

## DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 206 221

HE 014 220

**TITLE** Needed Systems Supports for Achieving Higher Education Equity for Black Americans.

**INSTITUTION** National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities (ED), Washington, D.C.

**PUB DATE** Nov 80

**NOTE** 267p.; Some tables may not reproduce well. Best copy available.

**AVAILABLE FROM** Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

**EDRS PRICE** MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.

**DESCRIPTORS** Access to Education; Accountability; \*Black Education; \*Black Students; College Planning; College Students; Databases; Decision Making; Economic Factors; Educational Assessment; Educational Policy; \*Equal Education; Federal Government; Government School Relationship; \*Higher Education; Policy Formation; Political Power; \*Public Policy; Racial Discrimination; \*Research Needs; Socioeconomic Status; State Government

**IDENTIFIERS** \*Support Systems

**ABSTRACT**

Six support systems for black higher education that are needed to achieve educational equity for black Americans are assessed, and recommendations for national program objectives are offered. The six support systems are: federal policy toward black colleges, a research base, a human resource system support, dealing with socioeconomic and sociopolitical issues; higher education planning; and monitoring and evaluation. Analysis of the literature, surveys of programs, and interviews of program staff and experts were undertaken. Information was obtained on federal bureaucrats' perceptions of policy, formal and informal policy development processes, the question of who makes policy in the federal government, and the question of what policy initiatives in the federal government have implications for black higher education. For various federal agencies and programs, information is presented on policies specific to higher education and to black higher education. The data needs of black higher education are considered in relation to the database, required research initiatives, educational policy research, and a model for a total research system. Sources of information that can be used to begin a partial analysis of certain subject area concerns of black higher education are identified. Data and recommendations are presented regarding representation of blacks in decision-making positions in foundations and at the federal and state levels. Among the social issues that are addressed are the following: institutionalized racism, political participation and policy-making roles, the job market, and economic factors. Statewide higher education planning and the federal role in planning are addressed, along with evaluation and monitoring of equal educational opportunity programs. (SW)

ED206221

NEEDED SYSTEM SUPPORTS FOR ACHIEVING  
HIGHER EDUCATION EQUITY FOR BLACK AMERICANS

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An Analysis, Report and Recommendations for the Establishment of National Program Objectives and System Supports Designed to Support the Achievement of Equity for Black Americans in Higher Education

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National Advisory Committee on  
Black Higher Education and Black  
Colleges and Universities

NOVEMBER 1980

AE 014220





U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON  
BLACK HIGHER EDUCATION AND  
BLACK COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES  
Washington, D.C. 20202

The Honorable T. H. Bell  
Secretary  
U. S. Department of Education  
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20202

Dear Mr. Secretary:

On behalf of the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, I am pleased to submit this interim report on the status of higher education for Black Americans. The report, titled The Necessary System Supports for Achieving Higher Education Equity for Black Americans is mandated by the Committee's Charter to provide counsel to the Secretary in this area.

The Committee has expressed the concern on a number of occasions that consideration of the issue of Black higher education cannot take place in a vacuum... that Black higher education and the Black colleges and universities which are the chief architects of equal opportunity for Black Americans are a part of a dynamic, inter-connected system, the parts of which are mutually dependent. Failure of any component of the system results in a less than optimal functioning of the remaining components.

The report highlights research, policy, human resources, social structure of the society, higher education planning, and monitoring and evaluation as the essential systems which must react supportively with Black higher education to assure its success in meeting the needs of the Nation. The report concludes that in practically every area allied to or supportive of the advancement of Black higher education few if any viable supports are in place. The result is that little research is consistently or adequately carried out, there is no consistent national policy on Black higher education or the Black colleges and universities, Blacks are still underrepresented in significant decision-making positions at every level, the social environment of the Nation is not conducive to advancing the higher education needs of Black Americans, little effective higher education planning takes place, and monitoring and evaluation are carried out in only limited areas. The proposed remedies for these deficits can contribute significantly to the Nation's educational stability.

This report has been in process for approximately a year and a half. During that period you are probably aware that the composition of the Advisory Committee has changed. The major work of review and approval of the report thus rested with the originally constituted committee. You are referred to the document appendices for a record of the makeup of this and the subsequent committee.

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We are grateful for the opportunity to draw national attention to these issues and to stimulate the necessary actions to improve the higher education opportunities for Black Americans. It is our expectation that this report and the concluding recommendations will assist the Federal government in initiating and continuing efforts for achieving this end.

Sincerely,

*Elias Blake, Jr.*

Elias Blake, Jr.  
Chairperson



## FOREWORD

The National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities was established by the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare in 1976 to advise and make recommendations to the Secretary, the Assistant Secretary of Education, and the Commissioner of Education on all aspects of the higher education of Black Americans. Its charter was extended to June 30, 1982, by the Secretary of Education to enable the Committee to continue these important functions within the U.S. Education Department. In responding to its mandate, the Committee has developed a Plan of Action which calls for the production of various reports highlighting the status of Blacks in higher education and offering recommendations based on the findings of those reports.

The Necessary System Supports for Achieving Higher Education Equity for Black Americans is the most recent in a series of Committee reports which is designed to impact national education policy and to target national attention to the problems of Black higher education and the Black colleges and universities. The report addresses Goal IV Sections A, B, C, D and E and Objective Number 4 of the Committee's Plan of Action. Goal IV specifically charges the Committee to make recommendations regarding "national program objectives and system supports" specifically in the areas of research, policy, monitoring and evaluation, human resources, social systems and planning as they relate to the higher education of Black Americans.

In addition to three Annual Reports, seven research reports in the series have been issued previously:

1. Access of Black Americans to Higher Education: How Open is the Door?

Considers the problems faced by Black Americans in obtaining entry to higher education and recommends ways in which access can be facilitated.

2. Black Colleges and Universities: An Essential Component of a Diverse System of Higher Education.

Makes the case for encouraging institutional diversity and pluralistic educational structures as a necessary vehicle for meeting the future needs of Black students and stresses the commitment that Black institutions of higher education have shown historically and continue to demonstrate to minority and low-income students.

3. The Black Educational Policy Researcher: An Untapped National Resource.

Addresses the issues surrounding the development of a solid research and scholarship base that will be required to undergird decision-making at the State, local and Federal levels if substantial improvement of Black educational opportunity is to occur.

4. Still a Lifeline: The Status of Historically Black Colleges and Universities, 1975-1978.

Provides an overview of the Nation's Historically Black colleges which, increasingly, even today play a major role in the production of credentialed Black Americans.

5. A Losing Battle: The Decline in Black Participation in Graduate and Professional Education.

Details the decline in the numbers of Black Americans in graduate and professional schools; provides a statistical profile of the deteriorating involvement of Black students at graduate and professional levels, sets forth the reasons for the numerical and proportional declines, and recommends strategies to remedy this problem and to increase Federal and institutional commitments to equity in advanced education.

6. Target Date 2000 AD: Goals for Achieving Higher Education Equity for Black Americans, Volume I.

Lays out a long-range plan for increasing participation of Black Americans in higher education and enhancing the historically Black colleges and universities. It serves as the basis for a subsequent volume, now in preparation by the Committee, which will explore the details of how the recommended actions might be implemented through new or increased funding mechanisms and details costs to society if the conditions requiring attention are not addressed.

7. Admission and Retention Problems of Black Students at Seven Predominantly White Universities.

Deals with the barriers to higher education faced by Black Americans, but focuses specifically on admission and retention problems at seven predominantly white universities.

This report presents a statistical and analytical profile of the major societal support systems which are seen as necessary to achieving equity for Black Americans in higher education and advancing the Black colleges. The lack of support for Black higher education is represented by the inadequacy of social and political structures which are essential to providing a positive and supportive climate. The problems lie in the fact that there is an inadequate research base on issues of concern to Black Americans, a failure of the Federal government to develop a consistent policy toward Black higher education and the Black colleges and Universities, the failure of affirmative action programs to equitably effect Black representation in upper level decision making positions in the private and public sectors, the absence of a sensitive and supportive social structure designed to support the socio-economic concerns of Black Americans, the absence of a consistent planning structure for higher education which includes the needs of Black higher education and the Black colleges and Universities, and the failure to provide a mechanism to

monitor and evaluate programs designed to achieve equity for Black Americans in higher education. In each of these instances recommendations are made toward effecting a more supportive system for the advancement of Black higher education and the Black colleges and universities.

The report is in fact six separate reports, each of which is a part of the total necessary system but which editorially could in fact stand on its own. Because of the wide ranging implications of the report the input of a large number of individuals was necessary. The Committee extends special appreciation to Dr. Alfred L. Cooke who conceptualized and developed the report. Contributions from the commissioned work of certain individuals contributed greatly to certain sections of the report: Dr. Faustine Jones ("Systemic Problems Affecting the Participation of Blacks in Higher Education"), Ms. Mary Roper ("Development of a Profile of Current Thinking in Higher Education Equity"), Dr. John A. Griffin et. al. ("The Participation of Blacks in Research and Policy Development Affecting Higher Education in Selected Institutions, Associations, and Foundations"), Dr. Barbara Love ("A Report on the Status of Black Faculty in Higher Education"), Ms. Linda Lambert (Report on the Search of Existing Data Sources on Blacks in Higher Education"), Dr. Leonard Haynes ("An Examination of the Planning Efforts of Selected States and the Federal Government to Improve the Status of Blacks in Higher Education"), and Dr. Evalee Banks ("Policies, Practices and Monitoring Systems to Improve the Status of Blacks in Higher Education: Selected States and Institutions"). Extensive use of data and publications from the National Center for Education Statistics and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission were essential to the preparation of this document. Likewise, the help of the Educational Resources Information Center Clearinghouse (ERIC) was invaluable in researching the literature in preparation for the research and writing the document. The Committee is similarly grateful to these individuals and organizations.

The willing help of a number of other individuals contributed to the production of the report: to JoAnn Phillips, Jacqueline Meadows, Linda Byrd-Johnson, junior researchers on the staff, for a multitude of supportive activities; Linda Lambert and Glenda Partee-Scott, Senior researchers, who critiqued the initial conceptualization and contributed ideas throughout; and to Carol Joy Smith, Program Delegate to the Committee, who supervised the successful completion and editorial preparation of the report for publication. Special thanks are due to Mae H. Carter, who typed the manuscript, and to Clifton Lambert for the design of the Committee's logo.

Elias Blake, Jr.  
Chairperson

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Black Colleges have traditionally and as a matter of record been the chief instruments of racial progress for Black Americans. Higher education of Black Americans has come to be synonymous with improvements in the socio-economic status of Black Americans generally. Yet, Black colleges which produce 40 percent of the Black graduates in the Nation, and Black higher education tend to receive less than equitable support of their missions either from public or private sectors. Their lack of support is represented by the inadequacy of social and political structures which are essential to providing a climate for their advancement.

This report assumes that the Black colleges and Black higher education are a part of a dynamic system, including several essential supportive structures which will ultimately result in upgrading the level of the economic, social and political life of Black Americans --- provided adequate structures are in place and interacting to their advantage. The state of these structures presently, however, is not encouraging. The following conclusions reflect this concern:

- o The majority of data on Blacks in higher education are collected by the Federal government, however no organized structure exists for coordinating the multitude of sources which collect such data. Enrollment figures are most often the major data collected.
- o There is neither a universally agreed upon set of data elements nor a research agenda on Black higher education.
- o The pool of Black researchers and the resources available to them are so small as to offer little hope for improving the research effort on Black American issues.
- o Blacks hold an average of less than 5 percent of the decision-making positions in areas in/on Federal, foundation, State, institution governing boards, faculty and administrative and research areas.
- o Blacks are confronted by significant barriers to equal opportunity which are inherent in the American social and political structure, i.e., institutionalized racism; lack of full participation by Blacks at legislative, policy-making, program development levels; low economic status; declining job markets; deteriorating social mood of the Nation; inadequate elementary and secondary education; neoconservative thought; and external and internal group struggles.

- o The emphasis on equal opportunity for Black Americans is a direct result of the efforts of the Federal government. Few States, other than the Adams' States, have in place efforts to plan specifically for equal opportunity in higher education for Black Americans.
- o The monitoring of equal opportunity efforts at all levels is inadequate---but especially the monitoring efforts of the States, which are the chief supporters of education, are a matter of some grave concern.

The report confronts the failures inherent in these systems and makes specific recommendations for building a more coherent, viable system to underpin the efforts of the Black colleges and Black higher education.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Problem

"We boldly propose that the Federal Government recognize the historically Black colleges as the major architects of equal opportunity with attainment and productivity. The Federal government should then recognize a special responsibility for strengthening and further development of these colleges. We further, then, propose that in addition to such strengthening the Federal government develop a leadership partnership with the historically Black colleges for the purpose of achieving parity in all areas of higher education, and parity in all professional and technical fields in the work force. In concert with the Federal government (with HEW giving leadership), a 25-year plan for Black Americans should be developed."

National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, "The National Goal of Equal Opportunity and the Historically Black Colleges", Washington, D.C., NAFEO, 1975, p. 2.

In 1975, when the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO) "boldly" proposed to then Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, F. David Mathews, a radical new partnership between the Federal government and the Black colleges, it is likely that the designers of the position were very cognizant of the implications of such an alliance. It is also likely that frustration wrought of years of neglect prompted them to take a chance that some good would come from such a relationship. The Black college presidents who worked on the position paper considered the possibilities that (1) their proposal would go ignored, as so many issues affecting Blacks have been lost in the past by bureaucratic inaction, and (2) that such an alliance might even be considered, but once implemented, get bogged down in the paper work and regulations that so often accompany efforts by the Federal government.

The above statement suggests, however, that the Black college presidents wanted to consciously avoid these possibilities by suggesting a leadership role for the government, but, in a partnership relationship, emphasizing that the Black colleges are the experts in and major instruments of racial progress in this country and that the Federal government has a responsibility to help provide the necessary system supports to see that they are able to continue to do the important job of educating one of America's most disadvantaged minorities.

NAFEO thus proposed that the Federal government has a responsibility to take the leadership in a partnership relationship with Black higher education in providing the necessary system supports to make the achievement of Black higher education goals realizable and achievable. NAFEO also alluded to the types of system supports which are necessary for the achievement of the goals which it laid out for the proposed alliance--some related to government structures, some related to private and corporate activities, as well as changes in the Black higher education setting which would accommodate the needed new structure.

The general issues under which these new structures were generated included:

- o an adequate research base
- o a well defined policy toward Black higher education
- o a sensitive policymaking and program planning process
- o a much expanded scholarship and research program by Blacks on issues impacting on the problems of Black people
- o a systematized and meaningfully highlighted evaluation and monitoring of improvements in the higher education of Blacks
- o a sensitive and meaningful private sector involvement in developments in improving the higher education of Blacks
- o a sensitive public sector effort designed to advance the higher education of Blacks--including policy and programs.

— This report makes specific recommendations as to how the necessary system supports should be organized and function. The emphasis is thus on discovering through the indepth analysis of each issue, the significant state of the art, and, based on the analysis, designing the necessary structures to be put in place. The problem undertaken by the report can then be delineated in a set of three posited questions.

1. What system supports are needed to assure the continued progress and survival of Black colleges and Blacks in higher education?
2. What should be the organization and content of such structures?
3. Who should have responsibility for implementation of such structures?

### Methodology

This report begins with the very basic premise that in order for Black higher education to prosper and survive in its role of advancing equal opportunity for Blacks, it must be provided with the necessary system supports, both internal and external, to assure that it will be able to do so. Thus, this report methodologically identifies and gives credence to a series of support entities which have been suggested as necessary to the desired organizational atmosphere for advancing Black higher education and the Black colleges and universities. It is necessarily a review of the state of the art encompassing a descriptive analysis of available data and the seeking out of new data relevant to the current state of each entity. Many diverse sources were used.



In point of fact, there are six different reports in this one document, each highlighting, in detail, a particular system support mechanism. A similar process, however, was used in compiling each report. First, a technical report was compiled for each, using the literature of the field in question. Second, affected programs, activities and/or persons were surveyed/interviewed for input in those relevant areas of concern of the report. Third, based upon the findings of these two activities, recommendations and/or programs were suggested which would provide the kind of system supports which ideally would impact upon the development of an overall system to advance the higher education of Black Americans.

The conclusions' sections of each separate report and the combined final conclusions draw very heavily upon the open-ended responses of experts and those intimately involved in the processes being analyzed. The nebulous nature of many areas required a collective voice from those individuals the Committee perceived as the most qualified and available experts in each field. On-site visitations to institutions and agencies accompanied the personal interviews in most cases.

### Limitations

This report is limited by the designation of the six system support areas as inferred by the designers of the Charter of the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities: (1) Federal policy toward Black colleges (2) Research, (3) Human resources, (4) Socio-economic issues, (5) Planning, and (6) Monitoring and evaluation.

Analysis of the responses elicited from the interviews did indeed verify the accuracy of the choices of system support entities made by the Committee Charter designers. It also pointed out a certain amount of variance in interpretation of the meaning of the system supports and the method of organizing them for the most effective total mechanism to enhance the survival of Black higher education and Black colleges and universities.

The larger numbers of programs and individuals which ideally should have been included in the studies caused some problems of definitiveness. Because of time constraints and fiscal limitations it was necessary to greatly de-limit the scope and the number of persons interviewed.

### Organization of the Report

The remainder of this report consists of the following--

- o Chapter two which lays out the major parameters of the study and Chapter three which provides a rationale for the system supports.
- o Chapters four, five, six, seven, eight and nine each go into depth on one of the six system supports.

## REFERENCES

### Chapter One

1. National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, "The National Goal of Equal Opportunity and the Historically Black Colleges," Washington, D.C., NAFEO, 1975, p. 2.

## CHAPTER TWO

### HIGHER EDUCATION OF BLACK AMERICANS -- SOME PARAMETERS

"The people of the U.S. have important educational concerns that can and should be expressed by the Federal government and they have social goals that can legitimately be sought through education-related Federal programs. Federal involvement is legitimate in the following areas:

- a. reducing gross disparities in educational opportunity.
- b. providing the Nation with a broad view of the purposes and possibilities of education in our society.
- c. encouraging and promoting the creativity, strength and diversity of State, local and private education institutions.
- d. maintaining an effective research capacity in the sciences and the humanities in appropriate balance with other responsibilities of educational institutions.
- e. upgrading the usefulness of telecommunications for educational purposes.
- f. providing educational services of high quality through schools operated directly by the Federal government or by contract.
- g. assisting in meeting training needs created by new Federal initiatives and in working with other levels of government in providing for the development of personnel whose skills are deemed essential to the national interest.
- h. determining and publicizing the condition of education in the U.S."

National Academy of Education, "The Appropriate Federal Role in Education: Some Guiding Principles," a report of the Committee of the National Academy of Education, April 1979.

If Robert Behn (a university professor and higher education expert--in testimony before the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources) is correct in his analysis of the future prospects for American Higher education (Behn, 1979) then during the 1980's as many as one college per week will close due to declining enrollments and the ensuing per student budget cuts that will be required. The argument, based on projections as to the numbers of available 18 year olds in the population, makes an extremely interesting case in light of the retrenchment economy under which higher education presently operates. The competitive battle for students inevitably has implications for smaller, less viable institutions, which includes many of the historically Black colleges (HBC's). It thus seems likely that once the hierarchy of institutions becomes established from which closings will take place, then HBC's will bear the brunt of Behn's predictions. If this is the case, then it seems likely also that affirmative action as a dominant force in the society will soon thereafter be a dead issue.

If one also advances the argument, as does the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, that "the historically Black colleges have been and still are, a major instrument of racial progress in America" (NAFEO, 1975, p. 3) then the historically Black colleges and Black higher education generally are deserving of the intervention and support of the Federal government in assuring their survival. The fact is that the historically Black colleges have assumed the major part of the responsibility for a major Federal policy effort without the ensuing budgetary and policy supports.

Had the Federal government been equitable in its dealings with the Black colleges, then certain national system supports and national objectives would have been clearly identified which would have provided the historically Black colleges with a viable support system to assure their effectiveness and viability.

At this point it is necessary to define the parameters of this report and delineate the philosophy behind the recommended system, namely: the nature of systems supports, the construction of national objectives, equity and equal educational opportunity, and a research base as a primary decision-making support.

### Significant Variables

Systems Supports Defined. The report of the National Academy of Education, highlighted at the beginning of this section, expresses a key concern of this report with respect to the responsibility of the Federal government to higher education. The Academy suggests that Federal involvement is legitimate in "encouraging and promoting the creativity, strength and diversity of State, local and private educational institutions." Taken in connection with the primary accepted responsibility of the government in "reducing gross disparities in educational opportunities" (NAE, 1979, p. 2), then it seems logical that the appropriate system supports should be put in place to achieve the desired results.

Our thesis is that Black higher education and Black colleges and universities make a significant contribution to the equal educational opportunity goals of the Nation despite the fact that they receive an inequitable share of the Nation's resources for higher education. The system, which includes all Federal, State, local and private enterprises which impact on education, has failed to respond to the needs of Black higher education.

For the purposes of this report system supports are defined as those extra- and intra-institutional mechanisms and structures which provide the wherewithall for effective facilitation of the aims of Black higher education. System supports are the base upon which a successfully functioning hierarchy is built. Without them the hierarchy is doomed to ineffectiveness and failure. The variations in descriptive system supports depend upon the objectives of the organization in question. However, such supports generally fit into one or more of three categories: fiscal, organizational and policy.

Fiscal supports involve financial or funding issues. Inconsistency and inadequate level of funding are the major delimiting factors in many Federal programs. To be truly viable, a system support must have readily verifiable objectives, be geared toward meeting the needs of the entity in question, provide

sufficient resources to accomplish these objectives, and have a program to consistently evaluate and monitor the accomplishment of the goals and objectives of the program. Most Federal programs, not only for Black colleges but generally, fail in these areas.

A viable fiscal support system should also have a "future" orientation. In design, the program should anticipate the future needs of the organizational structure. It should look to the time when the program is put on sound footing and able to sustain itself to some extent, or it should build in a system wherein there is an interminable relationship based upon the assumption that there is a universal benefit to be achieved from maintaining the structure. In other words, if we assume that the Black colleges and Black higher education are the major advocates of racial advancement and equal opportunity, then it stands to reason that this is not a terminable goal for the society until such time as the racial equality goals of the Nation have been achieved.

Organizational supports are bureaucratic sub-structures which have responsibility for advancing the goals of a particular task. Thus, to use other parallel issues, the Office of Handicapped Individuals and the Administration on Aging are organizational supports designed to impact on the needs of particular constituencies.

The problems with currently established organizational supports relate to (1) the self-serving, self-perpetuating nature of many of them and (2) the fact that fiscal allocations tend not to directly benefit the intended target group. Witness the problems with administrative costs in the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). The result is that a well-meaning program becomes a way of supporting large numbers of bureaucrats with much less than the intended benefits going to the constituency for which they were designed.

Policy, as a readily identifiable modus operandum, ties all systems supports together into a comprehensive structure for accomplishing a particular task. Its absence relegates fiscal and organizational supports to unrelated programs which tend to be reactionary. Policy is the most significant missing link in the bureaucratic structure as it attempts to respond to Black colleges and Black higher education, because without it there is no coordination of efforts and no goal toward which different structures within the bureaucratic sub-structure can move with some foresight.

Because of the importance of the establishment of a public policy toward Black higher education we will take a rather specific position with respect to how identified public policies can and should be evaluated for appropriateness. Policy requires someone who designates responsibility for implementation of a directive (goal), according to a prescribed plan (conditions); in a situational formula where decisions can be impacted. Hence:

1. An authorizing agent agrees to direct an implementing agent to act in a specified way when a certain condition exists.
2. There is a prior agreed upon reaction which is in the form "Do X when the specified condition occurs."
3. An authorizing agent does something to bring about a specific state of affairs by the prior agreed to rules.

4. Revisions in the authorizing agent's obligations are made according to rules which include informing and giving consideration to the opinions of all constituencies. (Kerr, 1976, pp. 5-39).

Generally, these preconditions distinguish policy from related concepts such as plan, program, goal, principle of action and promise, many of which are catchwords for what is done for (to) Black higher education and Black colleges presently. In effect the plans, goals, principles...etc., which are often quoted as representing the bureaucracy's concern for and sensitivity to the needs of Black higher education and Black colleges, do not indicate an approach which might represent an educational policy. The difference is of course the addition of action-with-a-purpose to these positions.

In the matter of educational policy, our definition must be refined even further as education tends to include some variables which may not be as appropriate in the definition of policy generally. The presumption of educational policy makers is that...

"...in choosing to conduct education systematically, one makes four categories of policy decisions necessary to the enterprise: curricular policies, methodological policies, resource policies and distributional policies." (Kerr, 1976, p. 57)

A more realistic approach to the establishment of policy as it impacts on the higher education of Blacks, involves a farsighted recognition of the importance of the contributions of Black colleges and Black higher education to the broader goals of the Federal government. The ultimate objective of such goals being the achievement of equal opportunity for the people of the Nation. It assumes that there is a bureaucratic structure in place to assure that these goals are met, that adequate resources are provided and that there is a process outlined which includes the constituencies served in the planning and evaluation of the process, outcomes and establishment of new policy directions.

National Objectives Defined. With the advent of the debate over the merits of the establishment of a separate Department of Education, all of the standard issues around the role of the Federal government in education began to surface. Though many different views exist on the issue, the consensus, generally, can be summarized in the eight areas which were outlined by a Committee of the National Academy of Education which were suggested as legitimate for Federal involvement, and which is quoted at the beginning of this section.

Few would debate the necessity of most of these goals. The parting of the ways comes when it is time to specify these goals in terms of the needs of specific groups, and the government's responsibility as an advocate. This advocacy role, thus, is the issue which is most controversial and which is so deeply tinged with political implications. Yet, Robert Andringa suggests that one of the priority roles of the Federal government in the area of education is to "...worry about those aspects and clients of education that do not have political clout." (Andringa, 1976, p. 57). The implication, of course, is that there should be national objectives which specifically relate to meeting the needs of these neglected groups. Black higher education and Black colleges have experienced neglect since their inception. Such neglect has been possible because they have been an invisible part of the society, lacking in a constituency which could provide them with the clout needed to forward their ends. To remedy the problem, national objectives designed specifically for Black higher education and Black colleges must become a Federal agenda.



For the purposes of this paper national objectives are those goals (fiscal, organizational and policy) which serve as a base from which policy is made affecting Black higher education and Black colleges. The distinguishing features which separate these goals from those which have been put forward in the past, are the terms "action" and "purpose".

There is, perhaps, no precedent for the type of national objectives and systems supports which are proposed here. The nature of the problem of Blacks in pursuing higher education and the systemic hurdles which they face suggest that more is needed than the expenditure of funds and the establishment of grant programs. This route is the same as that used to solve problems presently. What is needed is a conscious study of the needs of Blacks and application of rational thought molded in an atmosphere which is cognizant of the history of past neglect. Policy must be the end result, but policy which is systematically derived, based in a sensitive approach to meeting the educational needs of Blacks and effectively implemented.

Equity and Equal Educational Opportunity Defined. For our purpose equity is defined as the fair and just distribution of resources such that every individual has the potential not only for acquiring them but also for benefiting from them, hindered only by innate abilities. The achievement of equity for Blacks is an ideal which has not been attained in America. Legal barriers have been dropped and affirmative steps have been taken to move toward its achievement. But even today in the precepts of the "neoconservative" movement (which is discussed in Chapter Seven) can be found the insidious racism which has prevented Blacks from achieving equality. For many white Americans achieving equity for Blacks has come to mean infringement upon the rights of the privileged; thus the aggressive attacks by the "neoconservatives" upon affirmative action programs.

The problem is simple. It is a semantic misunderstanding by those who feel attacked. Equity has often been defined in terms of the rights of whites. Thus, the argument would go, "to give more to Blacks is to take more away from whites". Equity is not a scale which balances white rights against Black rights.

If Blacks are to indeed enter the mainstream and share in the American dream, then an aggressive definition of equity must be adopted.

Equity as a general construct is the fair and just treatment of all members of society in their attempts to participate in and enjoy the universal pool of benefits available as a result of being a member of the society. A basic concept to be considered in determining the treatment of individuals must be attention to the past history of treatment of groups in the society. (Roper, 1979, p. 22)

Higher education equity must be tied by definition to the ability of Blacks as a people to achieve an equitable share of the American dream. Higher education is perhaps the greatest available means for promoting this achievement. It is thus imperative that any definition include some attention to making up for those situations where legal and moral sanctions prevented Blacks from achieving equitably. This Nation has a moral obligation to aggressively pursue the breakdown of barriers to Black achievement. With these things in mind the following definition as outlined by the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy seems most appropriate in setting the parameters of higher education equity. Higher education equity is....



...a societal goal that aims to provide the opportunity for all students to fulfill their promise and ambitions, and to rise to whatever heights their ability, interest, and determination can reach through education. To achieve this goal, opportunity cannot be limited by the color of one's skin, or sex....one's religious beliefs, or by family income and private circumstance. Equal educational opportunity in college is, therefore, the opportunity to enter not just some fields but all fields; and to earn not just a certain degree, but all degrees, unencumbered by barriers related to race, institutional practices, and personal attitudes (paraphrased by author). (ISEP, 1978, pp. XX)

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## CHAPTER THREE

### THE SYSTEM SUPPORTS RATIONALE

The six system supports which are perceived as significant to the advancement of Black higher education and Black colleges and universities are explored in detail in the next six chapters. Each of these chapters provides a close examination of the support entity followed by recommendations.

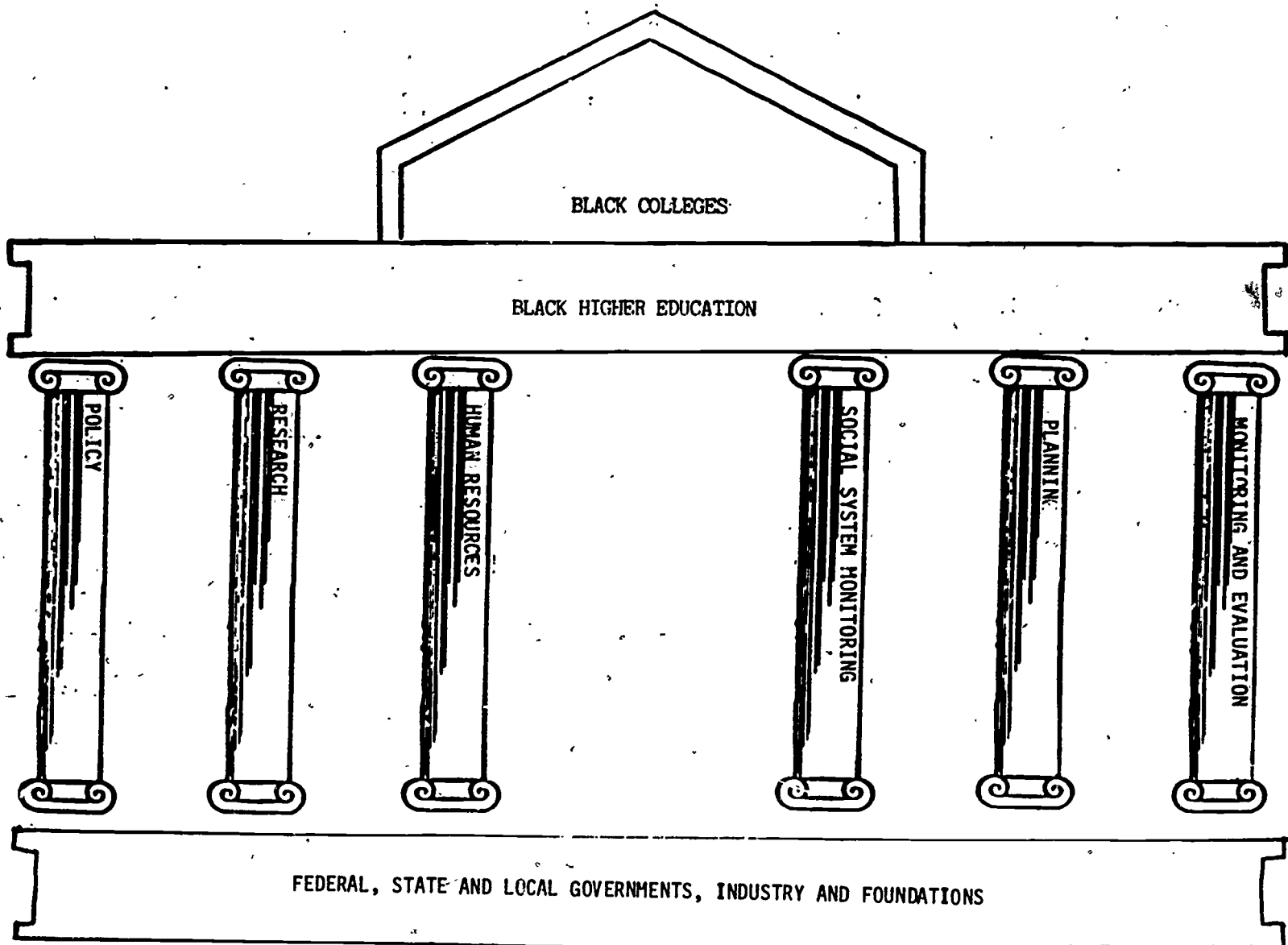
#### System Supports - Rationale

The concept of system is basic to the rationale of this document. A system in the most simplistic terms is a demarcated semi-closed network composed of a finite set of mutually dependent variables. It can be perceived as a somewhat closed system with dependent and independent subsystems, the reactions of any one of which affects the reactions of the others.

This system relationship becomes especially crucial when entities within the system maintain a figure-ground relationship with respect to dependency. The co-mixture between the Federal government and Black higher education are a classic case in point. At one point, the Federal government is the dependent entity, needing the Black colleges to support its equal opportunity goals. At another the Black colleges become the dependent partners because of their need for the fiscal support which the Federal government can offer. The result is a dynamic system in which if one significant entity breaks down or fails to function the others are impacted.

This document assumes such a dynamic relationship between the Black colleges and Black higher education. The Black colleges have long assumed a major role in the education of Black Americans. They make up a part of a larger scheme called Black higher education. Black higher education comprises all aspects of the education of Black Americans, including that which takes place in majority institutions, two-and 4-year colleges, industry, etc. The necessary other entities in this system are adequate Federal policy toward Black education; a sensitive research base designed to provide accurate information about Black education; equitable allotment of human resources, especially at the decision-making and policy levels; a sensitive social structure; planning for improved response to educational needs; and a system of monitoring and evaluation to assure that the system works effectively. (Chart III-1)

CHART III-1  
RELATIONSHIP OF THE SYSTEM SUPPORTS TO BLACK HIGHER EDUCATION AND BLACK COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES



15

## CHAPTER FOUR

### POLICY AS A SYSTEM SUPPORT

"Unlike the great majority of foreign governments, America does not arrange its educational policy as an aspect of political ideology and national government control."

"...I doubt whether the American society in the next decade will think of educational policy as a nationally and centrally managed enterprise, or that it will force the present educational institutions into the mold of a particular political or economic ideology." (Keppel, Francis, "Educational Policy in the Next Decade." Speech given at Aspen Institute for Humanistic studies, August 24, 1976, ERIC #ED 131 588)

#### Introduction

This section reviews the educational policy making process and makes recommendations for improving the process to more effectively impact on Black higher education. Basic to the discussion is the answering of four questions:

1. What is identified as policy in the Federal government?
2. What is the process of policy development in the Federal government as it applies to higher education?
3. Who is responsible for policy determination and development?
4. What are the policy initiatives which have come out of the Federal government which have implications for Black higher education?

Ideally, policy serves as a basis for action by lower levels in an organizational structure. By definition policy should be approved at the highest applicable level in the structure. Likewise the origins of policy should be rather clear cut and easily defined.

The process of Federal educational policy making tends to break all of these rules. It is impacted not only by the three branches of government but also by the States, a tremendous number of constituencies and by the personal inclinations of bureaucrats at all levels within each of them. The result is that the multitude of policies which collectively make up the educational policy of the Nation often give the appearance of lacking in congruency if not being blatantly in opposition to each other.

To understand the educational policy of the Nation, one must of course be cognizant of the effect of each of the constituencies which impact the process. There are basically two major groupings of entities which impact educational policy. The first is composed of the cabinet level education functionaries (until recently the Education Division of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, now the Education Department), the education Committees in the House and Senate, and the States.

The second, indirectly but perhaps of greater impact, is composed of all the remaining committees which make legislation which impacts education, and the private and public education constituent groups. The mix of actions between these groups generate Federal educational policy.

Federal policy toward education is more often than not determined through the actions of the latter non-education groups or indirectly related bureaucratic entities within the three government branches (Halperin, in IEL, 1978, pp. 59-60). A process involving policies enacted by non-education Committees and their implementing arms in the Executive Branch is typical of this situation. The result is often a tremendous impact on educational policy of an enactment designed for another purpose.

Over the years a number of such "auxiliary" legislative enactments have had significant import. Samuel Halperin (See Halperin in IEL, pp. 57-71) has enumerated several examples of such legislation;

- o House Ways and Means Committee and Senate Committee on Finance's legislation of tax credits for payment of educational expenses in 1978. The legislation is a tax measure per se but with tremendous implications for educational policy.
- o Other previous congressional tax committees have enacted tax credits for preschool and child expenses, charitable deductions for contributions to education, restrictions on foundation giving, parental exemptions for dependent students, deductibility of selected educational and training costs, various ways to treat income from fellowships and scholarships and other policies with education impact.
- o The labor and anti-discrimination measures of the act prohibiting mandatory retirement prior to age 70 (P.L. 95-266) have tremendous implications for tenure systems at education institutions.
- o Legislation in the areas of energy, social security taxes, regulation of pension plans, equal employment opportunity, occupational safety and health, and others, were designed for other purposes but likewise have implications for educational policy.
- o The creation of the Department of Education had its major legislative placement in Congressional Committees on organization and operations.

Likewise, the impact of external social forces is paramount in the initiation of Federal programs, many of which have educational implications. The fact that World War I produced the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act; the GI bills were the result of demobilization after World War II; the National Defense Education Act was a response to Sputnik; the War on poverty and the Civil Rights Revolution produced Head Start and Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act; and continuing unemployment contributed to the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act and Youth Employment and Demonstration Act, all suggest the importance of these influences.



The educational policy making process is thus impacted at least initially by the following entities:

- The Executive Branch
- The Congress
- The Judiciary
- The President
- The States
- Education interest groups.

A brief synopsis of the impact of each of these groups is instructive at this point.

The Executive Branch. The Education Division as one part of the tri-partite DHEW configuration was not traditionally the major power in education policy development in Washington.

"Secretaries of HEW are enormously busy and harried creatures, dashing from welfare scandals to the dangers of food additives, from containment of hospital costs to the desegregation of colleges, from Head Start and day care to feeding centers for senior citizens, from cigarettes and cancer to fraud and abuse in the social security system. While some secretaries have substantial interest in education, others do not. While some Secretaries try to master the complexity of educational programs, most leave their power in the hands of little-known, relatively unaccountable special assistants whose influence generally far exceeds that of the Assistant Secretary for Education and the Commissioner of Education." (IEL, 1978, p. 64)

Even the individual designed to assume major responsibility for Education in DHEW found himself in an unenviable position.

"The U.S. Commissioner of Education, responsible for some \$13 billion in Federal programs (over half the total appropriated for education), is at the lowest grade of the Federal executive scale. As such, he has no clout with assistant secretaries, under secretaries or secretaries in other executive agencies, many of whom are responsible for millions and even billions of dollars of Federal programs with highly significant consequences for American education. Whatever his personal characteristics may be, the Commissioner is today a minor-league figure in Washington policymaking." (Cross, in IEL, 1978, p. 64)



The result is that under the HEW structure, policy tended to be reactive to the efforts and actions of other agencies, and was acted upon by HEW primarily through administering the allocated funds resulting from program and policy implementation.

The major impact of HEW upon the Black colleges has come in the form of

1. Efforts of the Title III program of the Higher Education Act of 1965,
2. The fact, as a consequence, that significant numbers of Black students at Black colleges benefit from Office of Education (OE) student assistance programs, and
3. The adjudication resulting from the suit against HEW in the Adams litigation.

Such efforts suggest a less than aggressive approach to the Black colleges. Whether under the new Education Department structure this will be changed remains to be seen.

The Congress. It has been suggested that Congress' ability to develop educational policy is limited by a lack of continuity in the faces which are found there from year to year. According to Halperin, in 1978...

"...Of the 535 Members of Congress, 377 (fully 70 percent) were not in office when the Elementary and Secondary Education Act became law in 1965. In 1979, at least 60-80 Members will not return, most through voluntary retirements. More important, of the 37 current Members of the House Committee on Education and Labor, only ten were serving in 1965-and two of these have announced their retirement at the end of 1978. (IEL pp. 65).

Samuel Halperin suggests that this lack of sophistication about education issues among the new breed of legislators in combination with the fact that "policy making is incremental and essentially conservative, (and) elected policymakers are loathe to harm existing arrangements" has resulted in an essentially "status quo" approach to educational policy making. (Cross, in IEL, 1978, p. 67)

The Judiciary. The Judiciary has essentially made its impact on education as a result of numerous legal rulings designed mainly to clarify the rights of abused minority and underrepresented groups. Thus, landmark decisions on behalf of Blacks, Hispanics, women and the handicapped have resulted in major Federal initiatives aimed at equalizing the educational opportunities of these groups. Blacks and Black colleges have seen the major impact upon their lives resulting from the Brown decision, the on-going Adams litigation, and Bakke.

The President. George Kaplan suggests that "it has been more than a decade since a President found more than an occasional hour or two for education." (IEL, p. 79) Presidents have tended to leave the handling of education matters to the Department of HEW and Congress, with only an occasional input when highly critical issues evolved. President Carter's personal maneuvering on behalf of the new Education Department is almost without precedent in the recent two decades. His Executive Order issued on behalf of the historically Black colleges is especially encouraging.

The States and Educational Interest Groups. The States are the primary advocates and financiers of education in this country. Policy, however, tends to be a prerogative of the local school boards. Many States have State Boards for Higher Education which have varying degrees of control over the education process for the States' postsecondary institutions. (Halstead, p. 86) States tend to be influenced by the Federal government in the policies they establish, especially in the provision of equal educational opportunity. The clout which the government has in the form of control of Federal monies which flow to the institutions is of some significant influence.

The nearly 500 education interest groups provide an important ingredient in the policy-making process. These groups tend to be activists out of a need to demonstrate to their constituents that they are representing them well. To accomplish their missions these groups design amendments to legislation under consideration, lobby for and mandate actions of legislators, tinker with old formulas and policies, and, at times, introduce entirely new concepts for legislative intervention. They tend to be affective because members of Congress tend to be eager to please, especially when there is a large constituency back home.

The result of the actions of these groups is that policy making is not a coordinated function such that it is possible to identify a process for impacting it. What happens realistically is that policy comes down to how the Federal government responds to the mandated needs of education--despite the lack of an established policy. Ensuing programs tend to be the realm of the Federal bureaucrats who are responsible for their day-to-day functioning.

In order to get some picture of how these functionaries respond to policy and the policy-making process, this Committee conducted a study of the federal agencies which have an education mission. The following discussion contains the results of that analysis.

### Methodology

The methodology used in studying the policy making process in the Federal government involved identification of a sample of agencies which would be used in the study. The twenty agencies settled on are listed in Chart IV-1.

CHART IV-1.

AGENCIES CONTACTED FOR POLICY STUDY

<u>Agency</u>	<u>Principal Concern*</u>	
	<u>Data</u>	<u>Policy</u>
1. Statistical Reporting Service U.S. Department of Agriculture	X	X
2. U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics	X	
3. U.S. Bureau of the Census	X	
4. U.S. Commission on Civil Rights		X
5. Community Services Administration		X
6. U.S. Department of Energy		X
7. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission	X	X
8. Government Accounting Office		X
9.. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare:		
a. Federal Interagency Committee on Education	X	X
b. Office for Civil Rights	X	X
c. Office of Human Development		X
d. Office of the Secretary		X
e. Health Resources Administration		X
f. National Center for Education Statistics	X	
g. National Institute of Education		X
10. Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor		X
11. National Academy of Sciences	X	
12. National Science Foundation		X
13. Office of Management and Budget		X

\*Principal concern represents the major activity of the agency which was used to identify agencies for the study.

They have several characteristics in common:

1. They are either Federal agencies or have very close ties to Federal agencies.
2. They are either traditionally responsive to Black higher education or they have had little relationship in the past, but could (should) potentially be so responsive.
3. They are either programmatic in function or are chiefly data gathering units.

Since the emphasis of the study is on the policy making mechanisms and data gathering activities (data gathering is covered in another section of the report) of the Federal government, it was felt that these agencies represented a fairly accurate cross section of those Federal entities which impact Black higher education.

Interviews were scheduled with (1) equal employment opportunity officers, (2) administrators and (3) technicians (those responsible for programmatic and data gathering activities) in each agency. Two to six individuals were interviewed in each agency using a fourteen item questionnaire. Responses were used to determine a profile of policy making in each agency and subsequently in the Federal government. Four questions stated in the initial part of this section were used as a basis for organization of the profile. The remainder of this section discusses the results of the study.

### Findings

Identification Of Federal Policies. What is identified as policy in the Federal government? Several conclusions can be drawn concerning Federal bureaucrats' perceptions of policy. First, it became clear very early in the study that certain inaccuracies in perception were evident at the mention of the term policy.

Administrators, and especially those at the lower levels, tended to define policy in practical pragmatic terms, usually by identifying programmatic efforts of the agency with unspecified policy implications. It was unusual for such programmatic efforts to be readily identified with concise, on-going, modus operandi for the agency, which were in turn related to a program of National priorities. Thus, the great majority of individuals interviewed tended to see the agencies' policy toward Black higher education in terms of (1) the programs which were designed to recruit college educated Blacks into the government or (2) the agencies' efforts to award research and other contracts to Black colleges.

Second, policy determination as a formalized prerequisite to action was perceived by those interviewed as greatly neglected. Programs of the agency tended to evolve based on many of the same needs which would normally be basic to formalized policy determination but the process of their evolution was lacking in the rigors involved in the formalized policy development process. Part of the reason for this appearance of unorganized policy making is that many of those individuals who were identified as policy makers by others, tended to disavow such responsibility when confronted directly with the question, "Are you a policy maker?". The result was that direct knowledge of the policy making process was not within the purview of most of those interviewed. Most indicated that (1) they had not been (were not) a part of the policy making process, or (2) their first contact with policy was usually when a particular directive was delivered indicating the implementation phase of policy.

Third, policy, in almost all agencies was primarily impacted by the leadership of the agency and those individuals who had the ear of that person. Thus, a decided shift was described in a number of agencies where shifts in leadership were evident. For example, in one agency where leadership had gone from a "conservative, white male" to a white female, a marked increase in interest in women's issues and in the numbers of women brought into the agency in leadership positions was noted.

Similarly, in another agency where leadership had gone from a white to a Black male there was a significant concern about issues affecting Blacks (such as implementing the President's Directive on Black Colleges), and in the increased visibility of Blacks in positions of leadership. Several individuals underscored the importance of this diversity of leadership by pointing out specific initiatives and programs which would not have been considered except for the interest and concern of certain key individuals. There is not sufficient data to objectively substantiate such a conclusion, but a look at the policy initiatives of agencies toward Black colleges and other issues of interest to Blacks suggests that there is a significant relationship between the commitment (of funds) to Black colleges and the level of agency commitment to Blacks generally. Likewise there appears to be a relationship between the commitment to hiring Blacks at upper levels and involvement in programmatic efforts of interest to Blacks. The problem with such a conclusion is that it becomes a question of "which came first, the chicken or the egg." Were there large numbers of Blacks in those agencies who influenced the development of programs which emphasized issues involving Blacks which precipitated the hiring of Black professionals to administer them? This report does not propose to answer this question but to describe the pattern--that is the presence of Blacks in decision making slots appears to parallel the existence of viable programs which confront issues of importance to Blacks. The persons interviewed were almost unanimous in their agreement that this was the case.

Fourth, despite the perception of the importance of leadership to the development of policy for an agency, there was not, except in a very limited number of instances, a feeling of hopelessness insofar as informally influencing the policy making process. Such influence occurred through one of two avenues: (a) staff meetings which often resulted in discussions wherein issues were brought up that attracted the attention of the administrator and resulted in policy, or (b) position papers which were requested indicated a position on an idea which was already under policy consideration. The end result was usually adoption of an agency policy which not necessarily resulted in recognition of its origins.

In summary, policy as a rigorously defined administrative tool is not readily identifiable in the Federal government. The term is so nebulous that those not formally trained in its formulation, analysis and implementation tend to generalize its meaning. Every action of the agency tends to be identified as policy, despite the agency's original intent. The result is that use of the notion of policy has little relevance in a formalized sense. Policy tends to be more plan-of-action oriented and programmatic than a base from which establishment of immediate and long-term priorities are initiated.

Process of Policy Development. What is the process of policy development as it applies to higher education? There are two working processes of policy development in the majority (and we would suspect all) of the Federal agencies. First there is the formal process (Chart IV-2) which tends to follow the textbook



approach to good management; then there is the informal process which is different in each case but contains characteristics common to all.

The formalized process relies very heavily upon the "mandate" from the Chief Administrator, at whatever the level. The mandate is the key to action. However, as the mandate is transmitted from level to level it loses more and more of its relationship to the intent and rationale of initial policy, such that entities at the lower levels are seldom able to equate their actions to the overall actions of the parent agency.

As expressed by many of the individuals interviewed, the formalized system offers little formal opportunity for feedback and lower level input into the policy development process--thus, the prevalent comment "It's the person in the Chair who determines policy." The "person in the Chair" for policy making purposes was determined to be the Secretary who was seen as getting his/her mandate from the President and the Congress. Agency policy making was seen to result directly from the efforts (decisions) of these three positional levels: The Congress, the President, and the Secretary, with the greatest emphasis being placed on the Secretary in mission related areas.

The majority of the agency people felt that the development of policy affecting Black higher education would come from two situational areas which are closely allied to the political process: (1) directives such as that of the President on the Black colleges would have to be picked up by a vocal constituency which would lobby such concerns into a pressured reaction from the Government, or (2) another issue with greater visibility, constituency and/or urgency will have to be used to attach such initiatives as a rider. Some issues which were suggested as possibilities for this purpose include the deteriorating state of the economy and the rising jobless rate.

Because policy affecting Blacks generally and Black higher education specifically is so heavily tied into the political process it seems unlikely that either of these alternatives will produce the desired results in the immediate future.

For most persons interviewed the frustration with the system lies not so much in its structure but in lack of sensitivity to issues affecting Blacks and Black higher education. Practically every minority person interviewed related the struggle which has gone into, first, bringing issues affecting Blacks to light and, second, producing initiatives to confront these issues within each of the individual agencies. The formal policy making process makes such attempts extremely difficult.

The informal process is one which reverses the top down trend established by the formal process. The process gets closer to a collegial relationship in policy development. Informal policy making was described as an interagency process for developing internal, administrative modus operandi. The informal process has little relevance for policy development as it might impact on Black higher education. The exception is as it relates to the hiring of Black college graduates to work in the agencies.

The critical element in both formal and informal policy making is the people who fill the positions in the hierarchy. Black higher education does not have a significant constituency in the Federal work force. As shown elsewhere in this



report an appallingly insignificant percentage of Blacks fill upper level decision making slots in the civilian work force (See Table IV-2).

Lastly, the policy making process in the Federal government is nebulously defined and lacking in congruency. Impacting the decision making process requires a commitment to striking each agency, directly and differently. Recognizing the limited resources of the Black colleges it is unlikely that they will be able to encourage significant policy imperatives beyond what their several organizations such as the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, the Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges of the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and the United Negro College Fund, are now doing.

In the present situation several individual agency initiatives attempt to respond to the needs of Black higher education according to some uncoordinated, ill-defined plan. The result is a less than adequate effort made by one or two agencies on a one time basis.

Federal decision makers agreed that if the policy making process is to benefit Black higher education, several factors must be put in place:

1. There must be a coordinated national policy toward Black higher education.
2. There must be a policy making process which is somewhat consistent and manageable so that the process does not defeat attempts to impact it.
3. There must be a more sensitive ear in the agencies so that determined policies reflect the interests of Blacks and Black higher education.

Agency representatives readily admit that their relationships with Black colleges, for example, are not what they should be. The problem, they suggest, is in two parts: (1) there is limited over-all agency interest in the Black colleges, and (2) the Black colleges tend to lack expertise and resources to effectively deal with the bureaucratic procedures which each agency has in place. The result is that even when there is agency interest in providing assistance to Black colleges (usually in the form of contracts) many of the colleges are not equipped to timely submit the necessary proposals and other documents. This, in turn, leads to either disillusionment on the part the Federal agency or a false satisfaction in the feeling that "I've done my part; its not my problem if they did not do theirs." The result is a vicious cycle resulting in at least a laissez faire position toward Black colleges or at most a benign neglect of these institutions.

In this context many of those interviewed felt that there was a need for external support to the colleges to help them to competitively respond to Federal contract proposals. In almost every case where there have been attempts to help the colleges in these activities, the agency has in some way provided proposal writing workshops, usually as a nonmandated activity. Several agency staff mentioned they were pleased with the efforts of such nonfederal assisting agencies as the Moton Foundation and the Institute for Services to Education and suggested the need for expansion of such activities by these groups to assist the Black colleges in getting a more equitable share of Federal support.

TABLE IV-1

## Federal Employees in Selected Cabinet Departments by Grade Groups, 1977

Department	Number of employees			Percent of employees					
	All employees	Blacks		Grades 1-8		Grades 9-13		Grades 14-18	
		Total	Percent of all employees	All employees	Black	All employees	Black	All employees	Black
Total Selected Departments	1,749,571	113,822	11.5	50.2	73.1	43.5	24.9	6.3	1.0
Agriculture	81,743	5,035	6.2	47.0	64.6	48.0	34.1	5.0	1.3
Commerce	28,725	4,786	16.7	38.2	69.2	46.1	26.8	15.7	4.0
Defense	566,310	53,022	9.4	54.3	76.4	41.8	22.8	3.8	0.8
Energy	15,647	1,076	6.9	34.7	62.4	43.0	29.0	22.2	8.5
Health, Education & Welfare	131,330	29,458	22.4	57.5	73.6	36.2	24.1	6.3	2.3
Housing & Urban Development	16,731	3,750	22.4	41.2	62.0	47.9	32.7	10.9	5.2
Interior	57,700	2,194	3.8	47.8	65.6	46.0	32.7	6.2	1.6
Justice	48,057	6,218	12.9	49.4	82.1	42.6	16.3	8.1	1.6
Labor	14,922	3,760	25.2	39.6	66.2	48.2	29.0	12.2	4.9
State	15,465	2,292	14.8	30.9	62.0	47.8	34.3	21.2	3.7
Transportation	62,410	5,186	8.3	19.6	50.3	63.5	42.3	16.8	6.7
Treasury	110,531	15,045	13.6	52.0	77.2	43.2	21.6	4.8	1.2

SOURCE: U. S. Civil Service Commission Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics, November 1977.

TABLE IV-2

## Full-Time Senior Level Federal Employees in Selected Agencies, by Race and Sex, 1977

Agency and senior level	Full-time employees			Minority employees				Non-minority
	Total	Women		Number	Negro/Black		Women	
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		
Total, Selected Agencies	79,769	3,588	4.5	4,883	2,694	3.4	383	74,886
GS-14-16	78,589	3,552	4.5	4,828	2,658	3.4	381	73,761
GS-17-18	1,180	36	3.1	55	36	3.1	2	1,125
Action								
GS-14-16	127	17	13.4	25	18	14.2	6	102
GS-17-18	9	2	22.2	3	2	22.2	0	6
Total Senior Level	136	19	14.0	28	20	14.7	6	108
Agency for International Development								
GS-14-16	1,176	53	4.5	70	38	3.2	7	1,106
GS-17-18	93	2	2.2	7	6	6.5	0	86
Total Senior Level	1,269	55	4.3	77	44	3.5	7	1,192
Community Services Administration								
GS-14-16	209	21	10.1	67	55	26.3	8	142
GS-17-18	2	0	0	1	1	50.0	0	1
Total Senior Level	211	21	10.0	68	56	26.5	8	143
Department of Agriculture								
GS-14-16	3,978	113	2.8	130	65	1.6	5	3,848
GS-17-18	65	0	0	0	0	0	0	65
Total Senior Level	4,043	113	2.8	130	65	1.6	5	3,913
Department of Commerce								
GS-14-16	4,391	221	5.0	303	187	4.3	34	4,088
GS-17-18	121	4	3.31	5	3	2.5	0	116
Total Senior Level	4,512	225	5.0	308	190	4.2	34	4,204
Department of Defense								
GS-14-16	21,523	391	1.8	798	430	2.0	25	20,725
GS-17-18	195	3	1.5	6	2	1.0	0	189
Total Senior Level	21,718	394	1.8	804	432	2.0	25	20,914
Department of Energy								
GS-14-16	3,413	146	4.3	166	91	2.7	13	3,247
GS-17-18	63	0	0	3	1	1.6	0	60
Total Senior Level	3,476	146	4.2	169	92	2.7	13	3,307
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare								
GS-14-16	8,123	1,061	13.1	932	662	8.2	154	7,191
GS-17-18	107	7	6.5	9	6	5.6	0	98
Total Senior Level	8,230	1,068	13.0	941	668	8.1	154	7,289
Department of Housing and Urban Development								
GS-14-16	1,790	154	8.6	227	190	10.6	35	1,563
GS-17-18	37	5	13.5	7	6	16.2	1	30
Total Senior Level	1,827	159	8.7	234	196	10.7	36	1,593

TABLE IV-2 cont.

## Full-Time Senior Level Federal Employees in Selected Agencies, by Race and Sex, 1977

Agency and senior level	Full-time employees			Minority employees				Non-minority
	Total	Women		Number	Negro/Black		Women	
		Number	Percent	Number	Number	Percent	Women	
<b>Department of Interior</b>								
GS-14-16	3,547	102	2.9	243	36	1.0	2	3,304
GS-17-18	5 <sup>A</sup>	1	1.9	4	0	0	0	50
Total Senior Level	3,601	103	2.9	247	36	1.0	2	3,354
<b>Department of Justice</b>								
GS-14-16	3,761	135	3.6	163	97	2.6	7	3,598
GS-17-18	145	4	2.8	2	1	.7	0	143
Total Senior Level	3,906	139	3.6	165	98	2.5	7	3,741
<b>Department of Labor</b>								
GS-14-16	1,774	178	10.0	234	181	10.2	33	1,540
GS-17-18	44	3	6.8	2	2	4.6	1	42
Total Senior Level	1,818	181	10.0	236	183	10.1	34	1,532
<b>Department of Transportation</b>								
GS-14-16	10,414	120	1.2	556	345	3.3	15	9,858
GS-17-18	94	1	1.1	4	4	4.3	0	90
Total Senior Level	10,508	121	1.2	560	349	3.3	15	9,948
<b>Environmental Protection Agency</b>								
GS-14-16	1,455	67	4.6	56	30	2.0	3	1,399
GS-17-18	40	2	5.0	1	0	0	0	39
Total Senior Level	1,495	69	4.6	57	30	2.0	3	1,438
<b>National Foundation for Arts and Humanities</b>								
GS-14-16	70	17	24.3	9	7	10.0	0	61
GS-17-18	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Total Senior Level	73	17	23.3	9	7	9.6	0	64
<b>National Aeronautics and Space Administration</b>								
GS-14-16	4,812	45	.9	138	54	1.1	3	4,674
GS-17-18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total Senior Level	4,812	45	.9	138	54	1.1	3	4,674
<b>National Science Foundation</b>								
GS-14-16	432	46	10.7	34	22	5.1	4	393
GS-17-18	50	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	50
Total Senior Level	482	48	10.0	34	22	4.6	4	448
<b>Tennessee Valley Authority</b>								
GS-14-16	591	4	.7	2	2	.3	0	589
GS-17-18	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	40
Total Senior Level	631	4	.6	2	2	.3	0	629
<b>Veterans Administration</b>								
GS-14-16	7,003	661	9.4	675	148	2.1	27	6,328
GS-17-18	18	0	0	1	1	5.6	0	17
Total Senior Level	7,121	661	9.4	676	149	2.1	27	6,345

SOURCE: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Federal Civilian Work Force Statistics: Equal Employment Opportunity Statistics. Washington, D.C.: 1977

Responsibility for Policy Development. Who is Responsible for Policy Determination and Development? According to Eleanor Holmes Norton, head of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, in the top three government grades, five (5) percent of the Federal workforce are minorities. (Ullman, 1979) Historically, Blacks have made up less than 5 percent of the upper grade levels (GS-12-18 and higher) of the civilian workforce, with percentages decreasing significantly as the grade increases.

The question of who makes policy in the Federal government must, of necessity, begin with an understanding of the involvement of Blacks in the Federal government as administrators, policy makers and upper level technicians. We must qualify our analysis here at the onset by indicating that without an agency-by-agency analysis it is difficult if not impossible to identify the involvement of Blacks in these positions according to responsibility. Factors involving the organization and workings of the Federal Civil Service System produce a situation which does not distinguish between grade level and responsibility at the upper grades.

Our study, however, indicates that policy is seldom if ever made below the GS-12 level, and probably is more accurately constituted in the GS-15-18 grades, and/or Special Assistants or Secretarial or Presidential Appointees. When we speak of policy making levels hereafter, we are speaking of the GS-12 to 18 grades, inclusively, but emphasizing the 15-18 grades.

Our study of the policy makers in the Federal government included identification of those persons who were considered by others in the agency to be key policy makers and selectively interviewing several of them as a part of the total sample. Of the twenty agencies contacted, fewer than three Blacks were identified as key agency decision makers in any of the twenty agencies. The average was less than one Black per agency. This would seem to be a phenomena which carries throughout the government generally.

Using our definition of the policy making level (GS-12-18) and completing an analysis of the involvement of Blacks at those grades is revealing. A profile of a select group of agencies offers a point of departure for this section. The following conclusions are drawn from Committee analysis of EEOC data which describe the civilian workforce in those agencies included in the 1979 Federal Interagency Committee on Education (FICE) Report on Federal Agencies and Black Colleges. These agencies include all of those which contributed to higher education institutions and which conducted educational activities in 1976-77. (See Table IV-2 for details)

- o There were 1,062,735 persons in the civilian workforce of the 17 agencies or departments studied.
- o 118,726 of the total workforce in these agencies were Black.
- o At the GS-12-18 grades there were 167,280 civilian workers (16% of the total workforce).
- o Blacks held only 6,120 slots at the GS-12-18 levels (5.2 of the total Black workforce, and 3.7% of the total GS-12-18 grades).
- o At the GS-14-18 grades Blacks made up 3.4 percent of the workforce.

The data here point to an even rosier picture than probably realistically exists. It must be kept in mind that the gross figures here include all persons at the GS-12-18 levels who make up the civilian workforce across the country. Disaggregation according to responsibility was not possible. We have to assume that some percentage of these individuals have longevity at these grades. The data suggest that Blacks and other minorities are greatly underrepresented in the Federal bureaucracy at the higher levels where decision-making and policy determination takes place.

Similar data from Committee staff interviews with top staff in the 20 agencies included in our study tend to substantiate this conclusion. At none of these agencies were more than three Black policy makers identified; the average was one and many had none. The Black policy makers who were identified by name and subsequently contacted generally hedged on acceptance of such a designation based on the politics of the agency and what actually was their line of responsibility.

Four of the Black agency policy makers contacted, however were in obvious policy making positions and controlled large budgets. As identified by others and as indicated by their own responses, they were actually policy makers. Management of a budget, thus, was identified as a strong indication that an individual makes other than a cursory impact on policy in an agency. It is perhaps indicative of the nature of Black impact on issue relevant policy that in three of these agencies the Blacks controlled programs which, though they were not geared specifically toward Blacks, were designed for the benefit of minorities or the economically disadvantaged and therefore included many Blacks.

Generally speaking, the major policy makers in the Federal government are white and male. They tend also to be above middle age. White women are perhaps the next largest category of policy makers. Blacks, Hispanics and Native Americans tend to pull up the rear. Black women, when they were indicated to be policy makers, were found in more traditional jobs, (e.g., EEO Officers, personnel officers) rather than in programmatic slots.

Policy making is a difficult concept on which to put a handle. Of the individuals contacted, their perceptions of what is actually involved in the process suggest a universal misunderstanding of the semantics of the term. Based on the data which we were able to gather, the following conclusions seem relevant with respect to who makes policy in the government as it impacts on Black higher education:

- o There are no programs or policies in the government which are race specific for Black Americans in higher education.
- o Approximately three (3%) percent of the policy makers in the government are Black.
- o Many Black (and white) bureaucrats, who have the term policy as a part of their titles or job descriptions, when confronted with this designation, either disassociate themselves from such or express confusion as to what the term means as regards their day-to-day functions.
- o There are indications that there are probably a number of white policy makers who may be significant advocates on behalf of Blacks.



- o Agencies with large numbers of Black related efforts, programs and commitments tend to be high in affirmative action in the placing of Blacks in upper level positions. Whether the Blacks or the programs came first is a subject for policy research which was not within the scope of this work.
- o Black policy makers are committed to Black higher education and Black colleges but express concern that without their presence such issues would fall by the wayside.
- o If Black higher education is to promote the issues which are of importance to it, then there must be a reliance upon seeking the ear and backing of the highest official in government who is sensitive to the issues involved. Presently there is a feeling that the Executive Branch, specifically the President and Vice President, indicate this sensitivity and concern.

Federal Policy Initiatives. What policy initiatives in the Federal government have implications for Black higher education?

"Educational programs of the Federal government are conducted by nearly forty different agencies at a cost of more than \$25 billion in 1979. These activities, in large measure or small, affect virtually all aspects of education in America -- public and private; pre-school to adult; traditional academic institutions, job training programs, and cultural resources such as museums and libraries. While education continues to be an area of American life in which local, State, and private influences predominate, the rapid burgeoning of Federal programs and expenditures in the last two decades has produced a significant increase in the impact of Federal policy on American education. These new Federal programs have come piecemeal as reactions to particular national events as to the expressed needs of constituencies and interest groups, and as a result, the sum total of these developments has seldom been described." (FICE, "Toward a Comprehensive Federal Educational Policy", unpublished, Federal Interagency Committee on Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1978, p. 3)

The fact is that education in America has been, by design, more a product of political ideology than of a planned and concerted policy toward National educational objectives. Programs have been developed piecemeal without a clear basis in policy. By suggesting that the Federal Interagency Committee on Education (FICE) efforts are "toward a comprehensive Federal educational policy" the committee infers in fact none really exists at present. (See FICE, "Toward a Comprehensive Educational Policy", Unpublished report). Our findings bear this out. There are a number of programs, activities and objectives which serve to guide the activities of the multitude of Federal departments and agencies which have educational missions, but these are not tied into a stated Federal policy which serves as a frame of reference for all.

The FICE report operationally aggregates the many different programs which the Federal government supports. It suggests that at least six areas express the commitment of the Government to education. These commitments include:

1. To assure equality of educational opportunity to each individual, regardless of race, sex, age, ethnic heritage, economic disadvantage or handicapping condition.
2. To encourage high educational standards, thoughtful responses to changing educational and social needs, efficiency and effectiveness.
3. To strengthen relationships among education, training, and work, with particular attention to areas of critical personnel supply and demand.
4. To encourage the growth of lifelong learning opportunities.
5. To meet a variety of recognized national priority needs, including agricultural, international affairs, science, arts and humanities.
6. To exercise leadership in the support of research in education and to assure the widespread dissemination of knowledge acquired through the research process.

Appendix IV-1 contains an extensive analysis of the purposes of Federal education activities and summarizes (1) applicable agencies and/or legislation with an education mission, (2) the disaggregated policy specific to higher education, (3) a further disaggregation of policy geared toward Black higher education and Black colleges, and (4) an analysis of the implications of policy toward Black higher education and Black colleges and universities. What results is an account sheet which allows comparisons to be made from the most general education policy to the more specific with respect to Black higher education. The conclusions drawn from this analysis are discussed here for each heading.

Legislation and agencies with an education mission For the school year 1978-79, approximately \$151.5 billion was spent on elementary, secondary, and higher education from public and private funds. Approximately eleven percent (\$16.2 billion) of this amount was spent by the Federal government (Grant, 1980). More than three dozen Federal agencies have statutory authority for education programs, ranging from the very specific to broad programs affecting large segments of the population.

Until the establishment of the Department of Education (USED), the Office of Education (OE) in Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (DHEW) was the chief advocate and supporter of all levels of education. All programs formerly administered by OE are now in the USED. Four major categories of aid programs were principally supported by OE.\*

\*This report, for the most part, was prepared prior to the implementation of the Congressional Act establishing the Education Department and therefore analyzes Federal Departments and Agencies as they existed prior to this Act.

1. Serving institutions
  - (a) elementary and secondary education
  - (b) strengthening organizational resources
  - (c) postsecondary education programs
  - (d) education of exceptional and handicapped persons
  - (e) developing and strengthening international studies
  - (f) occupational, adult, vocational, and career education
  - (g) desegregation assistance
2. Serving individuals (to train educators and help students)
3. Research
4. School construction

These activities are authorized under the following major pieces of education legislation:

1. Education Amendments of 1974, '76, and '78
2. Elementary and Secondary Education Act
3. Higher Education Act of 1965, amended
4. Emergency School Aid Act
5. Community Services Act (P. L. 93-644)
6. Indian Education Act (P.L. 92-318)
7. School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas
8. National Diffusion Programs (P.L. 95-561)
9. General Education Provisions Act
10. Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Amendments of 1978 (P.L. 95-336)
11. Education of the Handicapped Act
12. Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act (Fulbright - Hays Act)
13. Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act (P.L. 83-480)
14. National Defense Education Act of 1958
15. Adult Education Act

16. Vocational Education Act of 1913
17. Career Education Incentive Act (P.L. 95-207)
18. Appalachian Regional Development Act of 1955

Education legislation and policies historically have been "impact" oriented. Thus, The Morrill Acts of 1865 and 1890 made land grants to establish colleges and universities; vocational education legislation (enacted in 1917) attempted to create a corps of skilled workers to fill the Nation's, industrial needs; and the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (G.I. Bill) provided benefits to servicemen, allowing thousands to participate in postsecondary education. Other "impact" legislation includes the National Science Foundation Act, and the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (FICE, 1979).

The Federal role in education altered sharply in 1965 with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The act clearly indicated the continuing role of the Federal government in the enhancement of equality of opportunity. This goal predominates the activities and resources of the Federal government today. Subsequent measures like the Emergency School Aid Act and the massive Aid to all Handicapped Children Act continue and expand that concern.

In the area of postsecondary education, efforts aimed at providing financial aid to students predominate Federal priorities. The major thrust of providing aid to students rather than to institutions is a recognized priority of the government. The Higher Education Act of 1965 and amendments in 1977 focus this perspective further.

The general education activities of the Federal government are to be commended in the scope and breadth with which they impact education for all Americans. However, the Federal commitment to support efforts by the States, which are perceived as the major providers of educational activities, has produced what appears to be a piecemeal mish mash of programs lacking coordination. This policy has produced a situation in which education policy is hard to define. True, as the FICE report suggests, the six purposes of Federal education activities express the commitment of the Federal government, but they do not lay out a program for achieving a coordinated education system nationwide. Failure to do so has produced a situation in which reading and mathematics scores are down in certain sections of the country, faith in teacher competence is diminishing, students in certain States are discriminated against in achieving a high school diploma by use of competency tests, arbitrary policies of certain school districts expel particular groups disproportionately in the name of discipline, sexism still exists, wealthy districts provide education at a significantly higher quality level (at least in terms of resources) than poorer districts, etc. The list goes on. As long as the Federal government fails to prescribe and outline a national policy on education these inequities will continue. There is no reason to assume that taking the step to establish a national policy will diminish the role or the authority of the States in operating public schools and colleges. The suggestion, however, says that a National policy could set out the need for an educated citizenry and work in concert with the States for the equal protection of the law regarding the education of all Americans.

Federal Policy Toward Higher Education If the expenditure of funds can be used as an indication of policy, then the policies of the Office of Education, the Department of Energy, the National Science Foundation, the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Housing and Urban Development can be said to be the policy of the Federal government toward higher education. The greater proportion of the Federal expenditures for higher education were in mission related activities within these four agencies. (See Table IV-3.)

The National Science Foundation has as its mission the promotion and advancement of scientific progress in the United States. The Foundation fulfills this responsibility at the postsecondary level primarily by sponsoring scientific research, encouraging and supporting improvements in science education, and fostering scientific information exchange. In 1978 NSF expended \$596.0 million on these higher education activities. Its major authorization is the National Science Foundation Act of 1950, as amended. Relatively small numbers of Black institutions received funds through the NSF in 1978 (see Table IV-3).

The Department of Agriculture obligated a total of \$378.2 million to colleges and universities in 1978. The majority of the efforts of the Department of Agriculture were support to extension programs in agriculture, home economics and related subjects; payments to agricultural experiment stations and payments to land grant colleges. Black colleges received much support, and, in fact many were developed initially as a result of the 1890 reissue of the Land Grants Act. The first Land Grants Act in 1860 did not include Black colleges. See Table IV-3.

Most of the Department of Housing and Urban Development higher education activities were for college housing programs. Expenditures of \$113.8 million for this purpose were made during the 1978 fiscal year.

Federal higher education policies, however, are presently outlined in provisions of the Higher Education Act. The Act as constituted provides major efforts in the areas of financial assistance to students attending postsecondary institutions and the improvement of the components of the education process (teaching, facilities, curriculum) to meet the needs of the diverse education populations which now dominate higher education. A third significant support for higher education is in the form of grants to colleges to conduct research and provide services to the government.

Presently a significant number of Federal programs respond to the needs of education. However, the greatest support for higher education still comes from the States. It is expected that State contributions will increase in the next decade. The mix of Federal commitment and State control has produced a situation in which Federal initiatives are potentially in conflict with State interests. The result is often a less than amicable relationship between Federal and State policy makers. Development of a Federal policy on higher education could go a long way toward alleviating some of these conflicts.

Federal Policy Geared Toward Black Higher Education and Black Colleges Except as Black higher education is a part of higher education generally, few provisions recognize the need to separately address the unique conditions of Black Americans vis-a-vis higher education. A larger percentage of Blacks are presently enrolled in predominantly white colleges than in predominantly or historically Black colleges. Yet almost 40 percent of the Blacks who graduate from college, graduate from the historically Black colleges (the reader is referred to the report of the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher

TABLE IV-3

FEDERAL OBLIGATIONS TO HISTORICALLY BLACK COLLEGES  
AND TO ALL INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION,  
BY AGENCY: FISCAL YEAR 1978

<u>Agency</u>	<u>Federal Obligations</u>	
	<u>Amount (000's)</u> <u>to Black Colleges</u>	<u>Amount (000's)</u> <u>to All Colleges</u>
ACTION	\$ 280	\$ 3,956
Agency for International Development	2,317	79,418
Community Services Administration	1,495	3,557
Department of Agriculture	25,357	378,222
Department of Commerce	594	32,650
Department of Defense	873	62,610
Department of Energy	781	1,775,277
Department of Health, Education & Welfare	306,475	5,494,499
Public Health Services	( 38,458)	(2,420,385)
Office of Human Development Services	( 3,271)	( 58,917)
Office of Education	(264,390)	(2,981,461)
Other Education Division	( 356)	( 33,736)
Department of Housing & Urban Development	7,971	113,755
Department of Interior	NA	NA
Department of Justice	802	39,540
Department of Labor	2,610	19,094
Department of Transportation	862	25,904
Environmental Protection Agency	974	2,049
International Communication Agency	251	2,019
National Endowment for the Arts	45	4,108
National Endowment for the Humanities	558	46,174
National Aeronautics & Space Administration	2,691	135,290
National Science Foundation	8,130	595,986
Office of Personnel Management	30	--*
Tennessee Valley Authority	153	1,266
Veterans Administration	312	11,326
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>\$363,561</b>	<b>\$8,826,501</b>

\* Entry not available

SOURCE: Federal Interagency Committee on Education, Federal Agencies and Black Colleges; Fiscal Year 1978



Education and Black Colleges and Universities entitled "Access of Black Americans to Higher Education: How Open is the Door?" for more detailed analysis of the enrollment and graduation patterns of Blacks).

Although the Federal commitment to the Black colleges is often spoken of in terms of the Office of Education's Developing Institutions Program, authorized under Title III of the Higher Education Act, diminishing amounts under this act have been awarded to the Black colleges. Title III in 1978-79 had only \$120 million dollars to help over 300 struggling institutions. Of this amount, \$58.6 million, or 48.8 percent went to the 106 historically Black colleges. Title III is not a program which is geared primarily toward Black higher education or Black colleges. In the early stages of this program it was perceived as a program conceived to aid the Black colleges and actually was of significant help to them, but it does not carry race specific provisions and thus has been diluted in its impact.

Other programs which impact significantly on Black higher education, and particularly the Black colleges indirectly, include research and development efforts of the National Institute of Education (NIE), the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE), and the National Science Foundation. The latter impacts more through minority fellowships in science.

Black students benefit significantly through the Federal student financial aid programs. These programs provide need-based aid to low and middle income students. Significant numbers of all Blacks in college receive some type of Federal financial aid. Many Black colleges could not survive without this aid because their students would be unable to attend college without it. Large proportions of their revenues are accounted for from this source.

Implications of federal policy toward Black higher education and Black colleges and universities With the absence of a clear Federal policy toward higher education in general, it is not surprising that there is no established Federal policy vis-a-vis Black higher education. However, one indication of Federal concern with Black colleges is the amount of Federal support.

According to the 1978 FICE report, 4.1 percent of the Federal obligations to all higher education institutions went to historically Black colleges. (See Table IV-4) This figure represents the lowest proportion of funding that has gone to Black colleges since 1971.

The problems inherent in a decrease in commitment to Black colleges exemplify the failure to prescribe a policy toward Black education. Missing are all of the variables which identify a consistently followed modus operandum. Except for FICE, which collects data on Federal funds to Black colleges, there is no agent responsible for looking at the broad spectrum of Black higher education and Black colleges and universities, which has responsibility for advising the Secretary of Education on matters related to the education of Black Americans. FICE has no power to set and monitor goals for the President's Directive or any other policy and yet it is the only agency in the government which has an across-department education constituency.

Under the new structure which is the United States Education Department, the President's Directive on Black colleges was revised and reissued as an Executive Order, giving the Secretary of Education responsibility for monitoring its

TABLE IV-4

FEDERAL FUNDS OBLIGATED TO BLACK COLLEGES AND TO  
ALL INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION  
FISCAL YEARS 1970 - 1978

<u>Fiscal Year</u>	<u>Historically Black Colleges</u>	<u>All Institutions of Higher Education</u>	<u>Percent Obligated to Black Colleges</u>
1970	\$121,298,800	\$3,667,923,000	3.3
1971	159,565,500	3,888,306,000	4.1
1972	242,226,400	4,637,637,000	5.2
1973	239,672,800	4,492,567,000	5.3
1974	266,896,000	4,852,814,000	5.5
1975	233,144,300	4,849,590,000	4.8
1976	264,754,000	5,380,022,000	4.9
TQ	84,614,000	1,710,760,000	4.9
1977	341,621,000	6,468,630,000	5.3
1978	361,297,000	7,051,424,000	4.1

Note:

For purposes of deriving trend data, a constant universe of 100 black institutions has been identified as recipients of Federal funds during the period 1970-1978. Amounts obligated to Alabama Lutheran Academy, Lomax-Hannon College, and Clinton Junior College have been omitted from the 1978 total, since these schools have not been consistently present in past FICE reports.

SOURCE: FICE, Federal Agencies and Black Colleges - Fiscal Year 1978,  
DHEW, Washington, DC, 1978

implementation. As of this writing the leadership of the office had been appointed and staffing is underway. There are, however, no indications of what the office's priorities will be.

Until such time as a Federal policy toward Black higher education is developed, it is unlikely that adequate progress will be made toward a true equity.

Despite the announced commitment of the Federal government to promote equal educational opportunity for all citizens, little beyond the issue of access is found in present educational policy. In higher education such commitment is exemplified in the major efforts outlined by the Student Financial Assistance and TRIO programs.

A necessary reorientation of the Federal government toward the promotion of equal educational opportunity would require that proportional efforts be directed toward access, retention and eventual matriculation. Equity in educational opportunity should mean that programs are supported which have the ultimate aim and mission of successful matriculation in education and not just access.

Using this conclusion as background then, the concept of national objectives for Black education would move toward support for programs which have shown sensitivity and success in graduating Black students from college.

### Conclusions

The policy of the Federal government toward Black higher education should be based first and foremost on the achievement of the affirmative action goals of the Nation. Blacks are very often the most underrepresented minorities in every occupational, political, and economic strata. Equity for Blacks in almost any area has not been achieved.

Affirmative action goals should, at least initially, be recognized as parity. Parity would suggest that every group has the potential for representation in every realm of the society in proportion to its numbers in the population. Narrowly speaking, this assumes that once such proportionate representation has been achieved then no further efforts need be expended. This is obviously an inappropriate conclusion. Parity guidelines must be expanded to make up for (1) past gross inequities, and (2) the effects which attrition will have upon parity goals. Thus, the achievement of goals far in excess of parity will be necessary in order to allow for regression to parity levels. Education has long been viewed as the primary means of improving the status of Blacks in this country. It follows then that education, but, particularly at the postsecondary level should be a priority in working toward equity for Blacks.

Based on this analysis, the following policy implications should be basic to a national policy for Black higher education:

- a. The Black colleges should be recognized as one of the most viable alternatives for the education of Blacks. Based on the success ratio of Black colleges to majority colleges in the education of Blacks, funding formulas should be drawn which weight the expenditures of Federal resources to educate Blacks to the area where the most benefit is being realized.

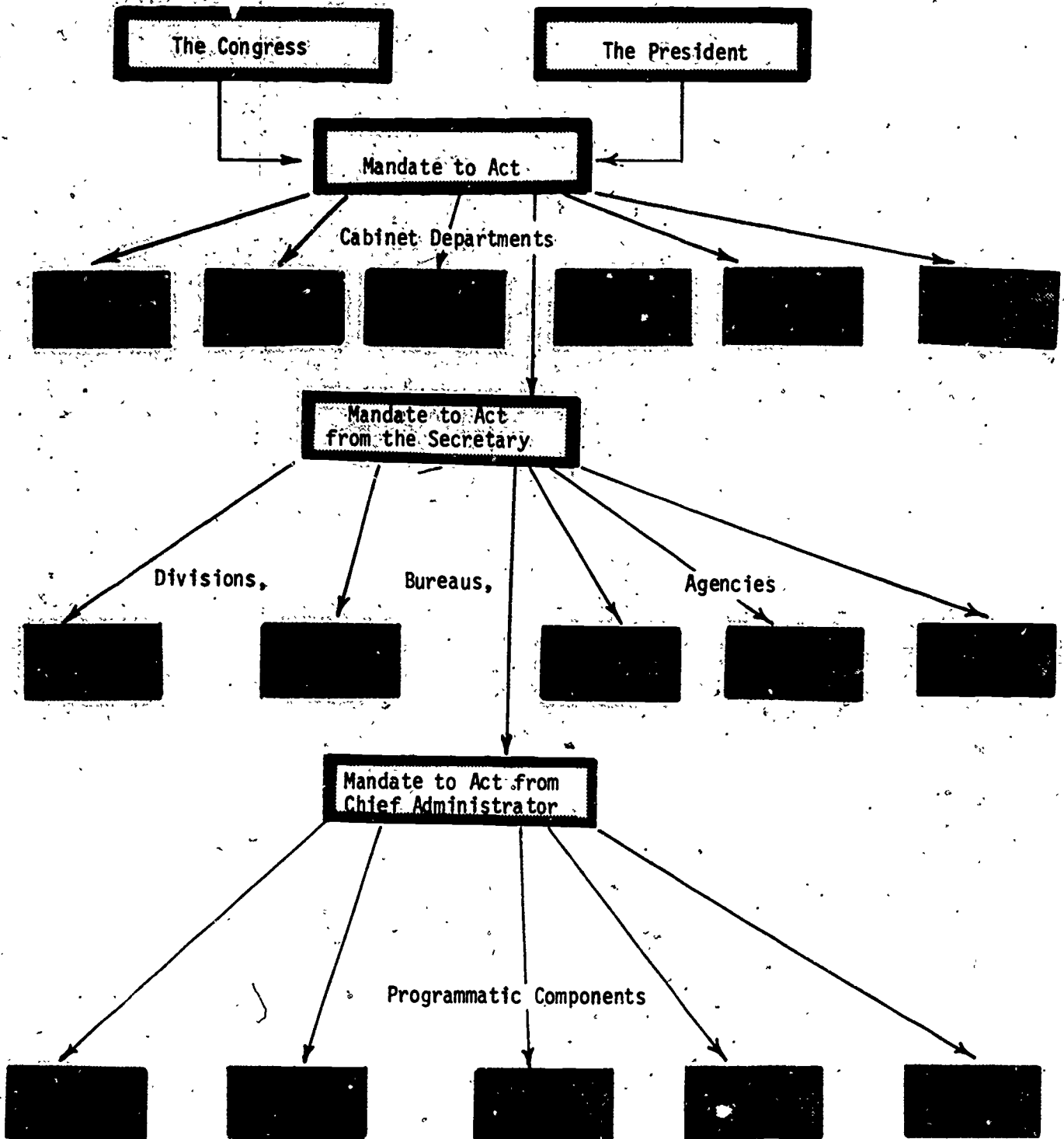
- b. In order to assure that efforts on behalf of Black colleges are coordinated between the many Federal agencies, the Federal Interagency Committee on Education, or some similar structure which reports to the Secretary of Education should be given broad sweeping coordinating powers. Within this group should be a Subcommittee on the Coordination of Federal Black Education Activities (SCFBEA). The SCFBEA would be responsible for monitoring Federal policy implementation as it impacts Black higher education.
- c. Concentrated Federal efforts should be formulated to make up for past deficiencies in Federal policy which have relegated the higher education of Black Americans and the Black colleges to a lower than acceptable priority. In particular four areas should be supported. (NAFEO, 1975, pp. 1-8)
- (1) Curriculum and program development
  - (2) Student supportive services
  - (3) Physical plant development and improvement
  - (4) Endowment development
- d. Concerted long-term, individualized plans for achieving relative financial health for each Black college should be worked out in cooperation with the Black colleges to aid them in making more significant strides toward joining the mainstream. Such a plan presumes a realistic allocation of Federal funds.
- e. The research and development efforts and allocation process should be monitored more carefully in order to assure that the present advocacy system which favors larger, more prestigious institutions does not operate to the disadvantage of Black colleges and Black higher education.
- f. The Secretary of Education, in cooperation with the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, should seek immediate support for the National Centers for Black (Higher) Education Research and Development either as NIE-supported centers or as centers supported from other than Federal sources.

### Recommendation

Federal policy with direct implications for Black higher education and Black colleges and universities is perhaps the most essential system support which this report recommends. History has shown that without Federal initiatives few advances in equal opportunity would have taken place. The Federal government has the resources as well as the responsibility to protect those less powerful groups which tend to be underrepresented in the decision-making councils of our society in order to assure the equitable availability of the higher education resources of the Nation. The findings of this section suggest the following recommendation as essential to the achievement of adequate Federal policy initiatives:

It is recommended that the Secretary of the Education Department seek implementation of certain race specific legislation designed to increase attention to the needs of Black Americans, e.g., a redefinition of Title III to indicate its originally intended purpose for Black colleges. Further Federal policy should be cognizant of the fact that aggregation of problems of Blacks (as well as solutions) with other minority groups is not appropriate at this time.

CHART IV-2  
FORMAL POLICY MAKING PROCESS





Appendix IV-1

PURPOSES OF FEDERAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES - AND ANALYSIS

1. To assure equality of educational opportunity for each individual regardless of race, sex, age, ethnic heritage, economic disadvantage of handicapping condition.

Subtopic	Applicable agency/ legislation and general education policy	Federal Policy toward Higher Education	Federal Policy toward Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities	Implications of Federal Policy for Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities.
43 Racial Minorities	1. Office for Civil Rights DHEW-OE	-to increase educational access for citizens at all educational levels-- from elementary to graduate school	-current litigation in case of Adams vs. Department of Education designed to increase the pace of desegregation of the postsecondary education systems in the southern and border states; increase minority access to higher education.	-OCR participation in the Adams litigation has lead to an increased attention to desegregation of higher education in those States which are litigants. The results specifically for the Black colleges has been a mixed bag. There is concern that despite the Adams specifications which call for removal of the dual education system and the "strengthening and enhancing of the Black colleges", that in fact the ultimate end result will be destruction of the Black colleges.

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Racial  
Minorities  
cont.

2. Equal Employment  
Opportunity Commission

-Title VII of the Civil  
Rights Act of 1964:  
deals with questions of  
racial balance and  
affirmative action  
relating to the  
employment of staff  
in school systems,  
and educational  
institutions.

3. Community Re-  
lations service  
of the Department  
of Justice.

-Title X of the Civil  
Rights Act offers  
certain logistical  
services to commu-  
nities in the midst  
of desegregation.

4. Emergency school  
Aid Act of 1972 of  
the Office of Elementary  
and Secondary Education,  
of the Education Depart-  
ment

-to assure equitable  
consideration of all  
groups in seeking  
employment at public  
supported institutions.

-meet special needs of  
students and faculty  
incident to elimination  
of segregation, encourage  
elimination or reduction  
of minority group isola-  
tion, and aid school children  
in overcoming the educational  
disadvantages of minority  
group isolation.

-EEOC collects a significant  
amount of data on employment  
patterns, including faculty,  
at all colleges including  
the Black colleges. Black  
faculty data is disaggregated  
and analyzed to provide the  
most comprehensive picture  
of the employment of Blacks  
in higher education which is  
available.

-EEOC has not to any measurable degree  
confronted the problem of poor representation  
of Blacks in mainstream higher education  
except to highlight the problem in its annual  
survey.

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Racial  
Minorities  
cont.

5. Strengthening Developing Institutions - Title III of the Higher Education Act: assistance to postsecondary institutions which demonstrate a potential to make a substantial contribution to the higher education resources of the nation but which are struggling for survival and are isolated from the main currents of academic life.

-support for developing (Black) institutions to build them to the point where they will be chosen by students based on educational rather than racial factors; and will foster desegregation without seriously disrupting the operation of these institutions.

-support for predominantly Black colleges to help them to become competitive with mainstream institutions.

-as originally designed Title III had tremendous implications for support to the historically Black colleges. In its watered down form, which includes widening the pool of eligible institutions to the point where Black colleges are receiving increasingly small proportions of funds from Title III.

6. Graduate and Professional Opportunities Program - Title IX, Higher Education Act: Seek to increase graduate and professional opportunities to groups which are underrepresented within their institutions.

-increase participation of minority groups in graduate education.

-originally designed to increase representation of minorities at mainstream institutions.

-small numbers of Black graduate students from Black colleges receive funding from GPOP for graduate study at mainstream institutions. The program has not resulted in a significant increase in the numbers of Black graduate students at Black colleges. There is some concern that current proposed changes in the program will result in a significant reduction in the numbers of Blacks receiving GPOP money.

Handicapped

1. -Public Law 94-142 Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

-equal access to education for the handicapped.

-PL 94-142 has not had a significant impact on the Black colleges. These colleges have traditionally responded to the needs of handicapped persons.

-Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act 1973; Guarantee special classes in specific schools or an appropriate education for the handicapped.

-promoting equal access to higher education by requiring colleges and universities to make all programs available to handicapped students.

-PL 94-142 has not had a significant impact on the Black colleges. These colleges have traditionally responded to the needs of handicapped persons.

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Language  
Minorities

Bilingual Education  
Program -Title VII  
of the Elementary  
and Secondary Educa-  
tion Act: Program uses  
the child's home language  
as a medium of instruction  
as well as English and  
emphasizes bicultural  
factors as well.

Office for Civil Rights  
DHEW-OE  
-Title VI of the Civil  
Rights Act of 1964:  
Responsibility lies with  
states and local govern-  
ments to provide  
linguistically compre-  
hensible instruction  
for non-English speaking  
students - DHEW helps with  
strategies including--  
compliance, technical  
assistance, and program  
assistance.

2. Emergency School Aid Act  
of 1972 - Title VII funding  
provided to states to build  
capacity to deal with the  
problems of these students;  
Federal capacity building  
efforts include research  
and development, dissemi-  
nation, demonstration, and  
teacher training.

-Federal government has  
supported both the (1)  
capacity building approach  
and (2) the maintenance  
approach in helping bilin-  
gual students.

-because it is not clear  
how effectively to assist  
these students Federal policy  
has emphasized support for  
research both to better identify  
target populations and to develop  
techniques and materials for  
instruction to different language  
minority groups currently covered  
by the program.

Subtopic	Applicable agency/ legislation and general education	Federal Policy toward Higher Education	Federal Policy toward Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities	Implications of Federal Policy for Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities.
Language Minorities Cont.	3. The Vocational Educa- tion Act (1963) and Adult Education Act provide for bilingual education.			
Women	<p>1. Civil Rights Act -Title VI was amended to outlaw sex-discrimi- nation.</p> <p>2. Education Amendments of 1972 -Title IX - was passed to prohibit sex discrimination in any educational program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance; help to eliminate occupational channeling and stereo- typing.</p> <p>3. The Women's Educa- tional Equity Act in 1974 - has funded grants recently focusing on self awareness, and teacher training.</p> <p>4. Vocational Education Act of 1976 and Career Education Incentives Act of 1977-established Federal policy to assist state and local education agencies to overcome sex discrimination and stereo- typing.</p>	<p>-responds to the needs of Women in gaining equitable access to teaching and admini- strative positions, athletics, etc. Has tended to emphasize the needs of white women.</p> <p>-emphasis has been on removal of barriers to access of women in sports. Other areas of discrimi- nation have not been as prominent in litigation as this area. Threat of Federal cut-off of fund- ing has been an effective weapon in gaining com- pliance.</p>	<p>-the act does not dis- aggregate the needs of Black women.</p>	

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Women cont.

5. Elementary and  
Secondary Education  
Act and the Fund for  
Improvement of Postsec-  
ondary Education; projects  
to help students with  
"math anxiety", a critical  
impediment to the entry  
of women into the science.

-FIPSE has served as a  
place for funding of  
innovative education  
programs many of which  
have been aimed at  
minority students-  
including Blacks.

-Black higher education and  
Black colleges have sought  
and received a limited  
amount of funding from  
FIPSE to support special  
development efforts of  
these programs and institu-  
tions.

-FIPSE, because of its emphasis on innovation  
should be a place where Black colleges can  
seek funds to support greater amounts of  
their programs in this area.

Low Income

Assistance for the econo-  
mically disadvantaged has  
been the major focus of  
Federal education and  
training support.

Elementary and Secondary  
Education

1. Elementary and  
Secondary Education Act -  
Title I - provides services  
and resources to  
schools which are in  
addition to those made  
available as a part of  
a regular program;  
directed to those children  
identified as education-  
ally disadvantaged and  
most in need of special  
help. Overwhelmingly  
funds have concentrated  
in grades K-6. With  
increased appropriations,  
Federal policy will  
encourage adding services  
in the upper grades.



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Low Income  
cont.

Postsecondary Education

1. Higher Education Amend-  
ments of 1972 - began direct  
Federal effort to provide  
financial assistance to  
qualified students from  
low-income families to  
improve their access to  
higher education

Includes:

- Basic Opportunity Grants
- Supplementary Educational  
Opportunity Grants
- National Direct Student  
Loans
- Guaranteed Student Loans
- College Work-Study
- State Student Incentive  
Grant Program
- Social Security (survivors  
benefits)
- G.I. Bill

Except for the G.I. Bill  
all are designed specifi-  
cally to open access to  
postsecondary education

2. Other discretionary  
Programs:

- Talent Search
- Upward Bound
- Special Services for the  
Disadvantaged in Insti-  
tution, of Higher Education

-Federal policy is  
predicated on two basic  
assumptions (1) that  
the benefits both to  
individuals and to  
society are sufficient  
to justify an expendi-  
diture of public funds  
for postsecondary educa-  
tion, and (2) that direct  
aid to individuals offers  
a form of support to the  
higher education system  
preferable to institutional  
grants because student aid  
fosters free individual  
choice and preserves the  
academic communities in-  
dependence of government  
control.

-Federal policy is pre-  
dicated on two basic  
assumptions (1) that the  
benefits both to  
individuals and to  
society are sufficient  
to justify an expendi-

-philosophy of the program  
of necessity includes the  
great majority of Black  
students in Black colleges  
and a somewhat smaller  
percentage of Black students  
in white colleges.

-philosophy of the program of  
necessity includes the great  
majority of Black students in  
Black colleges and a some-  
what smaller percentage  
of Black students in white  
colleges.

-Without the aid derived from the amendments,  
most Black colleges would have difficulty  
surviving.

Without the aid derived from the amendments,  
most Black colleges would have difficulty  
surviving.

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Low Income  
Cont.

-Educational Opportunity  
Centers.  
provide special services  
such as identification  
and encouragement of  
disadvantaged youth for  
higher education, pre-  
paratory and remedial  
programs, and infor-  
mational services.

ture of public funds for  
postsecondary education,  
and (2) that direct aid to  
individuals offers a form  
of support to the higher  
education system prefer-  
able to institutional  
grants because student  
aid fosters free individual  
choice and preserves the  
academic communities inde-  
pendence of government  
control.

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Training

1. Department of Labor

-Comprehensive Employment  
and Training Act (CETA)  
provides formula funds to  
state and local prime  
sponsors for services such  
as institutional and on-  
the-job training, work exper-  
ience, vocational educa-  
tion and counseling, remedial  
education, job placement  
services, and transitional  
public service employment.

-CETA and other youth train-  
ing efforts have not tradi-  
tionally expressed a goal  
of the Federal government  
within the higher education  
community.

2. Additional employment  
and training assistance for  
unemployed youth, parti-  
cularly economically  
disadvantaged and out  
of school youth is avail-  
able through:

-Youth/Adult Conservation  
Corps.

-Youth/community con-  
servation and improvement  
contracts.

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Training cont.

-Youth Employment and  
Training Program.  
-Youth Incentive Entitle-  
ment Pilot Projects.  
-Summer Youth Employment  
Program.  
-Job Corps - for severely  
disadvantaged youth  
with a specialized  
program of basic educa-  
tion, vocational train-  
ing, job placement, and  
supportive services con-  
ducted in a residential  
setting.

Federally  
Related Groups

Native  
Americans

1. Interior Department -  
Bureau of Indian Affairs  
-serves Indians with at  
least one quarter-blood  
quantum from Federally  
recognized tribes.  
-Includes such programs as  
(1) operation of BIA schools  
(2) payments to public schools  
for supplementary service  
for Indian children residing  
on reservations.  
(3) higher education  
(4) adult education and  
vocational training.

-BIA is the chief avenue  
for promoting the educa-  
tion, at all levels, of  
Indians.

2. Education Department

-serves broader Indian  
clientele than BIA including  
non-Federally recognized  
tribes and urban Indians.  
-Makes grants under the

-ED assumes most of the  
remaining efforts which are  
made in behalf of Indians.

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Native  
Americans  
cont.

Indian Education Act (P.L.  
92-318, Title IV) for four  
purposes:  
(1) supplementary elemen-  
tary and secondary programs.  
(2) pilot and demonstration  
programs for school age  
children and adults.  
(3) teacher training.  
(4) graduate and profes-  
sional fellowships.

-Also makes grants under  
School Assistance to Fed-  
erally Affected Areas  
Program.

-Other Programs include:

- (1) P.L. 874-payments to  
LEA's for current expen-  
ditures.
- (2) P.L. 815, Sec. 14-con-  
struction funds for  
children residing on reser-  
vations.
- (3) Title I-ESEA-set-asides  
for Indians.
- (4) Handicapped-set-asides.
- (5) Title IV ESEA-set-asides.
- (6) Vocational Education-  
set-asides.

3. Indian Self-Determi-  
nation Act (P.L. 93-638)-new  
initiative by Executive  
Branch designed to begin an  
orderly transition from  
Federal domination of  
programs for and services to

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Native Americans cont.	Indians to effective and meaningful participation by Indian people in the planning, conduct and administration of those programs.			
Migrant Children	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act-1966 provides compensatory education and supportive services for migrant children.</li> <li>2. DHEW-Migrant Head Start Program-provides preschool services to migrant children.</li> <li>3. Migrant Health Program-provides health services.</li> <li>4. Department of Labor; through CETA provides manpower training services.</li> <li>5. Department of Labor-has two demonstration projects: -High School Equivalency Program -College Assistance Migrant Program</li> <li>6. Migrant Student Record Transfer System - is a nationwide computer system which provides a means for transferring health and education data for migrant children from state-to-state as the families move.</li> </ol>			

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Veterans and  
Dependents

1. G.I. Bill, Veterans Administration-compensates veterans for educational benefits foregone because of military service, and finances educational assistance for dependents of veterans who's death or disability was service connected.

-Regulations as identified apply mainly to higher education. Benefits may be used for education in postsecondary institutions or for on-the-job training. Policy provides very important source of income to students in postsecondary institutions.

-There are no specific provisions in the G.I. Bill which distinguishes Black higher education or Black colleges, however, because of the disproportionate numbers of Black service men eligible for the program its potential for impact is great.

-the Black and the white veterans who may not be as adequately prepared for post-secondary education are both a significant pool for recruitment by the Black colleges. For the most part, these individuals never benefit from the G.I. Bill because they cannot do college work at the traditional mainstream institutions. Federal policy, should be geared in the direction of a concerted effort to see that all veterans are trained for a job despite their educational preparation.

2. Contributory Educational Assistance Program - designed as an educational assistance program for post Viet Nam era veterans. Persons contribute to a special training fund and the government matches two dollars for every one toward future education.

-this is exclusively a higher education program designed to give veterans an incentive to seek higher education after their period of service.

-there are no specific provisions for Black higher education or Black colleges.

-see above under G.I. Bill

3. Office of Education - Veterans' Cost of Instruction Program - institutions receive payments for each undergraduate veteran and extra payments for those who are educationally disadvantaged. (Especially aimed at Viet Nam era veterans). Payments are provided for maintenance of veterans affairs offices

-program is designed for the education and training of veterans beyond high school to compensate for missed educational opportunities due to being in the service

-see above under G.I. Bill.

-see above under G.I. Bill.



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at participating insti-  
tutions to provide  
counseling and tutorial  
services, outreach and  
recruitment activities,  
and special programs for  
educationally disadvan-  
taged veterans.

4. Vocational Rehabilita-  
tion - all veterans who  
served in the Armed Forces  
during World War II or  
thereafter are eligible  
for vocational rehabili-  
tation, provided they  
suffered a service con-  
nected disability on  
active duty.

Social  
Security  
Dependents

1. OASDI program - is  
designed to replace income  
lost to dependents because  
a wage earner dies or be-  
comes severely physically  
or mentally impaired.  
Dependents up to age 22  
enrolled as full-time  
students in approved  
postsecondary schools  
receive individual  
benefits.

-OASDI is a major source  
of support for post-  
secondary students.

-no specific indications  
for Black higher education  
except in that there are a  
large number of Black students  
who should be eligible for the  
benefits of the program.

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Children of Federal Employees in the U.S.	<p>1. Office of Education -P.L. 81-874 - assistance to school districts to compensate for the cost of educating children in areas where enrollment and the availability of reve- nues from local sources have been adversely affected by Federal activities, funds for current operating expenses in the form of "impact aid".</p> <p>-P.L. 81-815 - provides financial aid for school construction under speci- fied conditions related to the impact of increased Federal activities, the impact of untaxed Federal lands, the consequences of disasters, and the burden of educating child- ren living on tax-exempt Indian lands.</p>	-mainly a secondary education program.		
Dependents of Federal Employees Living Abroad	<p>1. Department of Defense -schools are provided for dependents of military and related personnel living abroad.</p> <p>2. Department of State/ Office of Overseas Schools -provides American spon- sored Overseas schools and tuition payments to elemen- tary and secondary schools and students.</p>			

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Dependents of  
Federal  
Employees  
Living Abroad  
cont.

3. Department of the  
Interior - administers the  
Government's program to  
oversee education of  
citizens in the Trust  
Territories; primarily  
established for the  
residents of these terri-  
tories but some U.S.  
children attend them.

4. Department of Agri-  
culture - under the school  
lunch program makes grants  
to Puerto Rico and the  
territories and provides  
technical assistance and  
education programs through  
such agencies as the Exten-  
sion Service, Farmers Home  
Administration and Animal  
and Plant Health Inspection  
Service.

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(2) To encourage high educational standards, thoughtful responses to changing educational and social needs, efficiency and effectiveness.

1. The Federal government supports a large number of projects, to the tune conservatively of about \$820 million designed to

- strengthen and utilize capabilities found throughout the educational system,
- generate new knowledge and fund original experimentation,
- providing and encouraging technical assistance to State and local agencies and independent institutions, and
- disseminating information about the results of research experimentation and successful practice.

The 1979 Guide to OE Programs list some 128 programs which provide resources for improving education. Three groupings are used for this kind of activity.

- Aid to institutions, agencies and organizations,
  - (a) for elementary and secondary education.
  - (b) for strengthening organizational resources,
  - (c) for postsecondary education programs,

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- (d) for education of exceptional and handicapped persons,  
(e) for developing and strengthening international studies.  
(f) for occupational, adult, vocational, and career education, and  
(g) for desegregation assistance.

- Aid to individuals (to train educators and help students),
- for research,
- for school construction.

These programs are authorized under 10 major pieces of legislation.

- Elementary and Secondary Act, Title VII.
- Higher Education Act, Titles V-B, B, III, II-A, IV-C, I, VIII, IV, IX, II-B, IV-A.
- Education for the Handicapped Act, Parts C, D.
- National Diffusion Programs-Title III, IV.
- General Education Provisions Act.
- National Defense Education Act Title VI.
- Vocational Education Act 1963.
- Career Education Incentive Act.
- Civil Rights Act of 1964.
- Emergency School Aid Act Title VII.

-these ten pieces of legislation are designed to aid higher education with full recognition that the basic responsibility for elementary/secondary and postsecondary lines with the states, local school districts, and institutions of postsecondary education.  
-the trend is not toward distinguishing between types of institution except as to purpose. Except for Title III of Higher Education Act all institutions compete on a more or less equitable basis.

-only one of the ten pieces of legislation outlined here is geared toward Black higher education. The Higher Education Act, Title III program, is designed for the benefit of developing institutions. Though developing institutions are not necessarily defined as Black colleges, traditionally this group has been the major beneficiary of the program. The Title III program is designed to provide a series of supports to developing institutions which will help them to move into the mainstream of higher education. It provides funds for such programs in support of the institutions developed efforts.  
-the remaining nine pieces of legislation are not specific-

-it has been estimated that without the aid of the Title III program most Black colleges would have difficulty surviving. The program provides funds for needed programs which the institutions would not be able to provide except for Title III funding -except for the fact of the programs traditional emphasis on Black colleges it is not likely that these institutions will be able to compete successfully for even this part of funds.  
-historically these Black colleges have not fared as well as they might in these programs.

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2. Fund for Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE)-The Fund supports projects to improve the educational quality of postsecondary schools; it has funded several projects related to the needs of developing institutions.

3. Title IV-C of the Elementary and Secondary Act, National Institute of Education, grants, the bilingual education program and curriculum development efforts of other mission oriented agencies as the National Science Foundation, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Department of Energy support locally generated educational innovations.

-any higher education institution can compete for funds through FIPSE so long as improvements in educational quality are a part of such proposals.

-such efforts emphasize the Federal objective of responding to changes in educational and societal needs.

cally geared toward Black higher education but Black colleges can submit proposals and compete for grants on an equal footing with mainstream institutions.

-the Fund has made special efforts to include Black higher education programs in FIPSE funding cycle. The level of funding for FIPSE is such that successful competition produces little benefit to the institution.

-Programs such as those represented by FIPSE are of a design which could greatly benefit Black higher education. Designation of funds to deal specifically with the needs of Black institutions and allocation of larger budgets to the program could make the benefit greater. Black institutions will increasingly find it difficult to compete with other institutions in wide open programs. The set-aside can eliminate this unfair competitive edge.



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4. The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), the National Diffusion Network, the OE Packaging and Dissemination Program, the R & D Utilization and Exchange programs of NIE and the Teacher Centers and Extension Agent Legislation seek in one form or another to set up a system of dissemination of educational innovation.

-efforts are designed to fill in what is considered the weakest link in the development, dissemination, and implementation chain. The objective for higher education is to make available the large amount of information and innovation which has been supported by Federal resources.

-there are no specific initiatives relevant to Black higher education in these efforts. Recent initiatives toward updating the ERIC data base suggest in fact that Black higher education innovation has not found its way into even the most widely known of the dissemination systems.

-as it is now envisioned Federal policy does not specifically identify Black higher education in the dissemination system.

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(3) To strengthen relationships among education, training, and work, with particular attention to areas of critical personnel supply and demand.

Employment and Man-  
power and Education  
and Work Initiatives

1. The manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA), the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (VEA) with amendments in 1968 and 1976, the Economic Development Act of 1965, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA), and the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) all greatly enlarged the Federal role in supporting occupational training programs, giving special attention to areas and groups experiencing severe economic difficulties.

-to assure that young Americans are equipped with occupational skills needed for the Nation's economic development.

-the majority of the manpower development programs have attempted to impact heavily on the problems of other majorities.

2. Department of Labor Programs

-focus on disadvantaged groups and the hard to employ. Programs are not particularly higher education oriented. Emphasize training for jobs. There is a heavy emphasis on serving the poorly educated and trained. Attempt to focus on solutions to the recession and high unemployment rates. Few services are provided to students.

-DOL programs impact only indirectly upon the higher education of Blacks. Black higher education benefits only in the sense that it is able to impact the program development process. Large numbers of Blacks make up the clientele of these programs such as CETA.

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3. Department of Health,  
Education, and Welfare  
Programs

-focus on the prepar-  
ation of students for  
the world of work.  
Emphasis is on rela-  
ting education in a  
formal sense to work.

-the Black Junior Colleges and  
certain vocationally related  
baccalaureate programs in Black  
institutions benefit from these  
DHEW programs.

-Office of Education  
National Institute of  
Education and the Fund for  
Improvement of Postsec-  
ondary Education provides  
demonstration grants in  
career information, guid-  
ance, and placement. HEW  
provides some demonstra-  
tion grants in career  
information, guidance,  
and placement.

-emphasize the develop-  
ment of systems designed  
to support the educa-  
tion-work transition  
process.

-most demonstration projects  
are not at Black institutions  
Black higher education tends  
to benefit from such efforts  
after the fact. Government  
has not significantly geared  
resources to Black colleges  
to deal with issues of guidance  
and placement.

Critical Personnel  
Needs

1. National Institutes  
of Health -focus on  
preparation of scientist  
to work in biomedical  
research and teaching.

-Critical personnel  
needs addresses antici-  
pated or actual cri-  
tical shortages result-  
ing from changing  
national conditions and  
Federal priorities.  
Federal policy is  
designed to aid in  
developing these per-  
sonnel as the need arises.

-Many agencies in the category  
have responded to the needs of  
Blacks by establishing special  
minority or minority institution  
programs geared specifically to-  
ward the training of minorities  
to enter a specific academic or  
work field.

3. Department of Housing  
and Urban Development -  
education or urban housing  
and other specialists.

Preparation of personnel  
for careers in postsec-  
ondary education has not  
been a priority since 1973  
because of the present and  
expected over supply. Excep-  
tions in certain critical  
areas of current interest  
exist however.

4. National Science  
Foundation -support of  
basic research and educa-  
tion in the sciences.

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Provides fellowships and  
traineeships in the sciences.

5. Higher Education Act of  
1965, Title IX - programs  
directed to graduate educa-  
tion, e.g., grants to  
graduate students in the  
form of fellowships, and  
grants to institutions  
for general supplemental  
assistance.

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(4). To encourage the growth of lifelong learning opportunities. <

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1. Lifelong Learning Act of 1976 indicated Congressional interest in determining if the education system as a whole works toward providing continuous learning to all Americans regardless of age. Currently some 275 Federal Programs in 22 cabinet-level departments and agencies serve adults in formal and informal educational instruction. The great majority of this education tends to be carried on in two and four year colleges.

-emphasizes the Federal commitment to providing education at all levels to all Americans of all ages on a continuous basis. System is supposed to be open to less traditional or formal settings instead of the present emphasis on postsecondary institutions and college age populations.

-a few Black colleges, especially 2-year institutions have programs in lifelong learning. Few efforts however are underway to increase the pool of lifelong learning available to Blacks. Part of the problem involves the regulations and confusion caused by so many federal programs in this arena.

-lifelong learning is an arena of education which is ideally suited to the mission of Black colleges. These institutions have always catered to the needs of students of diverse learning levels and levels of achievement. Since most Black colleges are located in Black communities the possibilities for impact in this area are great.

2. Adult Basic Education Program -targeted toward achievement of at least eighth grade educational attainment for the 15 million adults who fall below that level of educational attainment. The 37 million who have completed 8th grade but lack a high school diploma make up a secondary target group. ABE is the only Federal program which

-ABE does not express a higher education Federal policy except as higher education can contribute to the training of professionals to provide education to this group. Most programs are principally secondary education centered and conducted by the public schools.

-few colleges are involved in this effort.

-though the ABE program does not have implications for Federal policy toward Black higher education today, it should, considering the history of success of Black colleges in working with such populations and that Blacks make up a substantial portion of the 52 million Americans targeted by ABE.

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addresses exclusively the  
constituency of illiterate  
or functionally incompetent  
adults, however other programs  
do serve this group along  
with other constituencies.

Some of those include:

- Right to Read.
- NIE research efforts.
- Armed Forces literacy efforts.
- OE monitoring of state  
Adult Education programs.

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(5) To meet a variety of recognized national priority needs including agriculture, international affairs, science, arts and humanities.

Agriculture

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1. Department of Agriculture -Land Grant Universities (Morrill Act 1862)-established one land grant university in each state to teach agriculture, the mechanical arts, and home economics. Agriculture research stations at each are responsible for dissemination of information developed at the Universities. Stations became the research arms of the institution.

-Cooperative Extension Service (1914) was set up to update the dissemination of research to farmers in each state.

2. Second Morrill Act (1890)-established the principals of the 1862 Morrill Act for Black colleges (see above).

-emphasis on establishment of strong programs of research and education.

-Second Morrill Act did not deal with policy for higher education generally. It was responsible for establishing most public Black colleges as viable institutions.

-The Morrill Act expressed no policy toward Black higher education until 1890 when the second Morrill Act was passed.

-probably expressed the most significant Federal policy affecting the education of Blacks in the history of education.

-Black higher education still does not receive a proportion of resources under Morrill in comparison to the national benefit accrued from these institutions.

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International  
Affairs

1. Department of Health,  
Education and Welfare-  
OE Office of Interna-  
tional Education  
-The Language Training and  
Area Studies Program,  
under the National De-  
fense Education Act of  
1958 has as its purpose  
the training of foreign  
language specialist,  
knowledge and curricular  
development in area studies.

2. Department of State-  
(a) Bureau of Educational  
and Cultural Affairs  
under the Fulbright Hays  
Act provides educational  
exchange opportunities  
to citizens of U.S. and  
brings individuals from  
other nations to the U.S.  
-the Cultural Exchange  
Program sends cultural  
and performing artist  
and groups overseas.

(b) Agency for Inter-  
national Development  
(AID), Education and  
Human Development  
activities assist poor  
people in developing  
countries to gain skills  
and knowledge necessary  
to lead satisfactory and  
productive lives.

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International  
Affairs cont.

(c) Other agencies also  
carry out international  
education efforts under  
the direction of the  
Bureau of International  
Affairs.

-United Nations Educa-  
tional and Scientific  
Cultural Organization  
(UNESCO).

-United Nations Inter-  
national Children's Fund  
(UNICEF).

-Organization of American  
States (OAS).

-Organization of Economic  
and Cooperative Develop-  
ment (OECD).

Arts and Humanities

1. National Endowment for  
the Arts-programs generally  
are designed to increase  
appreciation of and parti-  
cipation in the arts through  
the support of artists and  
arts organizations.

2. National Endowment for  
the Humanities (NEH) -  
fosters the development of  
new humanistic knowledge  
and provides access to this  
knowledge for all citizens  
of the Nation. Including  
those in schools and colleges.  
In a sense then all NEH Pro-  
grams are educational, deal-  
ing with the production,  
transmission, and utiliza-

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Arts and Humanities  
cont.

tion of new knowledge in  
the humanities disciplines.  
The Endowment operates  
through 28 competitive grant  
fellowship programs. Pro-  
jects are funded which focus  
on regional and ethnic  
history, the preparation  
of important research  
tools, and the editing of  
significant humanistic texts.  
Fellowships are given to  
individuals, and groups of  
teachers, scholars, and  
practitioners of profes-  
sions such as medicine,  
law and business, to study  
in the humanities and  
reflect upon their work.

3. Health, Education and  
Welfare. Office of the  
Assistant Secretary for  
Education, Institute  
for Museum Services -  
set up to encourage and  
assist museums in their  
educational role.

4. Other Federal Offices, in  
particular OE programs, sup-  
port education in the arts.  
The Bilingual Education  
program and the Emergency  
School Aid program also  
provide some support.

5. Housing and Urban  
Development - supports  
programs in historic  
preservation and related

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(6) To exercise leadership in the support of research in education and to assure the widespread dissemination of knowledge acquired through the research process.

1. Office of Education  
Programs:

-Vocational Education Act  
and Community Mental Health  
Centers Construction Act  
(1963)-authorized the Federal  
Government to conduct research,  
development and dissemi-  
nation in defined areas.

-Education of the Handi-  
capped Act of 1970-authorized  
research in the problems of  
the handicapped.

-Higher Education Act (1965).  
funded research in library  
science and undergraduate  
instruction.

-Elementary and Secondary  
Education Act and the Equal  
Opportunity Act (1965).  
provided support for research  
and innovation.

-The Education Professions  
Development Act (1967)-pro-  
vided support for research  
in undergraduate teacher  
training.

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2. Other Agency Programs  
were authorized to conduct  
research and development  
programs in areas of defi-  
nition:

-Office of Economic Opportunity  
-National Endowment for the  
Humanities  
-Appalachian Regional Develop-  
ment Commission  
-National Institute of Mental  
Health  
-National Science Foundation  
-National Institute of Neuro-  
logical Communication Disorders  
-Department of Defense  
-National Institute of Education  
-Fund for the Improvement of  
Postsecondary Education  
-National Centers for Educa-  
tional Research and Development  
and for Education and Communi-  
cations and Experimental School  
programs.

3. Other pieces of legislation  
provided R & D funds:

-The Rural Development Act  
of 1972.  
-Crime Control Act of 1973.  
-Comprehensive Employment and  
Training Act 1973.  
-National Research Act of 1974.  
-Education Amendments of 1974.  
(bilingual Education).

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ERIC

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4. Funding for seven major  
agencies make up the bulk of  
R & D in Education:

- OE
- NIE
- NSF
- Assistant Secretary for Educa-  
tion (HEW)
- National Endowment for  
Humanities
- Department of the Interior
- Gallaudet College

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESEARCH BASE

"Data on the enrollment of Black students in higher education have not provided the level of detail that would allow for comprehensive trends analysis. ...the U.S. Bureau of the Census is the primary source of longitudinal data on the enrollment of Blacks in higher education. ...However, these census surveys do not provide the level of accuracy desired. The only other data source which can be used to determine any trends is the DHEW, Office for Civil Rights data base...Further the OCR analyses provide less detail than desirable...This recurring problem of inadequate data and analyses with which to measure trends in the higher education experiences of Black students points up the overwhelming need for a research center on Blacks in higher education supported by, but based outside of, the Federal government and staffed and managed by those who have a sensitivity to the type of data collection and analyses required". (National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, "Access of Black Americans to Higher Education: How Open is the Door? DHEW, Washington, D.C., 1979".

#### Introduction

The National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and University's publication referenced at the beginning of this section is perhaps the most definitive analysis of the access of Black Americans to higher education presently available. Throughout the publication, however, concern is expressed for the adequacy of available data and its sensitive analysis. The concern is that a true picture of neither the status nor trend of Black access to higher education can be gleaned from the data now available from Federal and other sources.

The lack of adequately systematized data, collected on a regular basis, poses a problem for those who desire to impact the decision making and planning processes. Structurally, such a gap parallels the "stop-go" concern with issues related to Black Americans rather than the establishment of a process to produce the data as part of a formalized research function.

This section explores the kind of research system needed to highlight issues related to the higher education of Blacks. For the purposes of this section we define research system as a wholistic concept incorporating 1) data gathering and manipulation in an institutional research configuration, and 2) pure research, involving the determination of new conclusions through the verification of hypotheses and the exploration of predetermined research questions. Such a

system presupposes a coordinated effort in data gathering since the two major functions are indeed very different, though certainly not conflicting. The former, the institutional research component, is inadequate to provide the kind of information necessary to produce data to effectuate the decision-making process. Thus, by combining data discovery, data gathering, data analysis, and data interpretation into one coordinated function, the data needs of Black higher education would be better served.

This section explores the situation with respect to a research system necessary to support inquiry into Black higher education and is composed of four parts:

- o The Data Base
- o Required Research Initiatives
- o Educational Policy Research
- o A Model for a Total Research System

The Data Base section is developed from a review of the data sources which are available to illuminate Black higher education. It explores the adequacy of available data and highlights problems which impede research into Black higher education issues.

Under Required Research Initiatives an analysis is made of current thinking on research areas which should be explored if a sensitive approach to the problems of Blacks in higher education is undertaken. A research agenda is suggested as well.

Under Educational Policy Research the involvement by Blacks in policy research on questions affecting their higher education is scrutinized. Emphasis is placed on the problems of increasing the pool of Black researchers able to conduct such research.

Lastly, the outline of a National Center for Black Higher Education Research and Development is proposed, incorporating the findings from the entire research system inquiry. Such a proposed Center would be a part of a total Research System.

#### Findings

Data base. There are a significant number of policy related issues which are of immediate concern and should serve as the basis for a research and data bank on Black higher education. These include:

1. What current and past policies exist concerning the higher education of Blacks?
2. What is the impact of elementary and secondary school programs and the pushout rate of Black students on the pool of Blacks available to go on to higher education?
3. What is the current status of access of Blacks to higher education?
4. What are the outcomes of higher education for Blacks?

5. What are the Federal and State policies for increasing the access and completion rates of Blacks in higher education?
6. What are the characteristics of Black faculty members and administrators in institutions of higher education?

Data bases currently available do not definitively answer these questions and most analyses are marked by their insensitivity to the seminal interests of Black Americans. Many questions cannot be answered adequately using presently available data sources. Though inadequate, there are a number of data sources which can be used to begin a partial analysis of certain subject area concerns of Black higher education. Appendix V-1 catalogues these sources according to areas of concern.

The Institute for the Study of Educational Policy lists 54 sources of data on Black higher education (ISEP, 1976). The listing includes public and private data sources, emphasizing the following categorical areas: access, distribution, statistical characteristics, employment, persistence, policy and women. Analysis of the missions and major activities of these sources suggests that the great majority of their data are collected as original data by eleven agencies, ten of which are government or quasi-government agencies. The American Council on Education is the one major non-government exception. Appendix V-1 breaks these sources down by three categories:

- a. Sources which collect original data and maintain major data bases which include significant information on Blacks in higher education.
- b. Sources which collect some original data but which use the above sources as their major sources of data for analysis.
- c. Sources which collect specialized or subject matter data or which collect nonglobal data with some application to Blacks in higher education.

The first two categories contain the eleven sources which seem most useful in terms of original data on Blacks in higher education. Appendix V-2 further categorizes the data by subject areas.

Summary findings Most agencies do a creditable job of collecting the data which they do have on Black higher education. There are sufficient elements available to highlight most Black higher education issues. The problems, however, lie in the approach to the data in meeting specific needs. Analysis of the available data suggests the following issues of concern.

1. The majority of data on Blacks in higher education are collected by the Federal government. No organizational structure exists which can assume responsibility for assuring that data is consistently collected, adequately utilized, sensitively analyzed, and appropriately disseminated. The result is that Black higher education issues do not emerge as a National priority.
2. Data tend to be collected for specific, limited purposes. The result is that the same elements, by name, collected by two separate agencies probably do not mean the same thing.

3. Data which are collected are aggregated in such a way that it is often not possible to make an analysis in terms of significant Black higher education issues.
4. Much usable data are regularly collected and are either not analyzed or insensitively analyzed.
5. Significant isolated analyses of data never come together to provide a comprehensive picture of the status of Black higher education.
6. Other than enrollment (access) figures, little is known about Black higher education.
7. There is little attention to the "auxilliary" educational variables which give indications of the status of Black higher education, e.g., motivation of students, attitudes of professors, family influences, etc.
8. There is no universally agreed upon set of indicators which can be used as a base for monitoring achievement of higher education advances for Blacks.

Required research initiatives. Lois Rice of the College Entrance Examination Board summarized the feelings of participants in the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy's National Invitational Conference on Racial and Ethnic Data with respect to the major policy concerns that racial data might address. Her remarks provide insight into the major timely issues which impact Blacks as they seek to move research on Blacks more toward the realistic needs of Blacks in higher education. Rice listed the following topical needs for further research on Black higher education (Abramowitz, 1976, pp. 126-129);

1. Exploration of the programs designed specifically to aid minorities.
2. Develop issues surrounding the graduate education of minorities which point out their plight in graduate education, both at the masters' entry and Ph.D. levels in certain fields of study.
3. Examination of affirmative action policies, particularly for the purpose of influencing enforcement policies for the Federal government so that there will be highlighted a mechanism for moving institutions along to meet the stated goals of public policy.
4. An analysis of retention and persistence of minorities at the postsecondary level.
5. Highlighting the manpower needs of the society and the relationship of productivity of higher education institutions to development of Blacks to fill those needs. Emphasis should be placed on Black research manpower.



6. Analysis of the policy implications of those actions of the Federal government which impact Black education.
7. Examination of the place of enforcement provisions, cut off of funds, and accountability measures within institutions as a prerequisite for receipt of Federal monies, for affirmative action, or maintenance of effort.
8. Expanded research into other minority groups.
9. Highlighting and analyzing the decision making process in States and how that decision making process relates to Federal intervention.
10. Longitudinal study of all variables.

The 1975 National Center for Education Statistics' Sponsored Report Series titled "Federal Policy Issues and Data Needs in Postsecondary Education" provides a most comprehensive view of the issues related to Federal policy toward postsecondary education which are in need of study. The extensive analysis categorizes the research and data needs under the following areas.

1. Equal Opportunity
  - a. Equal Access
  - b. Choice
  - c. Opportunity
2. Manpower Needs
  - a. Supply and demand
  - b. Specific manpower needs
3. Recurrent education (continuing, adult, etc)
4. Educational diversity
  - a. New students and new education
  - b. Preserving institutional diversity
5. Research

The listing is an adequate synopsis of the needs for research on disaggregated Black higher education concerns.

Meyer Weinberg reviewed his 1960 predicted research needs for minority education ten years later in order to update them for the 1980's. The following resulted from his analysis.

1. Expanded research on desegregation of Indian Americans and Spanish-surnamed Americans.
2. Expanded units of analysis including the classroom rather than the school and the school system.

3. Increased university research into desegregation as desegregation becomes more socially acceptable.
4. More research by school boards to demonstrate results of desegregation efforts.
5. Expanded research on teaching and instructional methods.
6. Increased use of comparative research methodology between desegregation efforts of foreign entities.
7. Increased delving into school practices (e.g., teacher expectations, bilingual and bicultural education).
8. Use of techniques which evaluate benchmark statistics on racial aspects of schooling and the impact of expenditure of funds.
9. More research on the interdependence of educational improvement and desegregation.
10. Increased emphasis in research on the sociological and psychological perspectives involved in educating students. (Weinberg, pp. 327-329)

The research issues relevant to Black higher education tend to be closely allied to the data needs which are necessary for highlighting the higher education concerns of Blacks. Those most knowledgeable about Black higher education would suggest that much of the data needed to research such initiatives are already collected. (See section on Research System in this Chapter).

The gross neglect of research issues of concern to Blacks is exemplified by the fact that the list of issues for which there is needed research is so enormous. Agencies with an interest in Black higher education, e.g., National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, the Institute for Services to Education, and the Black Women's Research and Development Center have consistently pointed out those areas wherein questions are unanswered or in fact unanswerable. Many groups such as the National Urban League, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, have established their own individual research agendas relevant to the needs of Blacks. They all emphasize the importance of researching the positive aspects of the education of Blacks rather than limiting research to the negative issues commonly reported; e.g., test taking ineptitude, failure rates, I.Q. and ability test scores, etc. The majority of such research is done by non-Blacks. The result is that little is known about the education of Blacks which would serve as a basis for achieving equity in higher education.

Sensitive researchers on Black higher education suggest that a more appropriate approach would attempt to highlight such issues as (1) successful efforts at educating poorly prepared students at the elementary and secondary levels, (2) familial influences on student success (3) societal impacts on success of students, (4) commitment of faculty to development of students, (5) institutional impact on students' success, etc. Such issues would provide just as viable a data base as those which seem to be of interest to the more prolific researchers looking at Black issues.



Educational policy research. The purpose of this section is to suggest effective ways and means of stimulating and encouraging more scholarship and research by Blacks on questions of educational policy relating to the needs of Blacks. (This section draws very heavily upon a paper developed for the Committee by Dr. Stephen Wright, entitled, The Black Educational Policy Researcher: An Untapped National Resource, DHEW/National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, GPO, 1979).

In the development of this paper, two basic assumptions are made.

1. That the need for such research by Blacks is of very great importance.
2. That effective ways and means of stimulating and encouraging research must be based on the identification and analysis of the reasons for the paucity of such research.

To approach this issue an informal survey was made of 40 prominent Black educators and social scientists. All of the individuals surveyed were chosen for their knowledge and expertise in Black higher education research and were asked to state their opinions with respect to the paucity and remedies for it.

The many reasons advanced for the paucity of research by Blacks on questions of public policy relating to the higher education of Blacks can be grouped under the following headings:

1. Those relating to the inadequate supply of competent Black researchers.
2. Those relating to the training of Black researchers.
3. Those relating to the conditions of service of Black faculty members.
4. Those relating to funding and funding sources.
5. Those relating to discrimination based on race.
6. Those relating to publishers and publications.

A major reason for the paucity of Black researchers is that the number of Blacks who are adequately trained in research in the social sciences is very small--both relatively and absolutely. This, of course, is related to the gross underrepresentation of Blacks among the holders of the doctoral degree. While the number of doctoral degrees awarded Blacks has increased significantly in recent years, the number awarded annually still amounts to less than four percent of the total. Another limiting factor has been the fact that research has not offered Blacks promising careers.

With respect to training, the problems begin at the undergraduate level. Too few Blacks pursue courses at the level which prepares them for graduate study in research--particularly such courses as logic, mathematics and statistics.

Contributing to this problem are such other problems as:

- a. Black graduate students are seldom permitted the luxury of the influence of role models of Black professors and mentors.

- b. Black graduate students are often discouraged from pursuing research which is Black oriented.

The concentration of Black college faculty is, unquestionably, in the Black colleges and universities, the majority of which are small, underfunded institutions that place their major emphasis on undergraduate teaching. Thus, the conditions of service in these institutions contribute significantly to the problem of the paucity of policy research on questions relating to the educational needs of Blacks. These conditions include:

- Heavy teaching loads.
- Little or no released time for research.
- Very limited funds (or none at all) for research.
- Very little emphasis on research as a criterion for promotion in salary or rank.

Reference has already been made to the inadequate funding of the typical Black institution and the affect this has had on the problem of the paucity of policy research by Blacks on questions relating to the educational needs of Blacks, but the funding of research undertaken by Blacks and the sources of the funding are more subtle and complex problems.

Discrimination as a contributing factor with respect to the paucity of Black researchers has its origins in the days of de jure segregation, but a very substantial residue of the practices developed during this period are still evident, as the litigation in the Adams case has revealed. The essential point is that Blacks have been systematically excluded, over the years, from educational policy-making--specifically from educational governing boards of various types and from the staffs of such boards, and until relatively recently, from many State legislatures and the boards of major voluntary educational associations, including accrediting associations. This exclusion has, doubtless, discouraged scholarly inquiry into this critically important area.

Few things kill the urge to research educational problems in depth as the refusal by publishers and editors to publish the results. Respondents indicated that difficulty in getting the results published is a significant part of the paucity problem. Stated another way, getting studies published in an appropriate place is a part of the reward system for researchers -- a very important incentive.

#### Total Research System Support - A Recommendation

The failure of the research system in this country to respond to the needs of Black Americans can be summed up in the fact that there is not a coordinated system for tying all of the pieces together. The result is that there is interest in them based on uncontrolled variables, i.e., money is made available by an agency, a racial eruption takes place in one of the cities, Black students do poorly on standardized tests, Arthur Jensen makes some new "left field" announcements. What develops is a duplicative, disorganized, often totally inappropriate attack upon problems which may or may not be relevant. Until such time as there is a centralized approach to the higher education research needs of Blacks the situation will continue to be a problem.

If efforts at correcting the situation are to be successful then a coordinated, systematic approach to research must be taken. Several components are essential to such a proposed system. These include:

- o Affirmation of the precepts outlined in the President's Executive Order on Black colleges,
- o Establishment of a permanent governmental advisory group responsible for providing input into areas of concern to Black Americans,
- o Establishment of national research and development centers, and
- o Establishment of regional university research training centers.

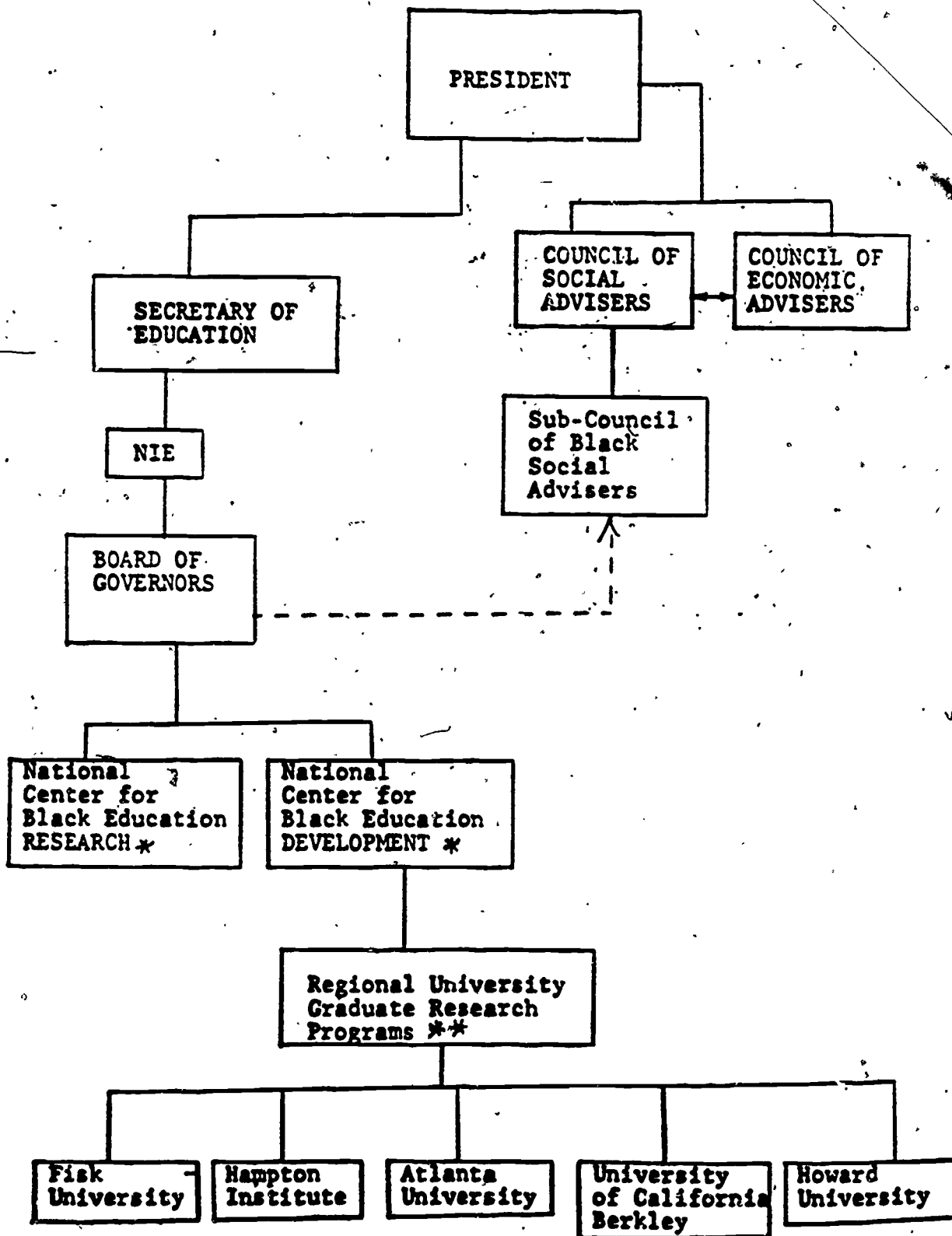
Chart V-1 outlines the relationships of these proposed entities in a total research system structure.

The President's Directive - New commitment from the present structures. Presently there are a significant number of both Federal and non federal agencies which could provide some of the necessary training and awards which would greatly improve the research system for Black higher education. Many of these are listed in Appendix V-1. As a part of an improved research system, it is essential that each of these agencies assume a major responsibility for (1) training of significant numbers of Black researchers, (2) assuring that significant levels of funding for research go to Black researchers and those interested in Black research issues, and (3) work closely with the present and evolving structures working toward equality of opportunity in research and all other areas of higher education for Black Americans. A strict adherence to the concept of the President's Initiative on Black colleges would be an appropriate beginning.

Council of Social Advisers. The Council of Social Advisers should parallel the Council of Economic Advisers. This new Council would monitor and advise the President on the myriad of social indicators which he needs to be aware of as he makes decisions. As a part of this Council there should be a six member Subcouncil of Black social scientists who would normally hold membership on the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities. These individuals would hold dual membership on the 15 member Board of Directors of the proposed National Centers for Black Education Research and Development (described below). This group would thus take the place of the current National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities.

National Centers for Black Higher Education Research and Development. The two National Centers for Black Higher Education are intended to be governed by a single Board of Governors composed of the fifteen individuals who might normally have been a part of the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities. The first center, the National Center for Black

CHART V-1  
 REQUIRED COMPONENTS  
 of a  
 TOTAL RESEARCH SYSTEM



For explanation of \* and \*\*, see page 85.

Higher Education Research, should be located at Howard University\* (Chart V-1). Its purpose should be to conduct research to complete the research agenda outlined by this Committee. Sufficient funds should be allocated from NIE (1) to support the operations of the Center, and (2) to allow it to conduct or have conducted the necessary research. The Institute for the Study of Educational Policy at Howard University seems a proper place for this much expanded function.

The second center, the National Center for Black Higher Education Development, should be located at the Atlanta University Center\* (Chart VI-1). Its purpose should be to serve as a place for making use of the data developed by the Research component to develop Black higher education materials, models, components, curricula, etc. It would serve as a technical assistance, information dissemination, training center for Black educators and Black education nationally. Its role of advisor to the national government is crucial to the policy development process. (See Exhibit V-1)

Regional University Research Training Centers. The five Regional University Research Training Centers, which are to be located at Fisk University, Hampton Institute, Atlanta University, University of California at Berkeley, and Howard University\*\* (Chart V-1) are to serve as the academic research training arms of the research system. Each institution would be funded to set up a permanent academic institute for the purpose of training and granting masters and doctorates in research and allied research areas to Black graduate students and others interested in the research of Black education issues. (See Appendix V-4) Internships for students would be coordinated and conducted by the two national centers through the Federal and non-federal agencies which have research missions.

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\*Howard University and Atlanta University Center are natural choices because of their sizes and their successful efforts at setting up similar extended campus programs. It is of course essential that the two programs (Research and Development) work closely together. Having Howard as the Research component, and possibly locating it in the present Institute for the Study of Educational Policy provides proximity to the national center of government which will be the beneficiary of much of the Centers efforts. Placing the Development arm at the Atlanta campus offers a multi-campus setting in which there are a diversification of programs and likewise offers an opportunity for removal, to some extent, from the bureaucracy and closer alignment with academia.

\*\*An attempt was made, in selecting these five institutions, to affect a regional distribution based on where the potential constituencies are probably located. Fisk, Hampton, Atlanta University and Howard are historically Black colleges, representing the public and private sectors. Each has a graduate program. The University of California at Berkeley, though not a Black college is by far the leader, in the far West, in the production of Black graduate students and first professional degree graduates. It thus would likely presently have in place many of the necessary prerequisites to support such a program as outlined here. (See Table V-1)

TABLE V-1

CALIFORNIA INSTITUTIONS CONFERRING DEGREES TO BLACKS BY PERCENT OF DEGREES TO BLACKS IN THE INSTITUTION, AND PERCENT OF DEGREES TO BLACKS IN THE STATE, 1976-1977

Institution	Degrees Awarded to Blacks	Percent of Degrees at Institution	Percent of Degrees to Blacks of State Total
<b>Master Degrees</b>			
Pepperdine University	350	14.6	19.8
Univ. of Southern Calif.	142	4.3	8.0
California State Univ. - Dominguez Hills	122	25.7	5.9
California State Univ. - Los Angeles	99	10.5	5.6
Univ. of San Francisco	84	9.4	4.8
Univ. of California - Los Angeles	78	4.0	4.4
Golden Gate Univ.	77	6.6	4.4
Univ. of California - Berkeley	69	3.2	3.9
Total, Above Eight Institutions	1,021	----	57.8
Total, Masters awarded to Blacks in State	1,767		100.0
<b>Doctorates</b>			
Univ. of California - Berkeley	34	4.5	29.1
United States International Univ.	27	13.0	23.1
Stanford University	13	2.8	11.1
Univ. of Calif. - Los Angeles	13	2.8	11.1
Univ. of Southern Calif.	8	1.7	6.8
Wright Institute	5	25.0	4.3
Total, Above Six Institutions	100	----	25.5
Total, Doctorates awarded to Blacks in State	117		100.0
<b>First Professional</b>			
Univ. of Calif. - Los Angeles	39	6.8	26.7
Univ. of Calif. - Berkeley	24	7.1	16.4
Univ. of Calif. - San Francisco	20	6.5	13.7
Univ. of Southern California	14	2.4	9.6
Western State Univ. College of Law - San Diego	14	3.0	9.6
Southwestern Univ. School of Law	12	3.1	8.2
Total, Above Six Institutions	123	----	84.2
Total, First-Professional degrees awarded to Blacks in State	146		100.0



Appendix V-1

CATEGORIZATION OF MAJOR SOURCES OF DATA ON BLACKS IN HIGHER EDUCATION BY DATA COLLECTION ACTIVITY.

a. Sources which collect original data and maintain major data bases

- National Center for Education Statistics (U.S.E.D.)
- U.S. Bureau of the Census
- American College Testing
- American Council on Education
- Educational Testing Service
- Office for Civil Rights (U.S.E.D.)
- U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
- College Entrance Examination Board
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics
- Federal Interagency Committee on Education (U.S.E.D.)

b. Sources which collect some original data but which use the above sources as their major source of data

- National Academy of Sciences
- National Research Council
- National Science Foundation
- National Institute of Education

c. Sources which collect specialized subject matter data, or which collect nonglobal data with some applications to Blacks in higher education.

- American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business
- American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy
- American Optometric Association
- American Psychological Association
- Association of American Colleges
- Association of Theological Schools
- Education Commission of the States
- Educational Resource Information center
- Institute for Services to Education
- Institute for the Study of Educational Policy
- Institute of International Education
- National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education
- National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
- National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges
- National Board on Graduate Education
- Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education
- National Scholarship Services and Fund for Negro Students
- Research Triangle Institute
- Scientific Manpower Commission
- Southern Regional Education Board
- Student National Medical Association
- Division of Student Support and Special Programs (U.S.E.D.)
- Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education



## Appendix V-2

### Available Data Bases for Analysis of Black Higher Education, by Subject Areas

#### 1. SECONDARY SCHOOL IMPACT

- a. NCES/USED National Longitudinal Study
- b. USED, Office for Civil Rights' Elementary and Secondary School Survey

#### 2. ACCESS OF BLACKS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

- a. U.S. Bureau of the Census' annual reports on enrollment in higher education
- b. Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, assessment reports
- c. The Institute for Services to Education, enrollment and degrees conferred data.
- d. Higher Education General Information Survey, USED/Office for Civil Rights and the National Center for Education Statistics.
- e. Office for Civil Rights' Survey of Progress in implementing Statewide Higher Education Desegregation Plans.
- f. American Council on Education/UCLA Cooperative Institutional Research Program's surveys of entering freshman.
- g. U.S. Education Department's Fiscal Operations Reports data on financial aid awarded to students.
- h. Congressional Budget Office background papers.
- i. U.S. Education Department, Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation, study of impact of student assistance on enrollment and retention.
- j. National Board on Graduate Education's study of minority groups' participation and retention in graduate education.
- k. National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences' graduate education data.

#### 3. OUTCOMES OF EDUCATION - RETENTION/PERSISTENCE/ATTRITION

- a. American Council on Education/Cooperative Institutional Research Program's retention studies

##### -Graduates

- a. U.S. Bureau of the Census' college completion data
- b. Higher Education General Information Survey data on degrees, intermediate degrees and certification

##### -Job Placement

- a. National Research Council/National Academy of Sciences' data on employment trends of doctoral scientists and engineers.
- b. National Longitudinal Study/Census Bureau employment data
- c. College Placement Council on racially disaggregated data on job offers made to graduates.
- d. Census Bureau and Labor Department reports on employment status of Blacks by educational level.

4. FEDERAL, STATE AND LOCAL POLICIES FOR INCREASING BLACK PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION.

- a. Federal Interagency Committee on Education's reports on Federal financial assistance to Black colleges.
- b. Office for Civil Rights' reports on progress in implementing desegregation plans.
- c. National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges' data on enrollment at member schools and annual reports on appropriations of State tax funds to higher education.

5. CHARACTERISTICS OF BLACK FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS

- a. Survey of Black educators in white colleges, by William Moore, Jr. and Lonnie M. Wagstaff.
- b. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission survey of faculty and administrators.
- c. College University Personnel Association's administrative compensation survey of minorities and women.

Appendix V-3

AGENCIES WHICH PRESENTLY HAVE THE POTENTIAL FOR PROVIDING  
TRAINING AND SUPPORT TO BLACK RESEARCHERS.

- National Center for Education Statistics (U.S.E.D.)
- Census Bureau
- American College Testing
- American Council on Education
- Educational Testing Service
- Office for Civil Rights (U.S.E.D.)
- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
- College Entrance Examination Board
- Bureau of Labor Statistics
- Federal Interagency Committee on Education (U.S.E.D.)
- National Academy of Sciences
- National Research Council
- National Science Foundation
- National Institute of Education (U.S.E.D.)
- American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business
- American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy
- American Optometric Association
- American Psychological Association
- American Sociological Association
- Association of American Colleges
- Association of Theological Schools
- Education Commission of the States
- Educational Resource Information Center
- Institute for Services to Education
- Institute of International Education
- National Advisory Council on Extension
- National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
- National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges
- National Board of Graduate Education
- Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (U.S.E.D.)
- National Scholarship Services and Fund for Negro Students
- Research Triangle Institute
- Scientific Manpower Commission
- Southern Regional Education Board
- Student National Medical Association
- Division of Institutional Development (U.S.E.D.)
- Division of Student Support and Special Programs (U.S.E.D.)
- Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education
- Institute for the Study of Educational Policy

RESEARCH AGENDA

APPENDIX V-4\*

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

1. EQUAL OPPORTUNITY

A. Equal Access

Who currently enters postsecondary education?

Characteristics of student entrants into the broad range of postsecondary educational options (including proprietary schools, public trade and technical schools, and other options as well as traditional higher education institutions), by the following variables:

age  
race or ethnic group  
sex  
some SES background  
some ability measure  
some measure of personal or family income

Who does not enter postsecondary education following high school?

Characteristics of high school graduates not enrolled in postsecondary education following high school, by the variables noted above.

What are these nonentrants doing instead?

Information about employment (or unemployment) and other possible occupations, such as housewife, etc.

What were the perceived barriers to equal educational access for these nonentrants?

Personal description of such potential barriers as lack of finances, lack of ability, lack of motivation, lack of availability of a nearby postsecondary school.

What are the influences of high school curriculum choice, high-school dropouts, parents and peers on access to postsecondary education?

Postsecondary entrants and nonentrants by high school curriculum studied. Data on characteristics of high school dropouts. Data on persons completing high school equivalency exams and their possible entrance into postsecondary education. Data on group influences on entrance into postsecondary education.

\*Note: Substantial portions of this Appendix were taken from the 1975 National Center for Education Statistics' Sponsored Report Series, "Federal Policy Issues and Data needs in Postsecondary Education". Committee updating of the table gears it toward the postsecondary education research needs of Blacks.

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

A. Equal Access  
(continued)

How do students pay for their education?

Information on sources of support, including who pays for education, other than Federal, State, local, and private funding sources.

Who enrolls part time?

Characteristics of part-time enrollees, including at least these variables:

age, sex, race or ethnic group, other SES background, some measure of personal or family income, some ability measure, high school curriculum, influence of parents, peers, etc.

What are the reasons the attendee is enrolled part time?

Factors restricting full-time attendance, such as:

finances, job home responsibilities, influences of parents, peers, etc.

Who are delayed postsecondary education entrants?

Characteristics of delayed entrants, by variables noted above.

What are the reasons for delayed enrollment?

Factors delaying enrollment, such as:

finances, job home responsibilities, influences of parents, peers, etc.

What is the impact of financial aid on students directly, and through institutions they attend?

Assessment of the impact of financial aid monies from all agencies providing such funds, including information on funds by type of aid, information on student aid provided by all Federal agencies as a means of breaking the access barrier for disadvantaged students, and information on marginal impact of additional student aid funds in eliminating access barrier.

Who participates in postsecondary education programs in the military?

Characteristics of servicemen enrolled in both civilian and military postsecondary education programs, by such variables as noted in characteristics of student entrants, including previous education and/or occupational experiences.

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

A. Equal Access  
(continued)

What do these servicemen learn and where?

Types of programs offered and type of programs taken, by types of training categories, by military or civilian institutions, by geographical location or program alternatives, etc.

What is the national impact of State-promoted equal access?

Data on State-student financial aid should be coordinated at national level.

What is the impact of migration of students on promoting equal access?

Numbers and student characteristics of out-of-State migration necessary on regular basis, numbers and characteristics of students attending institutions in their own States.

How can potential State barriers to equal access be identified?

Characteristics and numbers of postsecondary education entrants and nonentrants on a State-by-State basis.

What has been the impact of equality of student access made by certain types of institutions, e.g., community colleges or open-admission institutions?

Information on geographical availability, costs, curriculum, teachers, etc. which might encourage students to enter postsecondary education at community colleges and other institutions.

What types of efforts are institutions making to encourage equal access?

Descriptions of special programs, such as remedial education courses, counseling and tutoring facilities, etc., by type of institution offering these services.

Choice

Who is enrolled in postsecondary education at present?

Characteristics as noted in equal access entrants and nonentrants.

What is the impact of institutional charges on equal choice?

Information on institutional charges to students matched to characteristic statistics on distribution of low-income students at various types of institution, etc.

What is the impact of Federal financial assistance on choice of institution?

Information on financial aid packages by recipient, types and amounts of aid, etc., and by type of institution, classified by charges to students.

Opportunity

Having once enrolled, who does complete postsecondary education?

Personal characteristics as noted in equal access entrants and nonentrants, by type of institution they attended, type of programs in which students were enrolled.

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

Opportunity  
(continued)

Why don't students complete post-secondary education?

Factors restricting completion, such as:

Finances; home responsibilities, job, academic reasons, influences of parents, peers, etc;

At what levels of postsecondary education do students drop out?

Numbers and characteristics of dropouts and those retained from level to level, including full-time and part-time status, sources of support for students in various levels. Personal characteristics of graduates of 2-year institutions, by field of study, and by institution; personal characteristics of transfers from 4-year institutions, by field of study, and by institution. Personal characteristics of other students who transfer.

Which students transfer?

Why don't students complete post-secondary education.

Factors restricting completion, such as:

finances, home responsibilities  
job, influence of parents, peers, etc.

At what levels of postsecondary education do students drop out?

Numbers and characteristics of dropouts and those retained from level to level, including full-time and part-time status, sources of support for students in various levels.

Which students transfer?

Personal characteristics of graduates of 2-year institutions, by field of study; by institution, personal characteristics of transfers from four-year institutions, by field of study, and by institution. Personal characteristics of other students who transfer.

What are the entrance rates into upper division colleges?

Numbers and personal characteristics of transfer students, by institution, on annual or other regular basis.

What are the potential barriers to transfer?

Factors restricting transferring, such as:

availability of student financial aid,  
transfer admission requirements, and  
availability of transfer institutions.

Who has graduated, as well as who attends, proprietary institutions and other postsecondary education centers providing skill training and career education?

Personal characteristics of attendees and graduates, including type of studies, and by type and control of institution.



Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

Opportunity  
(Continued)

Who drops out of proprietary, skill training, and career education institutions?

Personal characteristics of dropouts, including type of studies, and by type and control of institution, as well as some measurement of skill sufficiency gained by level completed and following employment.

Who graduates from college?

Personal characteristics as noted under student entrants, including age, race or ethnic group, field of undergraduate study, type and control of institution from which student graduated, and some measure of college achievement (grades, GRE scores, etc.).

Who enters graduate and professional schools?

Personal characteristics of entrants, as well as their eventual retention rates, dropout statistics, or final graduation by fields of study, degrees awarded, type of institution.

Who are minority and disadvantaged graduate and professional entrants and which institutions do they attend?

Personal characteristics, as well as types of financial support, programs taken, some measurement of progress at advanced educational levels, dropout and retention rates.

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Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

II. MANPOWER NEEDS

A. Supply and Demand

What is the impact of undergraduate enrollment pattern shifts on the future supply of college graduates?

Information on causes of enrollment shifts, such as increasingly high cost of attending college, the unfavorable job-market for college graduates, and the increasing tendency for students to defer college attendance for a specific period and return later.

What do students know about the realities of the world of work?

Information on student perceptions of the labor market and the labor force, and their role in it.

What types of career education programs are now being offered, and by which postsecondary institutions?

Types of career education programs offered and types of programs taken at postsecondary education institutions of all types, especially community colleges and 4-year institutions.

What institutions are training students for what types of skills?

Types of training programs matched to types of job skills, by institution, by type and control of institution and by participants.

What efforts are postsecondary institutions making to provide career counseling and job placement services?

Information detailing career counseling and job placement services by type of institution.

How do proprietary schools deal with placement services?

Detailed information on types of services offered by institutions, success rates in placing students, etc.

What is the U.S. aggregate picture of the future labor force?

Enrollment and graduate data, at undergraduate, graduate, and professional level, by age, and race or ethnic group, as well as by sex and field of study.

What is the impact of experimental programs on the overall need for manpower training?

More information on open-entry training systems with no prerequisites, on use and effectiveness of training modules and individualized instruction, on ladder approaches and open-exit programs, on cluster training for broad occupational groupings, and on the effectiveness of stipends to make full-time training possible for adults.

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

Supply and Demand  
(continued)

What is the impact of migration of American students abroad and foreign students into the United States in terms of manpower needs?

Regular information on both American and foreign students on personal characteristics, field of study, location and type of institution, reasons behind student migration, and plans for future, in terms of job and geographic location.

What is the relationship between patterns of employment and various postsecondary education levels?

More information on personal characteristics, curriculum studied, ability, type of institution attended, and level of institution completed; especially information on employment patterns of graduates of 2-year colleges and dropouts from institutions of higher education.

Are certain degrees really necessary for employment in certain fields?

Information on educational requirements and degrees actually necessary for employment, more detailed information on the way postsecondary institutions orient their educational curriculums to match needed job skills.

What are the implications of the changing job market for holders of master's degrees and for enrollment in master's programs?

Numbers and characteristics of master's degree holders and candidates by field of study, level of study completed, in relation to type of job desired, and actual job vacancies, and future outlook for job desired.

What competition do graduates face for jobs from others in the job market, including married women entering or reentering the job-market, foreign nationals in the U.S., and senior citizens seeking part-time or volunteer work.

What jobs currently utilize what kind and what degree of training, and who fills the job; characteristics of the competing labor market, including married women entering or reentering the job market, foreign nationals in the U.S., and senior citizens seeking part-time or volunteer employment.

What is the future of the current labor market situation of college graduates?

Predictions necessary by individual occupation over relatively long-term period; timely release of needs is important.

Specific Manpower  
Needs

What is the effectiveness of various types of skill training?

Information using variables such as length of training, location of training, and results in terms of productive long-term employment for the recipient.

What are the results of exemplary training programs?

Statistics which describe the programs sufficiently so that similar programs can either be duplicated or eliminated according to the success or failure of the exemplary program.

Issues inherent in goals

**Specific Manpower  
Needs (continued)**

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

How can the Federal Government improve its own skill training programs, as well as provide assistance to States for improvement of their programs?

How can the Federal Government best count students enrolled in occupational programs?

What are the projections of needs for the many kinds of special teachers now receiving training support from the Federal Government?

Do manpower shortages actually exist, and are training programs responding to such shortages?

Information needed on student behavior characteristics which describes, among other variables:

how students learn about work attitudes,  
how students learn about human relations skills,  
how students learn about orientation to the nature  
of the working world,  
alternative career choices, and  
students' actual acquisition of specific work skills.

Development of more accurate definition of enrollment in occupational programs, and expansion of statistics to include changes in enrollments by field of study.

Revised estimates of future demands for teachers, that consider the growing demand for preschool teachers and for teachers in other settings, such as adult education programs.

Statistical information which demonstrates whether or not manpower shortages exist, and whether training programs do contribute to eliminating such shortages.

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

III. RECURRENT EDUCATION

What is the demand for recurrent education by adults?

Statistics which will enable policymakers to estimate demand, such as numbers of adults currently enrolled in recurrent education programs, types of training programs provided, types of needed skills.

Who is not enrolled in recurrent education who wishes to be?

Personal characteristics of those persons wishing to be enrolled.

What are the barriers to participation in recurrent education?

Factors restricting participation, such as:

costs of courses, time of courses, geographical location of courses, availability.

In what ways do adults of different age groups want to learn?

Information on learning environments, such as:

do adults learn well in unstructured environments?  
where do recurrent education courses take place:  
home, classroom, other?  
times at which courses are provided: night, weekend, etc.  
method of instruction: correspondence, lecture, other.

What is being studied by adults and for what purpose?

Types of courses offered to adults, and types of courses taken by adults; by reasons, such as upgrading skills, self-improvement, or new learning.

How do adults pay for their courses?

Statistics which describe what portion of these charges are paid by student, by employers, or by others.

What is the role of the community college in providing recurrent education?

Statistics on what efforts community colleges have made toward recurrent education; on what students, by personal characteristics, are attending recurrent education courses at community colleges; on what recurrent education courses are being offered at community colleges; on what techniques community colleges use to inform the public about recurrent education.

What is the role of other types of postsecondary institutions?

Similar statistics as mentioned above for community colleges, as well as data on educational structures in the system through which courses are offered (separate colleges within universities, in off-campus centers, etc.).

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

Recurrent Education  
(continued)

What kinds of jobs are likely to require the retraining of persons over time?

When is the need for such retraining likely to occur during a person's career?

What are innovative approaches to recurrent education and what is their impact on learning?

Data on the kinds of jobs likely to require further upgrading of skills.

Information on the kinds of jobs needing further training, by levels of jobs, and by personal characteristics of persons employed.

Description of innovative approaches to recurrent education, including statistics describing how they work, what their impact is on learning, motivation, and absorption of education by students.

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Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

IV. EDUCATIONAL DIVERSITY

A. New Students and  
New Education

Who are the "new" students in  
postsecondary education?

Personal characteristics of "new" students, similar in kind  
to those for entrants mentioned under Equal Opportunity,  
especially, ability measures and motivational data; also,  
information on career expectations, and their impact on choice  
of field of study.

What is the new student demand for  
nontraditional and innovative forms  
of education?

Information on what fields of study and what courses new  
students are taking, on the characteristics of students who  
prefer to study in new and innovative educational programs.

What kind of new education is being  
offered?

Information from the institutions on the extent of the use  
of new degrees in postsecondary education, including what  
schools are awarding these degrees, and who is receiving  
them; information on experiments with shorter times for degrees  
at all levels, etc.

Which institutions are offering  
what types of new educational  
programs?

Numbers and names of postsecondary institutions by varieties  
of curriculum offerings, varieties of institutional size  
and administration, and varieties of teaching methods.

What is the impact of using exams  
for credit or degrees?

Information on the use of exams (such as CLEP) for credit  
or degrees, by number and characteristics of people taking  
such exams, and by which schools accept them.

B. Preserving Institutional  
Diversity

How can institutions provide better  
data in the area of cost effective-  
ness.

Information on quality of educational output, need for  
uniform procedures for reporting per-student cost..



Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

V. RESEARCH

What is the impact of Federal research funds on colleges and universities?

Data which describe how institutions conduct federally-funded research, including cost of research (both Federal and institutional funds), personal characteristics of those working on research, characteristics of research facilities and their location, and administrative structure of research activities within the institution.

What is the impact of Federal research funds on faculty?

Information on relevant characteristics, including such variables as:

percent of faculty time spent in research versus teaching,  
field of expertise,  
relationship of research to subject taught, and  
data on salaries paid from research funds.

What is the impact of Federal research funds on students?

Information on numbers and personal characteristics of students participating in research projects at colleges and universities, including:

numbers of students, by personal characteristics and field and level of study, receiving financial support from research monies, and data describing how and what students learn through participation in projects.

What are the costs of Federal research to institutions?

Information including contributed equipment value, faculty time, income received by institutions, etc.

What is the effect of Federal funding fluctuations on institutions?

Information on institutions, by type, control, and field of study; also identification of projected trends of scientific and technological fields that would include probable national needs for scientific resources, and expected levels of Federal support in the various areas.

How are colleges and universities responding to multidisciplinary research needs.

Data needed on types of innovative organizational and functional arrangements currently in operation at various institutions.

Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

Politics

What political implications are inherent in the education of minorities?

Information on support for educational issues and programs by legislators and other government officials.

Information on State and local bond issue approvals and other political activities consequent to the education process.

Information on political awareness and involvements of citizenry (especially racial minorities).

Data on voting trends by regions and States, citizen involvement in and contributions to political candidates, and candidate and issue choices.

Economics

What economic variables are impacted by achievement or failure to achieve higher education.

Information on economic status of successful higher education matriculants and non-matriculants.

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Issues inherent in goals

Issue dimensions

Needed data categories

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VI. Socio-cultural variables

A. Family

What is the impact of the family on higher education aspirations and achievement?

Information on family income, status, background, history, attitudes, achievement, motivation, education, size.

What is the relationship of educational attainment to variables of family character?

Information on family income, educational attainment, mobility, socio-economic status, ability, educational history.

B. Attitudes

What societal attitudes impact on availability, access and matriculation of students in higher education?

Information on family, peer, faculty, administrator, societal attitudes

- o Equality of educational opportunity,
- o Importance of education
- o Motivation of students

Racial data of this type is especially needed for comparative purposes.

EXHIBIT V-1  
 NATIONAL CENTER FOR BLACK (HIGHER) EDUCATION  
 RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

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PURPOSE	COMMENTS
Conduct research and development activities in the area of Black higher education. Identify and work toward completion of a research agenda in Black higher education.	Responsibility for establishment of the purpose and agenda rest with a Board of Directors chosen from the higher education community. Based on this and its submission to NIE, basic funding would be forthcoming.
<b>FUNCTIONS</b>	
a. Research b. Development c. Programming d. Policy analysis e. Counsel - to - a. Government - State and Federal b. Individuals c. Public and private research groups	The center would act as chief counsel to NIE and the government on matters affecting Black higher education and Black colleges and universities.
<b>PARENT UNIT</b>	
A Black college or university	The center would have a fiscal and formal, but not necessarily a physical relationship with one of the Black colleges. The college will have operational responsibility.
<b>FUNDING</b>	
BASIC: National Institute of Education OTHER: Proposal Competition, charge for services, royalties, membership fees.	Basic funding will be a multi-year grant from NIE. As the center is independent it will compete for contracts from other Federal agencies and other sources. It will also charge for services.
<b>ADMINISTRATION</b>	
1. University Vice President for extra institution Projects. 2. Board of Directors 3. Director 4. Research and Development Staff	The basic administrative unit will be the Board of Directors, composed of Black educators, and the Center Director. The University has fiscal responsibility for the NIE grant. In early phases all Center staff would be university personnel. Later it might be more appropriate to distance this relationship.
<b>BENEFITS TO BLACK HIGHER EDUCATION</b>	
1. Allows control by Black higher education. 2. Provides Federal support but allows diversification. 3. Provides necessary input to Federal policy making process. 4. Fixes a specific research agenda but allows flexibility to go beyond the minimum. 5. Offers a forum from which to coordinate all Black higher education research and development activities.	

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## CHAPTER SIX

### HUMAN RESOURCES

"Debate over whether or not affirmative action goals and timetables are synonymous with illegal quotas and constitute a system of reverse discrimination ignores the structural dynamics of racism and sexism. Such discussions of affirmative action fail to get at the root causes of discrimination and, as a result, prevent civil rights advocates from formulating the kinds of policies that could substantially affect the status of minorities and women." (Gregory D. Squires, "Rising Above the Numbers Game," Civil Rights Digest, Washington, D.C., U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Summer 1978, Vol. 10, No. 44, p. 28)

#### Introduction - Components of the Human Resource System Support

The inclusion of a human resource system support as a prominent component in the achievement of higher education equity for Blacks is important because the development of Black human resources on a par with whites is essential to attaining equality of opportunity guaranteed by the Constitution, and failure to develop Black human resources indicates a lack of commitment to issues which are of interest to Blacks. Policymaking is a process which is interest group dominated. Absence of Blacks in the workforce, whether in positions of leadership or otherwise, cannot help but indicate an insensitivity to the needs and concerns of Blacks.

The issue, then, revolves around the development of parity, in terms of the total workforce and the leadership pool which will determine issues and policies which impact Black higher education. The leadership pool is of particular concern because it is this group which will determine the society's response to development of the total workforce.

This section outlines the significant lack of participation of Blacks at certain pertinent levels which mitigates against the achievement of higher education objectives for Black Americans. The underrepresentation of Blacks produces not only the obvious employment and economic disparities but also encourages a lack of sensitivity to the modal concerns of Blacks and leaves a decision making void which works against the consideration of Black concern.

An adequate human resource system support obviously fills this void by providing personnel within at least parity guidelines such that there is equitable representation of Blacks at all levels.

An adequate, sensitive Human Resource System Support designed to achieve parity in higher education for Blacks must include the following: Black decision makers at the Federal, foundation and State levels. There should be representation of Blacks among elected officials; academic personnel on governing boards; higher education administrative staffs, and faculty; and research teams.

## Findings

Black decision makers. It is probably impossible to get a clear handle on the impact of Black decision makers in the Federal government. The argument can be extended further to include corporate, State and foundation involvement of Blacks at this level. Chief among the problems associated with such a task is the semantic problem of defining what the designations policymaker and decision maker denote.

Federal government The Office of Personnel Management (OPM) recently (1979) released preliminary findings of a major study on the dynamics of the Federal civilian workforce. The study concludes that women and minorities have made gains in Federal employment in recent years with women making the most significant advances. The study also concluded that:

- o Approximately one out of five Federal women employees who were on board during the study period was promoted, while one out of eight male employees received promotions.
- o Women represented 47 percent of all accessions and 43 percent of all separations from Federal civilian service. Percentages of women accessions into all occupation categories during the study exceeded their on-board percentage.
- o Approximately one out of seven Federal employees (Minority and non-minority) on-board during the 12 month period was promoted.
- o Minority accession (26.2 percent of all accessions) exceeded minority separations (23.6 percent of all separations).
- o The percentage of minority accessions in the professional and administrative occupational categories during the study exceeded their average on-board percentages: Professional (11.1 percent accessions, 9.1 percent on-board); and Administrative (13.6 percent accessions; 12.0 percent on-board).

The improvements being made in the lot of Blacks in Federal employment, though positive, tend to be deceiving if not considered in the context of the disaggregated total figures. At lower technical and clerical levels Blacks compose 20 percent of the workforce (table VI-1).

At the top five grades in Federal service (GS-14-18) whites make-up 94 percent of the workforce compared to 3.6 percent for Blacks. At the other extreme (GS-1,2,3 and 4 levels), whites make up 47 percent of the workforce while Blacks comprise 22 percent. (table VI-1). It seems clear that Black professionals are receiving less than an equitable share of positions where Federal decision making likely takes place.



TABLE VI-1

## Representation of Black and Other Minority Employees in the Federal Workforce, by GS Grade, 1978

GS Grade Group	Total Full-time Employees	Total Minority Employees Number	Percent of Grade Group	Total Negro/Black Employees Number	Percent of Grade Group	All Other Employees Number	Percent of Grade Group
GS 1-4	280,887	84,790	30.2	62,872	22.4	196,097	69.8
GS 5-8	438,323	105,065	24.0	80,402	18.3	333,258	76.0
<b>Total Lower Level</b>	<b>719,210</b>	<b>189,855</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>143,274</b>	<b>19.9</b>	<b>529,355</b>	<b>73.6</b>
GS 9-11	346,331	49,420	14.3	31,527	9.1	296,911	85.7
GS 12-13	271,510	23,727	8.7	14,382	5.3	247,783	91.3
<b>Total Mid-Level</b>	<b>617,841</b>	<b>73,147</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>45,909</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>544,694</b>	<b>88.2</b>
GS 14-16	97,343	5,284	6.5	3,513	3.6	91,059	93.5
GS 17-18	2,045	100	5.0	67	3.3	1,945	95.1
<b>Total Senior Level</b>	<b>99,388</b>	<b>6,384</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>3,580</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>93,004</b>	<b>93.6</b>
<b>Total Wage System</b>	<b>1,436,439</b>	<b>269,386</b>	<b>18.8</b>	<b>192,763</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>1,167,053</b>	<b>81.3</b>

SOURCE: National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities analysis of U.S. Civil Service Commission data. Federal Civilian Work Force Statistics. Washington, D.C., 1978.

TABLE VI-2

Total Federal Workforce by Race/Ethnicity, Sex, and Grade Level,  
November 30, 1978

PAY SYSTEM	TOTAL FULL-TIME EMPLOYEES			TOTAL MINORITY EMPLOYEES				NEGRO/BLACK				HISPANIC			
	NUMBER	WOMEN	%	NUMBER	%	WOMEN	%	NUMBER	%	WOMEN	%	NUMBER	%	WOMEN	%
TOTAL ALL PAY SYSTEMS	2,418,151	752,766	31.1	531,988	22.0	218,552	9.0	394,878	16.3	176,813	7.3	84,980	3.5	20,558	.9
TOTAL GEN SCHED & EQUIV	1,430,435	625,974	43.8	269,386	18.8	162,059	11.3	192,811	13.4	126,153	8.8	41,255	2.9	17,438	1.2
GS- 1	1,606	1,095	68.2	763	47.5	542	33.7	625	38.9	454	28.3	95	5.9	62	3.9
GS- 2	19,067	14,636	77.8	6,453	33.8	4,753	25.0	4,871	25.5	3,641	19.1	976	5.1	702	3.7
GS- 3	87,028	67,828	77.9	27,238	31.3	20,274	23.3	20,315	23.3	15,261	17.5	3,404	3.9	2,278	2.8
GS- 4	173,185	134,426	77.6	59,335	29.1	43,033	22.0	37,061	21.4	28,463	16.4	6,684	3.9	4,515	2.8
GS- 5	199,094	129,928	68.7	49,358	26.1	33,520	17.7	37,820	20.0	26,576	14.1	6,882	3.6	3,750	2.0
GS- 6	86,934	61,501	70.7	22,866	26.3	16,473	18.9	18,231	21.0	13,785	15.9	2,826	3.3	1,492	1.7
GS- 7	130,898	65,152	49.8	26,431	20.2	15,865	12.1	19,187	14.7	12,746	9.8	4,401	3.4	1,620	1.2
GS- 8	31,603	17,521	55.4	6,410	20.3	4,046	12.8	5,164	16.3	3,585	11.3	782	2.5	244	.8
GS- 9	157,757	59,673	37.8	25,507	16.2	12,784	8.1	16,345	10.4	9,314	5.9	4,892	3.1	1,247	.8
GS-10	27,389	9,637	35.2	4,122	15.0	2,310	8.4	2,730	10.0	1,755	6.4	939	3.4	353	1.3
GS-11	161,185	33,553	20.9	19,789	12.3	7,349	4.6	12,452	7.7	5,704	3.5	3,694	2.3	653	.4
GS-12	158,317	18,903	11.9	15,379	9.7	3,905	2.5	9,355	5.9	3,208	2.0	2,964	1.9	287	.2
GS-13	113,193	8,361	7.4	8,348	7.4	1,406	1.2	5,077	4.4	1,120	1.0	1,551	1.4	112	.1
GS-14	59,827	3,153	5.3	3,908	6.5	497	.8	2,236	3.8	355	.6	720	1.2	48	.1
GS-15	32,963	1,625	4.9	2,144	6.5	266	.8	1,108	3.4	160	.5	436	1.3	29	.1
GS-16	4,553	187	4.0	232	5.1	14	.3	167	3.7	13	.3	31	.7	1	.1
GS-17	1,615	51	3.3	78	4.8	8	.5	50	3.1	6	.4	16	1.0	1	.1
GS-18	430	24	5.8	22	5.1	4	.9	17	4.0	4	.9	3	.7		
AVERAGE GRADE	8.29	6.03	---	6.65	---	5.73	---	6.41	---	5.75	---	7.14	---	5.48	---
TOTAL WAGE SYSTEMS	448,886	36,082	8.0	130,686	29.1	20,179	4.5	92,811	20.7	17,450	3.9	26,653	5.9	1,155	.3
REGULAR NONSUPERVISORY	329,594	29,630	9.0	105,558	32.0	16,424	5.0	73,682	22.4	13,978	4.2	22,819	6.9	1,031	.3
WG- 1	8,374	3,881	46.4	4,921	58.8	2,484	29.7	4,133	49.4	2,137	25.5	350	4.7	85	1.0
WG- 2	24,498	7,930	32.4	14,364	58.6	5,535	22.8	11,824	48.3	4,947	20.2	1,351	5.5	220	.9
WG- 3	13,721	3,567	26.0	7,590	55.3	2,331	17.0	5,963	43.5	2,087	15.2	1,082	7.9	100	.7
WG- 4	11,409	3,353	29.4	6,004	52.6	2,005	17.6	4,989	43.7	1,832	16.1	750	6.6	97	.9
WG- 5	35,654	3,804	10.7	15,346	43.0	1,581	4.4	11,359	31.9	1,130	3.3	2,727	7.6	149	.4
WG- 6	22,666	1,728	7.6	10,084	44.5	727	3.2	7,530	33.2	604	2.7	2,072	9.1	86	.4
WG- 7	18,942	1,338	7.1	7,991	42.2	430	2.3	5,421	28.6	334	1.8	1,752	9.2	59	.3
WG- 8	35,517	2,105	5.9	10,586	29.8	809	2.3	7,044	19.8	510	1.4	2,504	7.1	82	.2
WG- 9	31,095	764	2.5	7,571	24.3	220	.7	4,336	13.9	143	.5	2,628	8.5	69	.2
WG-10	85,107	976	1.1	16,218	18.8	264	.3	8,835	10.3	180	.2	5,587	6.5	73	.1
WG-11	26,673	141	.5	3,478	13.0	29	.1	1,703	6.4	17	.1	1,325	5.0	9	---
WG-12	10,265	29	.3	1,000	9.7	6	.1	370	3.6	4	.1	499	4.9	2	---
WG-13	3,462	8	.2	315	9.1	2	.1	132	3.8	2	.1	116	3.4	---	---
WG-14	1,100	5	.5	84	7.6	1	.1	41	3.7	1	.1	34	3.1	---	---
WG-15	111			6	5.4			2	1.8			2	1.8	---	---
AVERAGE GRADE (W3)	7.57	3.99	---	6.10	---	3.37	---	5.63	---	3.21	---	7.44	---	4.87	---

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TABLE VI-2 (Continued)

Total Federal Workforce by Race/Ethnicity, Sex, and Grade Level,  
November 30, 1978

NATIVE AMERICAN				ORIENTAL AMERICAN				ALL OTHER EMPLOYEES				PAY SYSTEM
NUMBER	%	WOMEN	%	NUMBER	%	WOMEN	%	NUMBER	%	WOMEN	%	
25,845	1.1	12,517	.5	26,307	1.1	8,668	.4	1,086,163	78.0	534,214	22.1	TOTAL ALL PAY SYSTEMS
18,542	1.3	11,180	.8	16,737	1.2	7,290	.5	1,167,049	81.2	463,915	32.3	TOTAL GEN SCHED & EQUIV
29	1.8	18	1.1	14	.9	8	.5	843	52.5	553	34.4	GS- 1
430	2.3	287	1.5	176	.9	133	.7	12,614	66.2	10,073	52.8	GS- 2
2,718	3.1	2,146	2.5	801	.9	589	.7	59,790	68.7	47,554	54.6	GS- 3
5,039	2.9	3,947	2.3	1,512	.9	1,108	.6	122,850	70.9	96,393	55.7	GS- 4
2,698	1.4	1,857	1.0	1,958	1.0	1,297	.7	139,726	73.9	96,408	51.0	GS- 5
969	1.1	526	.7	840	1.0	610	.7	64,068	73.7	45,028	51.6	GS- 6
1,331	1.0	676	.5	1,512	1.2	823	.6	104,267	79.8	49,287	37.7	GS- 7
158	.5	54	.2	306	1.0	163	.5	25,193	79.7	11,885	37.6	GS- 8
1,940	1.2	961	.6	2,332	1.5	1,262	.8	132,248	83.8	46,891	29.7	GS- 9
155	.6	77	.3	208	1.1	120	.4	23,267	85.0	7,327	23.8	GS-10
1,325	.2	369	.2	2,318	1.4	623	.4	141,396	87.7	26,306	16.3	GS-11
309	.6	138	.1	2,151	1.4	272	.2	142,938	90.3	15,001	9.5	GS-12
462	.4	45		1,308	1.2	129	.1	104,845	92.6	6,958	6.1	GS-13
254	.4	11		348	1.1	83	.1	55,919	93.5	2,658	4.4	GS-14
105	.3	8		495	1.5	69	.2	30,819	93.5	1,359	4.1	GS-15
14	.3			20	.4			4,321	94.9	168	3.7	GS-16
6	.4			6	.4	1	.1	1,537	95.2	46	2.8	GS-17
8:20		5.08		2	.5			408	94.9	20	4.7	GS-18
				8.73		6.89		8.67		6.18		AVERAGE GRADE
8,407	1.4	1,096	.2	4,815	1.1	478	.1	318,200	70.9	15,903	3.5	TOTAL WAGE SYSTEMS
5,288	1.8	964	.3	3,771	1.1	451	.1	224,036	68.0	13,208	4.0	REGULAR NONSUPERVISORY
110	1.3	40	.5	288	3.4	222	2.7	3,453	41.2	1,400	16.7	WG- 1
864	3.5	289	1.2	325	1.3	79	.3	10,134	41.4	2,395	9.8	WG- 2
407	3.0	108	.8	138	1.0	36	.3	6,131	44.7	1,236	9.0	WG- 3
129	1.1	45	.4	136	1.2	31	.3	5,405	47.4	1,348	11.8	WG- 4
731	2.1	215	.6	529	1.5	37	.1	20,308	57.0	2,223	6.2	WG- 5
239	1.1	21	.1	243	1.1	16	.1	12,582	55.5	999	4.4	WG- 6
663	3.5	28	.1	155	.8	9		10,951	57.8	908	4.8	WG- 7
696	2.0	204	.6	342	1.0	13		24,931	70.2	1,296	3.6	WG- 8
427	1.4	6		180	.6			23,524	75.7	544	1.7	WG- 9
811	.9	6		985	1.1	5		69,889	81.2	712	.8	WG-10
160	.6			290	1.1	3		23,145	87.0	112	.4	WG-11
35	.3			96	.9			9,265	90.3	23	.2	WG-12
11	.3			56	1.6			3,147	90.9	6	.2	WG-13
2	.2			7	.6			1,016	92.4	4	.4	WG-14
1	.9			1	.9			105	94.6			WG-15
8:28		4.44		7.02		2.53		8.26		4.75		AVERAGE GRADE (WG)

SOURCE: U. S. Civil Service Commission Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics, November 1977.

The case cannot easily be made that Blacks lack the educational training to perform at the "super" grade levels. In 1974, 78.8 percent of the Black men and 57.1 percent of the Black women at the GS-16-18 grades had done graduate study. For non-minority employees 74.0 percent of the males and 78.2 percent of the females had pursued such study. Black men have a greater degree of educational training, with graduate study as the delimiting variable, than do non-minority men. A similar situation exists across the board for the GS-9-11, 12-13 and 14-15 grade groups (table VI-5). Those Blacks who have come into Federal service are educationally superior to non-minorities. Yet, they are not represented at the upper levels.

At the Federal level, fewer than 3.5 percent of the decision makers who impact policymaking are Black. In agencies with an educational mission,\* of the 85,084 person workforce at the GS-14-18 levels, fewer than 1.5 percent of slots in the top two grades (GS-17-18) are held by Blacks, (tables VI-3 and VI-4).

Those agencies which have shown a sensitivity to the higher education concerns of Blacks have tended to include larger numbers of Blacks in the civilian workforce. However, no clear picture can be drawn from the relationship of these agencies to the numbers of Blacks in decision making roles. There does however appear to be a relationship between Black leadership and control of budgets, and commitment to higher education issues of interest to Blacks. Blacks are responsible for a few major programs which have budgets in the millions of dollars. These programs tend to be geared toward minorities and women, with a heavy emphasis on Black minorities. It is possible that this situation exists because of the major influence of a strong Black decision maker who is sensitive to the higher education concerns of Blacks and who also exerts influence over the budget of the agency. The extent of the influence of these persons is a subject for research beyond the scope of this inquiry.

Several conclusions do however stand out resulting from this analysis:

1. Blacks exceed parity in the Federal workforce at the lower grades. Representation of Blacks at the GS-14,15,16,17, and 18 grades is less than 4.0 percent of all positions at those levels.
2. Black men at the GS-16, 17, and 18 grades are more likely to have completed graduate study than are non-minority men and women.
3. The GS-14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 grades represent the level at which policy decision makers are found in the Federal government. In those agencies with an education mission, Blacks hold less than 4.0 percent of the policy decision making positions.

\*These agencies are those which have education activities as a part of their mission and are included in the membership of the Federal Interagency Committee on Education.

TABLE VI-3

## Federal Employees in Selected Cabinet Departments by Grade Groups, 1977

Department	Number of employees			Percent of employees					
	All employees	Blacks		Grades 1-8		Grades 9-13		Grades 14-18	
		Total	Percent of all employees	All employees	Black	All employees	Black	All employees	Black
Total Selected Departments	1,149,571	1,082,222	11.5	50.2	73.1	43.5	24.9	6.3	1.0
Agriculture	81,743	5,035	6.2	47.0	64.6	48.0	34.1	5.0	1.3
Commerce	28,725	4,786	16.7	38.2	69.2	46.1	26.8	15.7	4.0
Defense	566,310	53,022	9	54.3	76.4	41.8	22.8	3.8	0.8
Energy	15,647	1,076	6.9	34.7	62.4	43.0	29.0	22.2	8.5
Health, Education & Welfare	131,330	29,458	22.4	57.5	73.6	36.2	24.1	6.3	2.3
Housing & Urban Development	16,731	3,750	22.4	41.2	62.0	47.9	32.7	10.9	5.2
Interior	57,700	2,194	3.8	47.8	65.6	46.0	32.7	6.2	1.6
Justice	48,057	6,218	12.9	49.4	82.1	42.6	16.3	8.1	1.6
Labor	14,922	3,760	25.2	39.6	66.2	48.2	29.0	12.2	4.9
State	15,465	2,292	14.8	30.9	62.0	47.8	34.3	21.2	3.7
Transportation	62,410	5,186	8.3	19.6	50.3	63.5	42.9	16.8	6.7
Treasury	110,531	15,045	13.6	52.0	77.2	43.2	21.6	4.8	1.2

SOURCE: U. S. Civil Service Commission Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics, November 1977.

TABLE VI-4

**BLACK PARTICIPATION IN THE CIVILIAN WORKFORCE IN THE UPPER GRADE LEVELS  
IN AGENCIES WITH AN EDUCATION MISSION, 1978**

Agency	Total civilian workforce			Blacks in workforce			
	In all grades	In grades 12-18		Total	In grades 12-18		
		Number	Percent of Total		Number	Percent of all Blacks	Percent of total employees in grade group
<b>Total, Selected agencies</b>	<b>1,062,735</b>	<b>167,280</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>118,726</b>	<b>6,120</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>3.7</b>
CSA	949	506	53.3	434	168	38.7	33.2
AID	3,743	1,965	52.5	747	166	22.2	8.5
Dept. of Agriculture	81,743	9,864	12.1	5,035	231	4.6	2.3
Commerce	26,725	7,830	29.3	4,786	90	1.9	1.2
Dept. of Defense	566,310	58,771	10.4	53,022	1,554	2.9	2.6
DHEW	131,330	15,892	12.1	29,458	1,401	4.8	8.8
DMUD	16,731	3,692	22.1	3,750	394	10.5	10.7
Interior	57,700	7,776	13.5	2,194	99	4.5	1.3
Justice	48,057	9,294	19.3	6,218	211	3.4	2.3
Labor	14,922	3,756	25.2	3,760	416	11.1	12.1
Transportation	62,410	21,908	35.1	5,186	730	14.1	3.3
EPA	10,159	2,877	28.3	1,311	89	6.8	3.1
Dept. of Energy (Energy Res. and Development)	15,647	5,550	35.5	1,076	149	13.9	2.7
NASA	22,116	15,458	69.9	1,181	351	29.7	2.3
Nat. Foundation on Arts & Humanities	377	109	28.9	73	9	12.3	8.3
NSF	1,208	558	46.2	251	25	10.0	4.5
NSC	2,608	1,474	56.5	244	37	15.2	2.5

SOURCE: National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities analysis of U. S. Civil Service Commission data, Washington, DC 1977.

TABLE VI-5

Full-time Permanent General Schedule and Similar Federal Employees by Grade Group, by Educational Attainment, by Minority Group Status, by Sex, August 1974

GS Grade and Education Level	All General Schedule Employees		Minority Employees								Employees Other Than Minority	
	Men	Women	Black		Spanish-Surnamed		American Indian		Oriental		Men	Women
			Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women		
All General Schedule and Stellar employees g/...	690,213	464,706	54,005	94,241	17,238	11,496	4,021	5,699	6,147	2,393	615,804	349,277
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	66.0	66.0	4.6	8.1	1.6	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.3	53.0	30.0
GS-1 thru GS-4.....	62,943	104,014	13,959	47,247	3,219	6,034	709	3,292	302	1,230	34,544	132,011
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	22.2	77.0	5.0	17.0	1.4	2.5	0.3	1.4	0.2	0.5	14.5	55.6
Percent distribution by education level.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than high school graduate.....	10.0	7.2	23.0	12.3	23.0	7.0	10.1	13.6	6.1	4.9	16.2	6.4
High school graduate.....	37.0	47.6	39.0	42.3	37.0	51.5	30.2	37.6	26.0	32.0	37.7	49.6
Training beyond high school, but no college..	11.7	10.7	10.0	10.4	9.0	16.4	22.0	27.1	9.4	16.4	17.0	10.4
One year college or less.....	17.7	16.9	16.2	17.5	19.0	17.4	22.1	17.1	23.2	21.3	17.0	16.7
2 to 4 years college - no bachelor's degree..	10.1	7.2	0.5	0.0	0.2	5.7	6.3	4.1	23.5	16.0	10.0	7.3
Bachelor's degree - no graduate study.....	3.2	1.0	1.9	1.3	0.9	0.0	0.4	0.3	6.6	6.3	4.0	2.0
Graduate study.....	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.4	0	0.2	4.3	1.5	1.4	0.6
GS-5 thru GS-8.....	153,769	212,904	20,707	41,935	6,038	4,468	1,264	1,828	1,244	1,908	124,780	162,766
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	41.0	50.1	6.5	11.4	1.6	1.2	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.6	34.1	44.4
Percent distribution by education level.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than high school graduate.....	10.4	4.0	16.5	5.7	15.4	3.4	11.0	1.9	5.2	1.9	9.2	3.6
High school graduate.....	31.2	37.0	29.5	31.5	20.4	20.2	26.2	30.9	16.3	25.3	31.6	39.6
Training beyond high school, but no college..	11.0	21.2	13.4	22.2	10.2	10.6	21.3	26.0	11.3	10.4	11.5	20.0
One year college or less.....	16.0	19.6	16.9	22.6	20.2	22.4	20.6	19.4	16.9	20.3	15.6	10.7
2 to 4 years college - no bachelor's degree..	12.2	9.7	13.2	11.2	13.3	10.9	11.0	10.0	17.1	10.1	12.9	9.2
Bachelor's degree - no graduate study.....	13.6	5.0	7.0	5.3	0.1	4.1	5.3	2.1	24.1	12.1	14.9	5.9
Graduate study.....	4.0	2.0	2.5	1.5	2.4	1.5	1.2	0.9	0.6	3.0	5.3	2.1
GS-9 thru GS-11.....	119,124	50,741	11,222	7,978	4,959	844	1,180	498	2,545	637	109,716	40,104
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	61.4	18.6	4.2	3.0	1.0	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.2	74.2	14.9
Percent distribution by education level.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than high school graduate.....	3.7	1.8	3.4	1.5	5.3	1.1	3.6	1.2	2.0	1.9	3.7	1.9
High school graduate.....	17	22.3	14.3	17.7	20.2	23.9	20.3	22.9	11.0	16.5	17.9	23.2
Training beyond high school, but no college..	11	13.4	9.9	13.0	9.6	10.5	10.0	14.3	0.0	9.4	11.0	13.3
One year college or less.....	14.0	16.6	15.4	20.5	10.6	17.1	16.4	13.2	11.1	10.5	14.6	16.0
2 to 4 years college - no bachelor's degree..	12.4	10.2	16.0	13.9	17.0	11.1	13.4	0.0	14.6	11.1	12.1	9.5
Bachelor's degree - no graduate study.....	20.9	16.3	19.0	19.0	14.9	16.9	15.0	7.6	24.6	21.7	21.2	16.7
Graduate study.....	10.0	10.0	19.5	14.6	10.5	19.3	20.4	31.9	27.2	28.6	10.0	19.3
GS-12 thru GS-13.....	202,276	14,420	6,768	1,813	2,495	126	677	68	1,293	190	191,293	12,214
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	93.4	6.6	3.1	0.0	1.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.1	67.9	6.6
Percent distribution by education level.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than high school graduate.....	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.0	1.4	1.3	1.6	0	0.6	0.5	1.1	1.0
High school graduate.....	10.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.5	0.9	15.7	22.1	0.3	11.6	10.7	13.5
Training beyond high school, but no college..	6.3	0.2	5.0	10.4	6.1	2.2	9.9	20.6	4.2	6.3	6.3	9.1
One year college or less.....	9.0	12.9	9.3	11.3	20.2	7.4	11.7	19.1	6.3	3.7	0.0	12.6
2 to 4 years college - no bachelor's degree..	10.0	9.3	13.4	14.0	15.0	6.9	12.9	4.4	7.6	0.9	10.7	0.7
Bachelor's degree - no graduate study.....	23.5	10.3	19.7	10.3	21.0	23.0	17.0	4.4	25.0	10.4	23.6	10.4
Graduate study.....	37.9	37.1	42.1	25.9	25.0	51.1	31.3	29.4	60.3	61.6	37.7	25.0
GS-14 thru GS-15.....	65,112	2,226	1,036	57	801	15	144	13	461	88	62,126	2,016
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	56.6	3.4	2.7	0	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.2	52.2	3.0
Percent distribution by education level.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than high school graduate.....	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.4	0.3
High school graduate.....	5.6	6.0	3.9	5.1	7.9	6.7	7.9	0	3.7	0	6.6	6.3
Training beyond high school, but no college..	3.2	4.7	4.4	4.7	3.2	6.7	6.5	3.7	1.0	0	3.1	4.0
One year college or less.....	5.2	0.6	3.0	4.7	5.9	6.7	7.3	3.7	1.6	0	5.2	6.0
2 to 4 years college - no bachelor's degree..	7.6	6.7	9.6	6.7	11.9	6.7	17.1	7.7	3.5	13.7	7.2	5.5
Bachelor's degree - no graduate study.....	19.5	10.4	14.0	11.0	15.0	13.3	10.3	7.7	10.4	7.1	19.7	10.9
Graduate study.....	56.5	67.2	62.9	66.1	63.1	60.0	43.0	69.2	79.6	82.1	60.3	67.1
GS-16 thru GS-18.....	4,466	901	113	34	22	0	7	0	29	0	4,293	87
Percent of all minority-sex combinations.....	87.0	2.2	2.6	0.3	0.5	0	0.2	0	0.4	0	94.2	1.9
Percent distribution by education level.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than high school graduate.....	0.2	2.0	0.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.2	2.3
High school graduate.....	2.9	1.0	2.7	7.1	9.1	0	0	0	0	0	2.9	0
Training beyond high school, but no college..	1.5	6.0	0.9	14.3	6.5	0	14.3	0	0	0	1.5	3.0
One year college or less.....	1.9	2.0	1.0	7.1	4.5	0	0	0	0	0	1.9	1.1
2 to 4 years college - no bachelor's degree..	4.0	4.0	7.1	7.1	6.5	0	14.3	0	0	0	4.0	3.0
Bachelor's degree - no graduate study.....	14.6	10.9	0.0	7.1	22.7	0	14.3	0	0	0	14.6	11.5
Graduate study.....	74.1	75.2	78.0	57.1	54.6	0	57.3	0	100.0	0	74.6	78.2

g/ The percent distribution by education level for total full-time permanent General Schedule employees is shown on Table 20.

h/ Less than 0.05 percent

SOURCE: U.S. Civil Service Commission Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics, November 1977.



4. One of the most significant benefits to be accrued to the interest of Blacks in higher education is achieved through the support of sensitive Black administrators who significantly influence budgetary decision-making in the Federal agencies. Fewer than 1 percent of Blacks in the Federal bureaucracy who have decision-making responsibility exercise any appreciable amount of control over budgets in their respective agencies.
5. The interests of Black higher education will not achieve a more sensitive hearing in the Federal government without increasing the pool of Blacks in decision making positions.

Foundations and institutes The major philanthropic foundations have traditionally shown a keen interest in education and to some extent in Black higher education. Such groups as the Ford, Mott and Rockefeller Foundations have as their mission the support of worthy (charter defined) activities, which in many cases include education.

In a study produced for the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, Griffin and Grigg concluded that though some progress in including Blacks in policymaking had been made, there were still a number of foundations for which there was little commitment to affirmative action. They suggest that a more detailed analysis be made to determine the extent of actual involvement by Blacks.

Whereas the major activity of foundations is to support some predetermined thematic cause, institutes and associations tend to be more technical in their orientations, e.g., providing research and administrative expertise, guidance, and advocacy to a particular constituency. Griffin and Grigg suggest that there are only two major groups which fall into this category which are controlled and predominantly staffed by Blacks, i.e., the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy at Howard University and the Institute for Services to Education. Most others are white controlled and here and there speckled with a small number of Blacks.

Black elected officials Federal government policies toward education and the actions of State officials are related in determining and executing any official national stance toward education in America. Education is the main province of local, State and private authorities. Policies of the Federal government result from national needs, which the States cannot or will not fully address. Education in each of the States is closely tied to the political process. Thus, the make-up of the Senate and House of Representatives, the State legislatures, and elected educational entities, e.g., college boards, school boards, etc., will determine to a great extent the policies which become national priorities.

The representation of Blacks at these legislative levels is a significant variable in the determination of policy toward Black higher education.

As of July 1978, no Black elected officials could be identified in six States: Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont and Wyoming. The Southern Region of the Nation had elected a third more Black officials than all of the other three regions combined during the period 1970-1978 (table VI-6).

TABLE VI-6

## Black Elected Officials, By Office, 1970 to 1978, and By Regions and States, 1978

(As of April, except as indicated. As of July 1978, no Black elected officials had been identified in Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, Vermont, or Wyoming. For composition of regions see figure 1, inside front cover)

YEAR, REGION, AND STATE	TOTAL	U.S. and State legislature <sup>1</sup>	City and county offices <sup>2</sup>	Law enforce- ment <sup>3</sup>	Education <sup>4</sup>	STATE	TOTAL	U.S. and State legislature <sup>1</sup>	City and county offices <sup>2</sup>	Law enforce- ment <sup>3</sup>	Educ- tion <sup>4</sup>
1970 (Feb)	1,472	102	715	213	362	Kentucky	64	4	40	8	12
1972 (Mar)	2,264	224	1,108	263	669	Louisiana	334	10	188	41	95
1973	2,621	256	1,264	334	767	Maine	3	1	2	-	-
1974	2,991	256	1,602	340	793	Maryland	86	19	53	10	4
1975	3,503	299	1,878	387	939	Massachusetts	22	10	5	-	7
1976	3,979	299	2,274	412	994	Michigan	256	19	115	29	93
1977 (July)	4,311	316	2,497	447	1,051	Minnesota	8	2	-	3	3
1978 (July)	4,503	316	2,595	454	1,138	Mississippi	303	4	184	54	61
Northeast	529	57	188	72	212	Missouri	137	16	88	19	14
No. Central	966	91	541	99	235	Nebraska	8	2	2	-	4
South	2,733	141	1,784	223	585	Nevada	6	3	-	1	2
West	275	27	82	60	106	N. Hampshire	1	1	-	-	-
Alabama	207	15	132	37	23	New Jersey	146	5	74	-	67
Alaska	2	-	1	-	1	N. Mexico	4	1	2	-	1
Arizona	13	2	4	2	5	New York	183	16	31	29	107
Arkansas	223	4	135	1	83	N. Carolina	237	6	161	6	64
California	213	12	64	47	90	Ohio	154	13	93	18	30
Colorado	15	4	4	4	3	Oklahoma	68	4	45	1	18
Connecticut	45	7	26	3	9	Oregon	6	1	1	2	2
Delaware	14	3	9	-	2	Pennsylvania	123	16	46	40	21
D. C.	255	1	247	-	7	R. Island	6	1	4	-	1
Florida	91	3	72	6	10	S. Carolina	229	13	122	20	74
Georgia	228	23	149	9	47	Tennessee	117	12	87	8	10
Hawaii	1	1	-	-	-	Texas	171	14	65	17	75
Illinois	279	22	170	21	66	Utah	1	1	-	-	-
Indiana	67	6	49	6	6	Virginia	90	5	81	4	-
Iowa	9	2	1	1	5	Washington	14	2	6	4	2
Kansas	34	6	16	1	11	W. Virginia	16	1	14	1	-
						Wisconsin	10	3	7	1	3

- Represents zero. 1 Includes elected State administrators and directors of State agencies. 2 County commissioners and councilmen, mayors, vice mayors, aldermen, regional officials, and other. 3 Judges, magistrates, constables, marshals, sheriffs, justices of the peace, and other. 4 College boards, school boards, and other. 5 Includes 3 U.S. Representatives and 1 State Superintendent of Public Instruction. 6 Includes 1 Lieutenant Governor. 7 Includes 1 State Treasurer. 8 Includes 1 U.S. Representative. 9 Includes 2 U.S. Representatives. 10 Includes 1 U.S. Senator. 11 Includes 1 Secretary of State.

SOURCE: Joint Center for Political Studies, Washington, DC, National Roster of Black Elected Officials, Annual Report, 1978.

The 1978 Roster of Black Elected Officials by the Joint Center for Political Studies, indicates that the total number of Black elected officials today still constitutes less than one percent of all elected officials in this country. According to the Joint Center, in no State does the percentage of Black elected officials exceed 0.4 percent of all elected officials in the State. This is true even in States which are 30 to 40 percent Black such as Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

In 1978 there were 4,503 Black elected officials in the Nation. This figure includes National and State legislators, city and county officers, law enforcement officials, and elected education officers. The latter category included college and secondary school boards and others. The total group was made up of 316 National and State Legislators, 2,595 City and County officials (county commissioners and councilmen, mayors, vice mayors, alderman, regional Officials etc.), and 1,138 Education officials (college boards, school boards, etc.).

The four States of Louisiana (334), Mississippi (303), Illinois (279), Michigan (256), and the District of Columbia (255) placed in office over one quarter of the total Black officials elected by the 50 States and D.C. combined (1,427 of 4,503).

Fifteen States in the U.S., which account for 77 percent of the Nation's Black population, elected 69 percent of the Black elected officials--approximately one Black elected official per 5,000 Blacks (table VI-8). New York elected one Black per 12,000 Black population. On the other hand Mississippi and South Carolina elected one Black per 3,000 Blacks in the population. Preliminary analysis suggests the following tentative conclusions:

- o Southern States have a better record of electing Blacks to office than the Northern and Western States, e.g., South Carolina, North Carolina, Mississippi, Louisiana.
- o The States with the largest number of Blacks in the population elected proportionally smaller numbers of Blacks to all elected offices, e.g., California, Florida, New York, Texas. These four States are perhaps the most culturally diverse of any in the Nation. The effect of this variable on their affirmative action efforts is a subject worthy of future study.

### Black Academic Personnel

Institutional governing boards Governing boards and the people who sit on them have a tremendous impact on higher education institutions. The presence or absence of Blacks determines to a great extent the success of efforts designed to improve the status of Blacks in higher education.

A survey conducted in the fall of 1976 by the Higher Education Panel of the American Council on Education (ACE) provides the most comprehensive of the few efforts completed, designed to explore the composition of college and university

TABLE VI-7

Black Population in Selected States, 1970 and 1976  
(Numbers in Thousands)

Selected States	1970 Census		1976 (Estimate)	
	Black population	States Black population as percent of Blacks in Nation	Black population	States Black population as percent of Blacks in Nation
Total Selected States*	17,183	76.3	18,418	75.8
Alabama	904	4.0	959	4.0
California	1,404	6.2	1,648	6.8
Florida	1,042	4.6	1,319	5.4
Georgia	1,187	5.3	1,336	5.5
Illinois	1,420	6.3	1,688	7.0
Louisiana	1,087	4.8	1,070	4.4
Michigan	992	4.4	1,017	4.2
Mississippi	816	3.6	829	3.4
New York	2,170	9.6	2,234	9.2
North Carolina	1,127	5.0	1,206	5.0
Ohio	974	4.3	1,003	4.1
Pennsylvania	1,017	4.5	1,021	4.2
South Carolina	789	3.5	881	3.6
Texas	1,401	6.2	1,428	5.9
Virginia	862	3.8	779	3.2

SOURCE: National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities analysis of U.S. Bureau of the Census Data. Social and Economic Status of the Black Population, special studies series p-23, No. 80, 1979. \*These figures represent the accumulated totals and percentages across the fifteen selected States.

TABLE VI-8

DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY GOVERNING BOARDS,  
BY SEX, RACE, EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, AND AGE, 1977

Characteristic	Total Governing Boards				Public			Private	
	Total (N=2,314)	Single- Campus (N=2,150)	Multi- Campus < 3 (N=92)	Multi- Campus > 3 (N=72)	Single- Campus (N=632)	Multi- Campus < 3 (N=71)	Multi- Campus > 3 (N=67)	Single- Campus (N=1,518)	Multi- Campus (N=21)
Number of voting members	47,138	44,759	1,368	1,011	5,458	609	846	39,301	924
Sex									
Men	84.9	84.9	85.8	85.2	81.7	84.9	84.1	85.2	67.3
Women	15.1	15.1	14.2	14.8	18.3	15.1	15.9	14.7	32.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Race									
Black	6.0	5.9	4.5	7.7	10.9	6.7	9.7	5.2	2.9
Other minority	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.4	2.7	2.1	2.9	1.7	1.3
White	93.0	93.1	94.3	88.9	86.4	91.1	87.4	94.0	94.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education									
Less than high school	.4	.3	.1	4.5	.7	.3	5.4	.3	0
High school diploma	6.5	6.5	7.8	5.8	11.8	8.5	6.9	5.6	5.9
A.A., A.S.	2.8	2.8	1.6	3.6	4.8	3.1	3.9	2.5	1
B.A., B.S.	38.8	38.8	40.3	35.8	37.7	38.1	38.0	38.9	36.4
M.A., M.S., M.A.T.	19.4	19.6	14.7	16.8	17.5	15.8	15.1	19.2	16.0
Ph.D., Ed.D.	11.0	11.1	10.1	8.3	5.9	5.2	6.7	11.6	14.6
M.D., J.D.	21.2	21.0	25.3	25.2	21.6	28.4	24.0	20.9	24.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age									
Less than 30 years old	2.2	2.1	1	4.6	2.2	3.0	5.5	2.1	2.3
30-39 years old	7.3	7.3	5.3	7.4	9.6	7.4	8.9	7.0	3.0
40-49 years old	24.4	24.3	24.6	25.0	32.9	25.1	27.2	23.0	22.4
50-59 years old	35.0	34.9	39.0	34.4	33.7	41.1	34.0	35.0	37.1
60-69 years old	24.7	24.8	23.5	22.9	16.9	18.4	18.8	25.8	30.5
70 years old or older	6.5	6.6	4.7	5.7	4.6	5.0	5.6	6.8	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: Gomberg, Irene L. and Atelsek, Frank J., "Composition of College and University Governing Boards", Higher Education Panel Reports, American Council on Education, Number 35, August 1977.

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governing boards. The report, entitled "Composition of College and University Governing Boards" lists the following excerpted highlights--

- o More than 47,000 trustees and regents serve on 2,314 governing boards responsible for 3,036 colleges and universities.
- o About 3,400 trustee positions on governing boards stand vacant at any given time, with almost all of these vacancies existing in the private sector.
- o Seven percent of all trustees are members of minority groups.

The ACE report fails to disaggregate Black board member data such that a profile of their characteristics can be gleaned. The percentage of the total included in the study who are on boards of Black colleges is, likewise, not indicated. It would be expected that a large part of the 7 percent minorities found on these boards would be on the boards of predominantly Black institutions.

Disaggregated data on the involvement of Blacks on these boards by institutional categories are essential to adequately delineate Black higher education issues, however, such data are not readily available. Of the 449 boards for which data were received in the 1976 ACE survey, 6 percent of the board members were Black (table VI-8). Blacks were the largest minority group reported; all other minorities making up only 1 percent of the total. The largest percentage of Blacks were members of boards of single-campus public institutions (10.9 percent). The smallest representation of Blacks was at private multi-campus institutions.

The public sector did better in all categories than did the private in attracting Black trustees. The percent of Black trustees at public institutions was twice that found at private institutions of all types (4.0 percent). A similar trend was found for other minority representation at the two types of institutions; e.g., 12.6 percent other minority at public institutions and .4 percent other minority at private institutions. Whites dominate all sectors and categories as trustees of institutions with an average of 93 percent of board positions.

The impact of Blacks, and other minorities is nowhere near their representation in the population. Parity would suggest that Blacks should fill nearly 6,000 (12 percent) of the trustee positions available. A short fall of over 3,000 Black trustee positions presently exists if parity guidelines are adhered to.

According to data from the Joint Center for Political Studies, (Joint Center for Political Studies, 1978) in 1978 more Blacks (585) were elected to college boards and school boards in public elections in the South than in the other four regions combined (553). Seven States elected more education related elected officials than the other 50 States combined: New York (107), Louisiana (95), Michigan (93), California (90), Arkansas (83), Texas (75), South Carolina (74).

Haynes (1979) pointed out that the States of New York and California are among the most progressive States in terms of their interest in, and concern for implementation of efforts designed to improve the status of Blacks in higher education. Likewise, these States were reported to have made a strong effort to increase the numbers of Blacks on institutional and State governing boards.

Higher education administrators In higher education academic and administrative positions, minority and female employment ratios indicate disproportionate differentials which cannot have come about by chance. For example, 1977 data from the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) highlight the fact that Blacks make up 7 percent of the administrators in higher education (table VI-9). Because of problems inherent in the EEOC data it is not possible to disaggregate the Black faculty and administrator data from historically Black colleges.

Faculty Of the 446,034 faculty for which data were collected by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1975, whites comprise 91.8 percent (409,412) and Blacks 4.4 percent (19,574). Black males hold 2.4 percent and Black females 2.0 percent of these faculty slots (table VI-10).

The 1977 figures for Black faculty suggest that this is a trend which is unchanged significantly. Black faculty increased by 2.3 percent between 1975 and 1977. (EEOC, 1977) The other minority category, however increased by 13.1 percent during the same period (table VI-9). Slightly more than 50 percent of all faculty in higher education are tenured, but only 3 percent (7,045) of tenured faculty are Black. Black faculty are found tenured in the lower ranks (7.7 percent tenured lecturer vs 2.0 percent full professor). Lower percentages of whites are found in lower ranks though whites dominate all levels (table VI-12 and table VI-13).

Black researchers There are many reasons why so little research, either developmental or of a policy nature, is done by Blacks. Most come back to the fact that there is a paucity of the pool of trained Black researchers.

- o Less than 4 percent of the doctorates awarded annually in the country go to Blacks. The doctorate is traditionally a prerequisite to entry into research. When the figures in fields other than education are disaggregated, the numbers of Blacks receiving doctorates becomes miniscule. The pool of researchers is thus non-existent (table VI-14).
- o Research is not an enticing field to many Blacks because of the lack of pre-college quantitative training.
- o Academic-types in the majority population make up a large proportion of the pool of researchers. Black educators/academicians do not have time for such tangential activities when they are confronted with heavy teaching loads, little or no release time for research, limited funding and little support, administrative and otherwise, for such activities.



TABLE VI-9

## ADMINISTRATORS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, BY RACE, BY TYPE OF CONTRACT, 1977

Race	Total		9-10 Month Contract		11-12 Month Contract	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All Administrators	105,690	100.0	4,203	100.0	101,487	100.0
Black	7,458	7.1	225	5.4	7,233	7.1
White	95,413	90.3	3,835	91.2	91,578	90.2
Other	2,819	2.7	143	3.4	2,676	2.6

SOURCE: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's, Higher Education Information Report, as analyzed in National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities' commissioned report, "A Report on the Status of Black Faculty in Higher Education," by Barbara J. Love.

TABLE VI-10

FACULTY IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS BY RACE AND SEX,  
AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL U.S. FACULTY, 1975

Race/Ethnic Group	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percent*	Number	Percent*	Number	Percent*
Total	336,216	75.4	109,818	24.6	446,834	100.0
Black	10,791	2.4	8,783	2.0	19,574	4.4
White	312,281	70.0	97,131	21.8	409,412	91.8

SOURCE: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's, Higher Education Information Report, Table 33 (EEO-6), as analyzed in National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities' commissioned report, "A Report on the Status of Black Faculty in Higher Education," by Barbara J. Love.

\*Note: Numbers and percentages for Blacks and whites do not add to totals because of omission of non-resident aliens:

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TABLE VI-11

RATE OF PARTICIPATION OF FULL-TIME BLACK FACULTY IN HIGHER EDUCATION  
BY TENURE STATUS AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL TENURED FACULTY, 1978

TOTAL TENURED FACULTY - 233,498						
Race	Total Black and White		Male		Female	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	226,205	96.9	185,204	79.3	41,001	17.6
Black	7,045	3.0	4,246	1.8	2,799	1.2
White	219,160	93.9	180,958	77.5	38,202	16.4

SOURCE: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's, Higher Education Information Report, Table 34 (EEO-6), as analyzed in National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities' commissioned report, "A Report on the Status of Black Faculty in Higher Education," by Barbara J. Love.

TABLE VI-12

RATE OF PARTICIPATION OF BLACK AND WHITE FULL-TIME FACULTY  
IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION BY SEX, TENURE AND RANK, 1975

Race Ethnic Group	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Lecturer	Total	
						Number	Percent
Black	2.0	2.1	5.3	5.1	7.7	7,045	3.0
Male	1.6	1.6	2.6	2.4	4.5	4,246	1.8
Female	0.5	0.8	2.7	2.7	3.2	2,799	1.2
White	95.2	94.2	95.2	91.0	87.4	219,160	93.9
Male	86.7	79.1	63.6	62.2	52.3	190,958	77.5
Female	8.5	15.1	28.6	28.8	35.0	38,202	16.4

SOURCE: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's, Higher Education Information Report, Table 34 (EEO-6), as analyzed in National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities' commissioned report, "A Report on the Status of Black Faculty in Higher Education," by Barbara J. Love.

NOTE: Excludes nonresident aliens

TABLE VI-13

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF DOCTORATES AWARDED BY  
RACIAL/ETHNIC GROUP AND U.S. CITIZENSHIP STATUS, 1977 to 1979

Race and Ethnicity	1977		1978		1979	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Total <sup>1/</sup>	31,672	100.0	30,850	100.0	31,200	100.0
Black, U.S. Citizens	1,109	3.5	1,029	3.3	1,050	3.4
White, U.S. Citizens	22,824	72.1	21,601	70.0	21,750	69.7
Nonresident Aliens	3,447	10.9	3,416	11.1	3,574	11.5
Other U.S. Minorities	979	3.1	1,029	3.3	1,047	3.4
Others and Unknown <sup>2/</sup>	2,466	7.8	2,872	9.3	2,839	9.1

SOURCE: Committee Staff analysis <sup>1/</sup> National Research Council, Doctorate Recipients From United States Universities, Summary Reports, 1974-79.

NOTE: Percentages do not add to 100.0 because Totals exceed sum of racial/ethnic groups (see <sup>1/</sup> below).

<sup>1/</sup> Total includes individuals who did not report citizenship.

<sup>2/</sup> Includes foreigners with permanent visas (immigrants).

Committee research suggests that few of those public and private agencies which collect or analyze data on Blacks in higher education (as identified by the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy) have full-time Black researchers on their staffs. Preliminary results from a survey of these agencies suggest the following conclusions:

- o Only two of the fourteen agencies responding indicate having Black full-time staff researchers.
- o Other minority groups, e.g., Asians, and Hispanics are even less represented in these staff positions.
- o White males make up the majority of staffs of these research agencies (followed closely by white females).
- o Only two agencies are dominated by Black research staffs, the Institute for Services to Education and the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, both of which are predominantly Black controlled, and very small in terms of personnel and funding.

### Recommendations

The importance of the human resource system support cannot be over emphasized. The essential variable is "sensitivity". If Black higher education and Black colleges are to survive there must be a cadre of sensitive decision makers, and other "people resources" who are responsible for promoting the interests of Blacks. Black representation among decision makers at the Federal, corporate, foundation and State levels, in the political and academic arenas and in research has improved over the past two decades. Yet, in none of these categories has parity for Blacks come close to being achieved.

There is Black talent available to fill these slots. Blacks make up 12 percent of the population--if parity guidelines are adhered to, they ought to make up at least 12 percent of the Nation's workforce in all categories. To achieve this pool of human resources the following recommendations are appropriate.

### Black decision makers

Federal government 1. The Federal government, in particular the Office of Personnel Management, should establish procedures which (1) allow for timely monitoring of the hiring and promotional practices of individual agencies, and (2) broaden its recruitment areas for Federal service to those areas which traditionally include large numbers of Blacks, i.e., Black colleges, Black service groups, etc. Likewise non-Civil Service (Schedule C) and other political appointments should reflect the racial composition of the society and the concerns of Black America.

2. The PACE (Professional Administrative Career Exam) should be eliminated as the major entry to professional Federal service, as it traditionally eliminates all but a small percentage of Blacks who take it. A more equitable system involving culture free evaluation criteria should be sought and used.

## Foundations/associations/institutes

1. Efforts should be made to encourage affirmative action programs in the private sector -- not only their establishment but also their vigorous pursuit of equal opportunity goals. There should be a monitoring mechanism for scrutinizing the appointment of staff persons to associations in order to insure a larger Black participation. Much can be done through utilization of several key strategies:
  - a. exposing the absence or limited presence of Blacks,
  - b. encouraging networking among Black professionals,
  - c. seeking more post-doctoral and other special training programs for Black professionals, and
  - d. enlarging the numbers of Blacks in graduate and professional programs.
2. The foundations should more effectively use Black interest groups such as those listed in Appendix VI-1 in order to:
  - a. identify Black persons qualified to fill open slots, and
  - b. identify issues to which they should respond which have relevance for Black higher education.

Black Elected Officials. Since, for the most part, improvement of the lot of Blacks in public life is the result of voter preferences, it is difficult to recommend a meaningful course of action. The most obvious course is to encourage certain legally empowered entities into a position of positive action. The obvious ones include:

1. The Federal Elections Commission - The monitoring of election practices of the States and localities should be accelerated to make sure that legal barriers to the exercise of voting rights are not being placed before Blacks.
2. The Commission on Civil Rights should hold public hearings designed to get a clearer picture of the problems faced by Blacks in utilizing the ballot.
3. Civic groups should work vigorously to register more Black voters and instruct them how to use the ballot in their own interests.

## Black Academic Personnel

### Institutional governing boards

1. Academic governing Boards tend to be made up from a limited pool, unduly influenced by the political process and entrenched in the "good old boy" system. Under such a system, few Blacks can expect to be ushered into the system. Groups such as the National Urban League, the Congressional Black Caucus, National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education and other ethnic-oriented and concerned groups are encouraged to develop directories of Blacks who can serve on such boards. Such lists should receive wide dissemination.



2. The vacancies on governing boards, nationally, which are usually unfilled at any one time should be immediately filled by underrepresented groups. Where a past record of discrimination can be documented in appointing board members to public institutions, the Office for Civil Rights should work with the States in rectifying the situation. Private institutions should be encouraged to similarly fill vacant board slots with minority persons.
3. Further research should be done to more adequately delineate the problem with respect to the underrepresentation of Blacks at policy levels.

#### Higher education administrators and faculty

1. The difference in composition of Black and white faculty and administrators in the various levels of higher education in this country must be confronted.
2. College presidents should be encouraged to look at their hiring practices to determine if there are actions which they can take to increase the presence of Black academic personnel.

#### Researchers

1. At the base of the problem of underrepresentation of Blacks in research is the fact that so few Blacks receive the doctorate and thus become "qualified" to do research. Further study should be done on this issue. Several hypotheses should be explored:
  - (a) Are white researchers doing research and statistical analysis required to have the doctorate at the same rate as that required for minorities?
  - (b) Is the doctorate essential to doing research?
  - (c) Are State and Federally supported institutions making the maximum effort to provide opportunities for Blacks to acquire the Ph.D.?
  - (d) Does the Federal government have a responsibility to provide training to Black researchers since the demand for such expertise is so high from this sector?
2. The National Institute of Education, National Institutes of Health, National Academy of sciences, and National Science Foundation should begin a joint undertaking to fill the gap in the Black research workforce through several efforts:
  - (a) A more concerted attempt to find and support Black researchers-in-training.
  - (b) An expanded endeavor to locate and attract proposals from Black researchers in areas of interest to this group.
  - (c) Set asides should be appropriated specifically for the training of Black researchers.
  - (d) Expanded internship programs in these agencies should begin.

General recommendations - The total human resource system.

1. We recommend that the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission consider trends inherent in the involvement of Blacks in all of the human resources areas reported here to determine if there is a relationship between the data and the lack of improvement in the status of Black Americans, and, where appropriate, rigid enforcement of the Civil Rights Act take place.
2. We recommend that the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO) set as a priority the monitoring of the pace of affirmative action in all of the human resource areas. Immediately, NAFEO should take the lead in working with other Black groups to establish a national directory of Black human resources which can be used by groups seeking qualified Black human resources.
3. Because education is so significant to the advancement of Black Americans economically and socially and because the placement of Black leaders in decision making slots is essential to sensitive policy making, we recommend that the Secretary of Education examine the organizational structure of the new Department of Education to determine if there is a commitment to the placement of significant numbers of Blacks in leadership positions.

## Appendix VI-1

### Selected List of Black Concerned Associations and Interest Groups

1. Black Child Development Institute, Inc.  
1463 Rhode Island Avenue, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20005
2. Institute for Higher Educational Opportunity  
Southern Regional Education Board  
130 6th Street, N.W.  
Atlanta, Georgia 30313
3. Institute for the Study of Educational Policy  
Howard University - Dunbarton Campus  
2935 Upton Street, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20008
4. National Action Council for Minorities  
in Engineering  
3 West 35th Street  
New York, New York 10001
5. National Alliance of Black School  
Educators, Inc.  
1430 K Street, N.W. - Room 702  
Washington, D.C. 20005
6. National Association for the Advancement of  
Black Americans in Vocational Education  
State Technical Institute  
5983 Macon Cove  
Memphis, Tennessee 38134
7. National Association of Black Social Workers  
2003 Madison Avenue  
New York, New York 10035
8. National Association for Equal Opportunity  
in Higher Education  
2243 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20007
9. National Black Alliance for Graduate  
Level Education  
c/o The Black Cultural Center  
The University of Akron  
Akron, Ohio 44325
10. The National Council for Black Studies  
Memorial Hall East, M35  
Indiana University  
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Appendix VI-1 Cont.

11. Office for Advancement of Public Negro Colleges -  
National Association of State Universities  
and Land Grant Colleges  
One Dupont Circle, N.W. Suite 710  
Washington, D.C. 20036
12. National Third World Student Coalition  
1220 G Street, S.E.  
Washington, DC 20003
13. United Negro College Fund, Inc.  
500 East 62nd Street  
New York, New York 10021
14. National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students  
1501 Broadway, Suite  
New York, New York 10036
15. National Urban League, Inc.  
500 East 62nd Street  
New York, New York 10021
16. National Association for the Advancement  
of Colored People  
1790 Broadway  
New York, New York 10019
17. Operation PUSH  
930 E. 50th Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60615

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## CHAPTER SEVEN

### DEALING WITH SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND SOCIO-POLITICAL PROBLEMS -- DISSECTING THE SYSTEM

"It was easier to help James Meredith pass the Governor and into the University of Mississippi than it has been to increase the number of Black faculty on the campuses of this country. It has proven easier to increase the number of women attending schools of business than the number of women deans of schools of business."

"...Not only is there a clear slowing of the investment of energy and resources, but the statistics show a slowdown in results as well. One has the sense these days that the public and the higher education community are questioning whether we have done enough, and even whether we have gone too far."

(Frank Newman, "Can There Be Anything Affirmative About Affirmative Action in the 1980's", Current Issues in Higher Education, American Association for Higher Education, Washington, D.C., 1979)

#### Introduction

Entrenched social and political issues implicit in the American political and social system have impacted the advancement of Black higher education. Those issues might be described as the "givens" ---the reality barriers which must be confronted if affirmative progress is to be made. These systemic problems are so much a part of the bureaucratic structure that their impact is not always apparent, but ever present.

This section lays out the parameters basic to the needs of Blacks for education and describes the impact of the several system problems which have the greatest negative implications for Blacks. The conclusions drawn here rely heavily upon Committee analysis and rewrite of a paper commissioned and produced by Faustine Jones (Jones, 1980). The several problems discussed include:

1. Institutionalized racism
2. Lack of full participation by Blacks at legislative, policy making program development levels.
3. The less than adequate economic status of the Black and other minority populations.
4. The declining job market for minority youth.
5. The deteriorating social mood of the country.

6. The poor elementary and secondary preparation of minority youth
7. Neoconservative thought
8. External and internal struggles

Each of these systemic problems represents a barrier to the attainment of equal educational opportunity for Blacks. Solutions to them require a background and understanding of their implications.

### Findings

In 1978, Blacks were 12 percent of the total U.S. population, some 25.4 million people (Social and Economic Status, p. 168). Currently, and for most of America's history, Blacks are, and have been, the largest minority in the Nation. The U.S. Bureau of the Census uses "Black and other races" to denote persons who are not white; this group is about 85 percent Black. Thus, Blacks are still the largest minority group in the Nation.

The Black population is younger than the white population, with the median age of Black males being 23.1 years (compared with 29.5 for whites), and that of Black females is 25.5 years (compared with 32.1 for whites), (Social and Economic Status, 1979, p. 170). In 1978 there were 5,319,000 young Black males and 5,409,000 Black females between the ages of 5-24--the years society sets aside for education as youth's primary business of life--a total of 10,728,000 young Blacks eligible for educational programs. This is 44 percent of the Black male population, and 41 percent of the Black female population--all considered, from birth to the senior citizen category. If we add to this group the Blacks over 25 years of age who still seek training, the questions of higher education of access, retention and graduation loom extremely large.

Fifty-five percent of Blacks live in central cities within metropolitan areas; about 75 percent live in metropolitan areas (Social and Economic Status, p. 171). Thus, the Black population is an urban population, in addition to being relatively young.

In terms of region of residence, 53 percent of the Black population resides in the South, 38 percent in the North, and 9 percent in the West in 1978 (Social and Economic Status, p. 171). Interregional migration patterns from 1975 to 1978 show that more Blacks moved into the South than left (net migration 26,000), halting an outmigration pattern decades old. In fact, in most decades since the Civil War, more Blacks left the South than returned to it. Most outmigration during the same period was from the Northeast section of the U.S. Blacks are continuing to go West, which experienced a net migration of 96,000 from 1975-1978 (Social and Economic Status, p. 171).

Twenty percent of metropolitan-area Blacks lived in the suburbs in 1978, with most of the movement led by higher status Blacks (Jones, p. 5) Whereas higher socio-economic status Blacks appear to have more housing choices available to them since 1970, lower-income Blacks have fewer choices--both in cities and in the suburbs. Thus the Black population finds itself effectively contained--unable to break the vicious cycle which includes poverty, lack of education and neglect. The reasons for this, of course lie in the systemic problems described below.



**Institutionalized racism.** Racism has existed side-by-side with the American Creed almost from the inception of the Nation. Blacks are the only minority group to have been enslaved in America, and they are characterized by the greatest degree of differential visibility from that of the dominant, white population.

Racism is thus an evolutionary and, in many quarters an, "acceptable" form of repression. In order to justify the treatment accorded to Blacks in America racism is made a pervasive, though tragically unspoken part of the American democratic system.

If whites rejected the actions of racism as vehemently as they reject being labeled racists, America would for the first time in its existence treat all of its citizens with appropriate humanity. Instead the Nation has chosen to institutionalize its racism and thus insulate itself from the practice and results of repression.

The national brand of institutionalized racism is noted by the ease with which it is set in motion in response to initiatives by or on behalf of equal opportunity for Black Americans.

In the slave era, Blacks in the South (where most Blacks lived) were forbidden by law from learning to read or write. "Compulsory ignorance" became entrenched for Black children as educational policy. In the North most States followed practices of separatism in schools, including public schools, even though they were not required by law to do so. Ignorance was a primary instrument of enslavement (Weinberg, p. 11) and the meager education provided many Blacks during the Plessy era did little to enhance the overall status of most members of the group.

The 1896 Plessy versus Ferguson Supreme Court decision established the legal basis of institutionalized racism. Separate but equal became the law of the land. It was not until the 1954 Brown v. Topeka decision that Blacks were able to make a frontal assault against the system of forced segregation which had been inflicted upon them as public policy. Their ultimate goal was equality in American society--a goal sought initially through equal educational opportunity. The Brown decision in education changed the basis for both public and private educational policies for Blacks. However, it was not until the passage and enforcement of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that much public school desegregation occurred under the threat of withholding federal funds from segregating school systems.

In 1968 the blue-ribbon Kerner Commission issued its Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders. This group found the fundamental cause of civil disorders to be white racism, that is, white refusal to accept Blacks as human beings -- as social and economic equals. The belief that Blacks were

inferior permitted white individuals and institutions to treat Blacks in ways which ranged from "subhuman", at worst (the perpetuation of slum ghettos, with their totality of human miseries) to "different" at best (the college-educated Black, who was permitted to buy a home in suburbia and have a secure job offering upward mobility). But regardless of the few exceptions, Blacks as a group were always unequal to whites as a group.

The Kerner Commission recommended "affirmation of common possibilities, for all, within a single society."

At the level of higher education today, as a result of civil rights legislation and litigation, the survival of historically Black public colleges has been threatened.

The case, Adams et. al. v. Department of Education, was filed by the NAACP Legal Defense and Education Fund to gain "equal protection under the law" for Blacks. It asked that Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 be enforced by having dual systems of higher education abolished in the ten States which maintained segregated colleges. Adams and the NAACP LDEF "won" the case, but the fate of public Black colleges is not clear as a result. The U.S. Education Department has the responsibility to seek and approve State plans for the desegregation of dual educational systems. But the response of decision-makers and policy-makers at the State level usually is to merge Black colleges with State university systems, or to recommend the phasing out and eventual closing of historically Black public colleges. At minimum, there is no guarantee of what the future holds for these colleges.

Private Black colleges are experiencing severe shortages of funds, and in some cases diminished enrollments as former sources of support begin to dry up. Thus, there is at this moment no guarantee that public or private Black colleges will continue to exist unless some concrete, specific plans are laid for their preservation and enhancement. Participation in the political process in every way, on every level is required if Black public colleges are to be retained.

The racism which permeates the society and its institutions may prove to be the most pervasive element to the detriment of Black aspirations. - Failure to confront it and recognize its existence by Blacks and whites can lead to a retrenchment in commitment to improving the lot of Blacks. The plight of the Black public colleges requires immediate response..

Lack of full participation by Blacks at legislative/policy making/program development levels. Political participation is the means by which citizens share in the decisions which affect their lives. The most direct and telling ways in which such participation occurs are through "voting, seeking and holding elected public office, and influencing the development and implementation of public policies." (Williams, p. 41) Full participation is a fairly new prospect for most Blacks because it was only with the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 and its subsequent enforcement that most Blacks could participate in the political process.

Since the mid-1960's Blacks have voted into public office many persons sympathetic to their plight. By July 1977, 4,311 Blacks were elected office-holders, an 8 percent increase over the 3,979 in 1976. (Social and Economic Status, p. 169) Eighty-three percent of the Blacks registered to vote in the U.S. voted in 1976. (Social and Economic Status, p. 179). However, only 58 percent of them actually exercised the franchise. Thus less than half the Blacks who are eligible to vote actually do register and vote. (Social and Economic Status, p. 179).

The result is that politicians at the local, State, and national levels have diminished respect for "Black power" since they know that Blacks do not register and vote in proportion to their eligible numbers. There is a dilution of possibilities to participate in policy making and program development at all these levels of public policy formation, implementation and execution. Except where deterrents continue to exist, this is an internal problem which Blacks must solve and correct for themselves, and it is imperative that it be done with dispatch. Although there are psychological, political and economic barriers to Black voting, these must be surmounted if Blacks are to become full participants in the policy process.

The more education Blacks have, the greater their voter participation rate. "The fulfillment of Black political aspirations, including the election of more officials, is dependent upon a sophisticated and aggressive electorate." (Williams, pp. 51-52) Employed people vote more than do unemployed people, women more than men. Coalition politics can be successfully executed around common issues, and it is important that Blacks not be regarded as perennially committed to one political party.

A great deal of work needs to be done with Blacks 18-24 years old, and 35-54 years old -- the former group because of their size and their lower participation rates, and the latter because they constitute about 1/3 of all Black eligible voters, and, they are inclined to participate. The Rev. Jesse Jackson aimed his voter-registration/participation efforts at high school graduates, urging them to secure the voter registration card simultaneously with the high school diploma.

It is in the best interest of a democratic society that there be full participation in the electoral process, and since this is enhanced with an educated citizenry, it behoves the Nation to improve the educational level of all of its citizens.

Elected officials must be monitored, however, after they take office. Through their organizations, Blacks must seek to be named to jobs which are related to policy. Policy is the name of the game today, and will become more so in the future. The Black population must exert far more effort to solve its internal problems with registration and voting, as well as its continuing external problems with public institutions headed by people who exhibit negative behaviors and attitudes toward realistic solutions for ongoing Black problems.

Socio-economic status. Status represents one's rank in relation to others; it conveys also notions of prestige with relation to others. Implicit also in the notion of "socio-economic status" is how much one has, and what one can do with it. Hence, socio-economic status is not just a prestige ranking of Blacks in

relation to whites or to other minorities, but it bears a direct relationship to the cost of living. What does one have, and what can one do with it in terms of life's goals and objectives--securing and maintaining comfortable housing, nutritious food, clothing for all seasons, insurance, transportation, health and medical care -- and educating one's offspring to the level where they may be self-supporting all their lives? The latter concern is no small feat nowadays--with costs computed at \$60,000-\$111,000 for rearing each child to adulthood. Robert B. Hill of the National Urban League has done research with respect to the socio-economic status of Black families. In The State of Black America 1979, Hill points out that "24 percent of Black families had incomes above the \$17,106 budget level for 1977 that the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) established as an "intermediate" standard of living for American families. (Hill, p. 31) Further, "in 1977, only nine percent of all Black families had incomes above the BLS budget level of \$25,202 for families at a higher standard of living".

But to get at the "status" element, one must ask--"compared to what?" It is clear that compared to the cost of living, 67 percent of Black families have low socio-economic status because they cannot meet moderate costs. Most of these people are not welfare cases; they are the working poor. Moreover, in most of these families two or more persons are employed, so it takes multiple earners to make less than the necessary amount to live "intermediately". There is, of course, no way these families can plan to pay out of their pockets for their children's higher education. They are unable to provide all the basics--housing, food, medical care, clothing, insurance, transportation, etc.--despite their best efforts.

The picture is bleak with respect to upper-income Black families. There had been 12 percent upper-income Black families in 1972, but that proportion was down to 9 percent in 1977; 9 percent had been the 1967 level for upper-income Blacks. So there was retrogression with respect to the within-group comparison at the upper level. A comparison with whites shows that upper-income whites rose from 23 to 24 percent--between 1976 and 1977. Thus the distance is greater at this top level between Blacks and whites.

Low-income families suffered significantly as well. Of all Black families 28 percent are poor, and this proportion is growing. These are families with incomes in 1978 below the official poverty line of \$7,410 for a family of four. The proportion of poor white families declined from 8 percent to 7 percent from 1976 to 1977. Since the 1975 recession the number of poor Black families increased by 20,000. (Hill, pp. 32-34).

What the data show is that Black families have not progressed in social and economic status since 1974; also the figures reveal that the 1978 median income of Black four person families is more than \$8,000 below what the Bureau of Labor Statistics says it takes for a family of four to live at an "intermediate" level. Moreover, Black median income as a percent of white median income is declining. Why? We will return to this question when we look at discrimination in the job market.



The socio-economic picture is not however entirely bleak. The U.S. Bureau of the Census reports that Black husband-wife families had a 4 percent increase in real median income--from \$13,150 in 1974 to \$13,720 in 1977. (Hill, p. 32-34) Young Black husband-wife families with the husband under 35 years of age, with both earners employed all year round, achieved incomes equal to those of their white counterparts in the North and West. The comparable group of young Black families in the South made some progress in closing the Black-white income gap.

The Black families most in trouble socio-economically below the poverty level are those headed by a female alone. The percentage of such families increased from 67 percent to 74 percent from 1974 to 1978. In 1978, 54 percent of these families were in poverty. Obviously, there is no way that they can provide physical or cultural advantages to their offspring. Thus, the 2,948,000 children so situated will continue to be disadvantaged unless meaningful governmental intervention is provided in the form of jobs for their mothers -- jobs which pay a living wage. (Census Characteristics of Population Below the Poverty Level, pp. 35 & 37). It would help a great deal, also, if teenage family members were able to get summer jobs, and/or part-time jobs after school to supplement the mother's income.

The society is currently failing many Black people on both counts -- jobs and education. Thus, the systemic problem with respect to socio-economic status is failure to provide jobs and education. The Humphrey-Hawkins Bill was designed to help the Nation work toward full employment, which would certainly help many Black families, as well as white ones. But the watered-down version which eventually passed is a poor substitute for what is really needed, and is in one respect dangerous. Congress can claim credit for the passage of the Bill, which Blacks and their allies wanted, but that credit is very deceptive since it disguises an ineffective tool. The Humphrey-Hawkins Bill follows some of the ineffective legislation of the 1960's Great Society programs -- too little, too late -- but just enough to give Congressmen something to brag about.

The job market. Herman P. Miller in Rich Man, Poor Man made it clear that the unemployment rate of Blacks is about twice that of whites, regardless of the age or sex of the group being compared or the general economic climate at the time of the comparison. The 2:1 ratio is generally stable for adults, male and female. But among teenagers there is a growing disparity, with the rates escalating for Blacks ever since the Recession of 1957-58 (Miller, pp. 53, 75-86).

In assessing the critical state of youth unemployment, Vernon Jordan reports that National Urban League affiliates were asked to name and assess special efforts made by the private sector to improve minority youth employment. About one-third of the affiliates said the private sector had made some special effort to solve youth unemployment problems but 67 percent reported no effort at all on the part of the private sector. Even with the efforts made, most of them were for summer jobs which had no real impact on continuing employment needs of people in their communities. (Jordan, p. VII)/

Private industries move and relocate as they see fit. This is the nature of the free enterprise system. However, the effect of this movement has been to take jobs out of cities where Blacks live, leaving behind no work to be done. Thus it is that the government is asked to assume the role of the employer of last resort to create and fund jobs so young citizens have work and may contribute to their upkeep, and learn responsibility.

Public sector efforts have helped Black youth with jobs, primarily through CETA and other federally funded programs. Criticisms of these programs run to their seasonal nature, the fact that they may be temporary, that they are not effective because they don't give meaningful work experience, and/or they are mired in bureaucratic problems. These complaints and those concerning the private sector, are structural complaints -- systemic problems which affect the life chances of Blacks. Many of these young Blacks so affected will not aspire to higher education. Their life chances have been hampered by structural defects over which they have no control.

Job discrimination continues. Even when employment opportunities exist, Blacks often are the last hired and the first fired when sales are slow, or profits are down. Blacks still dominate low-level jobs. The U.S. Bureau of the Census reports that in 1977, "Blacks continued to lag behind whites in the proportion holding high-paying, high-status jobs." Almost three-fifths, 58 percent of the Black men, were in blue-collar jobs and 37 percent held jobs as service workers. (Social and Economic Status, p. 188) Corrective measures should be taken about job availability, job discrimination, and the ability to move up the career ladder. The number of complaints lodged with the Federal Equal Employment Opportunity Commission tells us a great deal about continuing discrimination in the job market. Discrimination based on the differential visibility of race and sex is ingrained in this country, and continuing Federal efforts in creating jobs and enforcement of equal opportunity laws are critical if Blacks are to be able to make progress in this, their native land.

The mood of the country. Since 1969 the national climate has been characterized by what some writers have called "the new negativism," and others have called a resurgence of conservatism. This is a rightward turn politically, with a primary feature being an eroding commitment to Blacks, other minorities, and the poor. This conservatism has a negative effect on groups which have less than parity with the majority group -- individuals who still seek to gain the American Creed's promises of equality and justice.

In the general public we have seen the alleged white "backlash" in response to efforts of Blacks to gain access to educational and job opportunities. There is a resurgence of the Ku Klux Klan, as exemplified by a Klansman pursuing and winning the Democratic nomination to Congress in California. The Navy is investigating two ships of its Atlantic fleet where it is alleged that Klan activities took place (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, p. 1). Voting patterns such as that in California's Proposition 13 ask for a cutback in social service programs. Public opinion polls show that concerns about the condition of Blacks are far down on the list of priorities expressed by most whites who feel that enough has been done for Blacks.

This conservatism is visible in all three branches of the Federal government and in State governments. Most troubling is the Federal-level conservatism since it is that level of government which is charged with protecting the rights of individuals under our democratic system. The American Conservative Union (ACU) recently noted that "analysis of voting records in the House and Senate shows Congress is growing more conservative." (Associated Press, p. A-11) The ACU analyzed votes on 20 separate issues by all members of the Senate and House during the first six months of 1979. These 20 issues included gasoline rationing, food stamps, ending court-ordered busing for desegregation, automatic

cuts in federal income taxes, removing economic sanctions against Zimbabwe, and a declaration that an attack on Taiwan would be a threat to U.S. security. Nearly half of the House of Representatives (46 percent) voted in support of ACU propositions in the 96th Congress, compared with 44.9 percent of the 95th Congress. The organization says the conservative trend is attributable in part to the 96 Senators and Representatives who were first elected to the Congress in 1978.

The Court system has been a primary means by which underprivileged persons have sought justice and equality. But the Supreme Court has moved right under current leadership. For example, it is more difficult to establish "standing". In order to appear before the Court, segregative intent must be proven in order to qualify for remedial action in school desegregation cases. However, the Burger court has not been as conservative as many conservatives hoped it would be. For example, in the 1978 Bakke decision the Court upheld the policy of affirmative action even though it overturned the use of exact numbers in attaining goals of placing women and minorities in professional schools in numbers larger than had been possible earlier. Future directions of the Supreme Court are unclear with respect to minorities.

The role of the President is clear. The President is the key figure in engineering the Federal government's involvement in social reform. "No one else is likely to be able to fashion the required public consensus on goals and to get and maintain the required Congressional support -- especially on those occasions when the situation calls for major reforms on several fronts". (Ginzburg, pp. 212-213). The Nation saw a moderate amount of progress in social reform under Presidents Kennedy and Johnson. It saw retrogression under Presidents Nixon and Ford. Nixon in fact was elected partially because of his campaign promises which gave grounds for expectation of slowing or stopping social programs benefitting the poor and the underprivileged. President Carter exhibited support of Black colleges by issuing an Executive Order asking that heads of departments and agencies assist the historically Black colleges in every way possible within the parameters of the law. In March of 1978 President Carter announced his intention to implement a National Urban Policy to revitalize urban centers and conserve America's communities. Such a policy, properly formulated and implemented, could be of great value to Blacks and other underprivileged persons (Douglas, pp. 105-123). It marked the first time any American President admitted publicly that many federal policies and programs have had a negative impact on the economic and social status of America's cities.

The mood of the Nation under Reagan is needless to say dreary for Blacks and confident for conservatives who predict an even further rightward trend in politics and the dismantling of liberal programs which have benefited Blacks and the poor.

The sum and substance of the changing mood is that while Blacks regard the decade of the 1970's as "the changing mood (from the Sixties)" -- and view this decade as a period of retrenchment, inaction, and retrogression -- it was more likely that it was the decade of the Sixties that represented the changing mood. The present decade is in many ways a return to business-as-usual.

The neoconservatives. Since 1979 there has been a stream of thought assuming major proportions in America. It is the sophisticated interaction of conservatism and racism as evidenced in the public statements of neoconservative



intellectuals who advocate retrenchment in social commitment, including an end to affirmative action policies and programs. The danger is in their public and political influence; they are in fact "the philosophical ideologues of the second post-reconstruction period".\* They provide the rationalizations essential to the maintenance of institutional and individual inequality. Neoconservative philosophy has the potential for affecting a serious setback, the goals of equality and justice for people who continue to be plagued by discriminatory policies, practices, and attitudes from the past.

These prominent intellectuals are uppermost in the educational elite. They exercise direct control in the relevant system in which they rank so highly, and directly influence public policies and programs by their participation in government service. Thus they seek to direct and regulate access to education and employment, exercising control--based on their own self-interests and that of new entrants they have selected. Yet they are astute at disguising their true intentions, camouflaging their deepest fears and motivations with "socially approved" arguments. They are powerful, influential, intellectuals who must be reckoned with if Blacks are to make progress in America via public policies established and enforced at the Federal level.

Elementary, secondary and postsecondary education. Systemic problems in education for Blacks can be traced to the beginning of this country; they are interrelated intimately with economic, social and political circumstances.

It is clear that the educational future of Blacks turned on the creation of public schools. By 1870 every southern State had created a public school system, and by 1880 one-third of all Black children in the U.S. were in public schools. (Bullock, pp. 22-29). In general, however, there was much inequality in public revenues spent on the schooling of Blacks as compared with whites in the Southern and in the border States.

By the 1890's relationships between Blacks and whites were shifting and rapidly deteriorating due to economic changes and political/legal compromises. A new system of discrimination began to emerge in the South with the institution of Black codes, grandfather clauses, the sharecropper system, requirement that voters pass literacy tests in order to vote, etc. Inequalities of all kinds -- funding, length of school term, facilities, supplies and materials, teachers' salaries--were codified into formal, accepted educational policy under the Plessy v. Ferguson decision of 1896. Inequality, segregation, discrimination became the watchwords of public policy in the South where most Blacks lived from 1896-1954.

\*Professor Arthur Miller of George Washington University, Washington, D.C. coined this phrase.

In 1978, about 1 out of 10 Black men and women 25 to 34 years old had completed 4 or more years of college as compared with 1 out of 4 white men and women in this age group.... (Social and Economic Status of Black population, p. 168)

What we see at the graduate level is that Bakke (1978) upheld the public policy of affirmative action while overturning the use of exact numbers in attaining goals of placing minorities and women in professional schools in larger numbers than had been possible. Although the decision was not nearly as strong as Blacks needed in order to support attitudinal compliance on the part of decision-makers affirmative action in admissions was not declared unconstitutional.

Moreover, financial assistance is harder than ever to obtain in order to pursue graduate and professional education. Few Black families can afford to support their offspring through four years of college on their own resources entirely, to say nothing of seeing them through advanced education. So, if predominantly white institutions find little or no financial assistance for Black students, and stick to or raise standardized test scores required for admission, the number of Blacks in medical schools, law schools and advanced graduate programs will surely drop. Thus, for a continuing period of time race must be taken into account as a primary, influential factor. It is patently clear that race has been taken into account throughout American history, but as a negative factor. Now and for the immediate future it must be taken into account as a positive factor.

Undergraduate education presents its special problems. Financial grants are increasingly difficult to obtain at this level, although loans exist. This means coming out of college in debt, something disadvantaged young Blacks do not need.

Liberalized admissions policies are being tightened. "Open admissions" programs, inaugurated in the 1960's, are being phased out -- for whatever the reason (as with financial exigency in the case of the City College system in New York). Of young Blacks admitted to predominantly white four-year institutions, many more enter than graduate. Many Blacks graduating from junior colleges or community colleges (two-year institutions) are not getting into four-year colleges. It is predictable that fewer young Blacks will be admitted to predominantly white institutions in the future (if present trends on standardized test scores, admissions policies, financial aid policies continue), and of those admitted fewer than half will be able to graduate with Bachelors degrees.

But one would normally ask -- what about the historically Black colleges? For generations Black colleges served Black people and their communities. In the early 1970's, most Black college students studied at these schools. As recently as 1972 the majority of Blacks teaching on college campuses taught in Black colleges (ISEP Chapter 3), but today, as a result of civil rights legislation and litigation, the survival of historically Black colleges has been threatened. The danger to Black public colleges is real.

The external struggle and the internal struggle: What must be done? What do Blacks face in the struggle for equality at this time? What do they face in terms of ensuring Black access to higher education? There is an external struggle and there is an internal struggle which must be waged simultaneously in American society today. Externally there is a general societal malaise, voiced by President Carter and others, which must be overcome. At minimum Blacks face that

malaise coupled with indifference to Black problems. There is the feeling that the complaints of Blacks are not real, and that the problems have been solved for all Blacks who have something to offer -- the 1960's made it all passé -- and continuing complaints are a bore. Indifference is harder to combat than aggressive anti-Blackness because it is slippery -- hard to prove discrimination.

Above the minimum level, Blacks face continuing conflict and tension in the general society unless full employment is achieved, and differing values and perceptions are made clear, faced and policies enforced based on a positive commitment to move the Nation ahead.

Internally for Blacks some serious problems exist with respect to the next generation of Black youth. There are too many young Blacks who have failed to achieve commonly accepted standards in reading, writing, arithmetic, and skills of analysis. There are too many youngsters addicted to drugs, and an increase in pregnancies of young girls 10 to 15 years old. Too many Black students are failing competency tests ("literacy" tests) which have been adopted by 37 States. Despite a recent court ruling in Florida, many youth will end up with certificates of attendance -- not high school diplomas -- in the near future, unless something is done about elementary and secondary education.

Numbers of young Blacks cannot pass the entry tests to get into the Armed Forces, which has been the "employer of last resort" in this society. The Supreme Court has upheld South Carolina's use of the National Teachers Examination as an employment sorting and selecting device, including the assignment of teachers' salaries based on test scores. Clearly the society's policies indicate an intent to continue using tests. Neither Black youth nor adults are passing tests at rates as high as white and Asian populations. Therefore, Blacks will continue to experience difficulty in higher education and employment (unless improvements are made in their performance or tests become free of bias so that accurate interpretation of potential is possible).

This complicated, sophisticated, technological society does not need the labor of the unskilled as it did in the past, and cannot use it in the form which it is emerging from so many public schools today. There is blame enough to be shared by all -- teachers, parents, students, the media, desegregation processes, and the society. All may take credit for current educational shortcomings as manifested in the performance, or lack thereof, of many young Blacks.

Thus, the internal struggle by Blacks for Blacks must be waged simultaneously with the external struggle. While it is true that it is difficult to motivate many people to study and achieve academically when neither short-term nor long-term rewards are clear or guaranteed, a way must be found to do so. Clearly the immediate survival of 67 percent of the Black population is at stake -- these are the people who are below the "intermediate" standard of living.

#### Summary and Conclusions:

It should be clear that continuing public and private policies and programs, as well as monitoring and enforcement of laws, are essential in order to positively change the lives of the disadvantaged, many of whom are Black. Because of the multiplicity of factors affecting them (many of which are beyond their control), only widespread National efforts will ameliorate their condition.



The irony of the situation, though, was that many excellent Black minds were channeled into teaching. The intent of segregation was to keep Blacks in a social position of inferiority, a caste-like status. But by the 1920's a number of excellent all-Black high schools had developed despite the system of segregation and inequality, and they continued to operate effectively until the mid-1950's. (Epps, p. 4)

The 1954 Brown v. Topeka decision in education changed the basis for both public and educational policies for Blacks. The concept of "separate-but-equal" was overturned. But the struggle for equality--educational, and social--was just beginning. In fact, it was not until the passage and enforcement of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that much public school desegregation occurred, under the threat of withholding federal funds from segregating school systems.

Nevertheless, Black parents have continued to send their children to public schools (and private schools), working to improve the quality of those schools through any means possible. There are elected school board members in many cities and counties who are making an effort to change policy decisions. Blacks have never given up on public schools or the concept of schooling as a primary means of self-development, occupational opportunity, citizenship preparation, self-actualization, and upward mobility.

But Northern-style de facto segregation continues, and has become a nationwide phenomenon. It is enhanced now by the Dayton decision (1977) which has decreed that plaintiffs must prove segregative intent (not effect) in order to gain relief and justice.

Influential people in the educational establishment continue to raise the age-old question: "Can Blacks learn?". Blacks have, for example, suffered through the 1966 Coleman Report, its reassessments by Jencks, Moynihan, Mosteller, and others, and Coleman's more recent "revisionist" statements, recanting his original beliefs.

Public schools are under attack from friends and enemies alike, and the idea of the public school is again being tested. Many proposals for "alternative" schools are really proposals to circumvent public schools.

There are other crosscurrents as well. The Supreme Court in 1979 upheld busing as constitutional in Columbus and Dayton Ohio, despite great pressure by conservatives to eliminate it as a tool for desegregation. Competency tests have been suspended in Florida for a period of four years until students who entered high school under the segregated system (with all its inadequacies) can be graduated.

At the level of higher education, Blacks continue to face difficulties, despite increased enrollment figures. The Census Bureau says, in summary form:

Black adults have been making educational gains, but still lag behind their white counterparts. For example, in 1977, about 21 percent of Black men and women 18 to 24 years old were enrolled in colleges as compared with approximately 27 percent for white young adults....

Historically in our country race has been a factor in selecting individuals for higher education and employment from the pool of qualified persons, but in a negative sense. This kind of negative discrimination is clearly wrong, morally and legally. Experience has shown that racial prejudice is pervasive, subtle, and ongoing, especially in times of tight economic competition for scarce places. Since history has shown the many decision makers to be untrustworthy with respect to race, the achievement of justice and equality requires that race be considered positively for a period of time. This will partially compensate and repay Blacks for the subtle, pervasive repression under which they have suffered and for the unacknowledged contributions they have made over time.

Society has built discrimination into public and educational policy, and appears determined to perpetuate it. What is most needed now is a new national will to solve continuing problems whose origins were in systemic, discriminatory policies and practices. Organizations, individuals, and groups must find new ways to break ongoing bonds of what is customary and conventional. The struggle for equality and justice has already moved into a new stage where it is not clear that disadvantaged individuals or groups will attain parity in the 20th century. New coalitions of concerned persons are needed. Political efforts must be made continuously to effect economic and educational gains. Time is running out for substantive gains in equality and justice for Blacks, unless solutions are effected quickly.

At the base of our concern for a socio-political, socio-economic system support is a recognition that failure to confront the problematic components of the system can but diminish the chances for survival of Black higher education and Black colleges. The issues outlined above suggest the wide range of problems and the potential impact of a system allowed to run rampant over the basic concerns of Blacks generally, but more specifically in higher education. The danger of this possibility lies not so much in the fact that such issues impact disproportionately on Blacks but that their political nature has implications for influencing the basic policy making of those agents which impact most significantly on Black higher education and Black colleges. It is this potential impact which must be of concern in an attempt to thwart the damaging nature of this possibility.

Federal government policy is too often affected by the whims of an unstable and disillusioned electorate. Issues which are significant can change in their emphasis over night. The result can be the diminishing and the dissolution of major programs which impact significant populations. Such populations can be so dealt with because they tend not to have the resources or the expertise to garner appropriate representation of their concerns with the Federal bureaucracy. Thus, unemployment is allowed to be governed by the necessity of an acceptable statistical level; affirmative action programs are allowed to die; and, unfair testing programs are forced upon those least able to deal with their deleterious impact. The situation is one of continued blame of the victims for their circumstances.

### Recommendations

Issues affecting Black higher education need to be monitored and alternative modus operandi affected. Wilbur J. Cohen, former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare suggests that there are so many issues which must be dealt with that the politician, especially the President, cannot possibly be expected to exert

the kind of effort necessary to make sure that all groups are represented equitably in the policy making process. He suggests that an appropriate way to correct this situation is establishment of a Council of Social Advisers to parallel the Council of Economic Advisers who would advise the President on social issues. This idea has a great deal of merit. The winds of change affecting Black higher education are basically blown by social and political currents. By establishing such a group, a means could be provided to monitor current social, political and economic issues and the actions of those who make the laws to assure that there is an appropriate mix between need and action. Providing as a prescribed component of such a Council the inclusion of an interest group sensitive to and responsible for the monitoring of issues of concern to Blacks generally and to Black higher education more specifically, could go far in preventing the social retrenchment which the 1970's ushered in.

1. We therefore recommend that the Secretary of Education urge the President to establish a Council of Social Advisers to monitor and advise him on social issues. As a part of this group there should be a standing sub-council with responsibility for monitoring the impact of social issues on the Black population.

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## CHAPTER EIGHT

### HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING

"Planning is not a process of speculating on probable events; rather, it is an attempt through foresight to generate action necessary to realize desired results. Fundamentally, planning is a process of deciding upon a course of action in order to make something happen which without planning might not happen. In more technical terms, planning determines the objectives of administrative effort and devises the means to achieve them. (Raymond E. Ketchell, "A Summary of Current Planning Concepts" (Unpublished paper), Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget, 1963, related in D. Kent Halstead, in Statewide Planning in Higher Education, USDHEW: GPO, Washington, D.C., 1974, p. 2).

#### Introduction

Recognition of the need for institutionally governed, State coordinated systems of higher education began in the 1940's, less than 40 years ago. First efforts were not widespread or at a level of sophistication which would show a relationship to such planning as it is conceived today in the post Adams litigation era. The real age of more centralized planning did not occur until the late 1950's, when higher education was experiencing the greatest demands from increasing enrollments and rising cost of education. The problems were of concern to those responsible for administering higher education. The difficulty of finding solutions was recognized in the fact that individual institutions which previously had been able to plan in isolation could no longer do so. Recognition of this only complicated the matter in that it pointed out the lack of unity of purpose which was found in most States in meeting the educational needs of the people of the States.

The impetus for the 180 degree turn with respect to acceptance of Statewide planning is a case in adaptation to the changing social, political and economic climate which higher education has operated under during the past 25 to 30 years. The '40's and '50's saw a period of stable to rapid growth in higher education, that was and is unparalleled and, some would say, will never be duplicated.

The result was a sellers market in which higher education institutions could be selective and could isolate themselves from the actions of other institutions, even those in extreme proximity. Students were stepping on each other fighting for limited seats in postsecondary education. Money was plentiful and public respect for higher education was at an all time high. There was no significant pressure to deal with the education of those groups considered to be nontraditional to higher education setting. Thus, individual institutions found themselves in the rather likely position of having the "only game in town".

The close of the sixties and early seventies saw all of these circumstances change. Suddenly there was a prediction of decline in numbers of eighteen year olds; seats were going unfilled in colleges; money began to dry up as more fiscally conservative legislators looked closely at perceived societal benefits

of education; the public lost respect in education as an institution; and, perhaps, most significantly, the pressure became acute to deal with and equitably respond to the higher education of Blacks and other minorities. Institutions found themselves in the position of having to look at the impact of their efforts in relationship to other institutions, not only just next door but all the way down to the furthest corner of the State.

The impetus to attack the problems of minorities has resulted almost totally from the initiative of Federal and State authorities in forcing attention to the important issues. Chief among such efforts are activities of the 402 Commissions and enforcement of the Civil Rights Act. Both responses have led to a higher level of planning in those States impacted than in any other States.

If further efforts are to be undertaken to improve the lot of Blacks, then it is essential that higher education planning be a part of the strategy used. The remainder of this section looks at higher education planning as a tool for change. It relies heavily upon the research done for the Advisory Committee by Leonard Haynes (Haynes, 1979).

### Findings

In 1972 only two States did not have coordinating agency responsible for some form of Statewide higher education planning (See table VIII-I for a revealing history of the advance of the coordinating agency movement). In 1932, 33 States had no State higher education agency responsible for planning.

In 1972 twenty-one States had consolidated governing boards and twenty-six had coordinating boards created by statute with regulatory powers in certain areas but not governing responsibility.

Today, practically every system and kind of higher education institution engages in some form of comprehensive planning that is affected by the coordination of a centralized State body. As a result, we find the three tiered system of higher education, generally identified as comprising (1) the major research universities, (2) comprehensive four-year colleges, and (3) the two-year college system. Each segment interacts with others through some centralized body for purposes of planning and coordination. The complex nature of society, coupled with the desire of the States and the Federal government to insure that the citizenry is educated and skilled, has made comprehensive educational planning in higher education an important underpinning of public policy.

Presently, one notes the following key levels as having significant impact on the planning process in higher education:

- (1) State authorities (e.g., coordinating bodies)
- (2) Federal government
- (3) Regional coordinators (e.g., Southern Regional Education Board)
- (4) Accreditation bodies

Each level responds to the demands advanced by the consumers of higher education. In order to get some picture of how State planning impacts upon the higher education of Blacks, the Committee commissioned the conducting of four case

studies in States which historically and as a current phenomena have shown a predisposition toward planning in this area. New York and California were included because of their large Black populations and because they have often led the Nation in prescribing and implementing innovative approaches to higher education.

Georgia and Maryland both contain historically Black colleges and are presently under court order in the Adams litigation. The planning which has gone on in both groups of States, taken as a whole, tends to be representative of all State higher education efforts designed to improve the higher education of Blacks and other minorities.

Three questions are pertinent to our charge of attempting to lay out an ideal process for State planning. They serve as the basis for organizing our discussion.

1. How is higher education planning performed?
2. Who is responsible for higher education planning? What is the involvement of Blacks?
3. What efforts are underway aimed specifically at improving the higher education of Blacks?

How is higher education planning performed? The States of New York and Georgia use the Board of Regents' structure for planning in higher education. Maryland calls its planning authority the State Board for Higher Education. Except for designation, all three States give similar though not inclusive responsibilities to these structures. They all have responsibility for planning and coordination, including budget review and program approval for all public institutions. Though there is a significant amount of overlap between the responsibility of State education coordinating bodies, it is not a safe assumption that they can be compared on every level. The Maryland State Board, however, has been offered as an example of the kind of organizational structure which is able to respond to the changing educational and political environment of the State. Maryland State Board activities include the following:

- o Coordinate the overall growth and development of postsecondary education.
- o Administer State funds for private higher education.
- o Develop, implement, and administer plans and programs for interstate and regional cooperation.
- o Approve new programs.
- o Review institutional operating budgets and establish guidelines for tuition and institutional salaries.
- o Accreditation of postsecondary education institutions.
- o Review annually the long and short-range goals and objectives of each institution.



The Board of Regents of New York is perhaps the strongest coordinating authority in the country, having responsibility for regulating and planning all educational activities in the State. The Regents in both New York and Georgia are assisted by Advisory Councils with responsibility for making recommendations about policy for education.

California's planning is conducted by the Post Secondary Education Commission. It does Statewide planning and coordinates all postsecondary education in the State. However, as an advisory body it has no power to supercede the planning of the three tiered public structure, though these structures do have to submit their plans to the Commission for review.

All four States produce master plans which lay out the parameters of the State's policy toward higher education for a specified period of time. These plans, though they are designed to prescribe a realistic approach to meeting the needs of the State's residents for higher education, are influenced by the issues facing the society at large and those which have the heaviest public hearing. California's master plans over the past two cycles show clearly this evolution. Its plan for 1960-1975, developed in the late 1950's, focused primarily on the development of academic programs and educational facilities for the three classes of institutions in the State: (1) public institutions, (2) independent colleges and universities, and (3) private vocational schools. At a time when the numbers of available students was still on the rise it seems appropriate that this was the dominant policy issue.

The most recent master plan for California, however, takes cognizance of the tremendous changes that have taken place in the State. Two issues had significant impact: (1) the tremendous influx of minorities (Blacks, Spanish-speaking, Asians) over the past decade, and (2) the rise of the two-year colleges. The latter has especially been a planning priority because of the attractiveness of these institutions to minorities.

The State of New York likewise exemplifies the influence of timely issues on its master planning. Its first Statewide master plan in 1964 focused on the issues raised by the growth of higher education in the State. The plan addressed the need for more graduate instruction and research, better facilities, and interinstitutional cooperation. It did not focus on making commitments that would improve the status of Blacks in higher education. Interest from chief policy planners did not emerge on this issue until after Cornell was seized in 1968 and the City University of New York's Harlem Campus was taken over in 1969 by student dissidents. The result of these events, especially the latter, led to the implementation of an open admissions policy at CUNY, replacing the established practice of rigid selectivity.

New York's 1972 Statewide Master Plan shows the clearest impact of social issues. The plan espoused a policy on access which was one of the strongest for affirmative action in the Nation. It stated:

**"The Regents believe that colleges and universities should encourage applications for admission from minority groups, and take affirmative action to admit such students, and should take affirmative action to recruit faculty members and professional staff from members of minority groups." (Minority Access to and Participation in Post-Secondary Education.**

Similar philosophical and ideological adjustments can be identified in the planning process of the States of Georgia and Maryland.

It seems apparent that the first concern of lobbyists for Black higher education in the States should be toward developing a significant vocal constituency which places the issues within the preview of State planners.

Who is responsible for higher education planning? Perhaps the second concern of such lobbyists should be to identify and get placed on the boards of State planning authorities some influential, highly visible and sensitive Black educators and other groups interested in the promotion of the concerns of Black higher education. As of September 1979, in the four States surveyed by the Committee there were eight (8) Black members out of the combined total of 64 on the coordinating bodies. Blacks thus make up 12.5 percent of the four State Boards.

The influence which Blacks have had on boards of higher education is exemplified by the continuing efforts of distinguished Black educators. Kenneth Clark in New York is credited with much of the concern for Black higher education in the State. Similar efforts are accredited to key Blacks in Maryland, Georgia and California. Without their efforts it is unlikely that Black higher education would maintain its place on the agenda of the States.

The success of efforts on behalf of Black higher education in the States cannot however be attributed totally and solely to the influence of Blacks. Majority control of such boards, especially in New York and California, has resulted in some of the most liberal and sensitive responses to the needs of Blacks. Those States which have attacked the problems of minorities have done so seemingly out of a recognition of the rightness of their actions and despite the overt influence of pressure groups, although these groups certainly had an influence on the formulation of policy.

What efforts are underway to improve higher education of Black Americans? All four States studied by the Committee have extensive assistance programs which contribute significantly to the ability of Blacks and other disadvantaged minorities to enter the higher education system. The States of New York and California have concentrated their efforts on providing auxiliary financial aid programs as an enticement to poor, underprepared and financially strained students. Thus, New York's Search for Education and Knowledge (SEEK), Education Opportunities (EOP), Higher Education Opportunities for Independent Institutions (HEOIIIP), Higher Education Services Corporation (HESC), Tuition Student Assistance (TSAP), and State University Supplemental Tuition Assistance Awards (SUSTAA) programs all seek to increase the numbers of Blacks in higher education by removing the financial barriers to access. The State has committed enormous amounts of its own money to supporting these students, and, supplemented by the Federal financial assistance programs from the U.S. Education Department has one of the most comprehensive financial assistance structures in the Nation. Black students benefit greatly from this aid, receiving between 40 and 60 percent of the aid available. The State's open admission policy and the location of major institutions in major urban settings, offer tremendous opportunities to Black students. Yet, State planners feel that Blacks are not taking advantage of these opportunities to the extent that they should.



California's major programs of assistance (Educational Opportunities Program and "Cal" Grants) provide aid to major numbers of disadvantaged students, with specified programs for students who pursue all levels of postsecondary education. Its Student Affirmative Action Program combines financial aid, counseling, academic support and outreach into an affirmative effort to increase the numbers of minorities in the higher education system. Such efforts seem to be most successful in increasing the opportunities for minorities in the two-year and junior college sectors.

Both the States of New York and California combine State efforts with Federal financial aid programs to provide a viable aid package for economically disadvantaged students. This coordinated approach, exemplified by a commitment to affirmative action and the use of State resources, seems a most appropriate mechanism for accomplishing the task of increasing minority participation in higher education. The States of Maryland and Georgia also provide significant amounts of aid to students, though efforts to increase the pool of Blacks in higher education do not seem to be as successful as those in New York and California. New York and California have seemingly accepted the necessity of affirmative action efforts, whereas there is an antagonistic flavor in Maryland and Georgia, probably resulting from the pressures from the U.S. Office for Civil Rights (OCR). The result is that Maryland and Georgia have not gotten much beyond the planning phase required by OCR. Until such time as the State plans are accepted, it is not likely that programs on the level with New York and California will impact on the two States. The greatest efforts of Georgia and Maryland are in the area of planning for dissolution of their dual higher education systems. Except for the major Federal financial aid programs, few significant State run programs on a par with New York and California are in place. The situation seems to be one of confronting immediate priorities and the realities of Federal pressure.

The four States have extensive community college systems which have proliferated in the last 10 to 15 years. These colleges offer an inexpensive avenue to two additional years of education beyond high school; however, they are at the center of a current controversy in that disproportionately higher numbers of Black and other minorities are found in them, while the top universities and colleges have relatively lower numbers of Black students. The fact that significant numbers of these two-year college students do not go on to complete a baccalaureate degree is another issue of concern to Black educators.

The faults in the higher education planning process lie in several areas as exemplified by the States under scrutiny here:

1. Little initial planning for the higher education of Blacks takes place without the influence of the Federal government.
2. During litigation of formerly de jure segregated States, it is unlikely that student needs will receive the emphasis they should.
3. Planning as a process will have little cognizance of the needs of Blacks without the input of influential Blacks and others sensitive to their cause.
4. State funding for financial aid to students will not reach the necessary level as long as the States are concentrating on the development of plans under litigation.



The positive aspects of higher education planning are suggested by the efforts of the four States:

1. Adequate attention to the higher education needs of Blacks takes place most appropriately in the context of a State master plan which specifically approaches the State's policy on this issue.
2. Open admissions and liberal Federal financial aid policies work most effectively to the advantage of Blacks attempting to obtain higher education.
3. Where Blacks have held positions on planning boards, significant policy initiatives have been forthcoming.
4. Significant verbal constituencies have had great influence on the planning process in those States where significant movement has been made to the advantage of Blacks.
5. Combination of the efforts of Blacks and other minorities may prove to be a most effective means of promoting higher education needs of Blacks in the future.

Federal role in higher education planning. Although the States are the major providers of education in America, the influence of the Federal government in the planning process has grown significantly since the 1960's. In 1965, at the height of the "Great Society" Congress passed the first comprehensive higher education act (The Higher Education Act of 1965). This Act is credited with a much elevated consciousness about higher education as a whole. Since its passage, the Federal role in higher education has substantially increased.

The passage of the 1965 Higher Education Act has special relevance for the improved status of Blacks in higher education. Under this Act the Federal government has increased the availability of financial aid to economically disadvantaged students and to historically Black colleges. The latter group until recently, has benefitted, mainly, from Title III, the "Strengthening Developing Institution's" section of the Act.

Without Federal aid to students, (e.g., Basic Educational Opportunity Grants, loan programs, veterans educational benefits, and TRIO programs) there would be limited enrollment of Black students in higher education. The student financial aid programs, especially the Basic Education Opportunity Grants (BEOG), have made it possible for more Blacks to take advantage of postsecondary opportunities than ever before.

The response by the Federal government to the Adams litigation also constitutes a significant input affecting access for Blacks to higher education. OCR's criteria specifically point out that the number of Blacks enrolled in higher education must increase if the desegregation of State systems is to be successful. Also, the crucial input of the Federal government has significant meaning in the desegregation planning process as it addresses the strengthening and enhancement of Black colleges. These institutions constitute major providers of educational opportunities for Black Americans.

The provisions of Title VII of the Higher Education Act, known as the TRIO programs, have been another important input of the Federal government in response to access issues. The purpose of the TRIO programs, (Upward Bound, Talent Search, Special Services for Disadvantaged Students, Education Opportunity Centers, and Service Learning Centers) is to help low-income students enroll and persist in higher education. These programs provide services that focus on the remediation and counseling of students who are classified as economically disadvantaged.

The most recent input to the Federal policy process affecting Black higher education is the Executive Order issued by President Carter on August 8, 1980 requiring all Federal departments and agencies to take immediate measures to ensure that historically Black colleges are "given a fair opportunity to participate in Federal grant and contract programs". If carried out, the Executive Order could result in strengthening the ability of Black colleges to deliver educational services to larger numbers of Black students. (See Exhibit VIII-1)

The role of the Federal government is not planning; rather its role involves focusing on those issues which involve the welfare of the entire Nation. Federal regulations do require States to re-examine their planning processes. The Adams case, along with Titles III of the Higher Education Act of 1965, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 require long-range plans to be consistent with a State plan if one exists.

The States examined in the Haynes study were negative toward Federal involvement in the planning process. They appear to view "interference from the Federal sector" as a prohibitive factor in making rational decisions which would facilitate the State's ability to improve higher education opportunities for Blacks and other minorities. Perceptions held by most Federal policy makers however, suggests that without Federal input supporting the enforcement of Civil Rights' statutes, Black progress in higher education would be extremely difficult to achieve. Political considerations, of course, determine the extent of Federal involvement in issues affecting Black participation in higher education. These considerations often run the gamut from appeasement to radical reforms, depending upon the direction of the "Federal weathervane." Because of the current focus on inflation, the energy crisis, National defense and proliferation of demands by countless special interests groups, there appears to be a general decline in interest on the part of many Federal policy-makers to advance the cause of Black and other disadvantaged Americans in higher education. Another reason for the decline can be attributed to the lack of continuity of personnel in policy-making positions. Frequent changes in key positions in the Federal bureaucracy bring with them changes in political philosophies which affect the ways in which policies are administered.

### Recommendations

We recommend that (1) the Education Department review its desegregation criteria to determine their implications for the survival and enhancement of public Black colleges... That such a review result in rewriting the criteria to assure that Black colleges are not deleteriously affected.

2. The Office for Civil Rights be given the legal authority and encouraged to pursue not only those States which practiced de jure segregation but also those with a past history of de facto segregation as well.

3. That each State, on a periodic basis be encouraged to prepare a comprehensive assessment of the needs of Blacks in education which should form the backdrop against which educational policy designed to meet the educational needs of Blacks can be measured.

TABLE VIII-1

## NUMBER OF COORDINATING AGENCIES, BY TYPE CLASSIFICATION, 1932-72

Type Classification	1932	1949	1959	1964	1969	1972
No State Agency	33	28	17	11	2	2
Voluntary Association (high degree of institutional freedom)	0	3	7	4	2	1
Coordinating Board (created by statute but does not supercede institutional governing boards)						
a. Majority of institutional representatives having essential advisory powers	1	1	2	3	2	0
b. All or majority of public members having essentially advisory powers	0	0	3	8	11	8
c. All or majority public members having regulatory powers in certain areas but not governing responsibility	1	2	5	7	14	18
Consolidated Governing Board (charged with full responsibility for governing all institutions under its jurisdiction).	15	16	16	17	19	21

SOURCE: Halstead, Kent D., Statewide Planning in Higher Education, USDHEW: Government Printing Office: Washington, D.C., 1974.



EXHIBIT VIII-1

**THE WHITE HOUSE**

August 8, 1980

**EXECUTIVE ORDER  
HISTORICALLY BLACK COLLEGES AND  
UNIVERSITIES**

By the authority vested in me as President by the Constitution of the United States of America, and in order to overcome the effects of discriminatory treatment and to strengthen and expand the capacity of historically Black colleges and universities to provide quality education, it is hereby ordered as follows:

1-101. The Secretary of Education shall implement a Federal initiative designed to achieve a significant increase in the participation by historically Black colleges and universities in Federally sponsored programs. This initiative shall seek to identify, reduce, and eliminate barriers which may have unfairly resulted in reduced participation in, and reduced benefits from, Federally sponsored programs.

1-102. The Secretary of Education shall, in consultation with the Director of the Office of Management and Budget and the heads of the other Executive agencies, establish annual goals for each agency. The purpose of these goals shall be to increase the ability of historically Black colleges and universities to participate in Federally sponsored programs.

1-103. Executive agencies shall review their programs to determine the extent to which historically Black colleges and universities are unfairly precluded from participation in Federally sponsored programs.

1-104. Executive agencies shall identify the statutory authorities under which they can provide relief from specific inequities and disadvantages identified and documented in the agency programs.

1-105. Each Executive agency shall review its current programs and practices and initiate new efforts to increase the participation of historically Black colleges and universities in the programs of the agency. Particular attention should be given to identifying and eliminating unintended regulatory barriers. Procedural barriers, including those which result in such colleges and universities not receiving notice of the availability of Federally sponsored programs, should also be eliminated.

1-106. The head of each Executive agency shall designate an immediate subordinate who will be responsible for implementing the agency responsibilities set forth in this Order. In each Executive agency there shall be an agency liaison to the Secretary of Education for implementing this Order.

1-107. (a) The Secretary of Education shall ensure that an immediate subordinate is responsible for implementing the provisions of this Order.

(b) The Secretary shall ensure that each President of a historically Black college or university is given the opportunity to comment on the implementation of the initiative established by this Order.

1-108. The Secretary of Education shall submit an annual report to the President. The report shall include the levels of participation by historically Black colleges and universities in the programs of each Executive agency. The report will also include any appropriate recommendations for improving the Federal response directed by this Order.

(Signed) JIMMY CARTER

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## CHAPTER NINE

### Monitoring and Evaluation

It is hopeless for the Negro to expect complete emancipation from the menial social and economic position into which the white man has forced him, merely by trusting in the moral sense of the white race... However large the number of individual white men who do and will identify themselves completely with the Negro cause, the white race in America will not admit the Negro to equal rights if it is not forced to do so. Upon that point one may speak with a dogmatism which all history justifies. (Statement attributed to Reinhold Niebuhr in Bell, Derrick A, "Integration -- Is It a No Win Policy for Blacks?" The Civil Rights Digest, Spring 1973 Vol. 5, No. 4, p. 18)

### Introduction

The previous sections of this report have pointed out where the problems exist in the development of a set of systems to support the survival and advancement of the historically Black colleges and Black higher education. The conclusions suggest that in practically every area allied to or supportive of the advancement of Black higher education few if any viable supports are in place. The result is that little research is done, no Federal policy exists, planning is not consistently or adequately carried out, Blacks are still underrepresented in significant decision making positions at every level, and the social environment is not conducive to advancing the needs of Black Americans.

The proposed remedies for these problems can have significant bearing upon the future of Black higher education, but only if they are effectively implemented and monitored. This section discusses the necessity to monitor and evaluate programs designed to improve Black higher education. Three questions are answered here:

1. What monitoring and evaluation systems designed to facilitate equality of opportunity are presently in place?
2. How are monitoring and evaluation of these programs done?
3. What ideally should be done to assure equality of educational opportunity?

Two methods were used to secure information relevant to the evaluation and monitoring of equal educational opportunity programs.

1. A literature search was made of relevant current thinking.
2. A study was conducted seeking data from State Boards of Higher Education in a sample of ten States chosen because (1) they have traditionally led the way in providing innovative education programs, which significantly impact Black Americans, (2) they have Black college(s) located within their boundaries, and/or (3) they are involved in the protracted Adams litigation.

## Findings

There are several relevant bureaucratic entities which should be considered in gaining a picture of the present monitoring and evaluation which is relevant to Black higher education. These include efforts and mandates of:

- o Regional accrediting agencies
- o Professional licensing boards
- o The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
- o The Office for Civil Rights in the U.S. Education Department (formerly the DHEW)
- o The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights
- o Education interest groups i.e., The National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, the National Alliance of Black School Educators, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the NAACP Legal Defense and Education Fund, etc.
- o The Federal Interagency Committee on Education of the U.S. Education Department
- o The Black College Initiative Office of the U.S. Education Department
- o The Federal Courts
- o State Agencies

Each of these entities is presently contributing to the enhancement of higher education of Black Americans, either directly or indirectly.

The Regional Accrediting Agencies, in setting standards for membership, are directly responsible for assuring quality of instruction to students. Regular reviews are held in the form of the institutional self study followed often by the accreditation committee visit to the institutions. The two activities have had particular impact on the historically Black colleges as the colleges have fought to improve programs in order to gain and maintain this accreditation status. Groups such as the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools tend traditionally to have had the greatest impact on HBCs, most of which are located in the States in the southern and middle states regions. There are however some 92 additional associations which grant approval of one form or another to the different aspects of higher education (Popdlsky, pp. 483-492). Accreditation as a monitoring/evaluation mechanism has tended, however, to be too heavily summative, neglecting many of the developmental aspects to important to correcting problems before they get out of hand. Because of the large numbers of higher education institutions and the small staffs of most accrediting agencies, formative evaluation continues to be neglected.

The Professional Licensing Boards are primarily responsible for maintaining standards of training for particular professions. They impact institutions through several modes:

- o Accreditation of programs
- o Monitoring achievement of graduates
- o Establishing professional entry criteria, i.e., licensing exams, issuing licenses
- o Evaluating curricular materials and programs

Presently, the most controversial and potentially damaging impact of the licensing phenomena on the Black colleges has come from teacher education and nursing licensure groups in those States where admission to practice carries the prerequisite of successful completion of an exam indicating professional proficiency. The controversy over the cultural biases inherent in standardized tests has tremendous implications here because of the inaccurate selectivity involved. Many Black students do not do well on such exams and it is not clear that poor training or inability are at the base of their difficulty. The impact for several Black colleges has been to threaten the very existence of their programs. The necessity of such testing is not however, the major issue, but the importance of assuring equitable treatment of all students by the test is paramount.

The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) monitors employment practices of private sector employers, unions, employment agencies, State and local governments and educational institutions. Its authorization is Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. EEOC investigates complaints, holds public hearings and conducts an annual survey of employment in education institutions. The latter has particular implications for monitoring equal employment opportunity programs in higher education. The EEOC Annual faculty survey provides the most comprehensive picture of employment in education by race that is available.

The Office for Civil Rights (OCR) in the U.S. Education Department (formerly part of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare) has the responsibility to enforce Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits use of Federal funds for programs that discriminate as to race, color, or national origin. OCR is presently involved in the Adams litigation, which seeks compliance of those States which had maintained legally sanctioned segregated public education. OCR monitors compliance of the efforts of Adams States by requiring completion of a comprehensive questionnaire which gives a picture of education in each State.

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (CCR), a temporary, independent, bipartisan agency established by Congress to investigate complaints alleging denial of the right to vote, studies and collects information concerning legal developments constituting a denial of equal protection of the law, appraises Federal laws and policies with respect to denial of equal protection, and serves as a clearing house for information concerning denial of equal protection and reports its findings and recommendations to the President and the Congress. The Commission



has been concerned with all aspects of the denial of civil rights, from the representation of minorities in sports to the higher education of minorities and Black Americans. Its chief avenue of approach to monitoring is the public hearing. At regular intervals Commission hearings are held to highlight particular problems and to gather information relevant to making recommendations to the appropriate Executive and Legislative authorities.

The Education Interest Groups are an effective monitor of education policy making which impacts the various segments of education in America. Composed of over 500 separate groups, each with a narrowly defined mission and constituency, these groups are able to impact legislation by developing amendments, putting pressure on legislators for certain actions, rethinking and redesigning old programs or introducing entirely new concepts. Members of Congress are particularly vulnerable to the risk of constituent ire. Such lobbyists are usually effective, realizing that they can find a sponsor for any idea providing the costs are not too high. The chief interest groups primarily concerned about Black higher education are the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education, the United Negro College Fund, the National Urban League, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges, and the NAACP/LDEF. These groups have experienced some significant frustration in the last few years because of conservative trends and other issues which are impacting the Nation.

The Federal Interagency Committee on Education (FICE) of the Education Department has in the past been a data gathering arm of the Department. FICE gathers information from across Federal departments on the commitment of monies to education. Its annual reports give a picture of the support to education by the Federal government. The agency disaggregates such data specific to commitments to the historically Black colleges (HBC's). Such data has been used as a prod to agencies to more equitably respond to the HBC's, especially in light of the President's Executive Order of 1980 concerning funds to Black colleges.

The Black College Initiative Unit, which responds to the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Post Secondary Education of the U.S. Education Department, has had responsibility for advising the President through the Secretary of Education on the progress of efforts of the Federal agencies and departments to respond more equitably to the historically Black colleges. Most recent indications from the Office suggest that though the amount of funds to HBC's has increased, the proportionate figure has declined to its lowest level in 10 years. The monitoring efforts of the office result in recommendations to the President.

The Federal Courts have proved to be the most aggressive monitors of equal educational opportunity through the tremendous number of litigations brought alleging discrimination in all areas of America life. Beginning with Brown and most recently with Bakke, the courts have continuously attempted to spell out a policy emphasizing the Constitutional definition of equal opportunity for all citizens. The Federal courts have been seen by many as the watch-dogs of education as indicated by their concern for removal of all legal barriers to education for the underrepresented minorities in the Nation.

Though many of their efforts have angered different groups the court has at least brought to consciousness many of the inequities interest in the American Society--resulting in some efforts to correct them.

**State Education Agencies.** The combination of the activities of the above outlined groups has direct impact upon education generally and higher education specifically. The implications of their actions for Black higher education have been significant, however, none have been truly utilized to their fullest. The potential for monitoring and evaluating progress of equal opportunity programs in education are inherent in the missions of these agencies. At first glance, what is seemingly needed is a coordination of efforts to assure that adequate coverage of the monitoring process takes place.

State Boards of (Higher) Education in each State are most appropriately suited to assuming responsibility for assuring equal opportunity.

These groups, by virtue of their mission, are the chief architects of the education system in the States. They have responsibility for planning, initiating and evaluating programs and institutions. Earlier sections of this paper attempted to highlight the planning and program initiation process in the States. But, what of the evaluation and monitoring process?

The Committee undertook to determine the adequacy of monitoring and evaluation of equity programs in several States. The conclusions which follow were taken from a compilation of the responses from ten State departments of education and from Black and predominantly white colleges which have large Black student populations. (For detailed analysis the reader is referred to the unpublished commissioned research paper "Policies, Practices and Monitoring Systems to Improve the Status of Blacks in Higher Education: Selected States and Institutions" prepared by Evalée Banks for the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, November, 1979)..

The following conclusions were most apparent from the Bank's study:

- o Monitoring which is performed by State Departments of Education (SDE's) usually takes the form of annual and mid-year reports submitted by institutions to the SDE. These reports are usually limited to enrollment and recruitment statistics with some limited documentation of program effectiveness. Review by SDE's is usually a prerequisite to forwarding to State Boards of Higher Education. The procedure used by the various States varies greatly, however.
- o There are only a few similarities or commonalities among the monitoring systems utilized by SDEs. In the majority of the 10 States the evaluation is not rigorous and involves merely reading reports submitted by the institutions.
- o Programs designed specifically for Black Americans and other minorities tend to undergo the same review process as other programs, except for those programs related to State plans for desegregation in the Adams States. These programs have personnel whose sole responsibility is to monitor data on Black student enrollment and related statistics.



- o Institutions have an amount of autonomy in evaluating programs and reporting results. Many institutions appear to be on an honor system for monitoring and are not required to respond to checks and balances which could possibly identify misleading or inaccurate information.
- o Few SDEs have special personnel whose major responsibility entails review of data from programs designed to improve the status of Blacks in higher education.
- o The Adams States appear to have more rigorous monitoring systems which include community input through biracial committees and closer scrutiny of statistics and data submitted by institutions.
- o With few exceptions, there appears to be a paucity of funds available at the State level for monitoring programs specifically related to improving the status of Blacks in higher education. Again, the notable exceptions were primarily the Adams States.
- o SDEs tend to be unable to disaggregate monies expended for monitoring purposes/policy enforcement, with respect to specific missions such as evaluation of equal opportunity programs.
- o Only the Adams States tend to have established, or planned to establish, committees to monitor programs designed to improve the status of Blacks in higher education.
- o Although the State agencies play a limited role in the program evaluation process, all programs were evaluated annually. No data are available at the State levels about the nature of the evaluations. The institutions handle the evaluation process.
- o There tends to be little dissatisfaction on the part of SDE personnel with the monitoring systems used by State agencies.
- o SDEs tend to use cogent but unquantifiable indicators of achievement of equity, listing the following in that category:
  - a. No complaints from Black students within the past year
  - b. Change in attitudes of policymakers and administrators
  - c. No campus unrest or turmoil in the Black communities
  - d. Achievement of goals mandated in State master plans
  - e. Attainment of desired enrollment levels
- o SDEs list the following as factors which they see as most significant to achieving equity:
  - a. Institutional commitment and willingness to correct past inequities.
  - b. Special program features (e.g., recruitment campaigns, scholarship programs, support from the Black community etc.)
  - c. Increased Federal Aid
  - d. Special (line item) funding from the State
  - e. Attitudinal changes



- o Likewise this group suggests that the following factors contribute to failure of such programs and efforts.
  - a. Difficult economic conditions
  - b. Social conditions
  - c. Desegregation efforts hampered by increased efforts in behalf of other minority groups, e.g., Chicanos, Iranian students.
  - d. Geographic barriers--commuting distance have mitigated against the desegregation of several institutions.
  - e. Difficulty in overcoming years of neglect in such a short time span
  - f. Cultural deprivation and lack of training by students prior to entering college.
  - g. Confusion, incoherent guidelines and mandates, vacillation, conflicting court decisions and failure to follow through by Federal officials.
  - h. Lack of real know-how and competency in the area--no empirical research or proven techniques to rely upon.

The flavor of responses from SDE's generally suggests that except for the Adams States, a moderate to no-special-interest was exhibited in the monitoring and evaluation of programs designed to improve the higher education of Blacks. Few data banks are kept and little is done formatively to aid the institutions in their continuing efforts. There is a feeling that intervention by the Federal government into the process is the least acceptable mode of improving the situation because of the hardships that tend to be imposed by excessive regulation and paperwork. Though there are certainly flaws in the data and the process used to collect it, the system of monitoring used by the Adams States does seem to offer a viable process for Statewide monitoring of higher education equity programs.

#### Recommendations:

The Committee feels that the basic responsibility for evaluation and monitoring of equity programs rests, as it should, with the States. However, inconsistencies in data collection and reporting do not allow for a meaningful analysis of equity programs in the Nation as a whole. The Committee therefore recommends the following:

1. That the Secretary of Education, in cooperation with the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities and the U.S. Office for Civil Rights (OCR), evaluate the suitability of OCR data forms used in the Adams States for collecting consistent data from all States. The result of such consultation, however, should not be adoption of the OCR forms or process in its entirety but development of some similar adaptation.

That the basis of this consultation be establishment of a framework for evaluating a National commitment to equity in higher education of Black Americans (see Appendix IX-1).

APPENDIX IX-1

FRAMEWORK FOR EVALUATING INSTITUTIONAL COMMITMENT TO MINORITIES

1976

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The American Council on Education is grateful to the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy and the National Board on Graduate Education for the participation by their staff members in devising this document.

**FRAMEWORK FOR EVALUATING INSTITUTIONAL COMMITMENT TO MINORITIES**

**A Discussion of Minority Issues and Governmental Strategies**

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## FRAMEWORK FOR EVALUATING INSTITUTIONAL COMMITMENT TO MINORITIES

### I. Undergraduate Admissions and Recruitment

#### Suggested Reviewers: Admissions Staff

- A. Does the institution have a means of identifying minority persons interested in training offered by the institution? Is the method effective?
- B. What is the nature of the relationships between institutional student recruitment personnel and counselors at secondary schools having large minority student enrollments?
- C. Are there institutional means for facilitating the recruitment of minorities for disciplines in which they are under represented? Do these strategies include making special funds for recruitment, financial aid, and retention techniques available for these efforts? To what extent have the methods changed the distribution of minority students among the various disciplines?
- D. Are admissions decisions on minority applicants made by persons who have sufficient experience and contact with minority student candidates to understand the special characteristics of their backgrounds, needs, and interests?
- E. Are all applicants for admission judged by flexible criteria? How flexible are the criteria? (Can admissions staff give less weight to test scores for students whose secondary school records and other data show promise?)
- F. Are information and materials made available to applicants which present an accurate picture of program requirements and campus life? What is the impact of the materials on student decisions to attend? Are minority students, faculty, and administrators consulted in an attempt to assess whether the overall image transmitted reflects the experience of minority students at the institution?
- G. How does the proportion of minorities in the student body relate to the proportion of minorities in the geographical region(s) from which the institution mainly draws its students?
- H. How does the proportion of minority students admitted under standard admissions criteria compare with the proportion of academically high risk minority students admitted? How closely are these proportions related to the institution's programs, purposes, and goals in student academic support?



## II. FINANCIAL AID

### Suggested Reviewers: Financial Aid Staff

- A. What priority is given in the use of institutional (nonfederal) student financial aid funds to supplementing student assistance from federal sources and providing full support for needy students?
- B. What emphasis is given to ensuring that campus work assignments directly complement the student's educational program and career interests? Is this aspect of the financial aid package routinely evaluated for its effects on minority students? What changes in work assignment procedures have resulted from such evaluations?
- C. Is it institutional policy to remind students that they must, and when they must, apply for financial aid? Is the reminder effective in obtaining on-time applications from minority students? Is it necessary to keep funds in reserve for late applicants?
- D. Are special packages (combinations of programs) of student financial aid offered to educationally disadvantaged and minority students? What means are used to determine the adequacy of the aid package in relation to the student's real needs?
- E. Has a routine institutional procedure been devised to allow increases in an individual's financial aid package, should the need arise during the school session? Are discretionary funds available for emergency loans?
- F. Are special technical assistance and counseling in budgeting matters given, as a matter of policy, to financially disadvantaged and minority students? How effective is this guidance in increasing the size and number of individual financial aid awards?

### III. Counseling, Support Services, Placement

**Suggested Reviewers:** Counseling, Equal Opportunity Program, Learning Skills, and Placement Staffs

- A. Is there an institutional effort to cooperate with secondary school administrators and counselors in increasing the scope and effectiveness of professional guidance? In this context, how are the particular guidance needs of minority students from various cultural backgrounds addressed? Are personnel at schools having substantial numbers of minority students involved in the process?
- B. How much emphasis is placed on intensive early freshmen orientation and preregistration counseling for minorities? Are these programs important factors in retention of minority students? Is peer counseling used in the programs, and how useful is it?
- C. How important a role does career counseling (including guidance on graduate education) play in the design of institutional student support mechanisms? Do minority students use these support mechanisms advantageously?
- D. Is there an institutionwide attempt to ensure that the academic advisors assigned to minorities are sensitive to the emotional and academic needs and the cultural backgrounds of the minority student, especially during the first year of involvement with the institution? How is the effectiveness of the assignments monitored?
- E. Are the study skills remediation and tutorial services provided by the institution commensurate with demand and need? Are all educationally disadvantaged students encouraged to attend these special programs? How, and how early, are students who need these services identified?
- F. Do stigmas attach to students who participate in remediation programs? Is there an institutional effort to address this problem?
- G. Are there support service courses (remedial, learning skills courses) for which academic credit should be awarded?
- H. Are support programs that provide services to minority students staffed by regular faculty or by persons outside the regular tenure track? How is the competency of the staff judged, and how are high performance levels rewarded?
- I. Do the directors of support service programs participate in administrative decisions that affect the students served by the programs? How influential is the advice of the directors? How are student insights obtained to inform these decisions?
- J. What methods are used at the institution to measure students' academic progress and assess the effectiveness of support service courses? Does the institution administer academic competency programs or tests? How much is known about the academic progress of minority students at the institution? Are special academic support services provided for students for whom English is a second language?



### III. Counseling, Support Services, Placement (continued)

- K. Are remedial programs provided for undergraduates who fail to qualify by testing, or whose grade point averages are insufficient for admission to graduate or professional school? What influences do the programs have on later attendance at graduate and professional schools by minority undergraduates?
- L. What aid is given to students in finding summer employment? What stress is placed on fitting summer employment experiences to the student's academic interests? Do minority students use the summer placement programs fully?
- M. How is the institution's placement office monitored to ensure that minority students are treated with fairness, both in temporary student employment and in contacts with recruiters from business, government and industry? How are minority students encouraged to use the placement system? Are placement records of minority students maintained?
- N. Can and should career counseling, academic advising, and placement functions be better coordinated throughout the institution? How has this matter been addressed by the personnel directly involved and by the responsible administrators?

#### IV. Curriculum

**Suggested Reviewers:** Department Heads, Academic Affairs Staff

- A. How is the regular curriculum assessed for adequacy in study and analysis of works by minority authors and works focusing on minority concerns and experience? Are adequate means available for introducing more works of these kinds into the curriculum?
- B. Do the institution's libraries and bookstores regularly carry publications by minority authors and publications devoted to minority issues? How is the completeness of inventories in this area verified?
- C. How are changes in curriculum and teaching methods assessed to determine their influences on the education of minority students? Are the educational needs and interests of minority students used as the bases for revisions in curriculum and teaching methods? By what means are these needs and interests explored?
- D. Is there an institutional mechanism for assessing the amount of undergraduate and graduate research being conducted on minority concerns? How can research of this type be encouraged?
- E. How closely related are the subject matter and teaching methods of the regular curriculum to the subject matter and teaching methods of support service courses?
- F. How successful are teaching techniques in support service courses introduced into the regular curriculum? How are faculty members encouraged to develop skill in using effective techniques?
- G. How accepted, stable, and integral are ethnic and cultural studies at the institution? Are ethnic studies offerings properly publicized?

## V. Environment

**Suggested Reviewers:** Student Government, Student Affairs Staff, Student Organization Representatives, Community Service Staff

- A. Are studies conducted on the causes of undergraduate and graduate attrition of minority students? Are the factors that influence minority student attrition fundamentally the same as or different from those affecting the majority?
- B. How much emphasis has been placed on developing institutionwide procedures to improve minority student persistence? What are the roles of administrative staff and department heads in this process?
- C. Are minority students eligible for all scholastic honors awarded at the institution? How does the proportion of scholastic honors awarded to minorities compare with the proportion of minorities in the student body?
- D. Are institutional programs conducted with department heads and faculty to reduce racially prejudiced attitudes and to increase interest in minority students and faculty? What are standard institutional responses when instances of prejudice have been detected?
- E. Are there adequate and responsive complaint/grievance procedures available to all students? Do minority students use the procedures fully? Are channels available for discussing "minor" problems (negative faculty attitudes, problematic dormitory relationships, etc.) before they become factors in student decisions to withdraw? Do "major" problems (especially forms of unfair treatment) receive a full and prompt hearing and resolution?
- F. How are campus organizations monitored to determine whether they are congenial to minority students and whether minorities are encouraged to participate?
- G. Is there a general institutional process by which the social customs and accepted rules of conduct on campus are reviewed for their receptiveness and congeniality to minorities?
- H. How much participation is there by minority students in extracurricular activities such as music and drama clubs, social clubs, debating and service groups, newspaper and yearbook staffs, and intramural sports? What efforts are being made to increase minority participation?
- I. What institutional procedures ensure that student entertainment and activity programs include appropriate amounts of literature, art, music, and lectures that feature minority artists and intellectuals, and which reflect the interests of minority students?
- J. Is it institutional policy to demonstrate concern for the welfare of minority communities in the region through operation of various community service programs? How are minority students and faculty involved in these programs?

## VI. Graduate and Professional Programs

**Suggested Reviewers:** Graduate Department Heads, Graduate School Staff, Professional School Staff.

- A. How successful are the procedures that are used to identify minority students interested in graduate or professional training offered by the institution? Should identification methods be coordinated throughout the institution?
- B. Is there agreement between the graduate school and the departments on the minimum qualifications acceptable for students recruited for graduate programs? How flexible are the criteria used to judge candidates for admission? How much restriction do existing admissions criteria place on obtaining an acceptable enrollment of minority students?
- C. How much emphasis is placed on building minority student attendance in departments in which minorities are underrepresented? Are special recruitment and financial aid funds available for this purpose?
- D. Are institutional policies clear on whether minorities will be assured equal treatment and nondiscrimination or be accorded compensatory or affirmative action?
- E. How large a role should remediation techniques play in graduate or professional training at the institution? What effect would remedial programs have on retention of minority students?
- F. How adequately are the regular student services attuned to the needs of graduate and professional students? Do minority graduate and professional students use these services fully?
- G. Should special student services be available to graduate and professional students? How can minority graduate and professional students be most effectively given the support which they need in such areas as, financial counseling and aid, student employment, guidance, placement, housing services, and grievance procedures?



## VII. Faculty and Staff Hiring, Evaluation, and Retention

**Suggested Reviewers:** Affirmative Action Officers, Minority Faculty Members

- A. How does the minority representation in faculty, administration, and support staff compare with the minority representation in the student body? Is the extent of minority representation in faculty, administration, and staff consonant with the needs of minority students?
- B. How effective are current institutional procedures for identifying, recruiting, and hiring minority faculty and administrators? Can these procedures be improved?
- C. Do affirmative action officers have ready access to all supervisory personnel, including department heads? How much authority is carried by officers' recommendations on cases involving bias in recruitment and hiring of faculty, administration, and support staff?
- D. How much input is sought from affirmative action officers when administrative decisions are made on hiring policies that do not concern equal opportunity? How much influence does the advice of officers contribute to these decisions?
- E. Is a person in each department responsible for departmental affirmative action liaison with the central administration? How useful is this technique for maintaining communication on matters of policy and procedures?
- F. What authority do affirmative action officers have to intervene in possible cases of bias in admissions procedures, and in recruitment and hiring procedures for students?
- G. In evaluating faculty members for promotion, how much recognition is given to special duties in guidance and leadership that are frequently required of minority faculty and administrators in addition to their regular duties? In setting work loads for minority faculty and administrators how much consideration is given to these extra commitments? Are professional development and training programs provided by the institution to aid the upward mobility of minority faculty, administrators, and staff?
- H. Are minority faculty and administrators encouraged to understand that they are accepted as integral parts of the institutional community through adequate participation in campus committees and other forms of appointed or elected governance? How aware is the institutional leadership of the perceptions of minority faculty regarding the congeniality, respect, and need of the other institutional personnel for their professional services? What positive roles do the institutional leaders play in fostering acceptance of minority personnel?

### VIII. Administrative Policies

**Suggested Reviewers:** Institutional Head, Trustees, Institutional Research and Planning Staff

- A. What is the balance between "soft money" and "hard money" in the overall funding of programs that are influential in attaining equal opportunity objectives? Is this a desirable long term balance?
- B. How much priority is given to operating budget items for programs and staff to meet equal opportunity goals at the central administration and department levels? In this context, to what degree is consideration given to support services, including required increases in faculty contact time with students?
- C. Where are student support services placed in the institutional governance structure, and what factors determine their placement? Are the services that focus on minority student access and persistence placed in the most stable and influential sector of the governance structure?
- D. How much information is routinely collected on minority students concerning the applicant pool, admission rates, major fields of study, transfer among disciplines, and persistence and graduation rates? Are the amount and kinds of information collected commensurate with the needs for policy decisions?
- E. To what extent are attempts made in the conduct and analysis of institutional research, and in data collections on students and staff, to examine minority concerns through use of appropriate categories and issues? How is minority advice on these concerns solicited? Are the distinctive concerns of various minority groups handled in ways that are appropriate to their differences?
- F. How are institutional data on minority students and staff distributed among staff and planners, particularly whenever policy decisions that affect the status of minorities are being made? Do the appropriate data regularly receive the widest distribution necessary?
- G. What is the nature of interchange between institutional personnel and representatives of any minority communities served and affected by the institution? What mechanisms exist for obtaining advice from members of the minority community about programs that directly or indirectly interact with the community?
- H. How many minorities in the administration have high level positions and regular line responsibilities? How strong are their influences on administrative policy decisions that affect the welfare of minority students, faculty, and staff? Do the upper echelon minority administrators have ready access to the institutional head and a proper access to the board of trustees?



VIII. Administrative Policies (continued)

- I. How Clear an understanding do the institutional leaders--board of trustees, institutional head, and upper echelon administrators-- have of the problem areas in the institutional response to minorities? Do they feel that they are performing satisfactory jobs in assisting minorities toward equal educational opportunity at the institution?
- J. How is the status of minority participation in the entire institution regularly reviewed? How are student and faculty inputs obtained?

## REFERENCES

### Chapter Nine

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**GENERAL APPENDICES**

APPENDIX

100 Historically Black Colleges and Universities which were still predominantly Black as of Fall 1978, by State\*

Level/Highest Offering<sup>1/</sup>

Control

Northeast

Pennsylvania (2)

Cheyney State College, Cheyney 19319  
Lincoln University, Lincoln University 19352

M  
M

Public  
Public

North-Central

Ohio (2)

Central State University, Wilberforce 45384  
Wilberforce University, Wilberforce 45384

B  
B

Public  
Private

South

Alabama (12)

Alabama A&M University, Normal 35762  
Alabama Lutheran Academy and College, <sup>2/</sup> Selma 36701  
Alabama State University, Montgomery 36101  
Lawson State Community College, Birmingham 35221  
Lowax-Hannon Junior College, Greenville 36037  
Hiles College, Birmingham 35208  
Oakwood College, Huntsville 35806  
S.D. Bishop State Junior College, Mobile 36603  
Selma University<sup>2/</sup>, Selma 36701  
Stillman College, Tuscaloosa 35401  
Talladega College, Talladega 35160  
Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute 36088

M+  
2  
M+  
2  
2  
B  
B  
2  
B  
B  
B  
B  
M,P

Public  
Private  
Public  
Public  
Private  
Private  
Private  
Public  
Private  
Private  
Private  
Private  
Private

**South (con't)****Level/Highest Offering<sup>1/</sup>****Control****Arkansas (4)**

Arkansas Baptist College<sup>2/</sup>, Little Rock 72202  
 Philander Smith College, Little Rock 72203  
 Shorter College, Little Rock 72114  
 University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff, Pine Bluff 71601

B  
 B  
 2  
 B

Private  
 Private  
 Private  
 Public

**Delaware**

Delaware State College, Dover 19901

B

Public

**District of Columbia (1)**

Howard University, Washington, D.C. 20059

P,D

Private

**Florida (4)**

Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach 32015  
 Edward Waters College, Jacksonville 32209  
 Florida A&M University, Tallahassee 32307  
 Florida Memorial College, Miami 33054

B  
 B  
 M  
 B

Private  
 Private  
 Public  
 Private

**Georgia (10)**

Albany State College, Albany 31705  
 Atlanta University, Atlanta 30314  
 Clark College, Atlanta 30314  
 Fort Valley State College, Fort Valley 31030  
 Interdenominational Theological Center, Atlanta 30314  
 Morehouse College, Atlanta 30314  
 Morris Brown College, Atlanta 30314  
 Paine College, Augusta 30901  
 Savannah State College, Savannah 31404  
 Spelman College, Atlanta 30314

B  
 D  
 B  
 M  
 P,D  
 B  
 B  
 B  
 M  
 B

Public  
 Private  
 Private  
 Public  
 Private  
 Private  
 Private  
 Private  
 Public  
 Private

**Kentucky (1)**

Kentucky State University, Frankfort 40601

M

Public

## South (Con't)

Level/Highest Offering<sup>1/</sup>Control

## Louisiana (6)

Dillard University, New Orleans 70122	B	Private
Grambling State University, Grambling 71245	M	Public
Southern University A&M College, Baton Rouge 70813	M,P	Public
Southern University in New Orleans, New Orleans 70126	B	Public
Southern University Shreveport-Bossier, Community Campus, Shreveport 71107	2	Public
Xavier University of Louisiana, New Orleans 70125	M	Private

## Maryland (4)

Bowie State College, Bowie 20715	M	Public
Coppin State College, Baltimore 21216	M	Public
Morgan State University, Baltimore 21239	D	Public
University of Maryland-Eastern Shore, Princess Ann 21853	M	Public

## Mississippi (11)

Alcorn State University, Lorman 39096	M	Public
Coahoma Junior College, Clarksdale 38614	2	Public
Jackson State University, Jackson 39217	M+	Public
Mary Holmes College, West Point 39773	2	Private
Mississippi Industrial College <sup>2/</sup> , Holly Springs 38635	B	Private
Mississippi Valley State University, Itta Bena 38941	M	Public
Natchez Junior College, Natchez 39120	2	Private
Prentiss Normal and Industrial Institute <sup>3/</sup> , Prentiss 39474	2	Private
Rust College, Holly Springs 38635	B	Private
Tougaloo College, Tougaloo 39174	B	Private
Utica Junior College, Utica 39175	2	Public

## North Carolina (11)

Barber-Scotia College, Concord 28025	B	Private
Bennett College, Columbia 27420	B	Private
Elizabeth City State University, Elizabeth City 27909	B	Public



South (Con't)Level/Highest Offering<sup>1/</sup>Control

Fayetteville State University, Fayetteville 28301	B	Public
Johnson C. Smith University, Charlotte 28216	B	Private
Livingstone College, Salisbury 28144	B,P	Private
North Carolina A&T State University, Greensboro 27411	M+	Public
North Carolina Central University, Durham 27707	M,P	Public
Shaw University, Raleigh 27611	B	Private
St. Augustine's College, Raleigh 27611	B	Private
Winston-Salem State University, Winston Salem 27102	B	Public

Oklahoma (1)

Langston University, Langston 73050	B	Public
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South Carolina (8)

Allen University, Columbia 29204	B	Private
Benedict College, Columbia 29204	B	Private
Clafin College, Orangeburg 29115	B	Private
Clinton Junior College, Rock Hill 29730	2	Private
Friendship Junior College, Rock Hill 29730	2	Private
Morris College, Sumter 29150	B	Private
South Carolina State College, Orangeburg 29117	H	Public
Voorhees College, Denmark 29042	B	Private

Tennessee (7)

Fisk University, Nashville 37203	M	Private
Knoxville College, Knoxville 37921	B	Private
Lane College, Jackson 38301	B	Private
LeMoyne Owen College, Memphis 38126	B	Private
Meharry Medical College, Nashville 37208	P,D	Private
Morristown College, Morristown 37814	2	Private
Tennessee State University, Nashville 37203	M+	Public

**South (Con't)****Level/Highest Offering<sup>1/</sup>****Control****Texas (9)**

Bishop College, Dallas 75241	B	Private
Huston-Tillotson College, Austin 78702	B	Private
Jarvis Christian College, Hawkins 75765	B	Private
Paul Quinn College, Waco 76704	B	Private
Prairie View A&M University, Prairie View 77445	M+	Public
Southwestern Christian College, Terrell 75160	2	Private
Texas College, Tyler 75702	B	Private
Texas Southern University, Houston 77004	P,D	Public
Wiley College, Marshall 75670	B	Private

**Virginia (6)**

Hampton Institute, Hampton 23668	M	Private
Norfolk State College, Norfolk 23504	M	Public
St. Paul's College, Lawrenceville 23868	B	Private
Virginia College, Lynchburg 24501	2	Private
Virginia State College, Petersburg 23803	M	Public
Virginia Union University, Richmond 23220	P	Private

**West**

None

**1/ Level/Highest Offering:**

2 = 2 but less than 4 years  
 B = 4 or 5 years Baccalaureate  
 P = First Professional  
 M = Master's  
 M+ = Master's  
 D = Doctorate

**2/ Pre-accredited****3/ Neither accredited not a candidate**

\*This listing of HBC's only includes those institutions that were still predominantly Black in Fall 1978 and for which data are available for inclusion in the Committee's reports. Therefore, the list does not include Simmons University/Bible College (KY) for which no data are available; and Bluefield State College (WV), West Virginia State College (WV) and Lincoln University (MO) which are historically Black institutions but are predominantly (as of Fall 1978) predominantly white. Daniel Payne College (AL) and D.C. Teacher's College (WDC) were on earlier lists but are omitted here-the former has closed and the latter has been incorporated into the University of the District of Columbia.

A Listing of Newer Predominantly Black Colleges (NPBC's)  
from the  
National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education Black Colleges and Universities

This is the most current listing of newer predominantly Black colleges (NPBC's) available. It is based on Fall 1978 enrollment figures. Both the total and full-time enrollments at the schools listed were over 50% Black, thus qualifying it as an NPBC based on criteria set forth by the Committee.

The previous listing released by the Committee was based on Fall 1976 enrollment data. Five of the institutions in the 1976 list were deleted (3 have either closed or currently enroll no students; the other 2 are still open but currently are predominantly white). Twenty-four institutions have been added and the University of the District of Columbia was formed through a 1977 merger of Washington Technical Institute, Federal City College, and D.C. Teacher's College.

NUMBER PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES (NPBC's)  
(as of Fall, 1978)

REGION	NAME OF INSTITUTION	CITY/ZIP	LEVEL	CONTROL	BLACK PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT	BLACK PERCENTAGE OF FULL TIME ENROLLMENT
<b>NORTHEAST</b>						
	Massachusetts (1)					
	Roxbury Community College	Roxbury 02119	2	Public	58.8	57.4
	New Jersey (1)					
	Essex County College	Newark 07102	2	Public	70.1	71.0
	New York (8)					
	City University of New York					
	Manhattan Community College	New York City 10019	2	Public	52.3	53.4
	Bronx Community College	Bronx 10483	2	Public	52.1	51.3
	Moder Evers	Brooklyn 11225	4	Public	87.0	87.0
	York College	Jamaica 11451	4	Public	56.1	54.3
	College for Human Services	New York City 10014	2	Private	64.6	64.6
	Interboro Institute	New York City 10003	2	Proprietary	50.8	50.8
	Taylor Business Institute	New York City 10036	2	Proprietary	51.0	51.0
	Madonna McIl Seminary College	Ogdensburg 13669	4	Private	88.0	88.0
	Pennsylvania (1)					
	Community College of Philadelphia	Philadelphia 19107	2	Public	61.0	61.3
<b>NORTH CENTRAL</b>						
	Illinois (10)					
	Central WCA Community College	Chicago 60606	2	Private	69.0	71.9
	Chicago Conservatory College	Chicago 60605	M	Private	58.2	57.9
	Chicago State University	Chicago 60628	M	Public	74.2	84.2
	City Colleges of Chicago					
	Kennedy-King	Chicago 60621	2	Public	97.8	98.2
	Loop	Chicago 60601	2	Public	64.1	73.1
	Malcolm X	Chicago 60612	2	Public	89.9	91.6
	Olive-Harvey	Chicago 60628	2	Public	93.4	93.2

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GENERAL PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES (N\*BC's)  
(as of Fall, 1978)

REGION	NAME OF INSTITUTION	CITY/ZIP	LEVEL	CONTROL	BLACK PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT	BLACK PERCENTAGE OF FULL TIME ENROLLMENT
<b>NORTHCENTRAL (con't)</b>						
<b>Illinois (con't)</b>						
	Daniel Hale Williams University <sup>1/</sup>	Chicago 60644	4	Private	96.6	98.1
	National College of Education, Urban Campus	Chicago- 60603,	M	Private	60.6	61.3
	State Community College	East St. Louis 62201	2	Public	95.2	97.2
<b>Kansas (1)</b>						
	Dunnally College	Kansas City 66102	2	Private	54.6	55.7
<b>Michigan (4)</b>						
	Highland Park Community College	Highland Park 48263	2	Public	94.1	94.6
	Lewis Business College	Detroit 48235	2	Private	87.3	86.9
	Shaw College at Detroit <sup>1/</sup>	Detroit 48202	4	Private	99.3	99.4
	Wayne County Community College	Detroit 48201	2	Public	63.4	74.0
<b>Missouri (3)</b>						
	Harris Stowe College	St. Louis 63103	4	Public	75.1	78.6
	Pioneer Community College <sup>1/</sup>	Kansas City 64111	2	Public	66.0	59.3
	St. Louis Community College, Forest Park	St. Louis 63110	2	Public	54.0	57.7
<b>Ohio (2)</b>						
	Cuyahoga Community College, Metro Campus	Cleveland 44115	2	Public	60.1	66.6
	Payne Theological Seminary <sup>1/</sup>	Wilberforce 45384	P	Private	87.0	85.0

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GENERAL PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES (NPBC's)  
(as of Fall, 1978)

REGION	NAME OF INSTITUTION	CITY/ZIP	LEVEL	CONTROL	BLACK PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT	BLACK PERCENTAGE OF FULL TIME ENROLLMENT
<b>SOUTH</b>						
Alabama (3)	Booker T. Washington Business College <sup>1/</sup>	Birmingham 35203	2	Proprietary	100.0	100.0
	Southern Business College <sup>1/2/</sup>	Birmingham 35203	2	Proprietary	69.9	70.0
	Southern Vocational College	Tuskegee 36083	2	Private	96.4	96.5
Arkansas (1)	Capital City Business College <sup>1/</sup>	Little Rock 72204	2	Proprietary	53.6	54.6
District of Columbia (2)	Strayer College <sup>1/</sup>	Washington, D.C. 20005	4	Proprietary	72.8	74.0
	University of the District of Columbia	Washington, D.C. 20008	M	Public	84.4	84.6
Georgia (1)	Atlanta Junior College	Atlanta 30310	2	Private	87.5	87.6
Maryland (1)	Community College of Baltimore	Baltimore 21215	2	Public	78.0	80.7
Mississippi (1)	Ministerial Institute and College <sup>2/</sup>	West Point 39773	2	Private	100.0	100.0
North Carolina (7)	Durham College <sup>1/</sup>	Durham 27707	1	Private	100.0	100.0
	Hamilton College	Charlotte 28202	2	Proprietary	67.5	68.2
	Jefferson College	Greensboro 27420	2	Proprietary	60.5	61.1
	Kings College-Raleigh	Raleigh 27601	1	Private	52.6	53.3
	Lafayette College	Fayetteville 28301	2	Proprietary	59.3	58.7
	Roncho-Chowan Technical Institute	Ahoskie 27910	2	Public	61.0	65.7
	Vance-Granville Community College	Henderson 27536	2	Public	50.4	56.0
South Carolina (5)	Beaufort Technical Education Center <sup>1/</sup>	Beaufort 29902	2	Public	51.6	54.7



NEVER PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES (NPBC's)  
(as of Fall, 1978)

REGION

NAME OF INSTITUTION

CITY/ZIP

LEVEL

CONTROL

BLACK PERCENTAGE  
OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT

BLACK PERCENTAGE OF  
FULL TIME ENROLLMENT

SOUTH (con't)

South Carolina (Con't)

Columbia Commercial College	Columbia 29201	2	Proprietary	65.5	93.1
Denmark Technical Education Center <sup>1/</sup>	Denmark 29042	2	Public	95.0	94.9
Rice College	North Charleston	2	Proprietary	59.3	55.0
Williamsburg Technical Education Center	Kingstree 29555	2	Public	61.7	63.7

Tennessee (4)

American Baptist Theological Seminary	Nashville 37207	4	Private	84.0	82.6
Draughon's College	Memphis 38116	2	Proprietary	54.5	55.2
Draughon's Junior College of Business	Nashville 37919	2	Proprietary	60.2	62.8
Shelby State Community College	Memphis 38104	2	Public	64.1	81.4

WEST

California (3)

Compton Community College	Compton 90221	2	Public	76.9	69.6
Los Angeles Southwest College	Los Angeles 90047	2	Public	95.9	93.7
Los Angeles Trade-Technical College	Los Angeles 9001 <sup>c</sup>	2	Public	53.8	55.6

OUTLYING AREAS

Virgin Islands (1)

College of the Virgin Islands	St. Thomas 00801	M	Public	74.9	60.4
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<sup>1/</sup> Pre-accredited

<sup>2/</sup> Neither accredited nor a candidate

## PREVIOUS ADVISORY COMMITTEE MEMBERS

The National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities was established in December 1976 to examine all approaches to the higher education of Black Americans as well as the historically Black colleges and universities and then to make recommendations to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Assistant Secretary for Education, and the Commissioner of Education in 12 specific areas.

Although the Committee was established in December 1976, the Notice of Establishment was not published in the Federal Register until June 21, 1977, and the initial meeting was held in September 1977, nine months after it was established for a period of two years.

As required by its Charter, the membership consists of members knowledgeable about the higher education of Blacks, the historically Black colleges and universities, and the economic, educational, societal, and political realities in which public policy is made.

### MEMBERSHIP

Dr. Elias Blake, Chairperson  
President  
Clark College  
240 Chestnut Street, S.W.  
Atlanta, Georgia 30314

Dr. Laura Bornholdt  
Vice President for Education  
The Lilly Endowment, Inc.  
2801 North Meridian Street  
Indianapolis, Indiana 46208

Dr. William C. Brown  
Director  
Institute for Higher Educational  
Opportunity  
Southern Regional Education Board  
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Atlanta, Georgia 30313

Dr. Nolen M. Ellison  
District Chancellor  
Cuyahoga Community College  
Cleveland, Ohio 44115

Dr. Luther H. Foster  
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Tuskegee Institute  
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Director, Educational Assistance  
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Assistant Professor  
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(One Vacancy)

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Chancellor  
Fayetteville State University  
Fayetteville, North Carolina 28301

Dr. Paul W. Murrill  
Chancellor  
Louisiana State University  
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Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70803

Dr. Henry Ponder  
President  
Benedict College  
Columbia, South Carolina 29204

Dr. Gloria Scott  
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Clark College  
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Director, Contributions & Community Affairs  
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Dr. E. T. York\*  
Chancellor  
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\*Mrs. Cecile M. Springer was appointed March 1979.

MEMBERSHIP, AS OF 9/80

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CHARTER

NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON BLACK HIGHER EDUCATION  
AND BLACK COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

PURPOSE

The Secretary is responsible for the administration of various higher education and civil rights programs mandated by statutes as these affect the general population. Administration of these programs involves a setting of priorities and an understanding of interlocking social, political, and economic complexities affecting black Americans. The Secretary requires the advice and recommendations of persons knowledgeable of the impact of the mandated programs on the higher education of black Americans in order to fulfill his/her responsibilities under statutes effectively.

AUTHORITY

20 USC 1233a.

This Committee is governed by the provisions of Part D of the General Education Provisions Act (P.L. 90-247 as amended; 20 U.S.C. 1233 et seq.) and the Federal Advisory Committee Act (P.L. 92-463; 5 U.S.C. Appendix I) which set forth standards for the formation and use of advisory committees.

FUNCTIONS

The Committee advises the Secretary of Education, and the Assistant Secretary for Postsecondary Education. The Committee examines all approaches to higher education of black Americans as well as the needs of historically black colleges and universities and in particular advises and make recommendations in these areas:

- (1) in the identification of the several courses of action to raise substantially the participation of blacks in all forms of productive postsecondary education;
- (2) in the development of alternatives sensitive to the special needs, deprivations, and aspirations of black youths;
- (3) in the analysis of and planning for the future role and healthy development of the historically black colleges and their relationship to expanding the numbers of blacks enrolled in higher education nationally and regionally;
- (4) in the development of a research base to support the definition of equity, the expansion of existing research, and the commissioning of original empirical research;

- (5) in the stimulation and encouragement of more scholarship and research by blacks on questions of public policy relating to the educational needs of blacks and the promotion of these results at the Federal, regional, and State levels;
- (6) in the evaluation and monitoring of the impact of Federal, regional, or State efforts in the public and private sectors in improving the status of blacks in higher education;
- (7) in the evaluation and monitoring of current and developing Federal, regional, or State policies designed to equalize educational opportunities for blacks and improve access for larger numbers of blacks in higher education;
- (8) ... the development of approaches to the financing of the neediest students and the institutions with the heaviest concentrations of blacks;
- (9) in the development of means to increase access, retention, and graduation of blacks from institutions of higher education;
- (10) in the development of alternative ways of increasing the numbers of blacks entering and completing graduate and professional degree programs;
- (11) in recommending a long-range plan for increasing the quality of black higher education and the numbers of black Americans able to participate more fully in American society because they have successfully completed such education;
- (12) in the assessment of the resultant implementation of policy decisions and recommendations.

#### STRUCTURE

The Committee consists of fifteen (15) members appointed by the Secretary for terms not to exceed three (3) years, subject to the renewal of the Committee. The Secretary designates one of the fifteen (15) members as the Chairperson. Members are persons who are knowledgeable about the higher education of blacks, the historically black colleges and universities, and/or the economic, educational, societal, and political realities in which public policy is made. At least five of the fifteen members of the Committee shall be presidents of black colleges and at least one member shall be from the business sector.

Management and staff services are provided by the Program Delegate to the Committee who is appointed by the Assistant Secretary for Postsecondary Education.



### MEETINGS

The Committee meets not less than four times each year with the advance approval of the Secretary or designee. The Secretary or designee approves the agenda for each meeting. Meetings are open to the public except as may be determined otherwise by the Secretary. Public notice is made of all Committee meetings, and a Federal official is present at all meetings. Meetings are conducted, and records of proceedings kept, as required by applicable laws and Department regulations.

### COMPENSATION

Members of the Committee who are not full-time employees of the Federal Government are entitled to receive compensation at a rate of \$100 per day, plus per diem and travel expenses in accordance with Federal Travel Regulations.

### ANNUAL COST ESTIMATES

Estimated total annual cost for operating the Committee, including compensation and travel expenses for members and consultant services and research, but excluding staff support is \$130,000. Estimated person-years of staff support is ten at an estimated cost of \$210,000.

### REPORTS

The Committee submits to the Congress on or before June 30 of each year an annual report which contains as a minimum a list of the names and business addresses of the Committee members, a list of the dates and places of the meetings, the functions of the Committee, and a summary of Committee activities and recommendations made during the year. Such report is transmitted with the Secretary's annual report to Congress.

A copy of the annual report is provided to the Committee Management Officer.

Nothing herein shall be interpreted as precluding intermittent special reports and recommendations to the Department of Education throughout the year.



**DURATION**

Unless renewed by appropriate action prior to its expiration, the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities terminates June 30, 1982.

APPROVED:

June 19, 1980  
Date

Steve C. Munter  
Acting Secretary

**COMMITTEE STAFF .**

**Program Delegate**

**Carol J. Smith**

**Research Staff**

**Linda Byrd-Johnson**

**Alfred L. Cooke**

**Linda J. Lambert**

**J. Christopher Lehner**

**Patricia S. Lucas**

**Cecelia A. Wisdom**

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U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1981-O-727-717/1680