

just the management, are willing to commit themselves to the direction that the client oriented approach can be achieved.

Interaction	Traditional orientation	Quasi-marketing-orientation	Marketing-orientation
Between employees and clients	depends on individual departments; routine ways of teaching with chalk and board; limited interaction	depends on individual employees; improved flexibility; some still use chalk and board; limited caring	identifying the demands of the present and the potential clients; high flexibility; vigorous way of teaching; caring of clients' demands
Between tangible aspects and clients	depends on individual departments; specialism and "educational approach" is emphasised; environment is in school image	specialism is still emphasised; more new courses for new markets; courses are less educational and more training oriented; environment becomes more "business oriented"	good balance between educational and training needs; continuously identifying new courses and improving the existing ones within resource limitations; environment is pleasant and "business oriented"
Between intangible aspects and clients	development of input and output systems is dependent on individual departments; not systematic and effective	both the input and output systems are improving and developing	both the input and output systems are sophisticated for exchanging good quality of information

Table 7.1 The client orientation and traditional-quasi-marketing-marketing orientations

7.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the notion of a *client orientation* and the underlying problems at the three colleges. The client orientation is the last behavioural component of my conceptual framework of a *marketing orientation*. Within the framework of the client orientation four aspects of interaction have been identified. They are: the interaction among clients, the interaction between the employees of colleges and the clients, the interaction between the tangible aspects and the clients, the interaction between the intangible aspects and the clients, through which the role of expectations and promises was explored. In the light of the findings and discussions some significant themes are drawn out and a generic model of a client orientation is developed.

In terms of the interaction among clients themselves, "word of mouth" is commonly used as a way to recommend colleges. In this way, the quality of the overall performance is significant in affecting whether or not a college has fulfilled its *promise* of what the clients *expect* during their *experience* in the college. On the notion of the overall performance, I have divided it into three points: the performance of the staff members, the tangible aspects, and the intangible aspects.

Concerning the interaction between the employees of colleges and their clients, I have identified the employees as the teaching staff and the other staff members, and the clients as the students and the employers. During the interaction between the teaching staff and the students, the attitude and the teaching approach have been emphasized. In terms of the contact between the teaching staff and the employers, the nature of the interaction has been discussed, from which I have explored its significance and how the interaction can be enhanced. From the interaction between the other staff members and the clients I have highlighted the importance of the attitude and the behaviour on the impact it has upon the clients' perception of the colleges.

The notion of course provision and the environment has been explored where the interaction between the tangible aspects and the clients was examined. Generally, every

college has its own specialisms and can offer some good courses. However, in a competitive environment, the supportive elements need to be considered in order to win a competitive edge. The *supportive elements* represent the studying environment, the accommodation and other facilities. The three colleges had received some criticism from their clients about the environment. It has raised an issue over how each college should prioritize its resources to improve its environment in order to meet the demands of a variety of client groups.

Regarding the interaction between the intangible aspects and the clients, *the input and output systems* are investigated to see the information exchange between the two parties. The effectiveness is dependent on the attitude of the staff members and whether or not they intend to understand the needs of the clients.

In order to orient to the demands of clients I have argued that, first of all, we need to identify who the clients are. Apart from the present clients, every college has its own potential clients. Colleges need to reach particular markets and cater for their needs according to their own sense making and the resources' capability. But every staff member needs to have a client-oriented attitude. In terms of catering for their needs, a generic model of a *client orientation* has been developed. It has highlighted the difference of a *client orientation* among *traditional*, *quasi-marketing* and a *marketing-oriented* colleges. It is argued that if a college intends to move towards *marketing-oriented client orientation*, it needs to identify which stage it is in, and adopt a client-oriented attitude to strive for the ideal stage.

Indeed, the ultimate aim of adopting a marketing-oriented approach is for the long-term survival requirement. This notion has been highlighted throughout all chapters. In the next chapter I will examine this notion and the development of a change strategy in order to achieve a marketing-oriented approach.

CHAPTER 8: CHANGE STRATEGY FOR ADOPTING MARKETING ORIENTATION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

"We must have an ability to *change*. Because if you don't do it, you'll go under", said a senior lecturer at BFE.

This "change or go under" pressure is the theme of this chapter. Having discussed the three behavioural components of marketing orientation in previous chapters, identified problems and established some models, we now turn to investigate how colleges can develop a change strategy for developing a marketing orientation in order to enhance their effectiveness and long-term survival. It will be argued that this change strategy can act as a guideline and reference for other professional fields in developing a marketing orientation.

In this chapter I will, first of all, discuss the notion of the *long-term survival requirement* which is the justification for the implementation of a marketing orientation. This is followed by the presentation of a generic model of a marketing orientation, an ideal stage for colleges to move towards. Lastly, the change strategy for a marketing orientation will be examined, this being a continuous process of applying the behavioural framework of marketing orientation developed here.

8.2 THE LONG-TERM SURVIVAL REQUIREMENT

In Section 2.5.4 I put forward the view that a *long-term survival requirement* is the justification for developing a marketing orientation. This is associated with the notion of organisational effectiveness. The concept of effectiveness is often confused with that of efficiency. The concept of efficiency is to do with the question of how a minimum level of input can produce a maximum level of output. Concerning the issue of effectiveness Lowe and Soo associate it with "goal achievement" and more important the

"value [social and individual] of these outputs" (1980: 64). When we talk about goal achievement, how do we know that the official goals of an organisation are the goals of everybody? For example, the goals developed by the management of FE colleges may be to increase their profitability every year or to achieve better students' examination results. However these goals may not be shared among the other staff members. Thus the notion of value needs to be taken into consideration in relation to the issue of effectiveness. The effectiveness of an organisation can be evaluated at certain points of time. The continuing improvement of effectiveness can thus lead an organisation to survive in the long-term.

In my conversations with the actors in the FE field over their perceptions of effectiveness the need for long-term survival emerged as being significant. I would attempt to classify their viewpoints into three aspects: the notion of profit direction, satisfying the demands of employees and satisfying the demands of clients.

First, under the new enterprise culture income generation has become a popular topic. Senior lecturers and management are especially concerned with increasing the level of income. Since financial resources have become tighter due to formula funding, and the competition has been getting more serious, organisational effectiveness increasingly means "bringing in money" or "developing courses at the lowest cost" to a few people. There has been an increase in the diversity of interaction between colleges and their environment, eg. the development of a variety of full-cost courses for women returners and different mature student groups. When they associated the notion of effectiveness with profit generation, a considerable number of interviewees did not agree with the idea. It was considered to be the dominant value in the new culture espoused by the management who were influenced by the external environment. This argument leads us to relate the issue to the systems resource model. According to Seashore and Yuchtman (1967), the effectiveness of an organisation is determined by its ability to exploit its environment for scarce and valued resources. This model shows us an open systems perspective in which an organisation cannot merely emphasize the internal demands but must recognise the continuing interaction with its external environment for scarce resources in order to survive. However if an organisation only focuses on the external

relationship and neglects the internal aspects it will then create internal problems among the employees. Thus a number of interviewees have stressed the significance of employee satisfaction in relation to effectiveness.

Second, there were a lot of people who held the view that in order to have an effective organisation it needed to satisfy *the needs of employees* before satisfying the clients. This is related to the individual values within the organisations. The recommendations included:

"providing them a happy and staff-supportive environment"

"not exploiting but rewarding them so that they feel valuable to do the job"

"tell them a clear direction through an efficient communication system"

"giving them appropriate training"


These statements imply that in order to be effective an organisation needs the co-operation of employees; and in order to gain their co-operation and support it needs to be meeting their needs. This has been recognised in the employee orientation element of my framework.

Third, a majority of staff members, whether supporters of the traditional wave or the enterprise wave, stated that an effective organisation needed to be able to satisfy *the needs of its clients*. It comprised the provision of quality courses, support systems, good environment and the like. A traditional lecturer contended that

I'm not interested in making money, that's somebody else's work. I'm interested in running a good course for the students' needs.

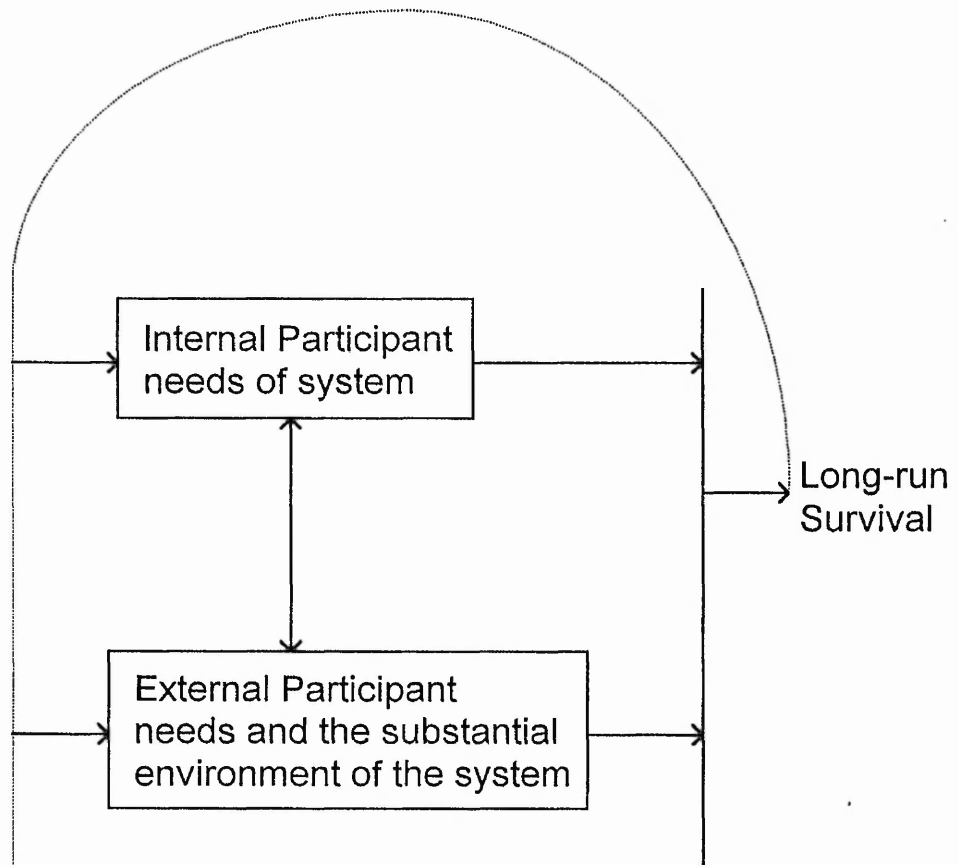
His view was that client orientation must be a priority over profit direction. The crucial question I attempt to raise is why the staff members of colleges wanted to satisfy the needs of clients. Mary, a senior lecturer, stated that

In order to be an effective college we need to make sure that every individual [staff member] offers what we can [within the resource limitations] and offers what the clients want...they can have good results and get good jobs...the most important point is that it can ensure the *survival* of the college.

In her opinion, clients are important coalition groups and satisfying their needs is seen as a significant factor contributing to the survival of the college. In fact when we look at the second and the third viewpoints they are related to a approach which we call "need-satisfaction"(cf. Cummings, 1977; Keeley, 1978; Lowe & McInnes, 1971; Lowe & Soo, 1980). The assumption of this approach is that an organisation is set up within society by a particular sector of that society for the satisfaction of certain human needs. An organisation is not merely an artifact that exists to pursue its own ends. Its existence is to satisfy the needs of both the internal and external interest groups. Following the argument of this approach, the continuing survival of an organisation is determined by its ability in managing the relationship between the internal participant needs and those of the external interest groups (see  Fig. 8.1).

In the piece of research satisfying employees' needs and clients' needs are seen as necessary and sufficient in enabling the long-term viability of an organisation. At this period of time anxiety and resentment appeared among many employees (which was discussed in Chapter 5). It is understood that their dissatisfaction may affect their performance and interaction with clients. Organisational co-ordination in terms of systems, structure and culture may facilitate the requirement of employees and clients. In my framework of marketing orientation, client orientation, employee orientation and organisational co-ordination are equally important in affecting the effectiveness of an organisation. Thus, in Section 2.5.4 I have inferred that the adoption of marketing orientation helps an organisation to enhance its effectiveness, and in turn, survive in the long-term.

If we believe that by implementing marketing orientation an organisation can survive in the long-term, a change strategy needs to be developed in moving towards the fourth



Source : Lowe,E.A. & Soo,W.F. 'Organisational Effectiveness - A Critique and Proposal',
Management Finance, Vol.6, No.1, pp70, 1980.

Fig. 8.1 Determinants of the long-run survival of a system

wave. Before examining the notion of change strategy I will first of all establish the generic model of a marketing orientation which serves as an *ideal model* for colleges to move towards a marketing orientation stage.

8.3 THE FOURTH WAVE : MARKETING ORIENTATION

We have discussed, in Chapter 2, the "production-sales-marketing" eras developed by Robert Keith. This framework, derived from a case study of a manufacturing company, illustrates the emergence of marketing. The model is an ideal type in the sense that in each era the company adopts a particular orientation. Although his model has received some criticism, it has provided us with some insights about the development of marketing as well as the philosophy in each era. Influenced by his model, I have developed a framework of *four waves*, ie. *traditional-sales-quasi marketing-marketing orientation* (see Fig. 8.2) from my own research. Also, three behavioural components are identified in each wave which show different approaches and the philosophy behind each orientation (which were examined in the previous 4 chapters - see Table 8.1).

Where Keith's studies look at manufacturers, my research is based on case studies of FE colleges, a professional field, in which the management have attempted to seek ways of moving towards a marketing-oriented stage but have faced a lot of problems. In an unstable environment, and under constant pressures from different constituencies, the management of the colleges decided to move away from a *traditional wave* towards a *marketing-oriented wave*. Thus, we can see the emergence of tensions between the traditional wave and the enterprise wave. However, within the enterprise wave, when we look closely at the context of change, it is evident from the findings that different colleges have adopted different orientations in relation to different aspects of the three *behaviourial components*. They were mainly either *sales-oriented* or *quasi-marketing oriented*.

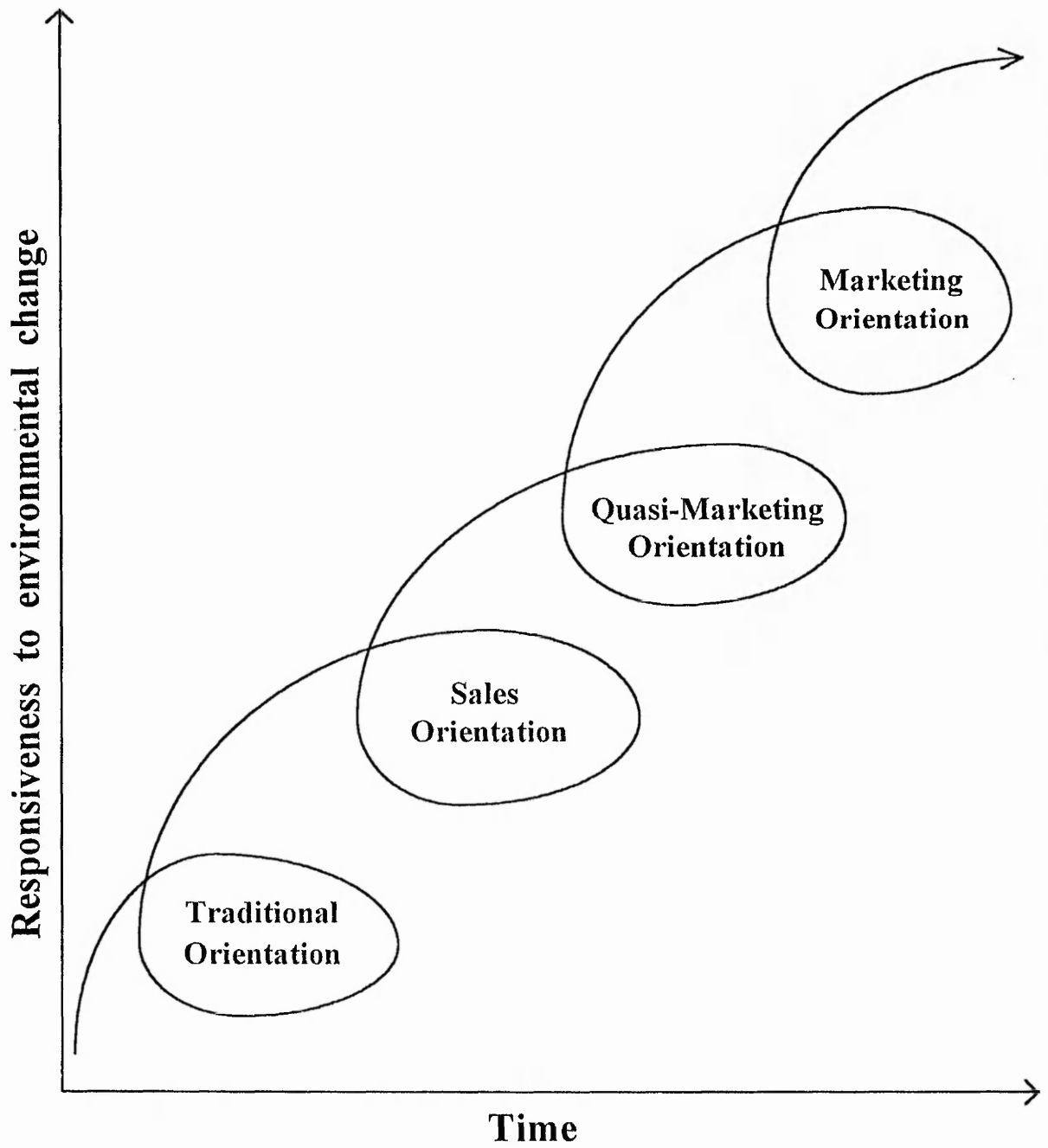


Fig. 8.2 The four waves

	<i>Traditional orientation</i>	<i>Sales orientation</i>	<i>Quasi marketing orientation</i>	<i>Marketing orientation</i>
<i>External environment</i>	relatively stable	relatively unstable, more competition	turbulent environment, serious competition	turbulent environment, serious competition
<i>Organisational co-ordination</i> 1. Role-taking of top management 2. Structure 3. Culture	no marketing role is taken by the management; hierarchical departmental structure; no marketing post has appeared; fixed working hours, concern only on teaching; emphasis on "educational" approach; individualistic-oriented	no proper marketing role is taken by the management; assign somebody to be "advertiser"; modified hierarchical structure with "matrix" elements; marketing integrator for mechanical works; "educational" approach; more advertising and publicity to boost "sales"	the roles of initiators, strategists, encouragers are "taken" by the management with limitation; matrix structure; informal marketing liaisons; marketing integrator with limited marketing experience; full-time marketing team; improved flexibility; emphasis on "enterprise" spirit and "client-centred"; lack of inter-group connectness	the roles of initiators, strategists, encouragers and motivators are "taken" by the management; matrix structure; official marketing liaisons; marketing integrator with marketing experience; full-time marketing team; high flexibility; client-centred; concern with inter-group vested interests and information processing
<i>Employee orientation</i>	employees concentrate on teaching; they are used to the vertical communication system; training programmes are not crucial	the situation is similar to those in "traditional orientation"; the management encourage employees to advertise more to increase "business"	management only emphasize the demands of clients and neglect employees' work orientations; information flow and training are not adequate	management are aware of employees' work orientations; information flow is efficient; training programmes are continuous and effective
<i>Client orientation</i> 1. between employees and clients 2. between tangible aspects and clients 3. between intangible aspects and clients	depends on individual departments; routine ways of teaching with chalk and board; limited interaction; specialism and "educational approach" is emphasized; environment is in school image; both the input and output systems are not systematic and effective	similar to those in "traditional orientation"; more interaction; expansion of market is emphasized to increase "sales"; the environment is slightly improved;	depend on individual employees; improved flexibility; some still use chalk and board; limited caring; specialism is still emphasized; courses are less "educational" and more training oriented; more new courses for new markets; environment is more "business-oriented"; both the input and output systems are improving and developing	high flexibility; vigorous way of teaching; good balance between educational and training needs; continuously identifying the demands of the present and potential clients within resource limitation; environment is pleasant and "business-oriented"; both the input and output systems are sophisticated for exchanging good quality of information

Table 8.1 The model of "four waves" - traditional-sales-quasi marketing-marketing orientations

The contention in developing the four waves model (Fig. 8.2) is to show that:

- there can be four stages in developing marketing orientation;
- the development of each orientation is in response to environmental change;
- one orientation is built on the previous orientation, in other words, one is better than the previous one in terms of meeting the needs of the organisation and its environment;
- in each stage there can be official and unofficial orientations dominated by different coalition groups, eg. both traditional orientation (espoused by some lecturers) and sales orientation (espoused by management) can exist together;
- different orientations can be manifested in different aspects of college life, eg. organisational co-ordination is quasi-marketing-oriented whilst employee orientation is sales-oriented;
- the waves do not end at marketing orientation. Marketing orientation is considered by the management as a way to meet change in the early 1990s. Other waves may appear in the next stage which can better meet environmental need.

In this way, this model is considered to be dynamic rather than static. Indeed, the three "behaviourial components" are often mentioned by the actors in the colleges and the investigation of these components can help identify the problems and the gaps before the forth wave is attained. The fourth wave - *marketing orientation* - provides us with an understanding of the notion in each orientation. Based on this framework a change strategy can be developed to facilitate moving towards the *ideal stage*.

8.4 THE CHANGE STRATEGY FOR MARKETING ORIENTATION

"I don't think there is much we can do to improve it, until people start trying the options and working for *the best way*. It's got to be *evolution* rather than revolution", stated Richard, a faculty head at AFE.

In line with his argument I would argue that if colleges do not "try" they can never "improve". The generic model of marketing orientation that I have derived provides an insight and guideline towards which colleges can strive. The strategy for the change needs to be "evolutionary" because of existing anxiety and problems. It is crucial for the obstacles to be identified and smoothed in such a way that the vested interests of different coalition groups can be satisfied. A division head at BFE echoed Richard by saying that, in order to develop a change strategy, "we need to sit down as a college and ask ourselves: what are we here for? What is our philosophy? What is it we want to be? We need to develop a strategy for it". Their implication brings forward the fact that if the staff members of a college cannot work together *whole-heartedly*, there can hardly be any improvement for the college. A change strategy is needed for long-term organisational viability.

On the notion of *change strategy* I would define it as:

The process of adapting the organisation to its environment better to achieve individual and group purposes and to sustain organisational long-term viability by improving the value of its provision.

A change strategy is a long-term continuous process and it needs to be thought of as "a form of investment" (Wilson & Fook, 1990). This strategy involves moving towards the aims whereby an organisation can better adapt to its environment when the individual and group purposes" can be better achieved, the "value of its provision" is better sustained and its long-term organisational viability can be better attained. Since a marketing orientation enables a college to *rethink* the notion of "individual and group purposes" and "improvement of the value of its provisions", the change strategy for marketing orientation can help an organisation sustain organisational long-term viability.

It is for this reason that the process of developing the change strategy for a *marketing orientation* will be examined in this section. I will, firstly, discuss the development of a *marketing-oriented vision* and then the identification of the present orientations and the analysis of the gap. It will be followed by discussion of a plan for its implementation. Lastly, we will talk about the monitoring of progress.

8.4.1 Vision Building

In order to develop an excellent organisation Hickman & Silva suggest that a clear vision can create the future. They define a *vision* as: "a mental journey from the known to the unknown, creating the future from a montage of current facts, hopes, dreams, dangers, and opportunities" (1985: 151). It has been argued in previous chapters that meaning is socially constructed and that people's perceptions affect how they behave. Therefore, a clear *vision* is crucial as a start for the development of a change strategy. Joan, the principal of AFE, described her vision as follows:

The vision of the college should not be for making money but should be for providing public services of education to the public. When students leave the college, they could better look after themselves..they know what they are doing. All staff should share the same vision and move in this direction...

Her vision is of a student-centred approach. When we talk about a *marketing-oriented vision* it encompasses broader aspects of a college's life. Nevertheless, her statement implies that a clear vision needs to be shared among the staff members so that the whole college can move in the same direction. This was echoed by Peter, a senior lecturer, who discussed the employees of a college in relation to its strategy. He said to me that

People have got to understand and appreciate that the college is functioning as a college. They should have a feelings of planning for the future, not just letting things happen. They should understand their parts in strategy.

This is what I call vision building. Everybody needs to have the "feeling of planning for the future". They "understand their parts" and want to share in the change strategy. It is the role of the top management who share a unified *marketing-oriented vision* to communicate this to the employees at the lower levels. The main problem within the three colleges is that the top management have different perceptions of the notion of marketing orientation and it makes it difficult for them to implement a cohesive strategy for the changing environment. We can see that some management people played the role of *initiator*, others played the role of *encourager*, and so on (in Table 8.1). But nobody has played the role of *motivator* because there is no consistent system to reward marketing-oriented behaviour.

In the light of this discussion the crucial element to start reviewing the strategy is securing the support of the top management. We argue that "a bottom-up approach would be doomed from the outset given the company-wide implementations of marketing orientation" (Wilson & Fook, 1990: 23). Due to their political power, top management can allocate resources to enable the vision to be achieved. Thus, they need to take the role of establishing a *marketing-oriented vision* if they intend to move towards a marketing-oriented college. The vision is that:

Its structure, culture, systems and procedures are established and developed in a way that ensures long-term customer (both clients' and employees') relationships within the resource limitation and long-term survival requirement of that organisation (see Section 2.5.5 for the definition of marketing orientation).

At the three colleges it was the top management which initiated the idea of implementing a "marketing culture" and recruited some people to fill marketing posts. Then most of them concentrated on their own strategic and administrative tasks. Marketing had become a set of operational activities like those at AFE. A division head at BFE contended that

To start the engine for change, we need to work on people's strength.

Thus, in order to develop a cohesive change strategy and achieve "individual and group purposes", a *task force* needs to be set up including a wide range of people across the faculties, not merely confined to the marketing people or the top management. According to Plant (1987: 23), the "process of involvement" in organisational change is an essential motive force in altering the behaviour of people. A traditional senior lecturer at AFE used the term "task-based team" to describe a *task force*. This staff member suggested that such a task force needed to dynamic like a "rock band" with "greater fluidity". They were given tasks and a time limit to get it going. Another lecturer at BFE, who was discontented with the present situation, offered some advice for setting up a *task force*, said,

A committee of people with *relevant experience and ability* is needed to change the existing practice, not based on fancy ideas only.

This statement highlights the significance of the relevant experience and ability within the task force. A group of people with a *marketing-oriented* vision and experience enable the work to be done in a more effective way because the idea will not be "fancy" but practical. It is suggested that, on some occasions, consultants can be considerably helpful (*ibid*). Within the task force, the *marketing-oriented* vision needs to be shared and understood. After the vision is developed, the next step will be the identification of the present orientation.

8.4.2 The Identification of the Present Orientation

The three behavioural components of the four waves provide the colleges with a useful framework for identifying present orientations and, hence, understanding the gaps in attaining the fourth wave. In each component a number of aspects is defined. A college may have different orientations in different aspects. Therefore, it is significant for the task force to recognise the orientations in each aspect if a truly *marketing orientation* is to be achieved. It is by no means an easy job due to the long-term process of continuous assessment. However, it is worthwhile for organisational viability because, once the momentum for continuous improvement is started, the culture of striving for excellence

(both externally and internally) will develop.

In order to *identify its present orientation* an FE college needs to answer the following questions. These are developed from the three components on the model of "four waves" (see Table 8.1).

On vision building:

- do the top management people really share a unified marketing-oriented vision?

On organisational co-ordination:

- do the top management people see themselves as the marketing initiators, strategists, encouragers and motivators?
- is it understood that marketing orientation is the responsibility of the entire organisation?
- does the present structure include official marketing liaisons, marketing integrators and a marketing team who have marketing experience?
- is the structure organised in such a way that all the marketing decisions are made in a co-ordinated way and executed in an integrated manner?
- is there a marketing-oriented culture in that both the external customers and the internal group dynamics are considered?

On employee orientation:

- are the management people aware of their employees' work orientations?
- are the internal information flows and staff development programmes effective in the sense that employees are informed and trained to meet changing demands?

On client orientation:

- are the teachers' attitudes concerned with the demands of clients?
- ◆ are the teaching approaches interactive and practical in a way that ensures a good balance between educational and training needs?
- are all the staff members of the college identifying the demands of present and potential clients continuously?
- are the tangible aspects of the college pleasant and business-oriented?
- are both the input and output systems in relation to clients sophisticated enough for exchanging good quality information?

All of the above questions represent necessary and sufficient conditions which a FE college needs to tackle in order to move towards the fourth wave. This, in fact, is the starting point for FE colleges to recognise *where they are* in developing a *marketing orientation*. After recognising the present orientation what we need to know in the next stage is the gap in relation to the desirable orientation.

8.4.3 Gap Analysis

The significance of gap analysis lies in the fact that when certain aspects are identified as being badly performed, suitable resources can be allocated to those aspects requiring

improvement. Those aspects that are performed well need to be sustained. We can take the three FE colleges as an example. By adopting the framework of the four waves we can see the orientations within different components in the light of the findings, from which the gaps are recognised (see Fig. 8.3).

This is a graphical way of showing different orientations at different behavioral aspects in individual colleges (ie. AFE, BFE and CFE). In this figure I would like to mention several arguments:

First, within different orientations there is no quantitative difference.

Second, a college may need to take a period of time moving from one orientation to another.

Third, when a college is in a *sales-oriented wave* it does not mean that it will move to the *quasi marketing-oriented wave* in the next stage. For example, the role-taking of the top management at AFE is sales-oriented, it may move to the *marketing-oriented wave* if it obtains a marketing-oriented vision and strives for it.

Fourth, within a college, different aspects of a behavioural component can show different orientations. That is why I argue that developing a change strategy for a *marketing orientation* is a long-term process.

Fifth, the curves have shown that the stages of the colleges in relation to the *desirable stage* are different. Also, they can demonstrate the particular problems in each college in their development of an enterprise wave. When the gap of each aspect is identified the task force can develop a strategy whereby appropriate resources can be prioritized so as to reach the fourth wave.

Applying the graph to the scale that I developed in Section 4.4.1, we can see the differences in terms of the dominant perceptions of marketing orientation by the people (especially the top management) at the three colleges. At AFE it is noted that there are

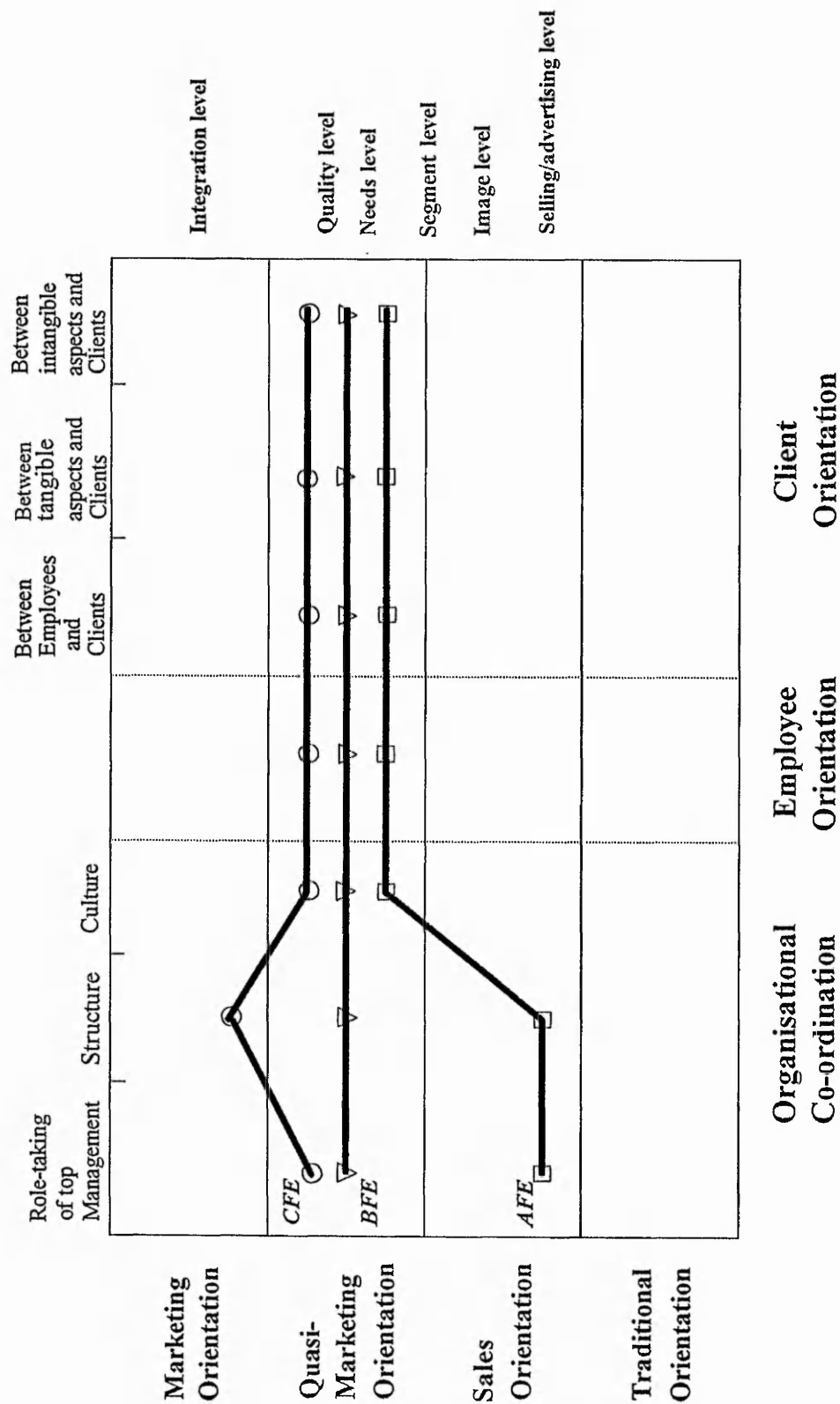


Fig. 8.3 The gap analysis of the three FE colleges

still a number of people who tend to associate marketing orientation with merely segmentation, image projection or even selling and advertising. The dominant perceptions of marketing orientation at BFE is more to do with quality and needs levels. The perception of a group of management people at CFE towards marketing orientation is related to the integration level. That is why they have a relatively sophisticated structure compared to the other two colleges. However the other aspects of the college life (which is shown in the figure) do not fit in with the marketing-oriented structure. They are all at the quasi-marketing oriented stage. In other words, the dominant perceptions still remain at the quality or needs levels. When a college attempts to move towards the direction of marketing orientation, management needs to understand the dominant perception and analyze the reason behind it. In this way problems are likely to be manifested.

After the gap is analyzed we come to the next stage where a plan for the implementation of marketing orientation needs to be developed by the task force.

8.4.4 A Plan for Implementation

When the change strategy is transformed into an operational plan for achieving marketing orientation it is crucial for the task force to be aware of the limited resources and work out a realistic plan.

The operational plan needs to include the following principles. These have been examined in the previous chapters:

First, it is necessary for colleges to have a clear *marketing-oriented vision*. (It was discussed in Section 8.4.1). This should not only be shared among the members within the task force but also understood among the employees at different levels of the hierarchy.

Second, the identification of the gap should be clear in each behavioural component of the framework and in its relation to the desired stage. (It can be achieved by using the

gap analysis - see Sections 8.4.2 and 8.4.3).

Third, every college has its own recourse limitations in its own perceived environment. (This was discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.3). It is the choice of the task force to prioritize the aspects of the components that are perceived to be critical for the improvement of their college.

Fourth, following the third point, I would suggest that limited resources need to be allocated in a realistic way so that the critical aspects (ie. the ones which are likely to have direct effect upon the college's performance) can be improved.

Fifth, it is useful for colleges to develop operational planning, management control and strategic planning (see Anthony, 1965) for each component of the framework in order that progress can be monitored. According to Anthony, operational planning is to do primarily with activities for which the correct decisions can be objectively determined; management control is to do with the ongoing operations of the organisation, within the guidelines established by strategic planning; whilst strategic planning is to do with major decisions with long-term consequences. In other words, the plan needs to be detailed from operational level to strategic level. For example, an operational plan may include a management development programme for enhancing the awareness of a marketing orientation; one aspect of management control may include a modification of the existing structure or the development of an employee-oriented reward system so as to support marketing-orientation; one strategic plan may be focused on developing a truly marketing-oriented culture.

The five principles represent necessary and sufficient conditions in order to implement a marketing orientation. Colleges may have different plans according to their choice of needs. Next, I would like to point out that an effective plan needs to be followed by effective progress monitoring.

8.4.5 Progress Monitoring

"An organisation always needs to do more than is absolutely necessary. You have to show what you are doing is continually required...I had an employer years ago who said, 'no business can stand still, it either goes forward or backward'. Once you are going backward, you *analyze* what it is you are doing wrong and find a way to put that right so that you can go forward again...*Effectiveness is continually progressing and improving*", said James, a senior lecturer at BFE.

James has highlighted the significance of progress monitoring. It is suggested that any business (including FE colleges) can either move "forward or backward", especially in a turbulent environment. Therefore, it is important for an organisation to continually analyze the problems. It is the job of the task force to progress and improve in a continuous manner for the enhancement of long-term organisational effectiveness.

Continuous monitoring can help get rid of the inertia. In Chapter 7 we recognised that some employees at CFE were criticized by other staff members as being complacent because they thought the college had some specialisms and these were enough for the college to survive. The improvement in certain aspects does not mean that the college is perfect. A commitment to move forward is significant in developing a "momentum of change" (Wilson & Fook, 1990: 23). During the process of monitoring progress some questions related to the framework of the four waves can be asked. For instance, is our organisational co-ordination sophisticated enough to facilitate the development of a marketing orientation? Is our organisation employee-oriented? Is our organisation client-oriented? The aim of this progress monitoring is moving towards the direction of a marketing orientation based on a clear marketing-oriented vision. **Fig. 8.4** sums up the cycle in developing a change strategy for marketing orientation.

On the graph it is an ongoing cycle following the steps defined in the previous sections. Continuous evaluation ensures the improvement in moving towards the direction of a marketing-oriented stage. The framework of the behavioural aspects focuses on the improvement and long-term survival requirement as the cornerstone of an institution. According to Plant (1987: 17),

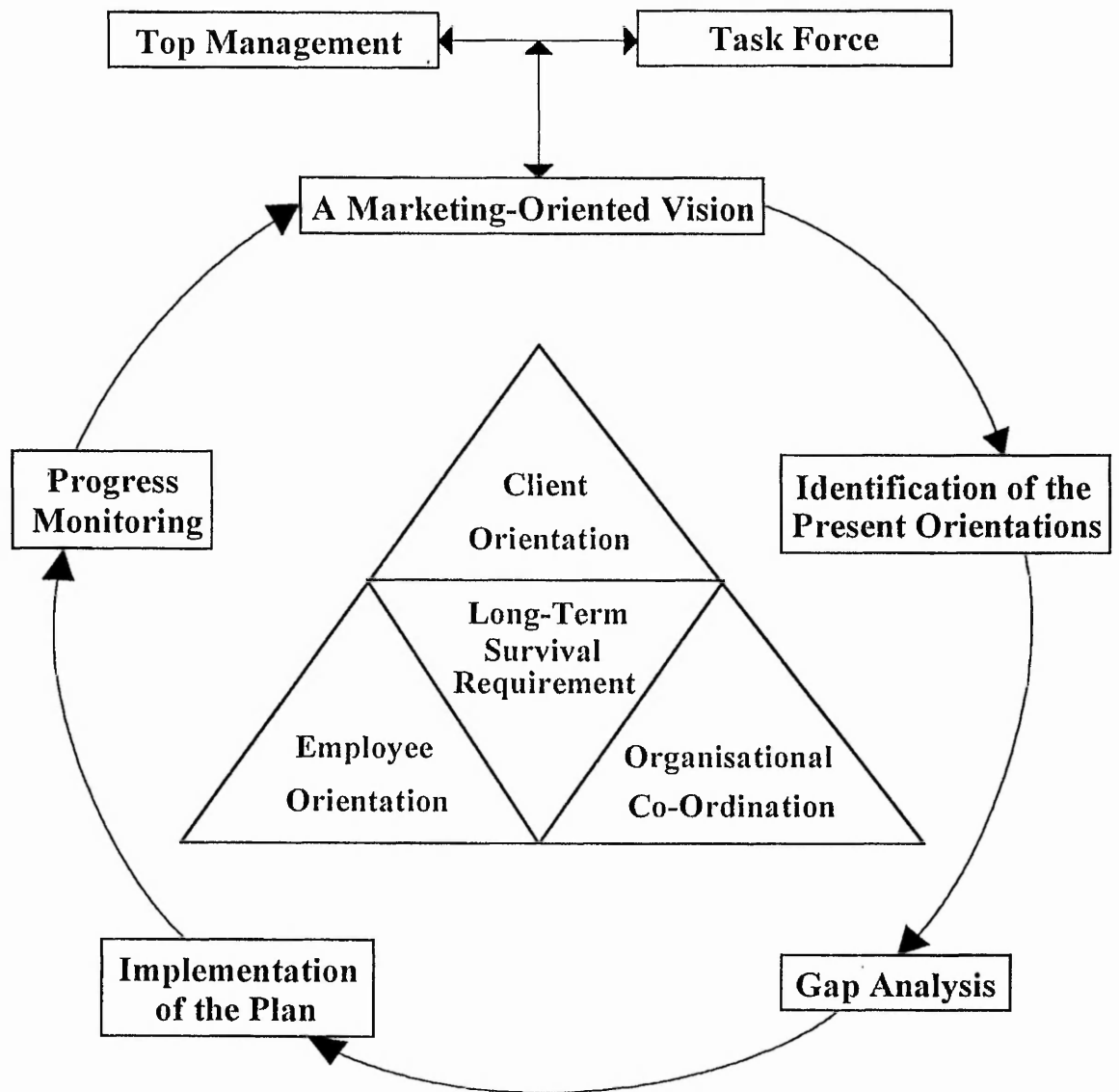


Fig. 8.4 The steps for developing a change strategy for marketing orientation

Raising the awareness of the need to change, mobilizing the energy to change, working on the development of a vision, engaging in a thorough diagnosis of current reality...are all vital and necessary components of the change process.

Plant used several sentences to sum up the significance of the continuous process. In line with his argument, I would say that an effective marketing-oriented change strategy needs a continuous process of awareness and diagnosis of the present situation in order to move towards the "desired stage".

I need to emphasize here that marketing orientation is not the absolute solution. This orientation only helps the organisations to fit in better with environmental needs at this period of time. One of the aims of my research is trying to explore and analyze the hidden organisational problems facing colleges in the process of implementing a marketing orientation. When colleges understand more their own particular problems it is more likely that they can move nearer to the marketing-oriented stage. Nevertheless the environment changes constantly colleges may need to develop other orientations which can better meet the demands of organisations in the future. (This argument was mentioned in Section 8.1).

8.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter I have attempted to lay down the significance of a marketing orientation and why a change strategy is needed if a college intends to move towards a marketing-oriented "stage".

First of all, I have examined the notion of long-term organisational survival which is the ultimate aim for the development of a marketing orientation. Before illustrating the change strategy, the generic model of a marketing orientation has been established. Inspired by Robert Keith's framework of production-sales-marketing and stemming from the findings of my research, the framework of *four waves* has been identified, ie. *traditional - sales - quasi marketing - marketing orientation*. *Marketing orientation* is

named *the fourth wave*, an ideal stage, to which FE colleges need to strive in order to achieve long-term survival.

In terms of the change strategy I have argued that it is a long-term process and a form of investment. I have identified how the change strategy can be developed: first, top management need to build a clear *marketing-oriented vision* and set up a task force for implementing the change strategy; second, based on the framework of the four waves, the identification of the present orientation of a college is needed; third, this is followed by the gap analysis from which a college is made aware of where it is in relation to the ideal stage; fourth, a plan for the implementation of marketing orientation is developed by the task force; fifth, progress needs to be monitored continuously. The foundation of the change strategy is based on the aspects of the *three behavioural components* of *marketing orientation* and the ultimate aim of long-term survival.

After the generic model of a marketing orientation and the change strategy have been identified, we now turn to the final chapter in which the implications of my research and the conclusions will be presented.

CHAPTER 9: DEVELOPMENT OF MARKETING ORIENTATION IN A PROFESSIONAL ORGANISATION: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The relevant literature having been reviewed, the findings having been discussed, and the theories and models having been generated in the previous chapters, we now turn to the last chapter in which the conclusions and the implications of the study will be examined.

This chapter will present a review of the major chapter conclusions, an examination of the findings of the thesis as a whole, and an exploration of the connections between these and the literature referred to in Chapters 1 and 2. Then I will highlight some of the implications of the study and suggest further work for the related area.

9.2 A RESEARCH METHOD FOR A PROFESSIONAL FIELD

In order to understand the meaning of a marketing orientation perceived by the actors in the FE field, a phenomenological stance has been employed (Section 3.2). The insights gained from the findings of the research have justified the use of a case study approach. This approach has allowed the richness and contextualisation of the data to emerge. The adoption of a triangulation process, ie, by means of observation, interviews and the collection of archival information, has enabled the researcher to understand how the actors in the field construct the meanings of change and why they select to behave in certain ways.

During the research process I established a prior framework at the beginning and it was modified constantly as I involved myself in the fieldwork. During the process of continuous focusing in the field, some prominent themes have emerged which enabled me to develop a *marketing orientation framework* with the notion of *organisational co-ordination, employee orientation and client orientation*. Each of these themes has been explored and examined in three separate chapters (ie. Chapters 5, 6 and 7). Since these themes are connected with the concept of professionalism the discussion of this concept

is seen in several chapters. Nevertheless, I have emphasized this notion in Chapters 1 and 6.

To present my conclusions, I will begin by revisiting the tension between "professionalism" and "marketing" and then move on to the notion of marketing orientation.

9.3 THE REALITY OF PROFESSIONALISM

On the notion of professionalism, based on a framework for the study of professionalism (see Fig. 1.1), I have discussed the approaches to professionalism, its relation to clients and to organisation in the light of the literature review in Chapter 1. My contention is that by establishing a framework for understanding professionalism, tensions between the traditional "professional wave" and the "commercial-oriented wave" can be understood when we investigate FE colleges (one of the professional fields) closely.

When the FE case studies were explored and examined it was noted that the traditional "professional" people adopted the concept of professionalism not because they attempted to prove that they were professional but because they wanted to seek morally praiseworthy rewards and protect their vested interests. This accords with Becker's version of the symbolic interactionist approach (Section 1.2.1.4).

When the concept of professionalism is applied to clients, the difference between the "symbol" and the "reality" has been mentioned. The "symbol" suggests that professionals have an altruistic motivation and code of ethics to work for the welfare of clients; the full trust from clients ensures their autonomy and independence. However, in practice, the clients can exercise their own influence and judgment. The continuing adoption of the "symbol" of profession by the traditional people in the FE colleges suggested that this label attaches a meaning of enhancing an implied superior-inferior relationship. In fact, they have claimed that it was important to satisfy their clients. This is also a principle instigated by the top management under the new culture. Nevertheless, from the way that the traditional people have resisted the change and raised the label of

profession we can see that they have maintained a kind of professional pride in insisting on knowing best instead of finding out what service is required by the clients.

Concerning the notions of professionalism and organisation, in an ideal type suggested by Mintzberg (Section 2.1.2.3), professionals can be seen as having the best of both worlds in the sense that they are attached to an organisation and yet are able to serve their own clients in their own way. However, in practice, he has highlighted three main problems in a professional bureaucratic organisation. They are: the problems of co-ordination, the problems of discretion, and the problems of innovation. We can find these problems in FE colleges. The traditional people used the label of profession in an attempt to maintain independence and autonomy so as to enhance their discretion. Thus, the management found them difficult to co-ordinate and reluctant to accept the new wave. The root of the problem is because the traditional people cannot find *meanings* in the new culture whereby they have lost some of the desired rewards (discussed in Chapter 6).

When the framework of professionalism is used to investigate the traditional people under the new wave in which some marketing elements have been incorporated, the emergence of tensions is seen to be inevitable. Within this framework three elements have been highlighted, ie. the attitude of the employees to the change in an organisation, the relationship between employees and clients, and the relationship between employees and the organisation. These elements are inter-related with the model of *marketing orientation* looking at *employee orientation*, *client orientation* and *organisational co-ordination*.

9.4 THE EMERGENCE AND PERCEPTION OF MARKETING ORIENTATION

The development of the new wave incorporating marketing elements has been perceived by top management as a need to face external environmental change. I have discussed the aspects of environmental change in both Chapters 1 and 4, but in Chapter 1 the information is derived from the literature whilst in Chapter 4 the data is from the perceptions of the actors. In order to highlight the notion of marketing orientation in the new wave I have presented the perception of the actors towards the definition of a

marketing orientation in Chapter 4. In the light of the findings we can see different emphases over the issues among the actors to help understand how their "reality" is constructed.

Weick's enactment theory (Section 4.2.1) has been adopted as an aid in the process of gathering the data for this research. He argues that people employ their own cognitive visions and maps to *make sense* of the world. On the notion of the external change, when the findings of the two chapters (Chapters 1 and 4) are compared there are some consistencies in terms of "facts" over the change in government policies, the shift in the economy, and social-demographic change. Nevertheless, in their sense-making processes, different actors see the change in different ways. It is usually related to the power and influence they own inside an organisation.

In the light of the findings, there are five main domains perceived within the FE field as discussed in Chapter 1. They are: the government sector, the economic sector, the technological sector, the social-demographic sector, and the related institutions sector. The government has attempted to turn FE colleges into business-oriented institutions by setting up a number of significant initiatives (eg. the 1988 Education Reform Act) and new constituencies (eg. TECs and NCVQ). Responsibility has been devolved from the LEAs to the colleges. The approach has been changed from college-led to industry-led. Also, the shift to a service economy and the advancement of technology in society has facilitated the development of a commercial oriented approach. In addition, due to the shift of the population distribution, FE colleges can no longer rely on the traditional cohort group (ie, 16-19 year-old group). The emergence of a variety of client groups has made the management of the colleges aware of the need to take a flexible and entrepreneurial approach in order to meet their demands. Furthermore, the volatility of the environment has changed the nature of the relationships among the colleges. I have adopted the *resource dependence perspective* to explain the phenomenon. Some evidence of co-operation is seen by which they share the resources in different ways in order to survive. However, competition has been intensified as well because they all struggle for limited resources. Some colleges have started to develop courses which are overlapping with those offered by their neighbouring colleges; a number of new private trainers have

developed cheaper courses when compared with those in other colleges. The unstable environment has enabled the development of new institutions which have become either "friends" (eg. Marketing Network) or "enemies" of the FE colleges (eg. private trainers). According to the actors' perceptions of the environment, I have depicted the external constituencies of the three FE colleges (Fig. 4.8), from which we can notice the shift of resources and the emergence of new groups or institutions.

I have argued that human meanings are socially constructed. Thus, I am interested to know how people perceived the definition of a marketing orientation at different levels of the hierarchy in colleges, and the findings were presented in Section 4.4. In the light of the data I have identified a *scale of six levels* (Fig. 4.9), three levels in the *external aspects* and three levels in the *internal aspects*, which have shown the actors' levels of perception towards the notion. In terms of the external aspects, the three levels include: *sell/advertising level*, *image level*, and *segment level*; whilst the three levels in the internal aspects comprise: *needs level*, *quality level*, and *integration level*. I have classified these levels into different orientations (ie. sales-quasi marketing-marketing orientations). Based on the characteristics of the integration level, I have related it to *marketing orientation*. According to the findings, only a few instances were related to this level. In Table 4.3, I have presented the trend of responses from the three groups of people (ie. top management, senior lecturers and lecturers). This is an attempt to understand the phenomenon and draw up some theories from those responses. It is realised from the findings that both the answers from the top management and the senior lecturers have emphasized the *needs level*, ie, satisfying the clients' needs. However, the emphasis of the lecturers is at the *selling/advertising level*, ie, organising selling/advertising activities to attract more clients. Different perceptions have an effect upon different behaviours in response to the change. The management have developed an infrastructure, eg, structure and culture (Chapter 5) to meet the clients' needs. Nevertheless, many lecturers, especially those traditional ones, were sceptical about the change and the injection of the selling/advertising elements was claimed to be "anti-professional". The gap has helped us to understand some reasons for the emergence of tension between the traditional wave and the enterprise wave.

9.5 A MARKETING ORIENTATION FRAMEWORK AND PROFESSIONALISM

In the light of the literature on marketing and sociology, as well as being inspired during the process of continuous focusing, I have developed a marketing orientation framework which accords with the framework for the study of professionalism in investigating the problems of the colleges in coping with change. In this section I will firstly present the notion of the tension between the *two waves* and then the findings which are derived from my framework for marketing orientation.

9.5.1 Tension Between Two Waves

In chapters 4 to 7 empirical data has been presented. In each chapter we can see the tension between the traditional wave espoused by the traditional lecturers and the enterprise wave supported by the management. The tension is related to three aspects: the attitude of the staff members to the change, the perception of the clients and their relationship with the organisation (see **Table 9.1**).

	Traditional wave	Enterprise wave
Adoption of labels	"professional"	"enterprise", "flexibility", "meeting the customers' needs"
Relation to clients	using "knowing best" principle	using "finding out" principle
Relation to organisation	sceptical towards management, select to distance themselves from the change	involved in developing enterprise structure and culture in an attempt to meet clients' needs

Table 9.1 Tension between traditional and enterprise waves

On the side of the traditional people, they have adopted the label of professional to seek and protect their particular interests as well as resisting the change. Also, although they

agreed that clients' needs were important, they rejected marketing activities in the sense that they knew best what the clients wanted. Thus, their attitude has affected their negative view towards the management, towards their work and their selection of distancing themselves from the change.

On the other hand, the enterprise people have adopted a number of "new wave" languages, such as "enterprise", "customer-centred", "flexibility", to instigate the development of the new culture. In this way, by improving the performance of the organisation, their power can be consolidated. It is interesting to notice how different people use different labels to consolidate and protect their vested interests. By adopting marketing principles they urged the employees to find out the needs of their clients. In terms of infrastructure, they have used their political power to change the structure and culture in order to cater for the demands of clients.

In fact, the problems of employees' attitudes, their perceptions of the concept of clients, and their relationships in their organisations are the focus of interest in this thesis. And these three aspects are manifested in my conceptual framework for marketing orientation.

9.5.2 A Marketing Orientation Framework

In terms of developing a marketing orientation framework (Chapter 2), five main behavioural components are mentioned in the marketing literature, they are: customer orientation, inter-functional co-ordination, employee orientation (especially in the services marketing literature), profit direction, and competitor orientation.

On the notion of profitability, it was argued in Section 2.4.3.4 that it is not a helpful concept to use in developing a marketing orientation. Instead, in order to have an effective organisation, the aim needs to be established on a broader notion, ie, *long-term survival in a healthy way*. The development of a marketing orientation is not an end in itself but a means for achieving long-term organisational survival. This ultimate aim has provided an important direction to be followed by the management. When the environment has become more unstable and competitive the colleges need to take account

of this notion in a more serious and explicit way. Thus, it is treated as a "decision criterion" in my framework. We have come across this notion when the three behavioural components were discussed (in Chapters 5, 6 & 7). In Section 8.2, it has been further discussed that it is an important rationale for a college to develop a *marketing-oriented strategy* (in Chapter 8).

Competitor orientation is not included in my marketing orientation framework for two reasons. First, this theme has not been perceived by many of the actors, especially the lecturers, as a critical factor for organisational survival at the time of researching. However, I would argue that when the colleges are free from LEA control competition will be more volatile. This issue will become more prominent in the near future. Second, in the light of the model of organisational constituencies established by Watson (1986: 80), I have depicted the colleges' constituencies in Figure 4.8 in which I have classified "competitors" as *influencers* of colleges' constituencies. If we adopt the point that colleges need to balance their own limited resources in meeting the demands of different constituencies, then the focus of concern is the constituencies instead of the *influencers*. Thus, the notion of competitor orientation is excluded in my framework. In this way I have adopted the three aspects - organisational co-ordination, employee orientation, client orientation - as the three behavioural components of my framework. This framework is in accord with those for the study of professionalism (Fig. 1.1). In every component, I have drawn a model (Fig. 2.5, 2.6 & 2.8) in the light of the marketing and sociological literature. These models act as guidelines in theorizing the findings.

9.5.2.1 Organisational co-ordination

It is defined thus,

Organisation is co-ordinated and managed within limited resources in such a way that the long-term relationships between an organisation and its customers (both internal and external) are sustained for its long-term survival requirements (in Section 2.4.3.3).

Within this I have looked at three aspects (ie. the role-taking of the top management, the structure and the culture) in investigating the colleges' development of a marketing orientation and the problems within it (in Chapter 5). In order to comprehend their pace of change the orientations framework - *traditional-sales-marketing orientations* (Fig. 2.2) - has been applied to the data. In the light of the findings I have developed an orientation called *quasi marketing orientation*. This means that a college has attempted to move towards the direction of a marketing orientation but has not yet reached it due to some critical issues. Thus, this orientation is between *sales orientation* and *marketing orientation*.

The choice of marketing roles among the top management is dependent on their perception of the notion of a marketing orientation and the extent of their political power. In Chapter 5 I employed six actors as case studies to examine this notion. It is argued that the more they understand the meaning of marketing orientation the more the roles they will take associated with marketing. A truly marketing-oriented person at the top level would act as *a marketing initiator, a strategist, an encourager and a motivator* (Table 5.1).

In terms of the structural issue, I have used three aspects to investigate the development of the "enterprise structure" among the three colleges. These aspects are: the presence of a marketing liaison, a marketing integrator and a marketing team (Table 5.2). It is found that the development is varied ranging from merely having a marketing officer with limited experience and power (eg. AFE) to having a well-established marketing faculty (eg. CFE). From the way the structure is organised we can see the differences in the role of marketing within the colleges as perceived by the top management.

Although the managements have attempted to generate marketing oriented cultures by acquiring an enterprise structure, a new flexible system and new languages, they are more focused on the demands of the clients and have neglected the demands of the employees. Thus, I have called this culture a *quasi marketing-oriented* one (Table 5.4). In Chapter 5 I have discussed the problem of the inter-group conflict which stems from the neglect of the groups' vested interests and of efficient information processing.

Indeed, Chapter 5 has set the scene for the emergence of tensions between the enterprise wave and the traditional wave. In Chapter 6, where the notion of employee orientation is explored, the reasons for tensions among the employees have been illustrated in detail.

9.5.2.2 Employee orientation

I have defined this as:

Orienting to the demands of employees, within resource limitations, in such a way that a satisfactory long-term employee-client relationship is sustained for the organisation's long-term survival (in Section 2.4.3.2).

In Chapter 6 I have utilized six actors as case studies to illustrate the range of approaches among the employees of colleges towards the work orientations and their roles in the change. The concept of professionalism has been used mainly by the traditionalists. However, some pro-enterprise employees have used this concept as well (eg. Ann [in Section 6.3.2]). Thus, I would argue that it is a label adopted by people in an attempt to seek some desired reward and protect their interests (in Section 6.6). The rewards they desire have affected how they perceive the role of management, their role in the change, and their performance. The loss of some of the desired rewards means that they will withdraw themselves from the change process and, in turn, the tension between the two waves will only be enhanced. In this way, not only is the relationship between the management and the front-line people worsened, but the performance of the traditionalists will be affected. The grievance will then have an impact upon long-term organisational effectiveness. I have used the *quasi marketing orientation* to describe the present employee-oriented approach among the three colleges. In order to develop an employee oriented approach, it is suggested in Section 6.7 that management should not take their employees for granted but need to be aware of employees' work demands and establish appropriate rewards within limited resources. Also, efficient information flow and continuous training are perceived by many employees as necessary in order to keep them informed and provide them with up-dated knowledge and skills.

I would like to point out that the focus of *organisational co-ordination* and an *employee orientation* is not for their own sake. The stress of continuing improvements in these two components towards a marketing orientation is built upon the issue of *client satisfaction*. Good organisational infrastructure and good employee relations are seen as a means to achieve good client relationships which will then lead to long-term organisational survival.

9.5.2.3 Client orientation

I have identified this notion as:

Orienting to the demands of clients within limited resources so that a satisfactory long-term relationship is sustained for the organisation's long-term survival (Section 2.4.3.1).

Within this component I have employed four kinds of *interaction* in exploring the underlying problems in developing a *client orientation* in FE colleges. The interactions are: interaction among clients, interaction between employees and clients, interaction between tangible aspects and clients, interaction between intangible aspects and clients. In terms of clients in the colleges, I have categorised them into students and employers (or employing organisations).

It is significant to bring forward the point that a present client can influence a potential client towards using a college through word of mouth communications. Whether the *experience* of a present client is satisfactory or not is dependent on whether their *expectations* are met and *promises* fulfilled by the college. The concepts of experience, expectations and promises (established in Section 2.4.3.1) have been investigated throughout the *interactions* in Chapter 7.

In exploring the interaction between employees and clients I have used three components for illustration in the light of the findings. They are: the teaching staff and students, the teaching staff and employers as well as other staff members and clients generally. From the perception and the examples given by the clients it is noted that the attitude and the

behaviour of all the staff members (at all the hierarchical levels) can have a significant impact upon how the clients perceive the quality of provision.

In facing an increasingly competitive environment not only the course provision but also the internal environment are important in meeting the demands of the clients. Thus, during the interaction between the tangible aspects and clients, I have adopted both the course provision and the environment as tangible aspects in examining the perceptions of the clients. The environment represents such elements as the studying environment, the accommodation and other facilities. From the criticism made by the clients on different points of the tangible aspects, I have emphasized that each college needs to prioritize their limited resources to improve the tangible aspects in order to meet the demands of a variety of client groups.

In terms of the interaction between the intangible aspects and clients I have put forward the notion of a communication system -*input system and output system*. It was found that many clients were not satisfied with the communication system. Their expectations are not fully met by the colleges. In the light of the findings I have made the point that the effectiveness of the communication system is dependent on whether or not the staff members have the right attitude in attempting to understand the needs of the clients. This notion is related to their underlying principles. If they are acquiring the principle of *knowing best* instead of *finding out* the next problem raised is whether their wisdom is really capable of meeting the changing demands of the environment?

Indeed, the management of the three colleges have attempted to develop a client-oriented approach. However, the problems that emerged from the findings constitute an obstacle if they want to move in this direction. The point I would like to highlight is that in developing this approach all the staff members need to have a *client-oriented attitude* instead of a *professional knowing best attitude*. Influenced by the findings of the four interactions I have developed a generic model for client orientation (in Table 7.1). Also, I have highlighted the differences of client orientation among the *traditional, quasi-marketing and a marketing orientations*.

Applying the findings from the three behavioural components of the marketing orientation to the orientations framework is useful in the sense that a four wave model can be developed and a change strategy for marketing orientation can be identified.

9.6 A FOUR WAVES MODEL AND A CHANGE STRATEGY FOR A MARKETING ORIENTATION

Chapter 8 is both a theoretical and applied chapter. Drawing on the findings I have established a dynamic *four waves* model in which an "ideal stage" - marketing orientation - has been presented. Derived from the model, a change strategy for marketing orientation has been offered.

On the surface, when we talk about tensions within the colleges due to the change, we see two waves which are in conflict with each other. One is a *traditional wave* associated with professional principles whilst the other is an *enterprise wave* associated with some marketing elements. Nevertheless, when we investigate closely the underlying tensions and issues it is found that there are four existing waves, they are: *traditional, sales, quasi marketing and marketing waves*. It is found that although the management has attempted to move their colleges towards a marketing orientation, the colleges are actually in different orientations on different aspects. That means, on different aspects of the *behavioural components*, the orientations can be either *sales-oriented, quasi-marketing or marketing-oriented*. However, generally speaking, according to the findings, only the structural aspect of CFE has reached the marketing-oriented stage.

The implication of the *four waves* model is that there are differences in the four orientations and their characteristics when applied to the FE field (Fig. 8.2). In the light of the findings an "ideal stage" of a marketing orientation is provided. My argument is that, if a college really seeks to move towards the marketing-oriented stage, its change strategy needs to be developed based on the *ideal* stage.

The change strategy for a marketing orientation in a cycle approach (Fig. 8.4) has shown that it is a long-term continuous investment. The starting point for developing this strategy is top management's initiation and commitment. It is suggested that they need to set up a task force as well as a *marketing-oriented vision*. Then the process includes identification of the present orientations, gap analysis, the implementation of the plan, and progress monitoring. In terms of monitoring, it is necessary to ensure that the progress is in line with the marketing-oriented vision. This process is based on prioritizing the improvements in the aspects of the three behavioural components within resource limitation. They are not an end in themselves. The ultimate aim is for the organisation's long-term survival.

9.7 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The 1988 Education Reform Act can be regarded as a milestone in the adoption of marketing principles by FE colleges. After five years of implementation, Patricia Stubbs (Times Higher Education Supplement, 1994a) comments that FE does not have "an attitude on marketing *per se*, although quite clearly the marketing activities are going to become increasingly important for the colleges". Her statement can be seen as rather pessimistic. She recognises that even though a number of marketing tools have been adopted, FE has not yet reached a stage where a full marketing attitude has been developed. Scribbins & Davies (1989) on the other hand claim that in the past five years colleges are much better in identifying market wants and needs and that quality is being monitored more effectively. All of these commentators recognise however that there is some distance for FE to travel in marketing. If FE colleges can set a marketing-oriented vision and evaluate their strategies continuously, their future will be better assured.

The intention of the present research was to explore the problems and possibilities in developing a marketing orientation in FE by means of case studies. It attempts to enhance understanding of the problems arising in the change process and to provide insights for managements trying to tackle problems and bring about significant change.

The findings of the study suggest that marketing needs to start from the organisation itself because of its service nature what Cowell (1984) refers to as the associated issues of inseparability, intangibility and heterogeneity. The understanding and the commitment of senior management to a marketing orientation is paramount. The top-down approach is always significant because of the strategic responsibilities of senior managers. Scribbins & Davies (1989) argue that decisive marketing-oriented leadership is the most urgent need. The extent of marketing roles they play is contingent upon the degree to which they understand the meaning of a marketing orientation. Thus, I suggest that in-service training and development needs to be organised regularly for management by inviting external consultants who have experience in developing marketing in the education sector.

During the process of developing a new marketing structure and culture, one can see the conflict between what was earlier called the enterprise wave on one side and traditional wave on the other side (see Section 4.4.2). Inter-departmental conflicts have affected the implementation of marketing (See Section 5.4). It is therefore suggested that a marketing team is needed in an organisational structure in which the full-time marketers are experienced and committed to instilling a client-conscious attitude to every layer of the organisation. Designing glossy brochures is not enough. Management need to be aware of the problems of insecurity and uncertainty felt by employees in developing a new culture. In order to reduce inter-departmental conflict, they may need to develop a supportive culture by using various means such as inter-departmental training programmes, joint projects on how to improve the quality of organisational performance, a communication network where employees are kept informed of internal and environmental changes, and suitable reward systems to encourage employees to find out the needs and wants of different client groups.

It appears that the feelings of insecurity and confusion among staff have an effect on morale and motivation (see Chapter 6). According to Hannagan (1992: 25),

The greater the participation and involvement of staff in promoting the image and direction of the organisation the greater will be their commitment, motivation and level of productivity.

It is important for senior managers to take time to focus on this issue since the frustration of staff is likely to affect their level of performance before clients. Management need to allow themselves to be accessible to employees by meeting staff regularly and answering questions about decisions. It may be useful to "empower" employees to make decisions at lower levels of the organisation. Moreover, management can set marketing-oriented goals (both short-term and long-term) with individual departments. Rewards need to be given to reinforce their behaviour (which can be announced in regular staff meetings) so that the achievement associated with marketing orientation is recognised.

The findings also suggest that clients' demands need to be understood continuously and systematically. Management need to be aware of three main aspects: the attitude and behaviour of employees who have direct contact with clients, tangible aspects (course provision and environment) and intangible aspects (exchanging information between the institution and clients). It implies that regular marketing research co-ordinated by the marketing team is needed but that this should be executed by individual departments so as to gather opinions and/or advice from clients for further improvement of services. Moreover, there needs to be a formal channel whereby clients can voice their opinions and feelings. Examples might be a suggestion box in the reception hall and allocating a marketing staff member the task of receiving complaints or opinions at a particular time. As marketing is regarded as a relatively new concept to FE, it will take a long time to change people's perceptions and attitude towards marketing. The role of marketing specialists needs to be re-defined from one of merely seeking *market expansion* by means of promotion and public relations to one of bringing *internal consolidation* by means of establishing a marketing-oriented structure and culture in which employees are rewarded and trained for their marketing-oriented behaviours so that their relationship with clients is maintained in a healthy way.

9.8 DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There appear to be several areas in need of further research. The first area relates to the link between a marketing orientation and performance. This study employs a case study approach to help understand the problems during the initial period in implementing

marketing principles. It would be worthwhile to adopt a longitudinal study to investigate the impact of a marketing orientation on the overall performance of a college (or colleges). Second, in terms of client groups, only present students and employing organisations were selected in the present study in relation to their interaction with particular FE colleges. Given the fact that FE (being in a not-for-profit sector) is operating in the public's interest, it is suggested that other constituent groups, such as donors, local government, and the community could be chosen for study. It may be useful to examine how FE reacts to different (sometimes conflicting) demands required by a variety of constituent groups. Third, apart from organisation co-ordination, employee orientation and client orientation, additional factors can be explored as to how they affect the implementation and development of a marketing orientation. Fourth, the focus of the empirical study is only on FE. It may be useful to try and apply the framework to examine the development of marketing in other educational sectors such as schools and higher education. Fifth, from a methodological point of view, data in this study were mainly obtained from the lecturing staff and senior management. It would be useful to obtain a broader sample of the lecturing staff and even non-lecturing staff. Sixth, the research was carried out inductively in the sense that themes are derived from the empirical study. It would be useful to test the derived framework by developing a survey to be administered in a large number of FE colleges.

9.9 REFLEXIVE ACCOUNT

Now that we have come to the end of the thesis, I believe that it is a time for me to reflect on my experience in the long process of researching. I will adopt a "why, what and how" approach (Watson, 1994) in presenting my ideas and thoughts on my research. The questions I attempt to answer and handle include: why did I do this research, why is it important, what have I done, how did I do it, how would I do it differently if I were to do it again?

Why This Research?

Why did I do this research? Back in early 1991 I knew nothing about the FE field. It did not come into my mind until one day I attended a conference organised by an FE college. The purpose of this conference was to enhance the managerial competence of heads of department within the FE colleges in Nottingham. During informal conversations with several department heads of FE colleges I started to realise that the concept of marketing had become a contentious issue. They had all attempted to develop policies in relation to marketing in their colleges. This really intrigued me. Marketing has long been regarded as belonging to the commercial world. People generally do not expect to see marketing in academic contexts. Why were the professional people (especially the management) in the FE colleges keen on marketing? What aspects of internal pressure would they face? How could they overcome these problems? Was there any way out for them?

After asking a series of questions I knew that the only way to improve my understanding was to engage in empirical research. Later I will discuss my research methods (ie. how did I do it?). Here I want to focus on the "why" issue. During the process of pre-understanding and understanding (see Fig. 3.3), it was understood that the adoption of a marketing orientation was perceived by managements (at least a considerable number) as a way to strengthen their colleges' positions in the competitive environment. In other words, marketing orientation is associated with long-term viability and survival. I was also interested to know the possibilities and problems which arise in developing a marketing orientation in relation to attitudes, values, cultural and managerial processes in the professional field. An inappropriate development of a marketing orientation may affect organisational effectiveness which may in turn affect long-term viability (which was discussed in Section 2.5.4).

Why is the research important? Through taking a holistic view of the problems of developing a marketing orientation in FE, the hidden problems and obstacles were explored and examined. In this way, our understanding of organisational change in relation to marketing has been improved. Moreover, the framework of marketing

orientation, the four-waves conceptual model and the steps for a change strategy provide not only the management in the FE colleges with some guidelines but also the practitioners in other professional fields.

What Have I Done?

The second question I attempt to answer is: what have I done, was it merely a trivial piece of work? The aim of the research is, first of all, to fill the gap in the literature (especially the marketing literature in FE); and, secondly, to put forward a new direction in studying the notion of marketing orientation.

When we look at the limited amount of marketing literature in the FE field its emphasis is more to do with pragmatic matters of how to implement marketing principles (see Further Education Unit, 1988 & 1990; Megson & Baber, 1986; Theodossin, 1986). Long lists showing how to use marketing tools and techniques have been presented. It is assumed that when the management are able to grasp the techniques of using the marketing tools they will improve organisational effectiveness. However, the existing literature generally does not explore the organisational and behavioural problems. These, I believe, are essential notions for the management to understand before any marketing tools are employed. The use of a holistic approach in studying the notion of a marketing orientation in my research helps us explore a wide range of environmental, organisational and behavioural factors within the FE field in an attempt to construct an operational basis for managing and planning the development of a marketing orientation.

The main concern of my thesis is to generate a new emphasis and direction for the study of marketing orientation. The study has emphasized the need for professionals in the field to look at the relationship between themselves and their organisations, and their organisations and the environment, in a new way. The emphasis has been on *understanding* and *application relating to marketing orientation*.

How?

The third question is: how did I do it and what were the limitations, how would I do it differently? In this section I will attempt to evaluate and discuss my research methods and a conceptual framework.

Regarding my research methods, I have taken an "internal realist" view (Putman, 1983) in the belief that reality is socially constructed. Thus, I adopted the case study approach in an attempt to dive into "the garbage can" (Cohen, March & Olsen, 1972; Watson et.al., 1991) to research the issues in the process of change. It is believed that it is a better way to understand the actors' feelings, values and response in the context of structural and cultural change. The research methods I had adopted were examined in Chapter 3.

One main limitation in the research process was that I could not involve myself more closely in daily organisational problems. I acted generally as an outsider instead of an insider. The reason was that I was not one of their staff members, and I was not given a chance to co-operate with any college divisions in any project within the three FE colleges. Also, since I was only able to spend a year on the fieldwork, I could not stay in any one college for more than three months. When I was in the field, the gatekeepers generally welcomed my presence. They took me around, introduced staff members to me, allowed me to walk round the colleges freely. However, due to my sporadic presence in the field, I could not be with them as they faced daily problems. I might not be able to feel how they felt; I might not see the true faces of some key actors behind their veils; I might not understand the whole picture of politics and power struggling. I often felt that I was at the top of an iceberg in the sense that I could touch the quality of the ice but I could not see clearly the part of the iceberg below the water. Thus, I would recognise that other research methods might have been adopted in other circumstances. For example, participant observation might have been adopted to enable one to explore the inner life of the organisation and share the experiences of the staff members. Alternatively, one might have examined the situation of the role of marketing in the FE field by using a survey approach prior to adopting a case study approach

involving diving into one organisation as a participant observer to investigate the process of change. However, all research is limited by resource issues and constraints of time availability. It is felt that the methods used in the present study were the most fruitful given the circumstances of the investigation.

In terms of the conceptual framework, the behavioural components within it may change according to the nature of the environment. At the time of the investigation, the three highlighting components were emerging as prominent issues. However, further components may develop as colleges face new circumstances in their volatile environment. Thus, the marketing orientation framework I have offered is not a rigid one but serves as a guideline for further research. It is a good time for researchers to investigate the social and political phenomena based on the *four waves* model.

Concerning the notion of client groups, I have confined my study to "students" and "employing organisations". As competition becomes more and more intense, resources become more and more interdependent and the nature of the relationship between the colleges and their constituencies will change. Thus, the scope of a study in the future may need to be widened to examine the connection between colleges and a different set of constituencies.

9.10 SOME FINAL REMARKS

A Times Higher Education Supplement survey of 1,000 11-year-old students (Times Higher Education Supplement, 1994b) on their choice of institutions after their compulsory schooling shows that FE colleges are perceived to be at the bottom of the scale of academic standards. In terms of the pecking order, schools are perceived to be the first choice, then sixth-form colleges, and then FE colleges. FE colleges are associated with job-related training with low esteem and lower expectations of GCSE success. Although in recent years the curriculum of many FE colleges has been broadened beyond purely job-related training, this has not been widely recognised. One might argue that the market emphasis of FE colleges in the 1990s is more in the adult market rather than in the 16-19 year-old market. These 11-year-old students might not

be the most significant clients in the future. Nevertheless, it does reveal that the attempt of the government to end the academic and vocational divide is unsuccessful at the time of this survey.

According to Bernard (1994), other sectors are no less in a "state of flux" and "perhaps none more so than further education colleges". Faced with economic constraints and a dynamic environment, FE colleges are seeking to develop new courses, to attract more fee-paying students, and to recruit more overseas students. They are constantly competing with other FE colleges and with other types of institution locally, nationally and even internationally. The world of education is becoming more competitive. Colleges are perceived to have new threats and opportunities. A "true professional" might be said to be the one who is able to understand the sources of uncertainty and the client's problems and is successful in taking initiatives to "finding out" solutions instead of claiming that they "know best". Developing a marketing orientation is regarded as a more fundamental approach to "finding out" the demands of both internal and external clients.

Finally, I would like to restate the important point that, if a college is serious about developing marketing orientation, management need first of all to understand what the notion entails and to commit themselves fully to it. It is their role to generate a culture and structure in which employees can continue to meet their own interests in a way that is, at the same time, in accord with organisational purposes. It is important for colleges to change themselves from within and respond flexibly to individual and social demands. This is what a college needs in an unstable and challenging environment.

Developing a marketing orientation is a complicated matter. However, it is suggested that those organisations which take it seriously are likely to be more effective and more likely to survive in the long-term.

APPENDIX 1: FORMULA FUNDING

Item 14: Statement of procedures for determining college budgets in the light of the Education Committee's strategic plans.

1. In deriving its resource model the LEA has wished to keep the following principles in mind.
 - i. The resourcing model should follow and support the Strategic Planning process. There should be a coherence between the two so that colleges can readily deduce the budgetary implications of planning decisions.
 - ii. The resourcing model should be as straightforward as possible whilst recognising where possible and as appropriate individual needs of colleges.
2. The following process will be involved in the allocation of resources to colleges:
 - i. The global budget for Further Education will be determined by the Education Committee. The amount held back to cover excepted items. eg. contingency fund, development fund, capital expenditure etc, will be determined and deducted from the global F.E. budget.
 - ii. The amount remaining after deduction of excepted items will be allocated to colleges on the basis of:
 - a) a sum for premises related costs calculated on a historical basis and adjusted for inflation and other relevant factors.
 - b) a sum based upon the application of the unit of resource to the planned weighted full-time equivalent students for a college. Under the phasing arrangements this will be subject under normal circumstances, to a maximum reduction of 5% compared with the previous year's college budget with any increase due to other colleges being reduced proportionately.

To this will be added:

- c) any agreed funding to a college from specific grants.
- d) any agreed additional funding from the contingency fund or the development fund.
- iii. The proportion of the funding in category (a) above across the LEA will be approximately 3%. Funding allocated through the formula in category (b) will be in the order of 80%.
- iv. Performance indicators will be used in the consideration of the efficiency and educational effectiveness both of the system as a whole and of individual colleges. Individual colleges will be affected by the fact that a single unit of resource will be used throughout the LEA and this could necessitate operation within a smaller budget and by the fact that the Strategic Planning process will eventually take into account college effectiveness.

Source: Nottinghamshire Education Committee Report, 5th June, 1989

APPENDIX 2: EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS MONITORS IN FURTHER EDUCATION

1) Efficiency Monitors

There are two: (a) Student/Staff Ratio (SSR)
(b) Unit costing

(a) SSR

This is required by the DES in annual returns and by the LEA for league tables of Colleges in the Authority. SSR is given by the formula.

$$SSR = \frac{ACS \times ALH}{ASH}$$

Where ACS = Average class size

ALH = Average weekly lecturer class contact hours

ASH = Average weekly taught hours of full-time students

The DES require a figure of 11.4 by 1991/2 for SSR, and at present one department in the College has a SSR of 10.5 with ACS = 15, ALH = 18, ASH = 25. Any of the variables can be adjusted to alter the SSR and current policy is to increase ACS and ALH while reducing ASH, but obviously all these variables can only be adjusted within certain limits.

There can be problems in calculating these variables and SSR has now been redefined as

$$SSR = \frac{\text{full-time equivalent students (FTE students)}}{\text{full-time equivalent staff (FTE staff)}}$$

SSR is used as a measure of efficiency for several reasons, chiefly that it is a rough proxy for costs as academic staff costs count for at least 60% of NAFE costs, and so constitute the major variable. Also the inputs are relatively easy to count.

(b) Unit Costing

It should, eventually, be possible to calculate cost per student and cost per course in NAFE. The reasons for wanting this information are:

- (i) To enable comparisons with other institutions.
- (ii) To facilitate pricing of courses, if it is required eg. for full cost courses provided to meet employer needs.

Broxtowe College does not have unit costing working currently, but is soon to take part in a pilot scheme with CIPFA and the DES.

(2) Effectiveness Monitors

Currently effectiveness monitors are used internally by course teams and they are non-financial monitors.

(a) $\frac{\text{number completing course}}{\text{number enrolled}} = \text{completion rate}$

(b) $\frac{\text{number passing}}{\text{number assessed}}$ and (c) $\frac{\text{number passing}}{\text{number enrolled}}$

These are all found manually at present, and involve many hours of clerical calculation and checking but should be available instantly from the new control system. The monitors recommended by the DES are:

- (i) $\frac{\text{students enrolled}}{\text{target enrolment}}$ - Indicator of attractiveness of course
- (ii) $\frac{\text{students completing}}{\text{students enrolled}}$ - measure of student satisfaction with and progress through a course
- (iii) $\frac{\text{"successful" students}}{\text{students enrolled}}$ - an important indicator for courses with exam or qualification aim
- (iv) $\frac{\text{students "progressed"}}{\text{students completing}}$ - indicator of quality and relevance of NAFE to wider world

In (iv) "progressed" means progressing to further or higher education or training or in employment following the completion of courses.

These measures of effectiveness and efficiency are useful as general guides, but care must be taken when using them in a prescriptive way. Otley's contingency theory states that the most appropriate control system for an organisation depends on certain contingent variables, the major ones being the environment, technology, organisational structure and strategy as well as culture. The control system chosen should be an aid to the managers who are controlling a set of activities for which they are responsible, and it should focus primarily on aspects of performance which can be measured and quantified in financial terms, as in unit costing, although he states that in some circumstance, as in a college, overall output targets cannot be specified solely in financial terms.

This is the problem facing any college in NAFE, and hence the surrogate measures outlined above. Subjective judgements about inputs, outputs and effects of intervention are of great importance in these areas, and Hofstede realised this and emphasised that the range of control alternatives is dependent on the situation and should allow for the interactions of people in controlling organisations.

Some problems which lecturers know arise but are not taken account of in the efficiency and effectiveness monitors include:

- 1) In working to a target SSR of 11.4, some classes are going to have to be very large to balance small classes which are run because the market for them is seen as a future growth area.
- 2) Some students, especially overseas students, who are being taught academic subjects in a language which is foreign to them benefit from the more individual attention given in smaller classes.
- 3) Sometimes students start one course but are later counselled to change to another more suitable. They will appear as "successful" for the new course only.
- 4) "Success" cannot always be measure in examination grade only. In NAFE there are sometimes low ability students with whom success is measured in terms of acceptable behaviour in the classroom, and this is impossible to quantify.
- 5) Students can leave a course for reasons outside the control of the College eg. illness or change of employment.
- 6) Some students suffer from severe examination nerves and can perform well in class, but not appear for exams.
- 7) There are occasional students who benefit from repeating a course for example one of my GCSE students (foreign) who gained a grade C at her third attempt. Her grade gradually improved over the three years.

LEA Local Education Authority

DES Department of Education and Science

AFE Non-Advanced Further Education

CIPFA The Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy

Source: Nottinghamshire Education Committee Report, 5th June, 1989

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES FOR COLLEGE STAFF, STUDENTS AND INDUSTRY

For College Staff

ENTRY NO. :

DATE :

EVENT :

SETTING :

METHODOLOGY :

TITLE :

OBSERVATION:

1. How long you have been working here?
2. Where were you before?
3. job specification

A. Culture

4. What attracted you to come here?
5. How do you feel about being here?
6. If you can imagine it, what would you say the ideal FE college would be like?

Probe: quality of teachers, courses, management, system, client needs.

7. How does this college compare to this ideal?

B. Change

8. What do you see as the most significant changes affecting FE field, say over the last 3 years?
What about the near future?

Prompts: demography, labour market changes, T.E.C.s, Education Reform Act 1988, Joint Efficiency Study (MIS/Performance Indicators), National Council for Vocational Qualification, Europe 1992.

9. How do the changes affect this college?

Prompt: structure, attitude

10. What do you think are the most important changes that have happened here?

11. How do you think people have generally felt about the changes? (and yourself?)

12. What kind of role you are playing in this change process?

13. When we talk about the future, what do you think should be given priority to change here?

Probe: how would you go about it?

14. People often talk of the need for an innovation approach and for entrepreneurship, a) do you think these are useful in F.E.? b) if so, what factor help/hinder their development?

C. Marketing Orientation (In General)

15. What do you understand by the term "marketing orientation", in the context of a Further Education college. What activities could marketing encompass? probe fully

16. How does this college compare to what you have described?

Probe: the main marketing activities here.

17. What criteria you think can be used to measure whether this college is marketing oriented?

18. And what activities are you personally involved in, or responsible for?

Probe: are you aware of any other activities which are designed to improve the services provided by the college?

19. Some FE Colleges now have marketing coordinators who typically have responsibility for the marketing activities of the college.

How do you feel about this system?

Probe: benefits and drawbacks.

20. How do people generally feel about marketing here? What do you think?

21. Can you think of any other innovations or changes which might improve the marketing of this college?

Probe: internal system, courses, relationship with other bodies

In Particular: Development of Courses

I want to ask you now about the process of setting up and running courses.

22. What steps are taken to ensure that courses meet the needs of employers?

23. What form do your contacts with employers take?

Probe: is contact formal or informal? Is contact regular or irregular?

24. How much importance do you attach to these contacts?

probe: Why do you say that?

25. Could you describe any instances of discussion and cooperation between the college and employers which have proved particularly successful or rewarding?

In Particular: Advisory Committee

Now I would like to ask you about Advisory committees.

26. What role, do you think, does an advisory committee play in the college? Who are those people there?

prompt: proportion of different kind of people

27. How effective are Advisory Committees in your opinion?

28. What developments, if any, would you like to see in this area?

In Particular: Student

29. After students have left the college, is there any follow-up on their employment record or attitudes, as a means of evaluating courses?

If yes, what form does this follow-up take? How is this information used?

If no, would you regard this as being a valuable exercise? why do you say that?

30. Is there any system for recording information on the attitudes of present students towards their courses?

If yes, how is this information collected and recorded? How is this information used?

If no, would you regard this as being a valuable exercise? Why do you say that?

31. Are there any service you offer to your clients? (e.g. consultantion)? What are they?

D. Organisational Effectiveness

32. How competitive do you think this college in its various markets? Probe: aware of environment, ranking of colleges

33. What do you think is the strength here? What about weak factor?

34. People often talk about organisations being "effective", what does this mean to you?

35. Finally, are there any other observations you would like to make, or points you want to emphasise?

For students

Entry No.:

Date:

Setting:

Research Method:

Name:

Age:

Sex:

Nationality:

Name of course:

Nature of course:

Registered disabled?

1. How long have you been studying in the college?

2. Where were you before?

3. How did you first hear about the college?

4. Who chose this college for you or you chose it yourself?

5. (Chosen by themselves) Why did you choose this college?
(Chosen by others) Do you know why did (they) choose this college?
6. (only for those who has been in the college for 2 years onward) Do you see any change happened in the college?
7. Is studying in the college what you expected it to be like?
8. Can you tell me one good point and one bad point about the college?
9. I would like us now to talk about the course you are doing and the teaching of the course:
 - a) Let's first look at the course itself:
 - i. Does the course cover the things you feel you need or want to know?
 - ii. Does the course make use or build upon knowledge and experience you had before you came here?
 - iii. Does the course help you improve how you go about studying and learning?
 - iv. How well have you been informed about other courses you could progress onto after this one?
 - b) Let's now go on to the teachers and tutors:
 - i. When you started in the college did the staff find out from you such things what you've done before, what you need and want to learn (and what you do at work)?
 - ii. Does the teaching try to relate the course to the world outside the course and the college?
 - iii. How far do the tutors actively involve you in the learning Process? ("get you do things" as opposed to lecturing you)
 - iv. How helpful do you think the tutors are when people have problems with the course?
 - v. How helpful do you think when people have personal problems?
 - vi. What do you think about the career guidance which is available in the college?
 - c) How do you feel about studying environment?
 - d) How do you feel about facilities?
 - e) How do you feel about the location of the college?
 - f) Is there any aspects you would like to express your opinion that I haven't cover?

10. Has the college ever asked you any opinion about the college?
11. What do you think should be given the priority to improve here?
12. What do you think about the future role of FE college?
13. Finally, are there any other observation you would like to make, or points you want to emphasise?

FOR INDUSTRY

Entry No.:

Date and Time of interview:

Name of Company:

Name of interviewee:

Position:

Setting:

Recommended by:

How long having connection with (x) college:

Research Method:

Size of compnay:

1. Could you first tell me about your company's overall approach to training and educating its employees?
2. What part does the provision of further education colleges play in this?
Which colleges?
Which courses?
What about the mode - frequency of attendance (day-release, P.T...)
3. What criteria do you use in choosing a particular college?
4. What led to your choosing the college(s) you currently use?
5. How long have you been using the services at (X) colleges?
(For those who have been using FE services for more than 2 years): Do you see any change happened in the college(s)?
6. Is it what you expected to be like?
7. Could you tell me one good point and one bad point about the college(s)?

Now I would like to ask you about the contact or discussions you, or other senior personnel within the company, may have had with colleges such as FE colleges.

8. First, have you ever had any personal contact with or discussions with or literature from colleges?

8a). Probe: what about other colleagues?

8b). If yes, from your point of view what benefits, if any, are there in talking to colleges?

9. What kind of the contact it is?

9a). is contact formal or informal?

9b). is contact regular or irregular?

9c). Who do you usually contact with? What's his(her) position?

10. What do you see as being the purpose of these contacts, from the college's point of view?

Probe: What does the college gain from talking to people in Commerce and industry?

11. Do you, or any of your colleagues, sit on an advisory committee for FE?

(If necessary: these are committees which comprise heads of department in colleges, representatives of commerce and industry and other interest parties and which seek to guide the development of new courses.)

11a). If yes, how useful do you think this committee's work is?

Probe, why do you say that?

12. In your opinion, what could colleges of FE do to improve the relevance and appeal of their courses to commerce and industry?

Probe: What development, if any, would you like to see in this area?

13. Can you think of any other ways in which colleges of FE could improve the relationship with commerce and industry?

14. What role, do you think, FE colleges should play in the future?

15. Are there any other observations you would like to make, or points you want to emphasise?

16. Have you got any company in mind who are using the services of FE colleges as well?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Agar, M.H. (1986)
Speaking of Ethnography, Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Aldrich, H.E. (1979)
Organizations and Environments, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- AMA (1985)
"AMA Board Approves New Marketing Definition", Marketing News, No.5, 1, March, P.1.
- Ames, B.C. (1970)
"Trappings Versus Substance in Industrial Marketing", Harvard Business Review, July-August, Pp.93-102.
- Anderson, P. (1982)
"Marketing, Strategic Planning, and the Theory of the Firm", Journal of Marketing, 46, Spring, Pp.15-26.
- Anthony R.N. (1965)
Planning and Control Systems: A Framework for Analysis, Boston: Harvard University.
- Archer, S. (1988)
"Qualitative Research and the Epistemological Problems of the Management Disciplines" in A.M. Pettigrew (ed.), Competitiveness and the Management Process, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Argyris, C. (1966)
"Interpersonal Barriers to Decision Making", Harvard Business Review, 44, March-April, Pp.84-97.
- Baker, M.J. (1985)
Marketing: An Introductory Text, 4th edition, London: Macmillan.
- Baker, M.J. (1989)
"Marketing - A New Philosophy of Management", The Quarterly Review of Marketing, Vol.15, No.2, Winter, Pp.1-4.
- Baker, M.J. (1979)
"Export Myopia", Marketing, Vol.9, No.4, Spring.
- Barnard, C.L. (1938)
The Functions of the Executive, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Barnes, J.A. (1977)
The Ethics of Inquiry in Social Science, New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

- Bartels, R. (1970)
 "Marketing Theory and Metatheory", quoted by D. Gilbert & N. Bailey (1990), "The Development of Marketing - A Compendium of Historical Approaches", The Quarterly Review of Marketing, Jan.-Feb., Vol.15, No.2, Pp.6-13.
- Bateson, J.E.G. (1989)
Managing Services Marketing, Chicago: The Dryden Press.
- Baudet, H. & Meulen, V.D. (1982)
Consumer Behaviour and Economic Growth in the Modern Economy, London: Croom-Helm.
- Becker, H.S. (1958)
 "Problems of Inference and Proof in Participant Observation", American Sociological Review, 23, Pp.652-660.
- Becker, H.S. (1970)
Sociological Work: Method and Substance, U.S.A.: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Beckman, S. (1990)
 "Professionalization: Borderline Authority and Autonomy in Work", in M. Burrage and R. Torstendahl (eds.), Professions in Theory and History, Pp.115-138, London: Sage.
- Bell, M.L. & Emory, C.W. (1971)
 "The Faltering Marketing Concept", Journal of Marketing, Vol.35, October, Pp.37-42.
- Bell, M.L. & Emory, C.W. (1982)
Consumer Behaviour and Economic Growth in the Modern Economy, London: Croom-Helm.
- Bennett, R.C. & Cooper, R.G. (1981)
 "The Misuse of Marketing: An American Tragedy", Business Horizons, November-December.
- Bennis, W.G. (1966)
Changing Organisations. Essays on the Development and Evolution of Human Organisation, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Bernard, K. (1994)
 "Ways out of the Whirlpool", Times Higher Education Supplement, Synthesis: Marketing Your College, March 18, X.
- Berry, L.L. (1980)
 "Services Marketing is Different", Business, May-June, Vol.30, No.3, Pp.24-9.
- Berry, L. (1984)
 "The Employees as Customers", in C. Lovelock (ed.), Services Marketing, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Pp.271-278.

- Bertrand, K. (1987)
 "Marketing '87: The Customer is King", Business Marketing, Vol.12, Part 6, June, Pp.85-89.
- Blau, P.M. (1955)
The Dynamics of Bureaucracy, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Bloom, P.N. (1984)
 "Effective Marketing for Professional Services", Harvard Business Review, Vol. 62, No.5, Sept.-Oct., Pp.102-110.
- Boissevain, J. (1974)
Friends of Friends, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Bonoma, T. V. (1985a)
 "Case Research in Marketing: Opportunities, Problems, and a Process", Journal of Marketing Research, 22(May), Pp.199-208.
- Bonoma, T.V. (1985b)
The Marketing Edge, New York: Free Press.
- Bonoma, T.V. (1986)
 "Marketing Subversives", Harvard Business Review, November-December, Pp.113-118.
- Booms, B.H. & Bitner, M.J. (1982)
 "Marketing Strategies and Organization Structures for Service Firms" in J.H. Donnelly & W.R. George (eds.), Marketing of Services, American Marketing Association, Chicago.
- Bradlow, D.A. (1986)
 "Positioning the Professional Service Firm", Legal Economics, Feb., Pp.30-35.
- Brooks, C. (1991)
Marketing Network News, Special Edition, the Newsletter of the association of Marketing Personnel in Further & Higher Education, April, P.4.
- Brooks, C. (1988)
 "Mission Impossible", Education, 171.18, p.383.
- Brown, C.P., Guillet de M., & McCullough, A. (1976)
The Access Casebook, Stockholm: Teknisk Hogskolelitteratur (THS).
- Brown, R. (1992)
 "The Persistence of the Paradigm Problem", Business Academy of Management Annual Conference, University of Bradford, September.

- Bryman, A. (1988)
 "Introduction: 'Inside' Accounts and Social Research in Organizations" in A. Bryman (ed.), Doing Research in Organizations, London: Routledge, Pp.1-20.
- Bryman, A. (1989)
Research Methods and Organization Studies, London: Unwin Hyman.
- Buchanan, D. & Boddy, D. (1992)
The Expertise of the Change Agent, New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Buchanan, D., Boddy, D., McCalman, A. & Keil, T. (1988)
 "Getting In, Getting On, Getting Out, and Getting Back", in A. Bryman (ed.), Doing Research in Organizations, London: Routledge, Pp.53-67.
- Burgess, R.G. (1982)
Field Research: A Source Book and Field Manual, London: Allen & Unwin.
- Burgess, R.G. (1984)
In the Field, London: Allen & Unwin.
- Burns, T. (1961)
 "Micropolitics", Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.6, No.3, Pp.257-281.
- Burns, T. (1977)
The BBC: Public Institution and Private World, London: MacMillan.
- Burns, T. & Stalker, G.M. (1961)
The Management of Innovation, London: Tavistock.
- Calonius, H. (1986)
 "A Market Behaviour Framework", in H. Calonius et. al. (eds.), Conference of the European Marketing Academy Proceedings, Helsinki, Pp.515-24.
- Canning, G., Jr. (1988)
 "Is Your Company Marketing Oriented?", The Journal of Business Strategy, May-June, Pp.34-36.
- Cantor, L.M. & Roberts, I.F. (1986)
Further Education Today: A Critical Review, 3rd edition, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Caplow, T. (1954)
 "The Occupational Stereotype", The Sociology of Work, Pp.134-5, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Caplow, T. (1966)
 "The Sequence of Professionalization", in H.M.Vollmer & D.L.Mills (eds.), Professionalization, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Pp.20-21.

- Carr-Saunders, A.M. (1955)
 "Metropolitan Conditions and Traditional Professional Relationships" in R.M. Fisher (ed.), The Metropolis in Modern Life, New York: Doubleday & Company, Pp.280-1.
- Carr-Saunders, A.M. & Wilson, P.A. (1964)
The Professions, 2nd edition, London: Frank Cass & Co.
- Castling, A. (1984)
 "Reaching Out: Some Problems of Marketing in Further Education Setting", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Vol.8, No.1, Spring, Pp.53-59.
- CBI (1989)
Towards a Skills Revolution Report of the Vocational Education and Training Task Force, London: C.B.I.
- Chan, V.W.S. (1988)
The Marketing Orientation and its Relationship with Profitability in Tour Operating Industry, unpublished dissertation, Sheffield University.
- Child, J. (1979)
Organisation, London: Harper & Row.
- Christopher, M.G., Kennedy, S.H., McDonald, M. & Wills, G. (1980)
Effective Marketing Management, Gower: Aldershot.
- Cohen, M.D., March, J.G. & Olsen, J.P. (1972)
 "A Garbage Can Model of Organisational Choice", Administrative Science Quarterly, 17:1-25.
- Compton, S. (1987)
 "Internal Marketing of Marketing", in J. Czepiel, C. Congram & J. Shanahan (eds.), The Services Challenge: Integrating for Competitive Advantage, Chicago, Ill.: AMA, Pp.17-20.
- Comte, A. (1853)
The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte, London: Trubner & Co.
- Cousins, L. (1990)
 "Marketing Planning in the Public and Non-Profit Sectors", European Journal of Marketing, Vol.24, No.7, Pp.15-29.
- Cowell, D. (1984)
The Marketing of Services, London: Heinemann.
- Crompton, R. & Jones, G. (1988)
 "Researching White Collar Organizations: Why Sociologists Should Not Stop Doing Case Studies", in A. Bryman (ed.), Doing Research in Organizations, London: Routledge, Pp.68-81.

- Culbert, S.A. & McDonough, J.J. (1979)
Radical Management - Power Politics and the Pursuit of Trust, New York: Free Press,
 Pp.129-149.
- Cummings, L.L. (1977)
 "Emergence of the Instrumental Organization", in P.S. Goodman, J.M. Pennings &
 Associates (eds), New Perspectives on Organizational Effectiveness, San Francisco:
 Jossey-Bass.
- Cunningham-Burley, S. (1984)
 "'We don't talk about it...' Issues of Gender and Method in the Portrayal of
 Grandfatherhood", Sociology, Vol.18, No.3, August, Pp.325-337.
- Cyert, R.M. & March, J.G. (1963)
A Behavioral Theory of the Firm, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Daft, R.L. (1980)
 "The Evolution of Organizational Analysis in ASQ, 1959-1979", Administrative Science
 Quarterly, Vol.25, No.4, Pp.623-636.
- Daft, R.L. (1989)
Organization Theory and Design, 3rd Edition, St.Paul: West Publishing Company.
- Dalton, M. (1964)
 "Preconceptions and Methods in Men Who Manage", in P. Hammond (ed.), Sociologists
 at Work, New York: Basic Books.
- Dalton, M. (1959)
Men Who Manage: Fusion of Feeling and Theory in Administration, New York: Wiley.
- Darwin, C. (1928)
The Origin of Species, London: Dent.
- Davidson, D.S. (1978)
 "How to Succeed in a Service Industry...turn the Organisation Chart Upside Down",
Management Review, April, Pp.13-16.
- Davies, B. & Ellison, L. (1991)
Marketing the Secondary School, Essex: Longman.
- Davies, C. (1983)
 "Professionals in Bureaucracies: the Conflict Thesis Revisited", in R. Dingwall & P.
 Lewis (eds.), The Sociology of the Professions, London: Macmillan, Pp.177-194.
- Davies, P. & Scribbins, K. (1985)
Marketing Further and Higher Education College, York: Longman.

- Davila, C. (1989)
 "Grounding Management Education in Local Research: A Latin American Experience" in J. Davies, M. Easterby-Smith, S. Mann, and M. Tanton (eds.), The Challenge to Western Management Development: International Alternatives, London: Routledge.
- Day, G.S. & Wensley, R. (1988)
 "Assessing Advantage: A Framework for Diagnosing Competitive Superiority", Journal of Marketing, 52: 2, January, Pp.3-15.
- Deal, T.E. & Kennedy, A.A. (1982)
Corporate Cultures: the Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life, Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.
- DeLuca, J.R. (1984)
 "Managing the Socio-Political Context in Planned Change Efforts", in A. Kakabadse (ed.), Power Politics and Organizations: A Behavioral Science View, Chichester: Wiley.
- Dennis, G.(ed.) (1991)
Annual Abstract of Statistics, 1991, Central Statistical Office, No.127, London: HMSO.
- Department of Education & Science (1981)
Colleges of Further Education Guide to the Measurement of Resource Efficiency, Department of Environment: District Audit.
- Department of Education & Science (1982)
 "Enrolments on Advanced Further Education Courses 1981-82", Statistical Bulletin, 6/82, March, London: DES.
- Department of Education & Science (1987a)
Projected Numbers of Students in Maintained Colleges Studying on Non-Advanced Courses: England 1986-2000, London: DES.
- Department of Education & Science (1987b)
Managing Colleges Efficiently, Report of a Study of Efficiency in Non-Advanced Further Education for the Government and the Local Authority Associations, London: HMSO.
- Department of Education & Science (1990)
 "Educational and Economic Activity of Young People Aged 16 to 18 Years in England From 1975 to 1989", Statistical Bulletin, 9/90, July, London: DES Education Statistics Publications.
- Department of Education & Science (1991)
 "Statistics of Further Education Students in England 1970/1 - 1989/90", Statistical Bulletin, 19/91, July, London: DES Education Statistics Publications.

- Department For Education (1992)
 "Statistics of Further Education Students in England 1970/1-1990/91", Statistical Bulletin, 17/92, August, Government Statistical Service.
- Deshpande, R. & Zaltman, G. (1982)
 "Factors Affecting the Use of Market Research Information: A Path Analysis", Journal of Marketing Research, 19, February, Pp.14-31.
- Deshpande, R. & Webster, F.E.Jr. (1989)
 "Organizational Culture and Marketing: Defining the Research Agenda", Journal of Marketing, Vol.53, January, Pp.3-15.
- Dickinson, R., Herbst, A. & O'Shaughnessy, J. (1986)
 "Marketing Concept and Customer Orientation", European Journal of Marketing, 20, 10, Pp.18-13.
- Dingwall, R. & Lewis, P. (1983)
The Sociology of the Professions, London: Macmillan.
- Douglas, J.D. (1979)
Investigative Social Research: Individual and Team Field Research, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Doyle, P. (1985)
 "Marketing and the Competitive Performance of British Industry: Areas for Research", Journal of Marketing Management, Vol.1, No.1, Summer, Pp.87-98.
- Dreher, A. et al (1991)
 "Measuring Marketing Orientation - Approaching a Distant Beauty", Working Paper, the 20th European Marketing Academy Conference, University College Dublin, 21-3, May.
- Drucker, P.F. (1954)
The Practice of Management, New York: Harper & Row.
- Drucker, P.F. (1973)
Management: Tasks. Responsibilities. Practices, New York: Harper & Row.
- Dumesic, R.J. (1984)
 "Emphasis should be on 'Professional' when Marketing Professional services", Marketing News, October 12, P.42.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Lowe, A. (1991)
Management Research, London: Sage.
- Eiglier, P. & Langeard, E. (1987)
Servuction, Paris: McGraw-Hill.

- Elliott, P. (1972)
The Sociology of the Professions, London: Macmillan.
- Etzioni, A. (1964)
Modern Organizations, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Evans, R. (1990)
 "Market Value", The Times Educational Supplement, 18th of May.
- Farley, M. (1989)
 "The Core Mission of L.E.A.s", Education, 172.6, P.133.
- Farmer, C. (1982)
 "Further Education", in D.Parkes (ed.) The Changing Face of FE, An Occasional Paper, York: Longman for the FEU, December, Pp.30.
- Farmer, M. (1991)
 "FE White Paper Found Seriously Wanting in Critical Areas", NATHFE Journal, Vol.16, No.3, Summer, P.16.
- Fawcett, C.A. (1989)
The Changing Role and Future Development Needs of the Further Education Middle Manager, unpublished dissertation, M.B.A., Leicester Polytechnic, September.
- Fay, P. (1989)
 "Further Education and the 1988 Education Reform Act", Journal of Further and Higher Education, 13.2, Pp.3-10.
- Felton, A.P. (1959)
 "Making the Marketing Concept Work", Harvard Business Review, 37, July-August, Pp.55-65.
- Ferner, A. (1990)
 "The Changing Influence of the Personnel Function: Privatization and Organizational Politics in Electricity Generation", Human Resource Management Journal, Vol.1, No.1, Autumn, Pp.12-30.
- Financial Times (1987a)
 "Officials at the Manpower Services Commission and the Department of Employment are looking to increase the private sector's role in programmes for the adult unemployed", 1st December, P.10.
- Financial Times (1987b)
 "Manpower Services Commission figures have shown that the restart counselling programme for those unemployed for more than six months has largely failed to find people jobs", 27th November, P.10.

- Financial Times (1988)
"UK: Training White Paper - bigger role for local employers", 6th December, P.13.
- Financial Times (1989a)
"UK: Government attracts 22 applications from employers keen to set up Training and Enterprise Councils", 23rd May, P.15.
- Financial Times (1989b)
"UK: Training and Enterprise Councils are being hijacked by large firms", 12th September, P.16.
- Fook, N.Y.M. & Watson, T.J. (1992)
"Culture, Environment and Survival in Further Education Colleges", presented to the British Academy of Management Conference, University of Bradford, September.
- Foskett, N. (1992)
Managing External Relations in Schools, London: Routledge.
- Freidson, E. (1970)
Profession of Medicine: A Study of the Sociology of Applied Knowledge, New York: Dodd, Mead and Co.
- Friedman, M. (1962)
Capitalism and Freedom, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Fullerton, R.A. (1988)
"How Modern is Modern Marketing? Marketing's Evolution and the Myth of the "Production Era"", Journal of Marketing, Vol.52, January, Pp.108-125.
- Fulop, C. & Warren, K. (1992)
"The Marketing of a Professional Service: Opticians", International Journal of Advertising, Vol.11, No.4, Pp.287-305.
- Further Education Unit (1985)
Marketing FE: A Feasibility Study, A Project Report, London: HR & H Marketing Research.
- Further Education Unit (1988)
College Marketing: A Support Pack, London: FEU.
- Further Education Unit (1990)
Developing a Marketing Strategy for Adult and Continuing Education, London: FEU.
- Galbraith, J. (1973)
Designing Complex Organizations, Addison-Wesley.

- Gawthrop, L. C. (1973)
 "The Environment, Bureaucracy, and Social Change: A Political Prognosis", Changing Organizational Behavior, A.C. Bartlett & T.A. Kayser (eds.), Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Pp.17-29.
- George, W.R. (1977)
 "The Retailing of Services - A Challenging Future", Journal of Retailing, Fall, P.91.
- Gilb, C.L. (1966)
Hidden Hierarchies: The Professions and Government, New York: Harper and Row.
- Gilbert, D. & Bailey, N. (1990)
 "The Development of Marketing - A Compendium of Historical Approaches", The Quarterly Review of Marketing, Vol.15, No.2, Pp.6-13.
- Glaser, B.G. & Strauss, A.L. (1967)
The Discovery of Grounded Theory, New York: Aldine.
- Goldthorpe, J.H., Lockwood, at al (1968)
The Affluent Worker: Industrial Attitudes and Behaviour, Cambridge University Press.
- Goode, W. (1960)
 "Encroachment, Charlatanism, and the Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology, and Medicine", American Sociological Review, 25, P.902.
- Goode, W. (1961)
 "The Librarian: From Occupation to Profession?" The Library Quarterly, 31, No.4, October, Pp.306-318.
- Gouldner, A.W. (1954)
Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy, New York: Free Press.
- Greenley, G.E. & Matcham, A.S. (1986)
 "Marketing Orientation in the Service of Incoming Tourism", European Journal of Marketing, 20, 7, Pp.64-71.
- Greenwood, E. (1957)
 "Attributes of a Profession", Social Work, 2, No.3, July, Pp.44-55.
- Grinyer, P.H., Mayes, D. & McKiernan, P. (1988)
Sharpbenders. the Secrets of Unleashing Corporate Potential, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Grönroos, C. (1979)
 "Market-Oriented Management in Service Businesses", The Finnish Journal of Business Economics, No.4, P.291.

- Grönroos, C. (1981)
 "Internal Marketing - an Integral Part of Marketing Theory", in J.H. Donnelly & W.R. George (eds.), Marketing of Services, Proceedings Series, Chicago: American Marketing Association, Pp.236-238.
- Grönroos, C. (1982)
 "Strategic Management and Marketing in the Service Sector", Swedish School of Economics and Business Administration.
- Grönroos, C. (1984)
Strategic Management and Marketing in the Service Sector, Bromley: Chartwell-Bratt Ltd.
- Grönroos, C. (1989)
 "Defining Marketing: A Market-Oriented Approach", European Journal of Marketing, Vol.23, No.1, Pp.52-60.
- Grönroos, C. (1990)
 "Relationship Approach to Marketing in Service Contexts: The Marketing and Organizational Behavior Interface", Journal of Business Research, Vol.20, Pp.3-11.
- Grönroos, C. (1991)
 "The Marketing Strategy Continuum: Towards a Marketing Concept for the 1990s", Management Decisions, Vol.29, No.1, Pp.7-13.
- Guardian (1989)
 "UK: National network of TECs is ahead of schedule, says Norman Fowler", 13th November, P.15.
- Gummesson, E. (1987)
 "The New Marketing - Developing Long Term Interactive Relationships", Long Range Planning, Vol.20, No.4, Pp.10-20.
- Gummesson, E. (1991a)
 "Marketing-orientation Revisited: The Crucial Role of the Part-time Marketer", European Journal of Marketing, Vol.25, No.2, Pp.60-75.
- Gummesson, E. (1991b)
Qualitative Methods in Management Research, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Hagg, I. & Hedlund, G. (1978)
Case Studies in Social Science Research, Brussels: European Institute for Advanced Studies in Management, Working Paper No.78-16.
- Hahn, A.R. (1957)
 "The 'Marketing Concept': a Major Change in Management Thinking?", Sales Management, 10, November, Pp.64-75.

- Hakansson, H.(ed.) (1982)
International Marketing and Purchasing of Industrial Goods: An Interaction Approach,
 IMP Project Group, Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hammersley, M. (1989)
The Dilemma of Qualitative Method, London: Routledge.
- Hampton, D.R., Summer, C.E. & Webber, R.A. (1987)
Organizational Behavior and the Practice of Management, 5th Edition, Glenview: Scott,
 Foresman and Company.
- Handy, C. (1990)
Inside Organizations, London: BBC Books.
- Hannagan, T.J. (1992)
Marketing for the Non-Profit Sector, London: MacMillan.
- Hardie, B. (1991)
Marketing the Primary School, Plymouth: Northcote House Publishers.
- Harris, B.F. (1981)
 "Strategies for Marketing Professional Services: Current Status and Research Directions",
Special Conference on Services Marketing Proceedings, Orlando, Pp.88-90.
- Harris, S.G. & Sutton, R.I. (1986)
 "Functions of Parting Ceremonies in Dying Organizations", Academy of Management
 Journal, Vol.29, No.1, Pp.5-30.
- Harries-Jenkins, G. (1970)
 "Professionals in Organizations", in J.A. Jackson (ed.), Professions and
 Professionalization, London: Cambridge University Press, Pp.53-107.
- Hedbey, B. & Jonsson, S. (1977)
 "Strategy Making as a Discontinuous Process", International Studies of Management and
 Organization, Vol.II, PP.88-109.
- Hickman, C.R. & Silva, M.A. (1985)
Creating Excellence, London: Unwin.
- Hirschman, E. (1986)
 "Humanistic Inquiry in Marketing Research: Philosophy, Method and Criteria", Journal
 of Marketing Research, 23, August, Pp.237-249.
- HMSO (1959)
 "Crowther Report", HMSO, Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education,
 Pp.15-18.

- HMSO (1988)
Employment for the 1990s, CM 540, London: HMSO.
- Hodge, B.J. & Anthony, W.P. (1988)
Organization Theory, 3rd Edition, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Hughes, E.C. (1960)
"The Professions in Society", The Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 26, No.1, Feb., Pp.54-61.
- Hunt, S.D. (1983)
"General Theories and the Fundamental Explanation of Marketing", Journal of Marketing, 47, Fall, Pp.9-17.
- Hunter, P. (1989)
"The Great Illusion", The Times Education Supplement, 30th June.
- Husserl, E. (1946)
"Phenomenology", Encyclopedia Britannica, 14th edition, Vol.17, Pp.699-702.
- Jackall, R. (1983)
"Moral Mazes: Bureaucracy and Managerial Work", Harvard Business Review, Vol.61, No.5, Pp.118-130, quoted from A. Bryman, Research Methods and Organization Studies, London: Unwin Hyman.
- Jackson, B.B. (1985)
Winning and Keeping Industrial Customers, Lexington: Lexington Books, quoted by B.J. Witcher, "Total Marketing: Total Quality and the Marketing Concept", The Quarterly Review of Marketing, Vol.15, No.2, Winter, P.4.
- Jacques, E. (1951)
The Changing Culture of a Factory, London: Tavistock.
- Johnson, G. (1990)
"Managing Strategic Change: the Role of Symbolic Action", British Journal of Management, Vol.1, Pp.183-200.
- Johnson, T.J. (1972)
Professions and Power, London: Macmillan.
- Johnson, W.C. (1989)
"Marketing in Higher Education: The Brave New World", Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, Vol.2, No.1, Pp.69-77.
- Jones, S. (1985)
"The Analysis of Depth Interviews", in R. Walker, Applied Qualitative Research, Aldershot: Gower.

- Kalder, A.G. (1971)
 "Imbricative Marketing", Journal of Marketing, April, Pp.19-25.
- Keat, R. (1991)
 "Consumer Sovereignty and the Integrity of Practices", in R. Keat & N. Abercrombie (eds), The Enterprise Culture, London: Routledge.
- Keeley, M. (1978)
 "A Social-Justice Approach to Organizational Evaluation", Administrative Science Quarterly, 23, Pp.272-290.
- Keith, R.J. (1960)
 "The Marketing Revolution", Journal of Marketing, January, Pp.33-37.
- Klein, L. (1976)
A Social Scientist in Industry, Epping, Essex: Bowker Publishing.
- Kohli, A.K. & Jaworski, B.J. (1990)
 "Market Orientation: The construct, Research Propositions, and Managerial Implications", Journal of Marketing, Vol.54, April, Pp.1-18.
- Kotler, P. (1977)
 "From Sales Obsession to Marketing Effectiveness", Harvard Business Review, November-December, Pp.67-75.
- Kotler, P. (1982)
Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, 2nd edition, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Kotler, P. (1986a)
Marketing Management: Analysis. Planning. Implementation and Control, 3rd ed., New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Kotler, P. (1986b)
 "Megamarketing", Harvard Business Review, March-April.
- Kotler, P. (1991)
Marketing Management: Analysis. Planning. Implementation and Control, 7th ed., Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Kotler, P. & Bloom, P.N. (1984)
Marketing Professional Services, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Kotler, P. & Connor, R.A., Jr (1977)
 "Marketing Professional Services", Journal of Marketing, Jan., Pp.71-76.
- Kotler, P., Fahey, L. & Jatusripitak, S. (1985)
The New Competition, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

- Kotler, P. & Fox, K.F.A. (1985)
Strategic Marketing for Educational Institutions, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Kotler, P. & Levy, S.J. (1988)
 "Broadening the Concept of Marketing", in B.M. Enis & K. Cox (eds.), Marketing Classics, 6th Edition, Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Kuhn, T.S. (1962)
The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kuper, A. & Kuper, J. (eds.) (1985)
The Social Science Encyclopedia, London: Routledge.
- Labour Market Quarterly Report
 Employment Department, August. (1991)
 Employment Department, Feb. (1992a)
 Employment Department, November. (1992b)
 Employment Department, Feb. (1993)
- Larson, M.S. (1977)
The Rise of Professionalism: A Sociological Analysis, London: University of California Press.
- Lawler, E.E. (1971)
Pay and Organizational Effectiveness, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lawler, E.E. & Rhode, J.G. (1976)
Information and Control in Organizations, Pacific Palisades, CA: Goodyear.
- Lawrence, P. & Lorsch, J. (1967)
Organization and Environment, Boston Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Lazo, H. (1958)
 "Big Business Gives Big OK to Marketing Management", Sales Management, November 21.
- Lear, R.W. (1963)
 "No Easy Road to Market Orientation", Harvard Business Review, September-October, Pp.53-60.
- Leggatt, T. (1970)
 "Teaching as a Profession", in J.A. Jackson, Professions and Professionalization, Pp.155-177, London: Cambridge University Press.
- Levitt, T. (1960)
 "Marketing Myopia", Harvard Business Review, July-August, Pp.45-56.

- Levitt, T. (1969)
The Marketing Mode, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Levitt, T. (1972)
 "Production Line Approach to Service", Harvard Business Review, Sept-Oct., Pp.41-52.
- Levitt, T. (1981)
 "Marketing Intangible Products and Product Intangibles", Harvard Business Review, May-June, Pp.94-102.
- Lowe, E.A. & Soo, W.F. (1980)
 "Organisational Effectiveness - A Critique and Proposal", Managerial Finance, 6, 1, Pp.63-77.
- Lowe, E.A. & Tinker, A.M. (1976)
 "An Educational Design for 'Shifting' Degenerate Social Science Paradigms: An Application of General Systems Theory", International Journal of General Systems, 2, Pp.231-237.
- Lowe, E.A. & McInnes, J.M. (1971)
 "Control of Social-Economic Organizations: a Rationale for the Design of Management Control Systems (Part I)", Journal of Management Studies, 8, Pp.213-227.
- Lundstrom, W.J. (1976)
 "The Marketing Concept: The Ultimate in Bait and Swich", Marquette Business Review, 20, Fall, Pp.214-230.
- Lusch, R.F., Udell, J.G. & Laczniaak, G.R. (1976)
 "The Practice of Business", Business Horizons, 19, December, Pp.65-74.
- McCarthy, E.J. & Perreault, W.D.Jr. (1987)
Basic Marketing, 9th edition, Homewood, Ill.: Irwin.
- McDaniel, S.W. & Hise, R.T. (1983)
 "Have CEOs Adopted the Marketing Concept?", in Varadarajan, The Marketing Concept. Perspectives and Viewpoints, Texas A.& M University.
- McDonald, M. (1992)
Strategic Marketing Planning, London: Kogan Page.
- McGee, L.W. & Spiro, R.L. (1988)
 "The Marketing Concept in Perspective", Business Horizons, Vol.31, No.3, May-June, Pp.40-45.
- McGregor, D. (1966)
Leadership and Motivation, Cambridge, Mass.:M.I.T. Press.

- McKitterick, J.B. (1957)
 "What is the Marketing Management Concept?", Proceedings, Chicago, Il.: American Marketing Association, Pp.71-81.
- McLeod, J. (1989)
 "Bring on the Trojan Horses", Education, 174.9, P.175.
- McNamara, C.P. (1972)
 "The Present Status of the Marketing Concept", Journal of Marketing, 36, January, Pp.50-7.
- McNulty, T., Whipp, R., Whittington, R., Kitchener, M. (1992)
 "Managing Marketing Change in Professional Service Contexts", British Academy of Management Annual Conference, University of Bradford, Sept.
- MacIver, R. (1955)
 "The Social Significance of Professional Ethics", The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 297, Jan., Pp.118-124.
- Madge, J. (1953)
The Tools of Social Science, London: Longman.
- March, J.G. & Olsen, J.P. (1976)
Ambiguity and Choice in Organisations, Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Marketing News (1985)
 "AMA Board Approves New Marketing Definition", Marketing News, No.5, 1, March, P.1.
- Marshall, T.H. (1939)
 "The Recent History of Professionalism in Relation to Social Structure and Social Policy", The Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 5, No.3, August, Pp.325-340.
- Mead, G.H. (1962)
Mind, Self and Society, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Mechanic, D. (1962)
 "Sources of Power of Lower Participants in Complex Organisations", Administrative Science Quarterly, 7, No.3, Pp.349-364.
- Megson, C. & Baber, M. (1986)
Taking Education Further: A Practical Guide to College Marketing Success, Warwickshire: MSE.
- Middleton, V.T.C. (1989)
 "Marketing the Margin", The Quarterly Review of Marketing, Vol.15, No.2, Winter, Pp.14-17.

- Miklich, B.A. (1988)
 "An Integrated Marketing Effort: How It Is Implemented", Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, Vol.1, No.1, Pp.15-29.
- Miles, M.B. (1979)
 "Qualitative Data as an Attractive Nuisance: the Problem of Analysis", Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.24, No.4, Pp.590-601.
- Millerson, G. (1964)
 "Dilemmas of Professionalism", New Society, 4, June, P.15.
- Mills, C.W. (1951)
White Collar: The American Middle Classes, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mintzberg, H. (1983)
Structure in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Mitchell, J.C. (1983)
 "Case and Situation Analysis", Sociological Review, Vol.31, No.2, Pp.186-211.
- Mizerski, R.W., Golden, L.L., Kernan, J.B. (1979)
 "The Attribution Process in Consumer Decision Making", Journal of Consumer Research, 6, September.
- Mmobuosi, I.B. & Huczynski, A.A. (1987)
 "A Comparison of Some Positivistic and Phenomenological Approaches to Organizational Theory and Research", Working Paper Series, No.3, Department of Management Studies, University of Glasgow, June.
- Morgan, R.E. (1990)
 "Marketing Professional Services- An Empirical Investigation into Consulting Engineering Services", Marketing Education Group Proceedings, Oxford Polytechnic, July, Pp.974-995.
- Morris, R. (1988)
 "Further and Higher Education: the Strategic Role of the L.E.A.", in R. Kedney & D. Parkes (eds.), Planning the F.E. Curriculum, Pp.18-30, London: FEU.
- Morse, N. (1953)
Satisfaction in the White Collar Job, University of Michigan.
- Nader, L. (1986)
 "From Anguish to Exultation", in P. Golde (ed.), Women in the Field: Anthropological Experiences, Pp.97-116, Berkeley: University of California Press.

- Narver, J.C. & Slater, S.F. (1990)
 "The Effect of a Market Orientation on Business Profitability", Journal of Marketing, October, Pp.20-35.
- Normann, R. (1970)
A Personal Quest for Methodology, Stockholm: Scandinavian Institutes for Administrative Research.
- Odman, P.J. (1985)
 "Hermeneutics", The International Encyclopedia of Education, T. Husen & N.T. Postlethwaite (eds.), Oxford: Pergamon, Pp.2162-2169.
- Ouchi, W.G. (1979)
 "A Conceptual Framework for the Design of Organizational Control Mechanisms", Management Science, 25, September, Pp.833-847.
- Parsons, T. (1939)
 "The Professions and Social Structure", Social Forces, 17, No.4, May, Pp.457-467.
- Parsons, T. (1968)
 "Professions", International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, New York, P.539.
- Patton, M.Q. (1980)
Qualitative Evaluation Methods, London: Sage.
- Payne, A.F. (1988)
 "Developing a Marketing-Oriented Organization", Business Horizons, Vol.33, No.3, Pp.46-53.
- Perkins, D.N.T. et al (1981)
 "A Methods for Structured Naturalistic Observation of Organizational Behavior", in J.E. Jones & J.W. Pfeiffer (eds.), The 1981 Annual Handbook For Group Facilitators, San Diego, Calif.: University Associates.
- Perry, Howard (1990)
Management Development in Further Education, unpublished dissertation, M.A. in Human Resource Management, Leicester Polytechnic, September.
- Peters, T.J. (1978)
 "Symbols, Patterns and Settings", Organisational Dynamics, 7, Pp.3-23.
- Peters, T.J. & Austin, N. (1985)
A Passion for Excellence, New York: Random House.
- Peters, T.J. & Waterman, R.H. (1982)
In Search of Excellence, Cambridge, M.A.: Harper & Row.

- Peterson, R.A. (1979)
 "Revitalizing the Culture Concept", Annual Review of Sociology, 5, Pp.137-166.
- Pettigrew, A.M. (1973)
The Politics of Organisational Decision Making, London: Tavistock.
- Pettigrew, A. (1979)
 "On Studying Organisational Cultures", Administrative Science Quarterly, 24, Pp.570-581.
- Pettigrew, A.M. (1985)
The Awakening Giant, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981a)
 "Management as Symbolic Action", in L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (eds.), Research in Organisational Behaviour, Vol.3, Greenwich, Conn.: JAI Press.
- Pfeffer, J. (1981b)
Power in Organizations, Marshfield, Mass.: Pitman.
- Pfeffer, J. & Salancik, G.R. (1978)
The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective, New York: Harper & Row.
- Phillips, E.M. (1984)
 "Learning to do Research", Graduate Management Research, 2(1), Pp.6-18.
- Phillips, E.M. & Pugh, D.S. (1987)
How to Get a PhD, Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- PICKUP (1991)
 "Keeping the Customer Satisfied", PICKUP In Progress, The Department of Education & Science, No.23, Jan..
- Piercy, N. (1985)
Marketing Organisation: An Analysis of Information Processing. Power and Politics, London: Allen & Unwin.
- Piercy, N. (1987)
 "The Marketing Budgeting Process: Marketing Management Implications", Journal of Marketing, Vol.51, October, Pp.45-59.
- Piercy, N. (1989a)
 "The Power and Politics of Sales Forecasting: Uncertainty Absorption and the Power of the Marketing Department", Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol.17, No.2, Pp.109-120.

- Piercy, N. (1989b)
"Information Control and the Power and Politics of Marketing", Journal of Business Research, Vol.18, Pp.229-243.
- Piercy, N. (1989c)
"The Role of Marketing in UK Retailing Organizations", International Journal of Retailing, Vol.4, No.2, Pp.46-65.
- Piercy, N. (1990)
"Marketing Concepts and Actions: Implementing Marketing-led Strategic Change", European Journal of Marketing, Vol.24, No.2, Pp.24-42.
- Piercy, N. (1992)
Market-Led Strategic Change, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Piercy, N. & Morgan, N. (1989)
"Marketing Organisation in the UK Financial Services Industry", International Journal of Bank Marketing, Vol.7, No.4, Pp.3-10.
- Plant, R. (1987)
Managing Change and Making it Stick, London: Fontana.
- Platt, J. (1986)
"Functionalism and the Survey: the Relation of Theory and Method", Sociological Review, 34, 3, Pp.501-536.
- Pondy, L.R. (1978)
"Leadership as a Language Game", in M.W.Jr. McCall & M.M. Lombardo (eds.), Leadership: Where Else Can We Go?, Durham N.C.: Duke University Press.
- Potter, C. (1989)
"What is Culture: And can it be Useful for Organisational Change Agents?", Leadership & Organisational Development Journal, Vol.10, No.3, Pp.17-24.
- Putnam, H. (1983)
Reason, Truth and History, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Quinn, J.B., Baruch, J.J. & Paquette, P.C. (1987)
"Technology in Services", Scientific American, Vol.257, No.6, December, Pp.50-8.
- Ranson, S., Hinings, B. & Greenwood, R. (1980)
"The Structuring of Organizational Structures", Administrative Science Quarterly, 25, Pp.1-17.
- Reiss, A.J. Jr. (1955)
"Occupational Mobility of Professional Workers", American Sociological Review, 20, No.6, December.

- Robinson, A.W. & Long, G. (1988)
 "Substance v. Trappings in the Marketing of Non-Advanced FE", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Vol.12, No.1, Spring, Pp.42-53.
- Roy, D. (1954)
 "Efficiency and 'the Fix': Informal Intergroup Relations in a piecework Machine Shop", American Journal of Sociology, Vol.60, No.3, Pp.255-266.
- Roy, D. (1960)
 "Banana Time: Job Satisfaction and Informal Interaction", Human Organization, Vol.18, No.4, Pp.158-168.
- Ruekert, R., & Walker, O.C., Jr. (1987)
 "Marketing's Interaction with Other Functional Units: A Conceptual Framework and Empirical Evidence", Journal of Marketing, 51, January, Pp.1-19.
- Rueschemeyer, D. (1964)
 "Doctors and Lawyers: A Comment on the Theory of the Professions", Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, I, Feb., Pp.17-30.
- Schein, E.H. (1965)
Organisational Psychology, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Schmidt, S.L. (1988)
 "Marketing Higher Education: Past, Present and Future", Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, Vol.1, No.2, Pp.3-13.
- Schwartz, H. Jacobs, J. (1979)
 "Nonreactive Techniques for Studying Groups or Individuals", Qualitative Sociology: A Method to the Madness, New York: The Free Press, Pp.75-103.
- Scott, S. (1984)
 "The Personable and the Powerful: Gender and Status in Sociological Research", in C. Bell & H. Roberts (eds.), Social Research: Politics, Problems and Practice, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Scott, W.R. (1966)
 "Professionals in Bureaucracies - Areas of Conflict", in H.M. Vollmer & D.L. Mills (eds.), Professionalization, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Pp.265-275.
- Scribbins, K. & Davies, P. (1989)
 "Marketing FHE Post-ERA: Routes to Salvation?", Journal of Further and Higher Education, Vol.13, No.2, Summer, Pp.11-21.
- Seashore, S.A. & Yuchtman, E. (1967)
 "Factorial Analysis of Organizational Performance", Administrative Science Quarterly, 12, Pp.377-395.

- Selnes, F. (1991)
 "Interdepartmental Dynamics and Market Orientation: A Comparison Between US and Norway", The Strategic Processes Research Conference, Norwegian School of Management, Oslo, Norway, June, Pp.19-22.
- Shaffir, W.B. & Stebbins, R.A.(eds) (1991)
Experiencing Fieldwork, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Shapiro, B.P. (1988)
 "What the Hell is "Market Oriented?", Harvard Business Review, November-December, Pp.119-125.
- Sharp, B. (1991)
 "Marketing Orientation: More than Just Customer Focus", International Marketing Review, Vol.8, No.4, Pp.20-25.
- Sherer, R. (1987)
 "A Service Mentality", Restaurant Management, Vol.1, December, Pp.42-3.
- Silverman, D. (1970)
The Theory of Organisations, London: Heinemann.
- Smith, H.W. (1975)
Strategies of Social Research: the Methodological Imagination, London: Prentice-Hall.
- Social Trends 23 (1993)
 Central Statistical Office, London: HMSO.
- Stampfl, R.W. (1978)
 "Structural Constraints, Consumerism, and the Marketing Concept", MSU Business Topics, 26, Spring, Pp.5-16.
- Stewart, R. (1982)
Choices for the Manager: A Guide to Managerial Work and Behaviour, London: McGraw-Hill.
- Stiff, R. (1981)
 "The Effects of Marketing Activities on the Quality of Professional Services", J.H.Donnelly & W.R.George (eds.), Special Conference on Services Marketing Proceedings, Orlando, Pp.78-81.
- Stopford, J.M. & Boden-Fuller, C. (1990)
 "Corporate Rejuvenation", Journal of Management Studies, Vol.24, No.4, Pp.399-416.
- Sullivan, M. (1991)
Marketing Your Primary School: A Handbook, Essex: Longman.

- Summer, C.E. (1980)
Strategic Behavior in Business and Government, Little, Brown and Company.
- Sunday Times (1987)
 "The Sunday Times has examined the major parties' plans for reforming the Manpower Services Commission", 31st May, P.76.
- Sutton, R.I. (1987)
 "The Process of Organizational Death: Disbanding and Reconnecting", Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.32, No.4, Pp.542-569.
- Taylor, S.J. & Bogdan, R. (1984)
Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods, New York: John Wiley.
- Taylor, F.W. (1947)
Scientific Management, London: Harper & Row.
- The Publishers Association (1983)
Further and Continuing Education, the Report of a Working Party of the University, College and Professional Publishers Council and the Educational Publishers Council of the Publishers Association, London: the Publishers Association.
- The Open University (1979)
 a: Variety in Social Science Research, Block 1,
 b: Research Design, Block 3A,
 c: Research Design, Block 3B,
 d: Data Collection Procedures, Block 4,
 Research Methods in Education and the Social Sciences, Milton Keynes: The Open University Press.
- The Education Authorities Directory and Annual 1992 (1992)
 "Further Education", The Education Authorities Directory and Annual 1992, Redhill: The School Government Publishing Company Ltd.
- The Central Office of Information (1992)
 "Education", Britain 1992: An Official Handbook, London: HMSO.
- Theodossin, E. (1986)
In Search of the Responsive College, Bristol: The Further Education Staff College.
- Tichy, N.M. (1982)
 "Managing Change Strategically: The Technical, Political and Cultural Keys", Organizational Dynamics, Autumn, Pp.59-80.
- Times Higher Education Supplement (1994a)
 "Topping Way with Courses", Times Higher Education Supplement, Synthesis: Marketing Your College, VI, March 18.

- Times Higher Education Supplement (1994b)
 "FE Colleges Rate Bottom for School Pupils", Times Higher Education Supplement,
 Synthesis: Marketing Your College, I, March 18.
- Trustum, L.B. (1989)
 "Marketing: Concept and Function", European Journal of Marketing, Vol.23, No.3,
 Pp.48-56.
- Turner, E.B. (1969)
 "Marketing Professional Services", Journal of Marketing, Vol.33, October, Pp.56-61.
- Tushman, M. & Romanelli, E. (1985)
 "Organization Evolution: A Metamorphosis Model of Convergence and Reorientation",
 in B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (eds.), Research in Organizational Behavior, Vol.7,
 Greenwich: JAI Press, Pp.171-222.
- Ulrich, D. & Barney, J.B. (1984)
 "Perspectives in Organizations: Resource Dependence, Efficiency, and Population",
Academy of Management Review, 9, Pp.471-81.
- Valdelin, J. (1974)
Produktutveckling och marknadsforing, Stockholm: EFI, quoted by Gummesson, E.
 (1991), Qualitative Methods in Management Research, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Van Maanen, J. (1983)
Qualitative Methodology, London: Sage.
- Van Maanen, J. & Kolb, D. (1985)
 "The Professional Apprentice: Observations on Fieldwork Roles in Two Organizational
 Settings", in S.B. Bacharach & S.M. Mitchell (eds.), Research in the Sociology of
 Organizations, Vol.4, Greenwich, Conn.: JAI Press, Pp.1-33.
- Veradarajan, P. (1983)
 "The Marketing Concept, Perspectives and Viewpoints", Proceedings of Workshop,
 Texas A & M University.
- Vittles, P. (1993)
 "A Vision for Education", Promoting Education, March 9, Pp.28-9
- Vollmer, H.M. & Mills, D.L. (1966)
Professionalization, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Vroom, V.H. (1964)
Work and Motivation, New York: Wiley.
- Walle, A.H. (1990)
 "Beyond Advertising and Public Relations: An Agenda for the Marketing of Higher
 Education", Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, Vol.3, No.1, Pp.1-4.

- Wallis, L.A. (1987)
 "Marketing Priorities", The Conference Board Research Bulletin, No.205, Marketing Management Research, Pp.3-7.
- Warren, C.A.B. (1988)
Gender Issues in Field Research, Qualitative Research Methods, Vol.9, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Watson, T.J. (1980)
Sociology. Work and Industry, London: Routledge.
- Watson, T.J. (1986)
Management. Organisation and Employment Strategy, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Watson, T.J. (1994)
 "Managing Crafting and Researching: Words, Skill and Imagination in Shaping Management Research", British Journal of Management, Vol.5, No.2.
- Watson, T.J., Riggs, S.A. & Fook, N.Y.M. (1991)
 "Participant Observation Research and Managerial Work", British Academy of Management Annual Conference, University of Bath, September.
- Webster, C. (1993)
 "Refinement of the Marketing Culture Scale and the Relationship Between Marketing Culture and Profitability of a Service Firm", Journal of Business Research, Vol.26, No.2, Pp.111-131.
- Webster, F.E. (1988)
 "The Discovery of the Marketing Concept", Business Horizons, Vol.31, No.3, May-June, Pp.29-39.
- Weick, K. (1979)
The Social Psychology of Organizing, Reading, Mass.: Addison-Weston.
- Weinberg, C.B. & Lovelock, C.H. (1978)
 "Public and Nonprofit Marketing Comes of Age", in G. Zaltman & T.V. Bonoma (eds), Review of Marketing 1978, Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- White Paper (1991)
 "Education and Training for the 21st Century", Department of Education & Science, May, London: HMSO.
- Wheale, J.W. (1989)
 "Managing Marketing: A Checklist", Educational Management and Administration, Vol.17, No.3, Summer, Pp.147-150.

- Whyte, W.F. (1943)
Street Corner Society: The Social Structure of an Italian Slum, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Wilensky, H.L. (1964)
 "The Professionalization of Everyone?", The American Journal of Sociology, Vol.LXX, No.2, September, Pp.137-158.
- Williamson, P. (1990)
The Responsive College, Norfolk: Peter Francis Publishers.
- Wilson, A. (1972)
The Marketing of Professional Services, London: McGraw-Hill.
- Wilson, R.M.S.(ed.) (1981)
Financial Dimensions of Marketing, Vol.1, London: Macmillan.
- Wilson, R.M.S. & Fook, N.Y.M. (1990)
 "Improving Marketing Orientation", Marketing Business, 7, June, Pp.22-23.
- Wilson, R.M.S. & Fook, N.Y.M. (1990)
 "Marketing Orientation within the Accounting Profession: an Emerging Imperative", Northern Accounting Group's Annual Conference, Leicester Polytechnic, September.
- Wilson, R.M.S. & Gilligan, C. with Pearson, D.J. (1992)
Strategic Marketing Management: Planning, Implementation and Control, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Witcher, B.J. (1990)
 "Total Marketing: Total Quality and the Marketing Concept", The Quarterly Review of Marketing, Vol.15, No.2, Winter, Pp.1-5.
- Wittreich, W.J. (1966)
 "How to Buy/Sell Professional Services", Harvard Business Review, March-April, Pp.71-76.
- Wood-Allum, K. (1989)
Projected Enrolments in the F.E. Sector in Leicestershire 1989-1997, Paper submitted to the Secondary Education Working Party 7th March, Leicestershire County Council.
- Woolf, G. (1991)
 "A Coherent Strategy for the Future", NATHFE Journal, Vol.16, No.3, Summer, Pp.13-15, 33.
- Yau, O.H.M. & Wong, T. (1990)
 "How do CPA Firms Perceive Marketing and Advertising? A Hong Kong Experience", European Journal of Marketing, Vol.24, No.2, Pp.43-54.

Yin, R.K. (1979)

Changing Urban Bureaucracies: How New Practices Become Routinized, Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books.

Yin, R.K. (1989)

Case Study Research: Design and Methods, Revised edition, Newbury Park: Sage.

Znaniecki, F. (1934)

The Method of Sociology, New York: Farrar & Rinehart.