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POLICY BOARDS OF PRIVATE PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

BY

DEWITT STANTON WILLIAMS

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August W. Eberle
Director of Thesis

Doctoral Committee: [illegible], Chairman
Robert H. Shaffer
August W. Eberle

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The policy board, as its name implies, has the responsibility for the development and adoption of policies in an institution of higher learning. Usually composed of lay personnel, representative of the public in general, the members serve collectively and unitarily to establish the policies governing the operation of that institution.[1]

The concept of lay boards had its birth in Italy and Holland during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries but has developed more widely in the North American continent than elsewhere in the world.[2]

The earliest institutions of higher learning, which included Plato's Academy (387 B.C.), Aristotle's Lyceum (355 B.C.), the Museum at Alexandria (322 B.C.), and the Madaris of the Islamic World, were directed by a single administrator and lacked a corporate structure with trustees.[3]

Bologna and Paris, archetypal universities of the twelfth century, did not possess this feature. The students, who were men of maturity, controlled Bologna, and the

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[1]Eberle, A. W., Role of the Trustee, p. 2.

[2]Beck, Hubert, Men Who Control Our Universities, p. 30.

[3]Burns, G. P., Trustees in Higher Education, p. 2.

professors controlled Paris. The head and fellows had complete control of a college in England.[4]

Raymond C. Gibson saw the lay trustee as an ingenious American innovation.

> One of the most ingenious organizational schemes of American education is that we from the very beginning, decided to have lay boards of trustees to serve as the connecting link between institutions of higher learning . . . and American society.[5]

Since the momentous Dartmouth College decision, where the president and state legislature were overruled in favor of the board of trustees on the fundamental issue of college control, the college trustee has played a crucial role in U. S. higher education. Martorana stated that the board of trustees retains the responsibility of determining the basic policies within which the institution will operate and charts the course of future development and, at the same time, molds the overall institutional character.[6]

Millett pointed out that a board of trustees has the particular talent of conscience and provides from outside the academic community a "collective expression of value judgments."[7]

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[4]Cattell, J. M., University Control, pp. 3-4.

[5]Gibson, R. C., The Challenge of Leadership in Higher Education, p. 20.

[6]Martorana, S. V., College Boards of Trustees, p. 61.

[7]Millett, J. D., The Academic Community, p. 186.

A bit of controversy about the university trustee exists today. Some argue that it is the faculty that in fact runs the university. Others say the students. The trustee becomes many things to different people. Louis H. Heilbron wrote that the president and deans may see the trustee as a personnel problem requiring special handling. The faculty may see the trustee as a meddler in educational affairs. The students may see the trustee as a member of the older generation and an extension of the establishment. Usually, however, the trustee is a good fellow wanting to do a good job, trying to eliminate friction in the college community and eager to cooperate with all parties.[8]

Despite personal perspectives, most authorities would agree with M. M. Chambers:

> The university does not exist for its faculty, nor even for its students, alone. It is a servant of society, and each of its individual agents, of whatever class or level, is in a sense a servant of the public. Therefore, the university is appropriately governed, in the eyes of the law, by a body of men and women chosen as representatives of the general public. This body--the governing board, constituting a single artificial person--legally <u>is</u> the university.[9]

A review of the history and development of black colleges will be helpful in delineating some of the unique problems that a policy board in a black college might confront.

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[8]Heilbron, L. H., <u>The College and University Trustee</u>, pp. 2-3.

[9]Chambers, M. M., "Who is the University?" <u>The Journal of Higher Education</u> 30:324, June, 1959.

Although some few blacks acquired higher education by attending white institutions in America and by going abroad to Scotland and England, higher education for American blacks, in any real sense, began in separate all black institutions. The first black Americans, 20 in number, touching on American soil in 1619 at Jamestown, Virginia, were sold as slaves. As a result of the development of the plantation system and its demand for cotton and tobacco laborers, the increase in the importation of slaves mounted rapidly. There were approximately 628,000 slaves in the country by 1790, when the first U. S. census was taken, in addition to some 60,000 free blacks in the total population of about 4,000,000 and by 1860 from a total population of approximately 31,000,000 there were 4,000,000 black slaves and 500,000 free blacks.[10]

Early higher education for blacks was directed toward the free black. It was not an established fact that Negroes could benefit from a college education until John Chavis, a North Carolina free Negro, was sent to Princeton in 1797 as an experiment by two Granville County gentlemen "to see if a Negro could take a college education."[11] This fact having been established, in 1839 what is now Cheyney State College

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[10]Pifer, Alan, The Higher Education of Blacks in the United States, p. 7.

[11]Bond, H. M., The Emancipation of the Negro in the American Social Order, p. 364.

in Pennsylvania was founded as a secondary vocational school under the auspices of the Quaker church. A decade or so later the Presbyterians founded Lincoln University in Pennsylvania (1854) and the Methodists sponsored Wilberforce University in Ohio (1856).[12]

The black slaves, on the other hand, were denied education because education was felt to be dangerous and gave the slave a "too high opinion" of himself. Every Southern state had "Black Codes" which forbade the schooling of black slaves. Because of this environment, black graduates of U. S. colleges totalled only 28 by 1860.

Even though 92 per cent of the blacks were concentrated in the South when the Civil War began, the North took the initiative in setting up higher education for slaves after President Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation. The federal government set up the Freedmen's Bureau in 1865 and large numbers of northerners went to the South as missionaries to educate the newly freed slaves. Thus, "black colleges began as essentially white colleges for black students."[13]

The embryonic foundation for the private black colleges was established during this reconstruction period. The church was very active in establishing the black private sector of

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[12]Pifer, Alan, op. cit., p. 10.

[13]Sowell, Thomas, Black Education: Myths and Tragedies, p. 259.

higher education with the Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Congregationalists initially responsible for the establishment of higher educational institutions for blacks. These were soon followed by black denominations such as the African Methodist Episcopal Church. Many of these institutions in their initial years, despite the words "college" or "university" in their titles, were only secondary schools.[14]

During the 10 years following the Civil War 30 of these institutions were established and gradually others appeared until, by the middle of the century, 112 such institutions had been established for Negroes in the South.[15]

Private black education was advanced as much by Northern philanthropic efforts as by the Northern church effort. With financial support, administration and classroom buildings were constructed, libraries and books were added, and professors and students were recruited and trained. Philanthropic funds were responsible for gifts totalling more than $134,000,000 to black schools and approximately $100,000,000 more from interested private citizens, although some of this went to elementary and secondary education as well.[16]

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[14]Pifer, Alan, op. cit., p. 12.

[15]Bullock, H. A., A History of Negro Education in the South, p. 159.

[16]Ibid., p. 143.

Bullock stated that by 1933 the system of black education in the South was complete and colleges were strategically located so that most black communities in the South came under the influence of one or more colleges.[17]

Private black higher education was greatly affected by the social "caste" situation of the times and in 1896, in the Plessy v. Ferguson case, the U. S. Supreme Court sanctioned the "separate but equal" doctrine. Black universities then had a unique role to play since blacks were being denied admission to white colleges. In addition, these conditions almost resulted in a definite delimiting of the sphere of service of the black colleges.

The philosophy of liberal education in black colleges was challenged. Most whites felt that, instead of a liberal education, the black man needed training in the simpler crafts and trades which would prepare him for "his place" in society. Black liberal education colleges did not, therefore, receive as generous support as the industrial colleges.[18] Some black liberal arts colleges had to close because of inadequate support; others had to eliminate instruction in the professions. An alternative strategy was to tack on small manual training departments to attract philanthropic support.

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[17] Ibid., p. 159.

[18] Pifer, Alan, op. cit., p. 16.

Several U. S. Supreme Court decisions of the 1930's and 1940's were to affect black higher education drastically but the case of Brown v. Board of Education in 1954 was most significant. The court, in this case, unanimously decided that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal." Even though this decision immediately affected elementary and secondary education, the court made other decisions which showed that the decision applied to higher education as well. The overthrow of the separate but equal doctrine forced the black colleges to cope with problems that their "emergence from isolation" thrust upon them.

During the twentieth century the full-time black student enrollment approximately doubled every decade. In 1900 there were 700 to 800 students and in 1970 there were 379,000 students.[19] Including part-time students, the numbers of blacks enrolled in colleges between 1967 and 1972 doubled to 727,000.[20]

U. S. News and World Report showed that more blacks have been finishing college. In 1960 only 5.4 per cent of black adults age 25-29 were college graduates. In 1973, 12.1 per cent were graduates. In 1960, in this same age

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[19] Ibid., p. 29.

[20] "America's Rising Black Middle Class," Time 103:19, June 17, 1974.

group, only 39 per cent had more than four years of high school compared to 67 per cent in 1973.[21]

In the mid-1960's over one half of all black college students in the United States attended predominantly black colleges. This percentage was a slight decline from the 60 per cent enrolled in these colleges in 1950, although the total number of blacks attending black colleges had steadily increased. This percentage decrease can be explained in part by the northward migration of blacks, the increase of local public two-year colleges, and the increasing attendance of blacks recruited into predominantly white four-year institutions in the South. Slightly fewer than one half of the blacks who attended predominantly black colleges enrolled in private four-year colleges.[22]

In 1970, in spite of integration, more than a third of the country's black undergraduates were enrolled in black institutions of higher learning.[23] Jaffe projected that by 1975 Southern black high school graduates would increase at least to 624,000 and perhaps to more than 1,000,000 and that attendance at black colleges should increase as a result.[24]

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[21]"After 20 Years New Turn in Black Revolution," U. S. News and World Report 76:25, May 20, 1974.

[22]Jaffe, A. J., et al., Negro Higher Education in the 1960's, pp. 3, 4, 126.

[23]"Black Colleges: Bleak Prospects," New York Times, Section E, January 6, 1974, p. 5.

[24]Jaffe, A. J., op. cit., p. 117.

The direction that private predominantly black institutions of higher learning should now take relative to the needs of both the individual and the society is a subject of much deliberation. Decisions determining this direction must be made with the smallest possible amount of error. Since the 1960's public awareness of the peculiar problems of blacks has increased and this, in some respects, will make the tasks of the decision makers even more difficult. Simply put, the board and its trustees will be responsible for the direction that black institutions will take and for transforming today's black colleges into viable institutions of higher learning.

Significance of the Study

Higher education is undergoing changes at a rapid rate. Black higher education is affected, perhaps more than any other branch of higher education, by these changes. In order for these institutions to remain viable in today's changing society, the problems of the old institutions must be met by revitalized boards. If boards are to be revitalized, there needs to be a body of data concerning the current membership, organization and functioning of black boards.

Only one study of this nature directed at black private colleges has been done. This was done by Nabrit in 1967.[25]

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[25]Nabrit, S. M., and Scott, Julius, Jr., Inventory of Academic Leadership, 44 pp.

Hartnett, in a study sponsored by the Educational Testing Service, did devote a few paragraphs to the blacks who were beginning to appear on boards of white universities. Beyond this, his study did not analyze the boards of black colleges.[26] A comprehensive study done by five doctoral students at Indiana University, hereafter designated as the Indiana Project, gathered general information from black colleges in a survey that included all colleges and universities in the United States. The Indiana Project made no attempt to classify any of the information from the black schools as a group, but rather placed the black colleges into general groups, i.e., private colleges, church related colleges, public colleges, etc.[27]

It was hoped that this study would make a contribution to the development of a body of theory and recommended best practice for the organization and operation of policy boards of higher education and establish a foundation for the same for black colleges. It will undoubtedly add to the existing limited amount of literature and research concerned with black policy boards. A great deal more needs to be known about the trustees of black colleges in general, the proportion of trustees who are black, and the white trustees on black college boards.

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[26]Hartnett, R. T., College and University Trustees, 79 pp.

[27]Dissertations are referred to in "Review of Related Literature."

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to ascertain the characteristics of policy boards of predominantly black senior nonpublic colleges and universities in the United States and of the members of those boards and to ascertain further operational procedures used by those boards and viewpoints of board members concerning board responsibilities and procedures. An additional aspect of the problem was to identify changes that occurred with regard to their characteristics and procedures in the late 1960's and early 1970's. Perhaps the characteristic and change of greatest concern was the racial composition of the boards.

A delimitation of the study was that the information was sought from the presidents of the institutions and not from the board members themselves. In a sense, this delimitation also constituted a limitation although comparison of data from studies of policy boards done by Hartnett and in the Indiana Project showed that information secured from presidents was very similar to that received from board members.

More specifically, through analysis of the data, an attempt was made to answer the following questions:

1. What was the current racial composition of boards of predominantly black colleges and universities?

2. What differences were there between policy boards of predominantly black private colleges as studied in 1974

and those of private colleges involved in earlier studies?

3. What did the data reveal concerning the structure, organization and procedures of these policy boards?

4. According to the presidents, what were the most important problems, questions and decisions that policy boards in these types of universities faced?

Procedures

The population of this study included 51 private predominantly black colleges and universities in this country. The list of traditionally black colleges from McGrath[28] along with that of From Isolation to Mainstream[29] were researched and compared to ascertain the colleges that were in this category. Careful attention was given to omit those traditionally black private institutions which had merged, shifted in racial composition, or in other ways did not meet the requirements of the institutions stated in the problem of this study.

The presidents of these institutions were identified and an up to date list of these officers was prepared from the latest edition of Education Directory.[30]

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[28]McGrath, E. J., The Predominantly Negro College and University in Transition, 204 pp.

[29]Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, 86 pp.

[30]Poole, H. C., Education Directory: Higher Education, 1973-1974, 569 pp.

The instrument used to gather data for the present study borrowed heavily from that developed for the Indiana Project. This comprehensive instrument, with minor modifications and additions, involved six months' time in drafting and was subjected to the constructive criticisms of a number of university administrators, professors, and staff members of national organizations and proved successful in that study. The instrument called for short responses with provision for open ended comments.

The instrument was sent to the president of each of the institutions in the population since it was thought that the presidents would be in the most favorable position to answer knowledgeably and would be concerned with the results that a comprehensive study such as this would produce. Space was provided on the instrument for the name and title and other identification in cases where the respondent was not the president.

A cover letter including return address and explaining the purpose and nature of the study accompanied the instrument, along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope in which to mail the reply.

A follow-up letter was mailed when no response was received within a reasonable time. A second follow-up post card was sent to those not responding and long distance telephone calls were finally necessary to obtain a reasonably adequate response.

The instruments of the Indiana Project which were completed and returned by the presidents in 1968 had been filed away. These were secured and provided much of the information required for the comparative study and for determining the direction of change in the composition, organization and procedures of the boards. Nabrit and Scott's study was also useful in this comparative study.

The results are presented in tabular form using frequency distribution, percentages, rank order, and quantitative summaries for short objective answers. For longer comments added by the presidents, qualitative summary techniques were used.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

Comprehensive studies of private predominantly black institutions of higher education and their boards were non-existent before 1967 and seemed to be an area of neglect even in the 1970's.

The only important directly related work done on this subject was by Nabrit and Scott,[1] published in 1967. Their work was funded by the Ford Foundation. Thus it was possible for them to visit many of the institutions personally and acquire much of the information in interviews with the presidents, officers of the board and other leading administrators. In addition, questionnaires were sent to most of the individual board members. The final document, a 994 page report which compared the by-laws and constitutions of many of the institutions with the results of his findings, was held in confidence. A 44 page summary, including the instrument and summary of findings, was published.

Studies about college boards in general began as early as 1917 when Nearing[2] investigated the occupational and sex distributions of trustees at 143 institutions with enrollments over 500. Other early studies included one by

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[1]Nabrit, S. M., and Scott, Julius, Jr., Inventory of Academic Leadership, 44 pp.

[2]Nearing, Scott, "Who's Who Among College Trustees," School and Society 6:297-299, September 8, 1917.

Elliott, Chambers, and Ashbrook (1935) which gave questions and answers about the legal limitations, internal organization and desirable method of board functioning.[3] McGrath (1936) classified the occupations of board members and delineated trends from 1860 to 1930. Clergymen made up 39 per cent of the membership of governing boards of private institutions in 1860 but only seven per cent in 1930.[4] Baugher noted similar proportions of clergymen in his unpublished doctoral dissertation of 1937.[5] Beck (1947) studied the boards of 30 leading institutions and found that they did not represent the groups composing the academic community.[6] Other early studies of this nature were conducted but all were of limited value to this study because of the rapid changes which occurred in the 1960's and 1970's in higher education.

Eells in 1961 analyzed data from more than 1,000 institutions listed in American Universities and Colleges and found that more than half of the private institutions had self-perpetuating boards and that the sizes of the boards of private institutions were generally more than double those

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[3]Elliott, E. C.; Chambers, M. M.; and Ashbrook, W. A., The Government of Higher Education, 289 pp.

[4]McGrath, E. J., "The Control of Higher Education in America," The Educational Record 17:259-272, April, 1936.

[5]Baugher, C. A., A Determination of Trends in Organization, Finance, and Enrollment in Church-Related Colleges Since 1900, 167 pp.

[6]Beck, Hubert, Men Who Control Our Universities, 229 pp.

of the public institutions. This study actually gave only four types of information: names of boards, methods of selecting members, numbers of members and terms of office.[7]

Eberle directed a study which resulted in five separate doctoral dissertations. In this study (hereafter referred to as the Indiana Project) data on the boards were reported by the presidents of the institutions.

Hornback considered the boards of public state supported institutions and found that there was an excessive use of standing committees and that administration was in danger of conflict of interest in internal governance by resorting to ex officio membership.[8] Male studied governing boards of non-Catholic church affiliated institutions. Of 370 institutions responding, women and alumni were serving on more than half of the boards, and the lay concept of control was well established in these denominational institutions.[9]

Miltenberger received 311 responses in his study of policy boards of private institutions. He discovered that these boards were not as effective as they might have been because of the low frequency of full board meetings and the

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[7]Eells, W. C., "Boards of Control of Universities and Colleges," The Educational Record 42:336-342, October, 1961.

[8]Hornback, R. R., Policy Boards of Public, State-Supported Institutions of Higher Learning, 180 pp.

[9]Male, E. W., Policy Boards of Institutions of Higher Education Affiliated With Protestant Churches and Other Non-Catholic Religious Bodies, 198 pp.

extensive use of standing and executive committees. The boards, he believed, were not representative of the general public with their members coming from upper and middle socio-economic classes, with above average earnings and heavy representation from business, industry and finance.[10]

Boards of Catholic institutions were studied by Moroni, who concluded that they were neither representative of the general public nor of their specific publics. She also noted a marked degree of ecclesiastical or administrative authority.[11]

The fifth study in this series was concerned with the boards of local public institutions. Murphy indicated that these boards were possibly the most democratic and efficient in higher education, having meetings open to the public and a relatively high frequency of board meetings.[12]

Two major conclusions of the Indiana Project were (1) that most people did not comprehend the lay policy board concept and the role of the board in a "due process ordered academic community" and (2) that many trustees had not accepted the fact that they had no authority as individuals but only as members of boards through the boards. There was no attempt in the Indiana Project to identify the race of board members in any of the institutions.

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[10]Miltenberger, L. J., Policy Boards of Private Institutions of Higher Education, 143 pp.

[11]Moroni, M. A., Policy Boards of Roman Catholic Institutions of Higher Education in the United States, 193 pp.

[12]Murphy, J. J., Policy Boards of Local Public Institutions of Higher Education, 152 pp.

About the same time that Eberle was directing the Indiana Project, Hartnett was conducting a study for the Educational Testing Service. He sent questionnaires directly to 10,036 trustees and received a 52.5 per cent response. His conclusions were not markedly different from those of the Indiana Project. Besides finding a great homogeneity of trustees in terms of background characteristics, i.e., predominantly male, over 40, white, from professional occupations, well educated and financially well off, he recognized the need for new organizational relationships for boards to be effective in future college governance.[13] Of the national sample of 5,200 trustees, 68, or 1.3 percent, were blacks. Eleven of this number were trustees of integrated senior colleges. Hartnett compared these 11 to white trustees in general and found that they were more similar in backgrounds to white trustees serving on those boards than to the black trustees of predominantly black institutions.[14]

In 1970 Hartnett conducted another survey, this time polling 536 college and university presidents, of which 402 responded, of the same institutions the trustees of which had participated in his earlier study to discover what shifts had occurred in the intervening 18 months. Hartnett's second report showed that the background homogeneity of the

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[13]Hartnett, R. T., College and University Trustees: Their Backgrounds, Roles and Educational Attitudes, 79 pp.

[14]Ibid., pp. 60-79.

new trustees was giving way to greater diversity and included blacks, women, young people, those from non-business occupations and faculty.[15] Hartnett did not single out black colleges for study.

Many articles concerning trustees were published in the 1960's and 1970's which did not deal directly with black colleges or black trustees but were of general interest to this study.

Pray conducted trustee institutes and self-studies and developed a practical analysis and recommendations for the trustee. He devised a "report card" on which a reasonably effective trustee should score 100 points (of a possible 140) and a chairman 115 (of a possible 160).[16] He also devised a prescription for an effective board of trustees: $\frac{5+5+5}{3}$. Relevant goals, distinctive program, superior management, adequate financing and distinguished sponsorship are represented by the first digit. The second digit stands for the five functions of the board and the third digit sets forth five factors for creating an effective board. The three elements of cost of effectiveness are represented by the denominator.[17] Gummere also outlined suggestions for

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[15]Hartnett, R. T., The New College Trustees, 81 pp.

[16]Pray, F. C., "Report Card for College Trustees," The Educational Record 45:251-254, Summer, 1964.

[17]Pray, F. C., "Match Your Trustees to Your Needs," College and University Business 54:33-39, February, 1973.

evaluating trustees.[18] Frantzreb,[19] Pray's associate, basically expounded the same ideas in his articles on operating imperatives for trustees.[20]

A great deal that has been written on the community college board is applicable to black higher education. Recently much has been written about the board and the community college. Howe presented descriptions of the board's role in negotiating ratification of terms in faculty collective bargaining and how the board begins to live with a contract.[21] Mills studied the interaction of trustees with the process of change by using a two phase questionnaire sent to 239 presidents of community colleges and 296 trustees. Among many other findings, he reported that community college boards were smaller than those governing four-year universities, members were elected by popular vote and that about 40 per cent had systems of institutional governance involving faculty and students and administrative and staff groups.[22]

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[18]Gummere, J. F., "Tasks of Today's Trustees," Independent School Bulletin 32:57-60, October, 1972.

[19]Frantzreb, A. C., "Eight Operating Imperatives Can Help Trustees Avert Future Shock in the '70's," College and University Business 47:22-25, November, 1969.

[20]Frantzreb, A. C., Operational Imperatives for a College Board of Trustees in the 1970's, 24 pp.

[21]Howe, Ray, Community College Board of Trustees and Negotiations With Faculty, 48 pp.

[22]Mills, P. K., A Study of the Community College Board of Trustees and the Process of Institutional Change, 39 pp.

Moore considered the board of a community college the most uninformed and incompetent group in the college, because the members failed to keep pace with the rapid changes that occurred in the educational enterprise. He reasoned that it was impossible to make accurate decisions without this background of knowledge. He also stated that members of the boards of trustees of community colleges had been frequently found to be racists.[23]

Rauh of Antioch College talked with 70 trustees, presidents and faculty members in an effort to find ways to a more effective trusteeship. These views, along with case examples, he published in College and University Trusteeship.[24] This study was a compilation of experiences and ideas of men who were concerned with problems of academic trusteeship for a number of years. This handbook was one of the early attempts to provide guidance, to clarify the responsibilities of academic trustees, and to furnish them with useful information on problems of boards. A later edition of the same book with a title change was based partially on the data and survey results collected by the Educational Testing Service in 1968. These data were also those used in Hartnett's book, College and University

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[23]Moore, William, Jr., "The Community College Board of Trustees: A Question of Competency," Journal of Higher Education 44:171-190, March, 1973.

[24]Rauh, M. A., College and University Trusteeship, 112 pp.

Trustees: Their Backgrounds, Roles and Educational Attitudes.[25]

Perlman explained the theories behind the concept of lay boards. Since public funds are used to support the institutions, either as tax monies or gifts from the general public, representatives of the general public should be in a position to control these funds. He,[26] along with Zwingle,[27] explored the recent trends that required boards to democratize their memberships and include college faculty and students.

Perlman also delved into the historical origins of the practice of elected faculty representation on the board at Roosevelt University.[28] He explained the reasons why this mode of governance was adopted when the school was founded and the problems and successes associated with the practice over the previous 25 years.

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[25]Rauh, M. A., The Trusteeship of Colleges and Unisities, 206 pp.

[26]Perlman, D. H., College and University Governing Boards in the United States, 19 pp.

[27]Zwingle, J. L., et al., "Comment on Faculty Trusteeship," Educational Record 54:125-129, Spring, 1973.

[28]Perlman, D. H., "Faculty Trusteeship," Educational Record 54:115-124, Spring, 1973.

Perlman, D. H., Faculty Trusteeship in Higher Education: A Study of the Governance of Roosevelt University Final Report, 314 pp.

Wicke specifically dealt with the trusteeship of the church related institution.[29]

Blandford reported that only 14 per cent of all United States institutions had students as members of their boards and that less than one half permitted them to vote on all issues and 58 per cent indicated that students were not permitted to vote on any board issues. Of the 86 per cent that did not have student trustees, 63 per cent indicated either that they had no plans for considering this possibility or had considered it but were taking no definite action.[30]

Duster made a comparative study of university control in Sweden and the United States. He was concerned with which segment of the university community controls a particular aspect of university life and function.[31]

Because of the rising costs connected with education, the complexity of the programs and the increasing enrollments, state governing and coordinating boards developed. In 1960 the United States Office of Education published a volume entitled State Boards Responsible for Higher Education.

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[29]Wicke, M. F., The Church-Related College, 113 pp.
Wicke, M. F., Handbook for Trustees, 101 pp.

[30]Blandford, B. A., Student Participation on Institutional Governing Boards, 14 pp.

[31]Duster, Troy, Aims and Control of the Universities: A Comparative Study of Academic Governance in Sweden and the United States, 183 pp.

Zwingle and Rogers updated that publication by providing a factual description of arrangements used by the states.[32]

Welles studied the problems of trustees and their decisions. At a meeting for trustees she made suggestions for their guidance in decision making.[33]

Paltridge and his staff studied the problems with which boards dealt in four-year state schools. The authors produced a "nonreactive" instrument which coded more than 7,000 individual trustee board actions from content analysis of the official board records of over 100 board meetings. Their study concluded that approximately 60 per cent of all board actions were made prior to the fact of execution (non-delegated), and 20 per cent were after-the-fact ratifications of decisions made by others. They also concluded that the responsibility for long-term planning, policy formation and review of performance were not the functions of the boards and were left to the initiative of administrators.[34]

The presence of well known names on a board has been thought to give potential donors more confidence in both the management of the institution and the likelihood of its continuing on the path of its stated mission. Bean discussed

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[32]Zwingle, J. L., and Rogers, M. E., State Boards Responsible for Higher Education, 1970, 200 pp.

[33]Welles, G. E., "Address to Trustees," Independent School Bulletin 32:19-21, May, 1973.

[34]Paltridge, J. G., et al., Boards of Trustees: Their Decision Patterns, 76 pp.

how the trustees can be organized into effective committees and groups to influence fund raising.[35]

Perkins compared American universities as organizations to other kinds of organizations and institutions such as government, corporations, foundations, foreign universities and other institutions. He showed what they are not as organizations and how they are similar. American higher education organization is "clearly a genus apart," and there is no true model for American university organization.[36]

Hull and Shapiro dealt with the legal model of the University of Toledo Board of Trustees. The legal model was the shape of an institution if its sole bases of existence were those that the constitution, courts, attorney general, etc., gave to the board. They also dealt with the problem of what boards should do if there were a disparity between what lawmakers required a board to do and what they actually did.[37]

At least seven other doctoral dissertations appeared in the 1960's which reported on studies of trustees in higher education. Among these, the question of legal responsibility was studied by Steinzor.[38] Herron lamented that

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[35]Bean, Atherton, Fund-Raising and the Trustee, 13 pp.

[36]Perkins, J. A., (ed.), The University as an Organization, 273 pp.

[37]Hull, W. F., IV, and Shapiro, A. H., The University Trustee in Law and Practice, 44 pp.

[38]Steinzor, Benjamin, "The Role of the Board of Control in Higher Education," Dissertation Abstracts 24:3614, March, 1964.

in-service training programs for trustees were limited because of methods of selection and qualifications for membership.[39] Griffin isolated and ranked four primary qualifications for trustee candidacy.[40]

One of the most recent books about trustees to come off the press was written by Louis H. Heilbron, a former trustee. He represented a large public multicampus university. Heilbron dealt with many important and useful areas of concern to the trustees. He did mention that the policies of trustees should be liberalized in connection with admissions policies for blacks, and that financial and remedial tutorial aid for them should be augmented.[41]

During the turbulent sixties when the attention of the nation was directed toward the plight of black Americans, several studies were undertaken that dealt with black colleges and black students. One of the earliest published in the sixties was by Earl McGrath. This status study, funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, provided a general overview of the characteristics, the needs, and the prospects of the predominantly Negro institutions and did not attempt qualitative, comparative institutional ratings of any sort.

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[39]Herron, O. R., "A Study of Inservice Education Programs for Boards of Trustees in Selected Colleges and Universities in the United States," Dissertation Abstracts 26:4375, February, 1966.

[40]Griffin, C. C., "Functions of Trustees of United Presbyterian Colleges," Dissertation Abstracts 24:1046, September, 1963.

[41]Heilbron, L. H., The College and University Trustee, 239 pp.

One section does examine the administration of black colleges.[42]

Jaffe, Adams and Meyers made a study of Southern black colleges and their students. Although it was descriptive, in this study they attempted to evaluate and make predictions and projections about the black colleges. The authors rated the colleges as poor and high quality colleges and isolated the qualities which made them so.[43]

From Isolation to Mainstream[44] and Between Two Worlds[45] pinpointed the many unique problems of colleges founded for Negroes with which boards and administrations have had to deal and offered recommendations for their possible solution.

Two early major status studies of the traditionally black college had been conducted. The earliest was by Jones[46] and a little more than a decade later the other by

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[42]McGrath, E. J., The Predominantly Negro College and University in Transition, 204 pp.

[43]Jaffe, A. J., et al., Negro Higher Education in the 1960's, 291 pp.

[44]Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, 86 pp.

[45]Bowles, Frank, Between Two Worlds, 326 pp.

[46]Jones, T. J. (ed.), Negro Education: A Study of the Private and Higher Schools for Colored People in the United States, 295 pp.

Klein was published.[47] When compared with McGrath's status study, these studies showed explicitly the great progress made by black colleges in the 56 years since the Jones study in 1916. Jones reported that of all black colleges only three, i.e., Howard, Fisk and Meharry, were worthy to be called colleges.

Jencks and Riesman produced an article which characterized the predominantly black colleges as "academic disaster areas."[48] The original article, with few substantive changes was published as Chapter 10 of their later book.[49]

A carefully documented study of Negro education in the South from 1619 to the present was presented by a noted black sociologist. Using mostly specific and primary sources such as autobiographies, diaries, letters, news items, reports of people who lived during the actual period, and rare library collections, Bullock developed the doctrine that the black college was to produce leadership for the emancipation of the American black.[50]

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[47]Klein, A. J., Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities, 964 pp.

[48]Jencks, Christopher, and Riesman, David, "The American Negro College," Harvard Educational Review 37:3-60, Winter, 1967.

[49]Jencks, Christopher, and Riesman, David, The Academic Revolution, 580 pp.

[50]Bullock, H. A., A History of Negro Education in the South, 339 pp.

The two LeMelle brothers tried to answer the question, "What's wrong with black higher education?" and then analyzed the 'why' of the problems and the 'why' of the solutions suggested. They then presented a "project-oriented" design for change, one that was, they thought, pragmatic, eclectic and relevant.[51]

Alan Pifer delivered a series of speeches in Johannesburg, South Africa, which were printed. The first section described historically the development of black higher education by chronological periods and then the major current issues, social, legal and political, affecting black higher education.[52]

Bolden discussed ways in which boards could help black colleges in the South.[53]

Bayer documented how changes in the distribution of black college students were affecting predominantly black colleges.[54]

Morris[55] surveyed 120 black colleges and reported that qualified black professors were being lured to white

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[51]LeMelle, T. J., and LeMelle, W. J., The Black College, 144 pp.

[52]Pifer, Alan, The Higher Education of Blacks in the United States, 51 pp.

[53]Bolden, W. S., "The Role of the College Board in the South," College Board Review 84:18-22, Summer, 1972.

[54]Bayer, A. E., "The New Student in Black Colleges," School Review 81:415-426, May, 1973.

[55]Morris, E. W., "The Contemporary Negro College and the Brain Drain," Journal of Negro Education 41:309-319, February, 1972.

colleges, government and business. However, Rafky noted that black professors in predominantly white colleges were more than willing to teach in black colleges if certain financial conditions were met.[56]

Ann Jones, a white professor who taught for one year in a small, private, unaccredited black college, wrote her memoirs and generalized that many black colleges are in a terrible plight and are crippling black students. She portrayed the black colleges as handling funds inefficiently, the presidents and other administrators as villains, the professors as unqualified, and the general physical condition as a "run-down reformatory."[57]

Wright gave a general overview of the black college and touched the high points of their history, governance and administration, financial problems and support, and their future and raison d'etre.[58]

Ingram[59] and Brown[60] looked at traditionally black institutions which were experiencing racial shifts in their

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[56]Rafky, D. M., "The Attitudes of Black Scholars Toward the Black Colleges," Journal of Negro Education 41:320-330, February, 1972.

[57]Jones, Ann, Uncle Tom's Campus, 225 pp.

[58]Wright, S. J., "Dilemma of the Negro College: Transition and the Brain Drain," Journal of Education 153:48-58, December, 1970.
Wright, S. J., The Traditionally Black Colleges, 1966-1972, 34 pp.

[59]Ingram, Jesse, et al., Behavior Growth in Rapidly Changing Institutions, 4 pp.

[60]Brown, C. I., The White Student Enrolled in the Traditionally Public Black College and University, 29 pp.

student population. Brown looked at the white student in 18 traditionally black colleges and found that one half of them were transfers from predominantly white institutions and had transferred because of convenience of location, availability of desired degree programs and low tuition costs. Ingram was doing a five-year longitudinal study which, when completed in 1975, would document the predominant characteristics of five selected institutions and patterns of academic and biracial interaction.

Sowell[61] dealt effectively with many of the myths surrounding black colleges and Jones[62] compared black students attending predominantly white colleges with black students attending predominantly black colleges. One of his conclusions was that males attending predominantly black colleges were more inclined to attribute their academic difficulties to their own poor study habits and to worry over financial problems and less likely than those attending predominantly white colleges to blame their difficulties on defects in their schools. Jellema also did a comparative study of black and white colleges.[63] Studying 14 private black colleges and a matched sample of predominantly white

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[61]Sowell, Thomas, Black Education: Myths and Tragedies, 338 pp.

[62]Jones, J. C., et al., Differences in Perceived Sources of Academic Difficulties: Black Students in Predominantly Black and Predominantly White Colleges, 30 pp.

[63]Jellema, W. W., Higher Education Finance, A Comparative Study of Matched Samples of Black and White Private Institutions, 42 pp.

private colleges, he showed that the nation's private black colleges faced financial concerns similar to those that occupied the attention of administrators and trustees of the private white colleges.

Cheek[64] and Hackshaw[65] opposed black colleges' merging with white colleges in the name of integration. They argued that the black college by appropriately interpreting the black experience could free both black and white America from the bondage of psychological misconceptions. In addition, the black college guaranteed equality of opportunity to a certain segment of society and promoted the quality of life within the black community. Along this same line Vernon[66] showed that black colleges, in spite of their adverse conditions, had contributed to the shaping of the future of America. Monro also showed that the phasing out of black colleges would be suicidal and suggested cooperative programs between predominantly white and black institutions.[67]

One of the major concerns of the board is dealing with finances. Several government publications have been

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[64]Cheek, K. V., The Philosophical Justification for Black Colleges in a Multiracial Society, 9 pp.

[65]Hackshaw, J. O. F., "The Case for a Black University," Education Digest 38:41-44, December, 1972.

[66]Vernon, C. H., "A Current History of Black Colleges," Black World 22:26-33, February, 1973.

[67]Monro, J. U., "The Black College Dilemma," The Educational Record 53:132-137, Spring, 1972.

written showing the extent to which black colleges have become involved in seeking government aid. Black institutions in the 1960's and 1970's increased the number of proposals submitted to the federal government.[68] A result was that approximately $100,000,000 in fiscal year 1972 was granted as compared to $80,000,000 in fiscal year 1971. Eighty-four of the predominantly black colleges received more than $1,000,000 each in federal funds, and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare distributed more than 80 per cent of this total. Accounts of the dialogue between these colleges and the federal government after 1965 were portrayed in several printed documents.

Thompson began an all-inclusive study of private black colleges in September, 1968, which culminated in the most comprehensive volume on the private sector of current black higher education. Drawing heavily on studies done by other researchers but adding his own insight, he examined

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[68] Potts, J. F., (dir.), A Report of a Survey of Federal Support for Fifty-four Black Colleges, Fiscal Years 1971 and 1972, 16 pp.

Ottina, J. R., (com.), Federal Aid to Predominantly Black Colleges, 8 pp.

Federal Interagency Committee on Education, Federal Agencies and Black Colleges, 122 pp.

Southern Education Foundation, Small Change: A Report on Federal Support for Black Colleges, 1972, 114 pp.

Office of Education, Federal Aid to Black Colleges, 7 pp.

Federal Interagency Committee on Education, Federal Agencies and Black Colleges, Fiscal Year 1970, 88 pp.

the students, faculty, academic programs, economic status, governance, and the futures of private black colleges.[69]

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[69]Thompson, D. C., Private Black Colleges at the Crossroads, 308 pp.

CHAPTER III

THE INSTITUTIONS AND THEIR POLICY BOARDS

As was noted in Chapter I, the names of the private black colleges in this study were compiled from those listed in the appendix table of From Isolation to Mainstream, the Carnegie Commission report. Of the 53 colleges listed in that 1968-1969 compilation, two were not listed in Education Directory, Higher Education, 1973-1974, and these two were omitted from the study.[1] This study, then, was concerned with 51 private black colleges, of which 26 responded.

Following a reporting of general descriptive data concerning the institutions, the present chapter will give information on the chief executives, the manner in which board members are selected, and the membership of the boards of the responding institutions.

Sizes of the institutions. Table 1 indicates the enrollments of the 51 private black institutions in the United States by enrollment categories.

As can be seen, all but three of all private black institutions were below 2,000 in enrollments. The three largest were Howard University with 8,500 students, Tuskegee Institute with 3,343 students, and Hampton Institute with

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[1]Not listed in the Education Directory, Higher Education, 1973-1974, were Simmons University, Louisville, Kentucky, and Virginia Seminary and College, Lynchburg, Virginia.

TABLE 1. NUMBERS AND PERCENTS OF RESPONDING AND NON-RESPONDING INSTITUTIONS BY SIZE CATEGORIES

Enrollment categories	Respondents		Non-Respondents		Totals	
	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents
Under 500	4	15	4	16	8	16
500-999	11	42	11	44	22	43
1,000-1,499	8	31	6	24	14	27
1,500-1,999	2	8	2	8	4	8
2,000-2,499	0	0	0	0	0	0
2,500 and above	1	4	2	8	3	6
Totals	26	100	25	100	51	100

Source of data: Carnegie Commission of Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, pp. 70-75.

2,676 students.[2] Thus, none of the 51 institutions had enrollments of more than 10,000 students. Of those responding, 73 per cent were between 500 and 1,500 in enrollment size, and 68 per cent of the non-respondents were in the same size range. Only 12 per cent of the respondents had 1,500 or more students each, and 16 per cent of the non-respondents were in the same enrollment categories. The proportions of the two groups with fewer than 500 students were 15 per cent and 16 per cent, respectively. These data show that the respondents were representative of all private black institutions in size.

[2]Carnegie Commission of Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, pp. 70-75.

Dates of founding of the institutions. Table 2 shows the periods of time during which given numbers and per cents of institutions were founded.

TABLE 2. CHRONOLOGICAL PERIODS DURING WHICH PRIVATE BLACK INSTITUTIONS WERE FOUNDED

Chronological periods	Respondents		Non-Respondents		Totals	
	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents
Before 1860	2	7	0	0	2	4
1860-1869	8	31	8	32	16	31
1870-1879	8	31	4	16	12	23
1880-1889	5	19	5	20	10	20
1890-1899	1	4	3	12	4	8
1900-1909	1	4	3	12	4	8
1910-1919	0	0	1	4	1	2
After 1920	1	4	1	4	2	4
Totals	26	100	25	100	51	100

Source of data: Carnegie Commission of Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, pp. 70-75.

It is noted from Table 2 that only two institutions (Lincoln and Wilberforce universities) were founded before the Civil War. Blacks were excluded by Southern laws from institutions of higher learning, and these two church-supported Northern schools were set up to educate black youth. As is illustrated in Table 2, 86 per cent of currently existing private higher education institutions primarily for blacks

had been founded before the beginning of the twentieth century. Only 14 per cent were established during the twentieth century, and only two were established after 1920. These two are Xavier University of Louisiana, founded in 1925, and the Interdenominational Theological Center of Atlanta in 1958. Few of the black private institutions are of recent origin. In terms of the study being reported here, it is important that there is considerable congruence between the periods of the founding of the responding institutions and the non-responding ones. Thus, the respondents appear to be reasonably representative in terms of age.

Accreditation status. Data describing the accreditation status of private black colleges are available in Table 3.

Only 10 per cent of all black colleges were not regionally accredited. Two schools included among those that were accredited had professional accreditation (Meharry Medical College and Interdenominational Thelogical Seminary).

By far the largest number were accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools since most of the private black colleges were located in the South.

An examination of Table 3 reveals that there was very little difference between the accreditation status of the responding and non-responding institutions. Perhaps the greatest difference between the two groups involved

TABLE 3. ACCREDITATION STATUS OF PRIVATE PREDOMINANTLY BLACK INSTITUTIONS

Accrediting association	Respondents		Non-Respondents		Totals	
	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents
Middle States	2	8	0	-	2	4
North Central	1	4	1	4	2	4
Southern	20	76	18	72	38	74
State only	1	4	1	4	2	4
Professional	1	4	1	4	2	4
Not accredited	1	4	4	16	5	10
Totals	26	100	25	100	51	100

Source of data: Carnegie Commission of Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, pp. 70-75.

those that were not accredited. Four per cent of those responding were not accredited and 16 per cent of the non-respondents were not accredited. Of the seven institutions that had no accreditation or were only state accredited only one was larger than 525. Of the seven unaccredited institutions four were African Methodist Episcopal, one was Christian Methodist Episcopal, and two were Baptist.

Denominational affiliation. The information describing the church affiliations of the colleges in this study is found in Table 4.

TABLE 4. DENOMINATIONAL OR OTHER RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS OF PRIVATE PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES

Denominational affiliation	Respondents		Non-Respondents		Totals	
	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents
African Methodist Episcopal	4	15	3	12	7	14
Baptist	2	8	5	20	7	14
Christian Methodist Episcopal	0	0	4	16	4	8
Protestant Episcopal	2	8	1	4	3	5
Presbyterian	4	15	0	-	4	8
Joint affiliation	4	15	1	4	5	10
Independent	4	15	7	28	11	21
United Methodist	4	15	3	12	7	14
Seventh-day Adventist	1	4	0	-	1	2
Roman Catholic	1	4	0	-	1	2
Disciples of Christ	0	-	1	4	1	2
Totals	26	99	25	100	51	100

Source of data: Carnegie Commission of Higher Education, From Isolation to Mainstream, pp. 70-75.

Institutions affiliated with the African Methodist Episcopal Church (AME) were Allen University, Daniel Payne College, Edward Waters College, Morris Brown College, Paul Quinn College and Wilberforce University. Also included in this group was Livingstone College, which was listed as African Methodist Episcopal Zion.

Baptist institutions included American Baptist (Virginia Union University, Florida Memorial College, Shaw University, Bishop College and Benedict College), Northern Baptist (Arkansas Baptist College), and State Baptist (Morris College).

There were four institutions supported by the Christian Methodist church. They were Lane College, Miles College, Mississippi Industrial College, and Texas College.

Saint Augustine College (North Carolina), Saint Paul College, and Voorhees College were the three institutions of the Protestant Episcopal church.

The following institutions received support from the various Presbyterian churches: Barber-Scotia College, Johnson C. Smith College, Knoxville College, and Stillman College.

The ecumenical movement, along with the advantages of sharing the financial load, seemed to have had its effects and in some cases two churches supported single institutions. Universities involving joint affiliation were Talledega College, Paine College, Tougaloo College, Huston-Tillotson College, and LeMoyne-Owen College.

The responses recorded in Table 4 show that institutions claiming to be independent formed the largest category, and included Interdenominational Theological Seminary, Dillard University, Atlanta University, Fisk University, Hampton Institute, Howard University, Morehouse College, Lincoln University, Spelman College, Tuskegee

Institute, and Meharry Medical College. Although Lincoln University (Pennsylvania) returned the questionnaire clearly indicating that this was a study of private schools, the response listed "becoming state-related" as one of the most important questions that has faced its board in the past few years. The Education Directory: 1973-1974 also listed Lincoln University as state related. It was included in this study as an independent state related private black institution.

Another grouping consisted of institutions related to the United Methodist Church and included the following: Bennett College, Bethune-Cookman College, Claflin College, Clark College, Philander Smith College, Rust College and Wiley College.

Each of the following denominations supported only one private predominantly black institution: Seventh-day Adventist (Oakwood College), Roman Catholic (Xavier University), and Disciples of Christ (Jarvis Christian College).

Chief executives. In response to a question on the subject, it was revealed that, except for four cases, the chief executives were ex officio members of their boards. Thus 22 presidents were ex officio on their boards. The percentage of presidents as ex officio members of the boards (85 per cent) was higher than among private institutions in general. In the Indiana project (1968-1969), out of 923 responding presidents, 73 per cent of the

Protestant related institution presidents were ex officio members of their boards, as were 78 per cent of the Catholic presidents and 66 per cent of the presidents of private independent institutions. This question was of concern to the study since the presence of the president on the board or its committees has been questioned as being a violation of the principle of a lay board.

The president as an officer of the board. The chief executives were not usually officers of their boards or members of the executive committees. Seven stated that they were, 18 stated that they were not (69 per cent), and one did not respond. In the few cases where the presidents were officers they were generally secretaries, treasurers, or assistants in these positions. In only one case was the chief executive also president of the board. Three presidents were members of their executive committees but were not officers. The percentage of black presidents who were not officers of their boards compared favorably with the Protestant (75 per cent) and independent (65 per cent) groups of the Indiana Project. However, that study showed that the chief executives of Catholic institutions were, in 52 per cent of the institutions, officers on their boards or their executive committees.

The presidents serving on other boards. In nearly 39 per cent of the cases, chief executives were also board members of at least one other college or university. Ten

stated that they were, 15 stated that they were not, and one did not respond. This information was of interest to this study because of a possible conflict of interest and of time, especially if the other institution was a great distance from the president's institution. The percentage of chief executives who served on other boards was considerably higher than all of the three divisions of the private sector reported in the Indiana Project. Among Protestants 17 per cent of the chief executives served on other boards, 13 per cent among Catholics and 22 per cent among independent institutions.

It was also of interest to determine whether the chief executives, by virtue of their positions, were members of boards of higher education of their institutions' denominations. Half of the 20 respondents replied negatively, 3 replied affirmatively and 7 indicated that there were no such boards. Since most of the black colleges have had srong religious ties it was of interest to this study to determine whether the presidents were members of the denomination or church with which the institution was affiliated. Nine of the 20 respondents were of the same denomination. However, six of these mentioned that such affiliation was not required. Only four stated that they were of different denominations and seven checked both "yes" and "no" which may have indicated that there was at some time (or still was) some requirement which was not currently enforced.

Other ex officio board members. Table 5 shows the numbers and per cents of institutions reporting ex officio board members other than the presidents.

TABLE 5. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING EX OFFICIO BOARD MEMBERS OTHER THAN THE PRESIDENTS

	Numbers of ex officio members on board									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Totals
Numbers of institutions	18	2	3	0	0	1	1	0	1	26
Total numbers of ex officio	0	2	6	0	0	5	6	0	8	27
Per cents of institutions	69	8	11	0	0	4	4	0	4	100

Sixty-nine per cent had no ex officio members other than their presidents on their boards. Generally, those that did had only one or two ex officio members on the boards. Three institutions had more than two ex officio members. In one there were five, another six and a third eight. The vast majority of the ex officio board members, indicated by the write-ins, were church officials, such as bishops and other church executives. One or more vice-presidents and the secretary-treasurer of an institution were also written in. There was also honorary ex officio status granted to retired members of some boards.

Board sizes. Table 6 shows the number of voting members on boards for which responses were received.

TABLE 6. NUMBERS OF VOTING MEMBERS ON BOARDS OF PREDOMINANTLY BLACK INSTITUTIONS

Numbers of voting members	Numbers of institutions	Total numbers of members	Per cents of institutions
15-18	4	64	15
19-22	1	21	4
23-26	4	98	15
27-30	6	165	23
31-34	5	158	19
35-38	2	72	8
39-42	2	79	8
43-45	0	0	0
46-49	0	0	0
50-53	1	52	4
NR	1	0	4
Totals	26	709	100

The range of board sizes was from 15 to 52, and the mean board size was 27 members. The modal board size was 27 members. Nearly 60 per cent of the institutions responding had boards consisting of not less than 24 and not more than 33 members. If the 25 institutions for which information on board size was not available also averaged 27 members apiece, this would produce an estimate of 702

more board members or a total number of 1,384 men and women serving on the boards of black private institutions.

Blacks on boards. Table 7 shows the numbers of blacks on boards of responding institutions.

TABLE 7. GROUPED DATA SHOWING NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONS WITH GIVEN NUMBERS OF BLACKS ON BOARD IN 1969 AND 1974

Numbers of blacks	Numbers of institutions 1974	1969
2-3	0	1
4-5	1	2
6-7	0	2
8-9	0	0
10-11	5	5
12-13	1	0
14-15	2	4
16-17	3	0
18-19	2	1
20-21	1	0
22-23	0	1
24-25	2	1
Totals	255	206

As is illustrated in Table 7, in cases where both parts of this question were answered, the number of blacks on the board was gradually increasing. In only three cases had the numbers of blacks on the boards remained the same as five years earlier. In no case had the number decreased. In telephone conversations several administrators frankly

admitted that they did not have records indicating how many blacks were on their boards five years ago but would do all in their power to make accurate estimates. This uncertainty could mean that the three deviating cases resulted from errors in estimates and that there was an increase in every case.

The 17 colleges that answered both parts of this question indicated that the number of black trustees had increased 24 per cent over the number from 1969. There were 255 black trustees in 1974 and 206 black trustees in 1969. This increase, at first glance, seems substantial but, when more closely examined, it is not as great as it appears, for black boards, surprisingly, have also increased in size. When completed questionnaires used in the Indiana Project were compared with completed questionnaires of this study only two colleges reported voting board membership the same in 1974 as it was in 1968. Sometimes the voting membership was smaller but in most cases it was larger. Nonetheless, the data for the 17 colleges which responded to both parts of the question show that current boards of predominantly black colleges were, on the average, only 52 per cent black and for 23 (including the above mentioned 17) colleges that reported 1974 black membership and 1974 total membership, 55 per cent of the trustees were black, i.e., 352 black trustees of a total of 644.

Methods of selection of members. Seven questions were presented to the chief executives about the methods of selection of board members.

Table 8 shows the numbers and per cents of institutions choosing board members by the self-perpetuating plan.

TABLE 8. NUMBERS OF BOARD MEMBERS CHOSEN BY SELF-PERPETUATING PLAN

Members	Numbers of institutions	Per cents of institutions	Numbers of members
0	1	4	0
3-6	0	0	0
7-10	1	4	7
11-14	1	4	12
15-18	4	15	64
19-22	3	11	22
23-26	5	19	124
27-30	2	8	57
31-34	4	15	125
35-38	0	0	0
39-42	0	0	0
43-45	0	0	0
46-49	0	0	0
50-53	1	4	52
NR	4	15	0
Totals	26	99	463

In 57 per cent (15 colleges) of the cases all the board members were chosen by the self-perpetuating plan. In the remainder of the cases four colleges had over 75 per cent of the trustees selected on the same plan, another college

selected over 50 per cent on this plan, and in a third college over 33 per cent were chosen by the self-perpetuating plan. Only one college responded that none of the board members was selected by the board itself. Four colleges did not respond. The mean number of members selected by the self-perpetuating method was 23 as compared to the voting member mean board size of 27. Therefore, in the average institution approximately four members would be chosen by other methods.

Table 9 indicates the numbers and percentages of board members selected by various other processes and groups.

Table 9 shows that the second most common method of selection was by church conferences which selected approximately 12 per cent of the members (92 members). Corporations of church members selected approximately 8 per cent of the members (62 members). The groups least involved in the selection of board members were denominational boards of education, which selected only 29 members (4 per cent of total board membership).

TABLE 9. NUMBERS OF BOARD MEMBERS SELECTED BY GROUPS OTHER THAN THE BOARDS THEMSELVES

Selecting groups	Number of board members															
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6–10	11–15	16–20	21–25	26–30	31–35	over 35	NA*	NR*	Totals
Church conference																
Institutions	12	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	3	5	26
Members	0	1	0	3	0	5	0	12	0	0	0	32	39	0	0	92
Corporations of church members																
Institutions	14	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	4	5	26
Members	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	26	32	0	0	0	62
Denominational boards of education																
Institutions	13	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	5	26
Members	0	0	2	3	0	0	6	0	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	29
Alumni																
Institutions	11	4	5	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	26
Members	0	4	10	9	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	46

* NA = Not applicable NR = No response

The participation of students and faculty in the selection of board members is reported in Table 10.

TABLE 10. INSTITUTIONS IN WHICH THERE WAS SELECTION OF BOARD MEMBERS BY STUDENTS AND FACULTY

Group	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents
Faculty	6	23	20	77
Students	9	35	17	65

In only 23 per cent of the institutions were members selected by faculty, while in over 34 per cent of the colleges in the study students participated in the selection process.

Women serving on the boards. The numbers and per cents of private black institutions reporting eligibility and requirements for women to serve on their boards are given in Table 11.

TABLE 11. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING ELIGIBILITY AND REQUIREMENTS FOR WOMEN SERVING ON THEIR BOARDS N = 26

	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents
Eligible	26	100	0	0
Required	4	15	22	85

On the assumption that the changing status of women in U. S. society should be having some effect on the composition of the boards, the chief executives were queried concerning female participation on their boards. The responses of the chief executives showed that women were eligible to serve on the boards of all black institutions, but only four had requirements that they serve on their boards. In fact, women constituted only 13 per cent of the total board membership. Table 12 shows the numbers and per cents of women.

Women were seated on the boards of all institutions except one, even though most colleges had very few women representatives. Since all but one institution had women on their boards and yet the total constituted only 13 per cent of the total board membership, having women on the board may only be a form of tokenism.

TABLE 12. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS WITH GIVEN NUMBERS OF WOMEN SERVING ON THEIR BOARDS

	Number of women members									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Totals
Institutions	1	4	6	3	2	4	2	3	1	26
Per cents of institutions	4	15	23	10	8	15	8	10	4	97
Total women	0	4	12	9	8	20	12	21	8	94

Student and faculty eligibility and service. Table 13 presents a report on the eligibility of faculty and students to serve on the boards of private black colleges.

It can be noted from Table 13 that in the majority of the institutions (58 per cent) faculty were not eligible to serve on boards, and only seven presidents reported that faculty were presently serving on their boards. However, 77 per cent reported that faculty were on standing and advisory committees and thus had some voice in policy decisions. To a question asking whether there were plans to add faculty to their boards in the future, only one institution responded positively and nine did not respond.

TABLE 13. ELIGIBILITY, SERVICE, AND MEMBERSHIP OF FACULTY ON BOARDS AND BOARD COMMITTEES N = 26

	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
Are faculty members eligible to serve?	10	39	15	58	1	4
Are faculty members now on board?	7	27	18	69	1	4
Do faculty members serve on board standing or advisory committees?	20	77	6	23	0	4

* N.R. = No response

It was not clear whether faculty members had full voting power. Two institutions mentioned that they had non-voting faculty representatives. One college indicated that the term of office was different for faculty members. A usual term was three years but faculty members (nominated by the faculty) served for only one year after election by the board at the annual fall meeting.

Three of the ten institutions which indicated that faculty members were eligible to serve on their boards did not in fact have serving faculty members, either as full voting members or as non-voting representatives. One indicated that while faculty, staff, and students were not eligible to be voting members of the board, all segments

participated in discussions and attended all committee meetings of the full board. Student representatives were named by the student senate; faculty members and staff were named by the deans and other officers (bishop). Another reported that the faculty and students elected a representaive annually.

Table 14 presents data on the eligibility, service and membership of students on boards.

According to the statistics in Table 14, 16 presidents stated that students were not eligible to serve on boards (62 per cent). When asked whether students were actually on the board, 69 per cent responded negatively, 58 per cent indicated that they saw no plans for a change in their current policies. Thirty-five per cent chose not to respond. However, slightly more than 23 per cent had students serving on board standing or advisory committees.

TABLE 14. ELIGIBILITY, SERVICE AND MEMBERSHIP OF STUDENT ON BOARDS AND BOARD COMMITTEES N = 26

	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
Are students eligible to serve?	10	39	16	62	0	0
Are students now on board?	7	28	18	72	0	0
If students do not now serve on the board, are there plans for a change?	2	8	15	58	9	35
Do students serve on board standing or advisory committees?	20	77	6	23	0	0

* N.R. = No responses

The data displayed in Tables 13 and 14 indicate that students and faculty service was not widespread on boards. One interesting change seemed to surface when comparing the results of this study with the Indiana Project. In the Indiana Project 172 responded affirmatively and 183 negatively when asked whether faculty served on board standing or advisory committees. More than half responded that the faculty did not participate on these committees. The data in Table 13 indicate that more than three fourths served on these committees. In the Indiana Project 39 answered "yes" and 327 answered "no" when queried on student

participation on standing and advisory committees. At that time students were rarely considered to sit on any committees. The same percentage (77 per cent) of the students as the faculty were reported as participating on advisory and standing committees on the present study.

Additional requirements of board membership. According to Table 15 the total percentage of alumni serving on boards was 23 per cent of the total board membership. All institutions reported that there were some alumni on their boards. The largest percentage of institutions reported that they had more than nine alumni on their boards.

TABLE 15. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS WITH GIVEN NUMBERS OF ALUMNI MEMBERS ON THEIR BOARDS

Numbers of alumni on board	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 or more	Totals
Numbers of institutions	0	1	1	5	4	4	1	1	2	7	26
Per cents of institutions	0	4	4	19	15	15	4	4	8	27	100
Total alumni members	0	1	2	15	16	20	6	7	16	80	163

Table 16 presents the numbers and per cents of institutional requirements of board membership concerning alumni and occupational status.

TABLE 16. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING REQUIREMENTS CONCERNING ALUMNI AND OCCUPATIONAL STATUS ON BOARD MEMBERSHIP N = 26

	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
Alumni must be represented	15	58	10	38	1	4
Certain occupations, professions, or vocations must be represented	3	12	23	88	0	0

* N.R. = No response

The responses recorded in Table 16 indicate that 58 per cent of the institutions required alumni to be represented on their boards. They also showed that there were alumni on all boards of predominantly private black institutions. One write-in mentioned that although there was no written requirement, custom had always included some.

As is illustrated in Table 16, it was found that only three colleges specified occupational and professional requirements for members. One mentioned that there was no written requirement but that there was a recommended plan

of selection that the board followed. No college specified the exact nature of these requirements.

Of the 20 institutions that completed the final section for church related institutions, 14 responded that membership in the denomination or religious order with which the institution was affiliated was not a requirement for board members. Two institutions replied that all trustees had to have membership in that church. Three institutions mentioned that fixed numbers were required to be affiliated with the sponsoring churches, 50 per cent in one instance, not less than 75 per cent in another, and only one trustee in the third case. One institution chose not to respond to this question. When asked whether there were any other requirements concerning church membership of board members 19 replied negatively and one failed to respond. To the question "Are any board members required to be clergymen?" 18 indicated that there was no such requirement and the two institutions which had requirements did not specify the nature of the requirements.

Ages of board members. The ages of board members in the responding institutions are shown in Table 17. Table 17 presents the number of board members belonging to the various age ranges as estimated by the presidents of their institutions. It also shows the average numbers per institution in each range.

TABLE 17. AGES OF BOARD MEMBERS OF RESPONDING* INSTITUTIONS

Age ranges	Numbers of board members	Per cents	Average numbers per institution
Under 40	65	10	3
40-60	370	56	15
61-70	179	27	7
Over 70	51	8	2
Totals	665	101	27

*One college did not respond to this item.

As was expected, the majority of the trustees (56 per cent) were reported to be in the age range from 40-60 years. The ends of the age continuum seemed to be fairly equally represented, those under 40 (10 per cent) slightly outnumbering those over 70 (8 per cent). Comparing this table with Table 6, one can estimate that a black college board with 27 members would have approximately 15 trustees between ages 40-60, seven between ages 60-70, three under 40, and two over 70 years.

In one institution there was an honorary board member, one who had passed 70 years of age but whose counsel was sought after and who attended board meetings without a vote.

Professions and occupations of board members. Table 18 presents data concerning the professions of board members in private predominantly black institutions.

TABLE 18. PROFESSIONS OR OCCUPATIONS OF BOARD MEMBERS AS REPORTED BY RESPONDING PREDOMINANTLY BLACK COLLEGES N = 25

Professions	Numbers of board members	Per cents
Agriculture	2	0
Clergy	192	29
Education	116	18
Finance and insurance	60	9
Government and legal	68	10
Health professions	41	6
Industry and business	123	19
Labor	1	0
News media	6	1
Other	44	7
Totals	653	99

Clergymen made up the largest group in the board structure. Twenty-nine per cent of the board members belonged to this occupational group. The agriculturalists, those connected with labor, and the news media were poorly represented. The professions of education, government and legal, and industry and business accounted for 45 per cent of the board members.

Among those mentioned as "other" were social workers, retired personnel and retired educators, housewives, students, unemployed, and a foundation executive. Apparently some were involved in more than one occupation, because several mentioned that there was an overlap in professions.

Meharry Medical College had a large number of health-related workers on its board. Oakwood College was almost exclusively clergy. The data did not support the idea that a board should be representative of the public, since several groups were but minimally represented.

Estimated annual incomes. The data describing the salaries of the board members are available in Table 19.

TABLE 19. REPORTED ESTIMATED ANNUAL INCOMES OF BOARD MEMBERS N = 581

Annual earnings	Numbers of members	Per cents
Less than $10,000	40	7
$10,000-$20,000	203	35
$20,000-$50,000	255	44
Over $50,000	83	14
Totals	581	100

The presidents reported that they had no idea how much the housewives earned. However, the largest group of trustees earned between $20,000 and $50,000. The Indiana Project reported the largest number of private Protestant trustees (3,483 trustees) earning between $10,000 and $20,000, the second largest group earning less than $10,000 (1,831 trustees), and the smallest group comprising those earning over $50,000 (1,233 trustees). Table 20 shows that

the second largest group of black college trustees earned between $10,000 and $20,000; the third largest earned over $50,000 and the smallest earned less than $10,000. Inflation must be reckoned with when one tries to account for this increase. The income levels of 121 board members were not revealed.

Academic backgrounds of board members. Table 20 presents the scholastic backgrounds of board members in predominantly black private institutions.

TABLE 20. REPORTED ACADEMIC BACKGROUNDS OF BOARD MEMBERS
N = 694

Academic backgrounds	Numbers of members	Per cents
No earned degrees	82	12
Only one earned degree	262	38
Two or more earned degrees	350	50
Totals	694	100

Only 12 percent held no degrees, and several presidents specified that their student trustees fitted into this group. The number of board members holding one degree each was three times larger than those holding no degrees. Fifty per cent held two or more degrees. An earned degree was defined to include an associate, bachelor's or first professional degree.

Residential proximity to institutions. Included in Table 21 is the information on the distance that black college board members lived from the institutions they served.

TABLE 21. DISTANCES FROM BOARD MEMBERS' RESIDENCES TO INSTITUTIONS SERVED N = 26

Distances of residences from institutions	Numbers of board members	Per cents
Local	172	28
Not local, but within 100 miles	74	12
100-500	195	31
More than 500 miles	183	29
Totals	624	100

It was disclosed that many black college trustees had to travel considerable distances to attend their meetings. Table 21 shows that over 60 per cent were more than 100 miles from their colleges. The residential proximity of board members was a concern of this study in that it might be a factor affecting the efficient operation of the board. If too many of the board members lived in the immediate vicinity of the college, they could more readily interfere with the administration and policy making of the institution. On the other hand, those living too far away might be uninformed of campus activities and be unable to attend meetings

regularly, leaving policy decisions in the hands of presidents and their executive committees.

Being married to an administrator, faculty or staff member did not seem to help in getting a board position or vice versa. Only seven of the trustees were related to members of the institution's administration, faculty or staff. One president mentioned that he was uncertain about the relationship of one member but felt there could have been a distant relationship. Nepotism did not seem to be a prevailing practice in private black colleges.

Table 22 indicates the numbers and per cents of board members serving on governing boards of other institutions of higher learning.

Table 22 shows that 17 per cent of the total board members served on the boards of other institutions. Fifty-nine of the 121 members who did came from only four institutions. Many presidents seemed not to know for certain, five did not respond, and several added that they did not know for sure or used the word "approximately" and "at least that many." There did not seem to be a great problem of dual commitment for board members of the colleges in this study.

TABLE 22. BOARD MEMBERS SERVING ON GOVERNING BOARDS OF OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Numbers of members	Numbers of institutions	Numbers of members	Per cents of institutions
0	2	0	8
1	1	1	4
2	3	6	12
3	3	9	12
4	1	4	4
5	3	15	12
6	1	6	4
7	3	21	12
8 or over	4	59	15
No response	5	0	19
Totals	26	121	102

Table 23 gives data on the numbers and per cents of board members serving as faculty members or administrators at other institutions of higher learning.

Table 23 indicates that only 13 per cent of the total board membership were faculty members and administrators at other institutions. Here again two institutions accounted for over half of those that responded affirmatively (45 out of 89). Thirty of this group came from the black medical college.

Board members and honorary degrees. This study was concerned with the numbers and per cents of board members who received honorary degrees from their institutions. Fifteen institutions (58 per cent) had bestowed honorary

degrees on certain board members. Two institutions did not respond. The information did not solicit how many. Several responded that the degrees had been bestowed prior to the individuals' becoming board members.

TABLE 23. BOARD MEMBERS SERVING AS FACULTY MEMBERS OR ADMINISTRATORS AT OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING
N = 25

Numbers of members	Numbers of institutions	Total numbers of members	Per cents of institutions
0	3	0	12
1	9	9	35
2	5	10	19
3	3	9	12
4	0	0	0
5	2	10	8
6	1	6	4
7 or above	2	45	8
Totals	25	89	98

Terms of office. Table 24 gives data on the numbers of years constituting terms of office for members of the boards.

TABLE 24. NUMBERS OF YEARS CONSTITUTING TERMS OF OFFICE FOR MEMBERS OF BOARDS

Terms of office in years	Numbers of institutions	Per cents of institutions
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	15	58
4	6	23
5	2	8
6 or above	1	4
No response	2	8
Totals	26	100

Three year terms constituted the term of office for over half of the institutions. Four year terms were also popular.

Table 25 presents data on overlapping terms, on members succeeding themselves, and on the numbers of terms members could serve.

Overlapping terms and permission to succeed oneself were characteristic of most boards. Sixty-one per cent of the institutions had no limits on the number of terms a member could serve, and one institution appointed its trustees for life. One institution mentioned that three consecutive terms were the limit.

TABLE 25. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING ON QUESTIONS REGARDING TERMS OF BOARD SERVICE N = 26

Question	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents
Is a system of overlapping terms used?	24	92	2	8
Is a board member permitted to succeed himself?	25	96	1	4
Is there a limit to the number of terms a board member may serve?	10	39	16	62

Table 26 presents data on the number of terms of board membership held by members of 20 institutions who had served more than one term.

Second, third and fourth terms (and longer) seemed to be fairly evenly distributed on boards with second term members forming a slightly larger group. This distribution would seem to give a fairly equitable balance between neophyte and experienced members.

TABLE 26. NUMBER OF TERMS OF BOARD MEMBERSHIP HELD BY MEMBERS WHO HAD SERVED MORE THAN ONE TERM N = 20

Terms of service	Numbers of board members	Per cents
Now in 2nd term	143	40
Now in 3rd term	93	26
Have served more than three terms	123	34
Totals	359	100

Table 27 shows the reported church memberships of the board members.

TABLE 27. REPORTED CHURCH MEMBERSHIPS OR OTHER RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS OF BOARD MEMBERS

Church memberships	Numbers of board members	Per cents
Denomination or faith of institutional affiliation	288	59
Other Protestant denominations	141	29
Roman Catholic	4	1
Jewish	18	4
Other religious affiliation	0	0
No church affiliation	0	0
Unknown	35	7
Totals	486	100

It seems evident from the responses in Table 27 that non-Protestant faiths were not well represented. Catholics (only one per cent) and Jews (4 per cent) did not generally serve on the boards of private black institutions. Fifty-nine per cent were of the denomination or faith of the institutions they served.

CHAPTER IV

POLICY BOARD OPERATION AND ORGANIZATION

This chapter consists of a presentation of the data from the 26 responding colleges regarding the board meetings, board officers, and the use of executive and other standing committees. The selection of the board chairmen and the participation of administrative personnel other than the president will also be examined. The chapter also includes a report of the responses of the presidents concerning the functions of the board committees and the relationship between policy making and administration.

The board officers. Table 28 presents the numbers and per cents of institutions reporting given methods of selecting their chairmen.

In the previous chapter it was pointed out that 85 per cent of the presidents of the institutions were ex officio members of their boards, but that only 27 per cent were officers of their board or executive committees.

Table 28 shows that in 85 per cent of the cases (22 institutions) the chairman was elected by the board and in only three cases did chairmen assume their positions by virtue of holding some other office. In two of the three cases where the chairman was not elected by the board, church officers served as ex officio chairmen (bishops of the churches in both instances). The third case failed

to specify by virtue of what office the officer became chairman.

TABLE 28. NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING GIVEN METHODS OF SELECTING CHAIRMEN OF THEIR BOARDS N = 26

Methods	Numbers of institutions	Per cents
Ex officio	3	11
Elected by board	22	85
Other	1	4
Totals	26	100

In the case where the president checked "other," his response was "appointed by the constitution."

The majority of the 26 institutions the chairmen of which were not ex officio responded that the chairman could succeed himself (23 institutions or 88 per cent). Two presidents responded that the question was not applicable and one chose not to respond.

Board personnel. It has been observed that some policy boards have their own administrative personnel functioning independently of the office of the president.

The policy boards of only four institutions (15 per cent) were maintaining separate administrative personnel and offices outside the office of the chief executive of the institution.

The executive committee. On the assumption that many boards made use of executive committees in transacting some of their business, the query was made concerning the existence of such a committee and the frequency of its meetings, if indeed such a committee operated.

Executive committees operated in all 26 of the institutions. No institution indicated absence of an executive committee.

The frequency of executive committee meetings is indicated in Table 29.

There seemed to be no uniform number of frequencies of executive committee meetings. It could be assumed that there would be frequent meetings of the executive committee since it was a smaller committee than the full board and easier to call together. However, the data seemed to indicate that no institution met twice a month and only one institution met once a month. Four institutions met four times a year and three met twice a year.

The responses may have indicated that these meetings were irregular since several added on to their answer "more often as needed" or when "needed for a special session." Several indicated that the number fluctuated by using "two or three times per year," "three or four times per year." Among the "other" responses, five indicated that they were "on call," and one answered "often." One president said three times per year.

TABLE 29. FREQUENCIES OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEETINGS
N = 26

Frequencies	Numbers of institutions	Per cents
Monthly	1	4
Twice a month	0	0
Quarterly	3	11
Bi-annually	4	15
Other	10	39
No response	8	31
Totals	26	100

Standing committees of the board. All 26 of the boards made use of standing committees consisting entirely or almost entirely of board members.

The varieties of the standing committees are reported in Table 30.

Development and facilities were the standing committees most often listed by the presidents. Following these two areas, most often listed were curricular and student affairs. From the remarks listed from the respondents it appeared that a standing committee many times included more than one of the functions listed under its title. For example, the investment committee might also consider matters of endowments and real estate. Write in remarks also indicated that other committees are appointed as and when the business of the board required it and that in addition to committees a task force structure was used at meetings to consider

various matters. However, these would be ad hoc rather than standing committees. The number and nature of the "other" standing committees reported by the presidents are listed in Table 30.

TABLE 30. NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING GIVEN TYPES OF STANDING BOARD COMMITTEES

Committees	Numbers	Committees	Numbers
Endowments	8	Annual giving	2
Real estate	5	Curriculum	16
Development	21	Personnel	7
Planning	8	Facilities (Buildings)	19
Students and student affairs	15	Finance	10
Nominations	5	Investment	4
Budget	2	Business affairs	2
Grounds	2	Academic affairs	2
		Other*	6

*Includes one dealing with each of the following specific areas: educational policy, faculty and instruction, president's report, hospital, religious life, audit.

It should be pointed out again that Tables 13 and 14 show that student participation on standing committees was 77 per cent and faculty participation was reported to be the same percentage.

In Table 31 are documented the responses of the presidents to the query concerning the working relationships that existed between the executive and standing committees and the board.

TABLE 31. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS TO QUESTIONS CONCERNING CERTAIN COMMITTEE PRACTICES N = 26

Questions	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
1-Does the executive committee usually meet to conduct business for the board with the total board meeting once or twice a year to approve what the executive committee has done?	20	77	4	15	2	8
2-Does the executive committee of the board usually substitute for the board (i.e., in giving approval for standing committee recommendations) in initiating action?	22	85	4	15	0	0
3-Do standing committees or their chairmen usually implement recommendations which they make and which are approved by the board in contrast to delegating them to the executive?	3	11	22	85	1	4
4-Do standing committees and/or their chairmen usually wait for full board approval before initiating action on their recommendations?	18	69	7	27	1	4

* N.R. = No response

The majority (77 per cent) of the institutions indicated that their executive committees generally met to conduct business for the board while the full boards met once or twice yearly to approve the decisions of the executive committees. Four institutions (15 per cent) indicated that this was not the case. Two institutions did not respond. An even greater percentage (85 per cent) revealed that the executive committees substituted for the boards in approving standing committee recommendations.

According to the responses reported in Table 31 the standing committees usually implemented their recommendations only after the board had given its approval (in 85 per cent of the cases), and in 69 per cent of the cases they delegated the responsibility of implementation to the president.

Meetings of the board. Assuming that the board meeting was the actual vehicle for the transaction of board business and thus the creation of institutional policy, it was necessary to consider the attendance records and requirements, the frequency, length and preparation of the agenda and other important details of the board meeting.

One issue of interest pertaining to board meetings was the average attendance as depicted in Table 32.

TABLE 32. NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING ESTIMATED AVERAGE ATTENDANCE OF BOARD MEMBERS AT FULL BOARD MEETINGS N = 26

Average board attendance	Numbers of institutions	Per cents
Above 90 per cent	5	19
75 to 90 per cent	9	35
50 to 75 per cent	10	38
Below 50 per cent	1	4
No response	1	4
Totals	26	100

The information presented in Table 32 shows that attendance, although good, is not exceptional. Only 19 per cent reported attendance 90 per cent or above. Even the range from "75 per cent to 90 per cent" attendance accounted for only 35 per cent of the responses. The largest number reported attendance from 50 per cent to 75 per cent (38 per cent of the institutions indicated their average attendance to fall in this range). More than 50 per cent achieved 75 per cent attendance or above.

Table 33 exhibits data both on the required frequency of full board meetings and the numbers of board meetings actually held.

TABLE 33. FREQUENCY OF FULL BOARD MEETINGS REQUIRED AND PRACTICED BY INSTITUTIONS N = 26

Frequencies	Requirement		Practice	
	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents
No requirement	0	0	0	0
Once a year	4	15	0	0
Twice a year	15	57	18	69
Three times a year	3	12	6	23
Four times a year	1	4	2	8
No response	3	12		
Totals	26	100	26	100

All colleges asserted that their governing structure policies required some type of periodic meetings. These meetings were required from once a year to four times a year. Most boards met more often than the requirement stipulated. Twice a year was the frequency most often mandated by the institutional governing policy and was also the frequency most often practiced. Some of the constitutions specified the actual period of the year in which the meeting should be held. "Once in September," once in "fall and spring" were typical additional write-in comments.

The average lengths of full board meetings are reported in Table 34.

TABLE 34. AVERAGE LENGTHS OF FULL BOARD MEETINGS REPORTED BY INSTITUTIONS N = 26

Lengths of meetings	Numbers of institutions	Per cents
2-3 hours	4	15
4-5 hours	4	15
6-7 hours	4	15
Full day	5	19
Day and a half	5	19
Two days	2	8
Other	1	4
No response	1	4
Totals	26	99

Session lengths ranged from 2-3 hours to two full days. Extremely long meetings were not usual, with only two institutions reporting two full day sessions. A full day or a day and a half was the length that 38 per cent of the presidents reported for their meetings. Forty-five per cent of the presidents reported that their meetings were under a day. In addition, one response showed that board meetings were only one to two hours in length.

Table 35 deals with the responses of the presidents concerning those responsible for the preparation of the full board meeting agendas.

TABLE 35. PERSONS RESPONSIBLE FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE AGENDA FOR FULL BOARD MEETINGS N = 26

	Numbers of institutions	Per cents
Chief executive	12	46
Board chairman	2	8
Board secretary	0	0
No agenda is prepared	0	0
Chief executive and chairman	11	42
Other	1	4
Totals	26	100

The chief executive was almost always the one upon whom this responsibility was laid. Twelve institutions replied that he alone prepared the agenda, while 11 more responded that he prepared it in consultation with the chairman of the board. The one response listed under "other" indicated a broader involvement, but the chief executive was also included: "The chief executive in consultation with the chairman and the board." In the remaining two institutions the board chairmen prepared the agendas.

Of interest to this study was the question as to whether members of the board received more than token compensation for their service other than reimbursement of expenses. All presidents responded that there was no reinbursement to trustees beyond the actual expenses incurred to attend the meetings.

Table 36 indicated the number of colleges requiring institutional officers, other than the presidents, to attend board meetings.

TABLE 36. NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONAL OFFICERS, OTHER THAN THE PRESIDENTS, TYPICALLY REQUIRED TO ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS

	Numbers of officers									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	N.R.*
Numbers of institutions	1	1	3	1	8	3	6	0	2	1
Per cent	4	4	11	4	31	11	23	0	8	4

* N.R. = No response

Only one institution had no such requirement and one did not respond. Although some institutions reported as many as eight institutional officers who were required to attend meetings, four and six (31 per cent and 23 per cent, respectively) were the most frequent numbers of officers required to attend.

Table 37 shows the categories and numbers of the institutional officers required to attend board meetings.

TABLE 37. CATEGORIES AND NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONAL OFFICERS, OTHER THAN THE PRESIDENTS, TYPICALLY REQUIRED TO ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS

Institutional officers	Numbers
Vice-presidents	27
Deans	37
Business managers	27
Development officers	13
Other	8

The vice-presidential category includes executive or undesignated vice-president, assistant to the president and special executive assistant to the president. The dean's category includes an academic dean, dean of faculty, dean of various schools within an institution, and dean of students (university dean). The business manager's category includes a vice-president for business affairs, treasurer, controller, accountant, and fiscal officer. The development officer's category includes vice-presidents for development and directors of development, public relations and institutional research. "Others" include three registrars and one each of the following: legal counsel, hospital administrator, secretary, placement director, dean of chapel.

Representatives of the dean's category were most often required to be present and vice-president and business managers were next equally required to be present.

Table 38 depicts the answers elicited from the presidents when queried on open and restricted board meetings.

TABLE 38. NUMBERS OF INSTITUTIONS REPORTING ON QUESTIONS OF OPEN AND RESTRICTED BOARD MEETINGS N = 26

Questions	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.A.*	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
Are board meetings open to anyone other than board members and others necessary to conduct business?	8	31	18	69	-	-	-	-
If meetings are open, is attendance restricted?	4	15	1	4	20	77	1	4

* N.A. = Not applicable
N.R. = No response

Sixty-nine per cent responded that the meetings are not open to anyone other than board members and others necessary to conduct business. Thirty-one per cent replied that their meetings were open but of that number one half specified that although open, there were attendance restrictions. Only one college had open board meetings with no attendance restrictions.

Table 39 enumerates the responses of the chief administrator when asked to specify those permitted to be present when attendance was limited.

TABLE 39. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS CONCERNING THOSE PERMITTED TO ATTEND WHEN ATTENDANCE WAS LIMITED

Persons	Numbers
Administrators other than those required to attend	8
Faculty members	6
News media representatives	2
Students	6
General public	1
No response	16

When asked to specify those permitted to be present when attendance was limited, administrators other than those required to attend were given the greatest freedom. Students were accorded the same liberty as faculty members, and the doors were virtually closed to news media and the general public. One college wrote that all of those listed were generally invited. One president supplied the added information that faculty attended by invitation for special purposes. One mentioned that faculty and student representatives were usually present and one, in the same vein, claimed that two faculty representatives and three student representatives were invited to attend.

It was of interest to this study to seek to determine whether board members and administrators clearly grasped the issues and processes involved in the making of policy.

Table 40 furnishes the responses of the presidents concerning the degree of understanding, by board members and the institution's top administrators, of the distinction between policy making and administration.

Presidents believed that administrators had a much better understanding of this distinction than did their board members. Even though this was true, none of the presidents stated that the trustees had a poor understanding of this distinction, and only four presidents responded that the board members understood this distinction, but not well.

TABLE 40. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS CONCERNING DEGREE OF UNDERSTANDING BY BOARD MEMBERS AND INSTITUTIONS' TOP ADMINISTRATORS, OF DISTINCTION BETWEEN POLICY MAKING AND ADMINISTRATION N = 26

	Board members		Administrators	
Response	Numbers	Per cents	Numbers	Per cents
Well understood	15	58	22	85
Fairly well understood	7	27	4	15
Understood, but not well	4	15	0	0
Poorly understood	0	0	0	0
No response	0	0	0	0
Totals	26	100	26	100

Table 41 gives the responses of the presidents concerning areas in which their boards assumed major policy and administrative responsibility.

The presidents thought that boards had major policy responsibility in the area of finance, closely followed by facilities and real estate. Business was also a considerable policy responsibility. Finance was also the prime consideration in administrative (operating) responsibility followed by facilities and real estate, and business. (The same order as policy responsibility but with less total percentages). What was significantly different was that 14 presidents indicated that all of the areas were policy responsibility whereas only two felt that they were all administrative responsibilities. Twelve of the presidents

indicated that none of the areas were administrative whereas no president responded for the "none of the above" under policy responsibility. One write-in comment mentioned that the board exercises no responsibility in fund raising as such, once the chief executive is selected. The table suggests considerable infringement by boards in administration.

TABLE 41. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS CONCERNING AREAS IN WHICH THEIR BOARDS ASSUME POLICY RESPONSIBILITY AND ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY

Areas	Numbers indicating policy responsibility	Numbers indicating administrative responsibility
Business	5	3
Curriculum	2	1
Facilities and real estate	8	7
Finance	10	9
Personnel	1	1
Students	1	0
All of the above	14	2
None of the above	0	12
No response	0	1

Table 42 summarizes the responses of the presidents to five questions concerning policy making and administration.

TABLE 42. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS TO QUESTIONS CONCERNING POLICY MAKING AND ADMINISTRATION N = 26

Questions	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
1-Has the distinction between policy making and administration been put in writing for your institution?	12	46	14	54	0	0
2-Has any problem arisen in recent years concerning the distinction between policy making and administration involving either the board, board members individually, or the chief executive?	11	42	15	58	0	0
3-Do you, the chief excutive, see any point in giving consideration to the distinction between policy making and administration insofar as your own situation is concerned?	17	65	8	31	1	4
4-Do you believe that it is possible to make a clear distinction between policy making and administration?	26	100	0	0	0	0
5-Theory tends to have it that all institutional employees and the faculty are responsible to the board only through the president. Is this theory carried out in your institution?	19	73	7	27	0	0

* N.R. = No response

In more than half of the institutions the distinction between policy making and administration has not been put in writing (Question 1). This fact, however, did not seem to present any grave difficulties since 58 per cent responded that no problems had arisen in recent years concerning the distinction between policy making and administration involving either the board or the chief executive (Question 2). Sixty-five per cent of the chief executives (Question 3) thought that consideration should be given to the distinction between policy making and administration and unanimously stated that it is possible to do this (Question 4). Seventy-three per cent responded that the theory that all institutional employees and faculty are responsible to the board only through the president is carried out in their institutions (Question 5).

Table 43 records the responses of the presidents to four questions concerning board policies about academic freedom.

All but one institution had a policy in support of academic freedom (Question 1) and adhered to it readily and without question (Question 2). There was only one institution that claimed that adherence to this policy was questioned by supporters of academic freedom (Question 3) and only one institution which claimed that adherence to it had raised the voices of those who claimed that license was being substituted for academic freedom (Question 4).

TABLE 43. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS TO QUESTIONS CONCERNING BOARD POLICIES ABOUT ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Questions	Yes	Per cents	No	Per cents	N.R.*	Per cents
1-Does the board have a policy in support of academic freedom?	25	96	1	4	0	0
2-If it has a policy on academic freedom, does the board adhere to the policy readily and without question?	24	92	0	0	2	8
3-Have there been any recent cases in which the policy or the adherence to it were questioned by those who claimed to be supporting academic freedom?	1	4	25	96	0	0
4-Have there been any recent cases in which the policy or the adherence to it were questioned by those who claimed that license was being substituted for academic freedom?	1	4	25	96	0	0

* N.R. = No response

Table 44 presents information on the authority of individual board members.

TABLE 44. RESPONSES OF PRESIDENTS TO THE QUESTION OF WHETHER BOARD MEMBERS ACCEPT THE FACT THAT THEY HAVE AUTHORITY ONLY AS A GROUP, NOT INDIVIDUALLY

Responses	Numbers of institutions	Per cents
Always	9	35
Nearly always	8	31
Most of the time	7	27
Seldom	2	8
Never	0	0
No response	0	0
Total	26	100

According to the foregoing data the principle that board members have authority only as members of a board operating as a whole was consistently recognized in 35 per cent of black private colleges and nearly always so in an additional 31 per cent. Twenty-seven per cent said that it was accepted most of the time. Only two institutions seemed to be having serious problems with violations of this principle.

The presidents were asked to list the most important questions or decisions which the board had faced during the past few years. In an attempt to help interpret the responses, they were categorized and the frequency of responses was noted.

The most frequently mentioned decision of importance facing the boards was the purchase of additional facilities

(residence hall construction and expansion of physical facilities were included in this category), noted by nine presidents. Financing (including fiscal and budget) was listed second most frequently by seven presidents. Mentioned by three presidents each were developing and modifying the curriculum and enrollment and recruitment of students. The following were listed by two presidents each:

Selection of a new president

Posture and policy of institution in periods of protest and disruption

Maintenance

Total return investment policy

Faculty tenure

The following were listed by one president:

Accepting unionization of faculty

National fund raising campaign

Co-ed dormitory visitation

Terminating employment of a president

Recruitment of faculty personnel

Capital improvements

Becoming state related

Changing academic calendar

Instituting cooperative education

Student freedom

Faculty leave of absences

Policies of cooperation and relationship to other institutions in the cooperative

Divisional academic structure

Joint faculty and board evaluation concerning institutional goals and mission.

To a related question in which the presidents were asked if they felt that the legal basis for the operation of the board affected the membership and operation of the board, only two chief executives responded. One responded that the present constitution limited the opportunity to bring to the board individuals of influence, wealth, and diversity of qualities and insight since two thirds were selected by church agencies and only one third at large. The other stated that by by-law "individuals shall be eligible for election (to the board) without regard to race, creed or color."

Chapter IV concludes the presentation of data solicited from the presidents of private black college and universities, data which began with Chapter III.

CHAPTER V

COMPARISON OF DATA WITH DATA OF INDIANA PROJECT AND OTHER CURRENT STUDIES

The present chapter represents an attempt to go beyond the presentations and generalizations of the previous chapters by juxtaposing the data of chapters II and III alongside those of the Indiana Project. It was hoped that a comparison of some sort with this earlier study would substantiate or disclaim current thoughts about black higher education, and produce discernible patterns of governance in private black institutions of higher learning in the United States.

There are several imposed constraints on the data used in this comparison that should be kept in mind in interpreting the implications of particular findings. First, the number of respondents in this present study is quite small whereas the responding group of the Indiana Project was quite large. Since only 26 of the black presidents responded, in instances where all of these did not respond to a particular question the data may not reliably be considered to represent opinions of all black presidents. When there is a unanimity of responses the data can be considered reliable, but where there are divergent opinions the weight of a few presidents might skew the validity of the data. The larger numbers of presidents responding in

the Indiana Project no doubt have produced more reliable and stable data.

Another factor that should be kept in mind is the factor of time. The data for the Indiana Project were collected and processed in 1968 and 1969.

The comparison is presented in tabular form in Table 45. In this presentation certain table numbers in the present report are not included because comparisons are not possible and certain data from the Indiana Project are not presented because they were unavailable.

The present data were collected in 1974 and processed in 1974 and 1975. Differences that appear to be great might have been diminished if the data had been collected and processed concurrently.

This chapter presents a comparison of percentages only and deals only with the private sector data of the Indiana Project. Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number which may at times produce some rounding error.

TABLE 45. COMPARISONS AND RELATIONSHIPS OF PRIVATE SECTOR OF INDIANA PROJECT WITH BLACK COLLEGES OF THIS STUDY

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
1	Enrollments							
	Under 1,000	68	68	48	59	-9	-9	+11
	1,000-2,499	27	23	29	35	+8	+12	+6
	2,500 and above	5	9	23	6	+1	-3	-17
2	Founding dates							
	Before 1899	67	31	60	86	+19	+55	+26
	1900-1919	12	12	17	10	-2	-2	-7
	Since 1920	22	58	22	4	-18	-54	-18
3	Institutions accredited	83	76	79	86	+3	+10	+7
6	Numbers of voting members							
	3-15	14	86	25	0	-14	-86	-25
	16-31	49	13	51	57	+8	+44	+6
	32-106	38	1	23	43	+5	+42	+20
	(means numbers, not per cents)	(29)	(10)	(24)	(27)			
8	Institutions using self-perpetuating selection plan	52	60	95	96	+44	+36	+1
9	Institutions selecting by church conferences	59	68	--	23	-36	-45	--
	Selecting by corporations of church members	14	19	--	12	-2	-7	--
	Selecting by denominational boards of education	6	1	--	15	+9	+14	--
	Selecting by alumni	67	95	50	54	-13	-41	+4

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
10	Trustees selected by students	0	0	1	35	+35	+35	+34
	Trustees selected by faculty	1	8	3	23	+22	+15	+20
11	Women eligible to serve	94	77	94	100	+6	+23	+6
	Women required to serve	7	24	7	15	+8	-9	+8
12	Women on boards							
	no	41	42	35	4	-37	-38	-31
	1	--	2	16	15	--	+13	-1
	2	--	2	12	23	--	+21	+11
	3	--	0	9	10	--	+10	+1
	4	--	4	6	8	--	+4	+2
	5	--	11	5	15	--	+4	+10
	6	--	12	3	8	--	-4	+5
	7	--	10	2	10	--	0	-8
	8	--	6	2	4	--	-2	+2
	9 or more	--	6	9	--	--	-6	-9
13	Faculty eligible to serve	33	64	46	39	+6	-25	-7
	Faculty now on board	2	41	7	27	+25	-14	+20
	Faculty on standing or advisory committees	48	56	10	77	+29	+21	+67
14	Students eligible to serve on board	17	11	21	39	+22	+28	+18
	Students now on board	0	0	1	27	+27	+27	+26
	Plan for a change	2	7	2	8	+6	+1	+6
	Students on standing and advisory committees	11	17	13	77	+66	+60	+64

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
15	Alumni on board							
	no	16	54	13	0	-16	-54	-13
	1	--	11	9	4	--	-7	-5
	2	--	5	8	4	--	-1	-4
	3	--	5	12	19	--	+14	+7
	4	--	5	7	15	--	+10	+8
	5	--	4	6	15	--	+11	+9
	6	--	5	5	4	--	-1	-1
	7	--	3	4	4	--	+1	0
	8	--	2	4	8	--	+6	+4
	9 or more	--	4	27	27	--	+23	0
16	Alumni must be represented	36	7	45	58	+22	+51	+13
	Certain professions must be represented	24	27	5	12	-12	-15	+7
17	Ages							
	Under 40	8	10	5	10	+2	0	+5
	40-60	63	65	55	57	-6	-8	+2
	61-70	23	31	30	27	+4	+6	-3
	Over 70	6	4	10	8	+2	+4	-2
18	Professions represented							
	Agriculture	3	0	1	3	0	+3	+2
	Clergy	33	68	6	29	-4	-39	+23
	Education	8	6	11	18	+10	+12	+17
	Finance and insurance	12	7	16	9	-3	+2	-7
	Government and legal	8	6	14	10	+2	+4	-4
	Health professions	5	2	5	6	+1	+4	+1
	Industry and business	30	11	44	19	-11	+8	-25
	Labor	0	0	0	2	+2	+2	+2
	News media	1	1	2	9	+8	+8	+7

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
19	Estimated earnings							
	Less than $10,000	20	48	5	7	-13	-41	+2
	$10,000-$20,000	39	18	20	35	-4	+17	+15
	$20,000-$50,000	27	22	43	44	+17	+22	+1
	Over $50,000	14	11	32	14	0	+3	-18
20	Academic backgrounds							
	No earned degree	13	6	11	12	-1	+6	+1
	Only one	46	40	56	38	-6	-2	-18
	Two or more	41	55	33	50	+9	-5	+17
21	Residential proximity							
	Local	26	72	49	28	+2	-44	-21
	Within 100 miles	27	15	20	12	-15	-3	-8
	100-500 miles	34	10	20	31	-3	+21	+11
	Over 500 miles	13	4	11	29	+16	+25	+18
22	Institutions with members serving on other boards							
	None	--	43	16	8	--	-35	-8
	1	--	12	12	4	--	-8	-8
	2	--	14	15	12	--	-2	-3
	3	--	8	9	12	--	+4	+5
	4	--	8	9	4	--	-4	-5
	5	--	6	5	12	--	+6	+7
	6	--	1	7	4	--	+3	-3
	7	--	2	4	12	--	+10	+8
	8	--	2	4	15	--	+13	+11
	9 or more	--	2	7	--	--	--	--

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
23	Institutions reporting board members serving as faculty and administrators elsewhere							
	None	--	69	51	12	--	-57	-39
	1	--	14	20	35	--	+21	+15
	2	--	8	12	19	--	+8	+7
	3	--	2	8	12	--	+10	+4
	4	--	2	4	0	--	-2	-4
	5	--	2	2	8	--	+6	+6
	6	--	0	0	4	--	+4	+4
	7	--	0	0	8	--	+8	+8
	8	--	0	0	--	--	--	--
	9	--	0	0	--	--	--	--
24	Terms of office							
	1 year	1	12	8	0	-1	-12	-8
	Two years	2	2	1	0	-2	-2	-1
	Three years	53	45	47	58	+5	+13	+11
	Four years	21	3	11	23	+2	+20	+12
	Five years	7	6	17	8	+1	+2	-9
	Six years or above	16	33	17	4	-12	-29	-13
25	Serving overlapping terms	83	47	76	92	+9	+45	+16
	Can succeed oneself	93	91	95	96	+3	+5	+1
	Limit to number of terms	33	27	14	39	+6	+12	+25
26	Now in second term	46	55	35	40	-6	-15	+5
	Now in third term	24	22	25	26	+2	+4	+1
	More than third term	30	24	40	34	+4	+10	-6

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
28	Chairman selected ex officio	4	63	4	11	+7	-52	+7
	Chairman selected by board	95	31	94	85	-10	+54	-9
	Other	1	6	2	4	+3	-2	-2
29	Frequency of executive committee meetings							
	Monthly	28	24	36	4	-24	-20	-32
	Twice a month	1	9	1	0	-1	-9	-1
	Quarterly	21	18	12	11	-10	-7	-1
	Bi-annually	8	3	3	15	+7	+12	+12
	Other	41	46	48	39	-2	-7	-9
30	Types of standing board committees							
	Endowments	105	--	96	8			
	Annual giving	38	--	35	2			
	Facilities	228	--	195	19			
	Real estate	48	--	50	5	Cannot compare		
	Curriculum	123	--	108	16			
	Personnel	90	--	65	7			
	Finance	167	--	148	10			
	Student	94	--	61	15			
	Planning	93	--	101	8			
	Development	246	--	196	21			
	Other	30	--	35	23			

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
31	Committee practices							
	Executive committee conducts business for board	66	42	51	20	-46	-22	-31
	Executive committee substitutes for board in initiating action	62	43	58	22	-40	-21	-36
	Standing committees implement recommendations	24	36	27	3	-21	-33	-24
	Standing committees need full approval before implementation	74	58	68	18	-56	-40	-50
32	Average attendance at full board meetings							
	Below 50 per cent	1	0	1	4	+3	+4	+3
	50%-75%	29	8	36	38	+9	+30	+2
	76%-90%	46	30	48	35	-11	+5	-13
	Above 90 per cent	24	62	15	19	-5	-43	+4
33	Required frequencies of full board meetings							
	None	20	29	22	0	-20	-29	-22
	Once a year	18	29	18	15	-3	-14	-3
	Twice a year	35	18	18	57	+22	+39	+39
	Quarterly	10	13	20	4	-6	-9	-16
	Other	16	11	21	12	-4	+1	-9

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
33 cont'd	Practiced frequencies of full board meetings							
	Once a year	8	15	4	0	-8	-15	-4
	Twice a year	49	21	22	69	+20	+48	+47
	Quarterly	15	34	30	8	-7	-26	-22
	Other	29	30	43	23	-6	-7	-20
34	Lengths of meetings							
	2-3 hours	14	57	41	15	+1	-42	-26
	4-5 hours	27	26	34	15	-12	-11	-19
	Full day	40	10	13	19	-21	+9	+6
	Two days	15	2	4	8	-7	+6	+4
	Other	4	6	7	38	+34	+32	+31
35	Prepares agenda							
	President	68	65	66	46	-22	-19	-20
	Board chairman	6	23	8	8	+2	-15	0
	Board secretary	4	9	14	0	-4	-9	-14
	No agenda	0	2	0	0	0	-2	0
	Other	21	2	12	46	+25	+44	+34
36	Other officers required to attend	267	113	222	Unable to compare			

TABLE 45 (Continued)

Tables	Descriptions	Percentages				Relationships		
		Prot.	Cath.	Ind.	Black	Prot.	Cath.	Ind.
38	Open and restricted meetings							
	Open	32	23	19	31	-1	+8	+12
	Open but restricted	17	13	12	15	-2	+2	+3
40	Policymaking and administration							
	Degree distinction understood by board members							
	Well understood	61	46	71	58	-3	+12	-13
	Fairly well understood	34	40	24	27	-7	-13	+3
	Understood but not well	4	10	3	15	+11	+5	+12
	Poorly understood	1	5	2	0	-1	-5	-2
	Degree understood by administrators							
	Well understood	71	49	80	85	+14	+36	+5
	Fairly well understood	28	42	18	15	-13	-27	-3
	Understood but not well	1	7	2	0	-1	-7	-2
	Poorly understood	0	3	0	0			
42	Policy making and administration							
	Put in writing	52	35	35	46	-6	-11	-11
	Problems about this distinction	18	21	19	42	+24	+21	+23
	Distinction seen as necessary by president	51	65	47	65	+14	0	+18
	Clear distinction possible	78	81	78	100	+22	+19	+22
	Employees feel responsible to the board only through the president	95	77	89	73	-22	-44	-16

Enrollment (Table 1). When enrollment tables of the Indiana Project were compared it was evident that private colleges were generally small in size. Independent private colleges of the Indiana Project tended to be somewhat larger than the other private colleges, with 23 per cent of independent colleges having 2,500 and above in enrollment (compared with only 5 per cent Protestant and 9 per cent Catholic). This same pattern was evident among black colleges of this present study with the independent private schools being larger than the Protestant and Catholic private colleges. The only three black institutions above 2,500 were independent private colleges.

Founding Dates (Table 2). The data of the Indiana Project showed that relatively few private institutions were of recent origin except for Catholic colleges which showed their largest increases since 1920. Fewer private black colleges were founded after 1900 than was true for private colleges on the whole. All three segments of the private sector (Indiana Project) showed some increase in the "since 1920" category over the "1900-1919" period, but a sharp decline among black schools became evident in the period following 1920. The recent growth of quality public institutions coupled with integration at these institutions brought about by civil rights legislation has, no doubt, affected the impetus for creating new private black institutions.

Accredited Institutions (Table 3). Interestingly, comparative data revealed that a larger per cent of private black higher educational institutions were regionally accredited than the private sectors of the Indiana Project--3 per cent more than private Protestant institutions, 10 per cent more than Catholic institutions and 7 per cent more than independent institutions. A larger variety of accrediting associations was responsible for the accreditation of the private sectors of the Indiana Project. The New England Association, Western Association, and North Western Association were some of the associations that did not deal with the accreditation of private black colleges. The Southern association, one of the associations that accredited a very small quantity of the private sector of the Indiana Project colleges was responsible for approving the largest group of black institutions.

Denominational Affiliation (Table 4). Of the private colleges in the Indiana Project 48 per cent were affiliated with Protestant church groups, 28 per cent were independent, and 24 per cent were Catholic affiliated. Of private black colleges 77 per cent were affiliated with Protestant church groups, 21 per cent were independent, and 2 per cent were Catholic affiliated. Protestant related private colleges formed the largest group in each study. However, in the Indiana Project less than half were Protestant and in private black colleges more than three fourths were Protestant.

A much greater Protestant church influence was prevalent among black private colleges. The Catholic influence among private black colleges was minimal. The Protestant influence relates to the history of the development of black colleges.

Board Size (Table 6). Black college boards tended not to be small. No black institution reported a board with from 3 to 15 members, whereas in the Indiana Project 14 per cent of Protestant, 25 per cent of independent, and 86 per cent of Catholic boards were in this size category. The percentages show that black boards were larger in the 16-31 and 32-106 categories for all three groups of the private sectors. In this respect, black boards were more similar to Protestant boards. The mean of the black boards was 27 and the mean of Protestant boards of the Indiana Project was 28 (Catholics had a mean of 10 and independents a mean of 24). However, the range of black boards was smaller, only 37 (15-52) whereas for Protestants the range was 100 (6-106).

Blacks on Boards (Table 7). The Indiana Project did not solicit information on the numbers of blacks on the boards in their study. Therefore, this section cannot really be compared. Davis and Batchelor in the latter part of 1973 and early part of 1974 processed their data which showed that the boards of black institutions were 51 per cent black.[1]

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[1]Davis, J. A., and Batchelor, S. R., The Effective College and University Board: A Report of a National Survey of Trustees and Presidents, p. 16.

Their study encompassed both private and public sectors of black higher education. They surveyed 28 black institutions of which only 50 per cent (14 institutions) responded. Their data, therefore, may not reflect as accurate a picture of the black institutions as possible. Nabrit and Scott in their survey done in 1967 stated that 51.8 per cent of the trustees in black private institutions were black (57.68 per cent of the trustees of 50 private black institutions responded to their questionnaire). They further stated that there were 15 church-related institutions with predominantly white boards (approximate ratios of six to one in one institution, four to one in two institution, three to one in four institutions, and two to one in four institutions. Four others had white majorities). Seventeen church-related boards had predominantly black memberships (six were completely black). Seven of the eight independent institutions had predominantly white memberships (mean ratio of two to one). Four institutions had boards with equal or almost equal racial balance.[2]

In this current study, of the 23 black institutions that supplied the needed data only eight had predominantly white boards. The black Catholic university had the smallest per cent of black members (27 per cent; the other seven were 33, 33, 34, 36, 42, and 48 per cent black, respectively.

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[2]Nabrit, S. M., and Scott, Julius, Jr., Inventory of Academic Leadership, p. 33.

The percentage of total black board members for the 23 responding colleges was 54.6 per cent, i.e., 352 black trustees of a total of 644. Of the 23 colleges in this study for which comparative data were supplied only one college had a completely black board, a board which five years ago was also completely black. In another institution, except for one trustees, the board was completely black. Data for 1969 were not supplied for this college.

Methods of Selection (Tables, 8, 9, and 10). The major method of choosing trustees in black boards was by the self-perpetuating plan. Only one college responded that none of the board members was selected by the board itself, and 57 per cent responded that all members were selected in this fashion. Among the Protestant and Catholic groups of the Indiana Project the self-perpetuating plan was second to election by the church conference. Of the groups listed under tables 8 and 9 denominational boards of education were least involved with the Catholic and Protestant colleges. In black college boards one more institution reported using a corporation of church members than the board of education yet the total number of members selected by a corporation of church members was eight per cent and that of boards of education only four per cent. It was difficult always to ascertain clearly the method of selection since write-in comments indicated that a dual process might be involved, i.e., one group might nominate and another group might ratify.

Alumni were well utilized in the selection process in black schools as well as in those institutions of the Indiana Project.

The comparative figures of Table 10 indicate that well over 30 per cent more black schools used students and from 15 to 22 per cent more black institutions used faculty than those schools involved in the Indiana Project. The dates of the studies must be considered here. The results of student activism of the '60's would be manifested in the '70's, and it is suggested that increases have resulted in the schools of the Indiana Project also, increases which would be manifest if a current study would be made. The same could be the case with tables 11 and 14 where students' participation is greater in all cases among black institutions than among the institutions of the Indiana Project and where women are eligible to serve in 100 per cent of the black colleges. Affirmative action and equal opportunity employment legislation was not in effect in 1967.

Faculty seemed to have more opportunities on black college boards. The major exceptions were among the Catholic institutions where 25 per cent more were eligible to serve and 14 per cent more were actually serving. This could be the result of the large number of clergymen and members of religious communities who served as administrators or faculty in Catholic institutions and were board members at the same time (Table 13).

Black institutions were more concerned (Table 16) that alumni be represented than certain professions. No large percentage differences were noticeable as far as the ages of board members were concerned. The data might suggest that there were a few additional younger members on black college boards than on the boards of the Indiana Project (Table 17). Trustees from the field of education were more highly represented on black college boards than on any of the three groups in the Indiana Project. Markedly fewer from industry and business were represented on black college boards than on Protestant and independent boards of the Indiana Project. A much higher representation of clergy was apparent in the Catholic sector of the Indiana Project study than on black college boards and many fewer clergy were on independent boards than on black college boards (Table 18).

A larger percentage of black college trustees earned more than did those in the Indiana Project, especially in the $20,000-$50,000 group (Table 19). The time of the study, again, could be an important factor, since it is well known that inflation in the last few years could have had a great deal to do with this difference.

A larger percentage of black college trustees had two or more degrees than was true in the Protestant and independent institutions of the Indiana Project. Catholic trustees, with a high percentage being clergy, were the only

group that surpassed the black college trustees in academic degrees (Table 20).

In all instances, important percentage differences showed that the black college trustees came from further distances to attend board meetings than did those of the Indiana Project.

Black college boards were similar to boards in the Indiana Project in that the largest per cent seemed to have three year terms. Black college boards were unique in that no institution reported one or two year terms of office and only four per cent reported six years and above (Table 24). Greater percentages of black college boards used overlapping terms, allowed trustees to succeed themselves, and limited the number of terms members could serve (Table 25). The pattern for terms of board service was the same as for the institutions in the Indiana Project, i.e., most were in the second term, and the smallest percentage in the third term (Table 26).

Black college boards were more similar to Protestant and independent groups in that in the largest per cent of institutions the chairmen were selected by the boards (Table 28). Black college board meetings were not held as frequently as the private sector studied under the Indiana Project (Table 29). Black trustees came from greater distances, as was pointed out earlier, and this, to some degree might account for these differences.

Table 31 indicated large percentage differences in committee practices. The full implications of these differences were unclear but suggest that executive and standing committees were not used as fully and effectively in black colleges as they could be or else that full boards maintained stronger control in predominantly black colleges than was reported in the Indiana Project.

Clearly the best attendance record was that of Catholic trustees. Black college board attendance records were the poorest followed closely by independent colleges of the Indiana Project (Table 32). Black colleges and Protestant (in Indiana Project) were the only groups that were consistent in practice with the requirements written in their constitutions. All black colleges mentioned some type of required periodic meetings. Twice a year was the frequency most often mandated by black institutions' governing policy and was also the frequency most often practiced (Table 33).

Black college boards had a greater percentage or meetings over five hours in length than did those groups of the Indiana Project (Table 34). The presidents, in all cases, (Table 35), were the persons most commonly responsible for the preparation of the agenda for board meetings. The "other" in black boards included joint preparations, i.e., the presidents along with the board chairmen. The

percentages of open and restricted meetings in black colleges closely paralleled those in the Indiana Project (Table 38).

Although all administrators believed that they understood the difference between policy making and administration better than their board members, black presidents seemed to indicate a greater gulf between the two groups. There were 27 percentage points between administrators who understood this difference well and trustees who understood this difference. The difference among Protestants was 10 per cent, Catholics 3 per cent and independents 9 per cent.

With regard to the responses of presidents to questions concerning policy making and administration (Table 42), a considerable percentage indicated that problems had arisen in recent years about this distinction, more than were reported in the Indiana Project. However, black college presidents believed that a clear distinction is possible more than did presidents responding in the Indiana Project six years earlier.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The chief function of this study, as outlined in the significance of the study, was to collect a body of data concerning the membership, organization, and functioning of boards of predominantly black private colleges and universities. An additional aspect was to identify changes that have occurred with regard to their characteristics and procedures in the past few years by comparing these data with that of the Indiana Project. It was felt that with such a body of theory and recommended best practices black colleges and those dealing with black colleges would be better able to meet the rapid changes affecting higher education.

An extensive review of available literature was made, a review which indicated there were no studies of this type previously conducted for black colleges. The present study was primarily a status study which involved the collection, tabulation, and interpretation of the most current available data.

A comprehensive instrument, calling for short responses and some open ended comments, was sent to the 51 private predominantly black colleges in this country. Twenty-six responded and this study is basically composed of the data from the 26 responding colleges.

Summary

The tables and discussions of Chapters III and IV provided the data on the institutions of this study, their policy boards, board members and policy board operation and organization. In Chapter V this information was compared with the data of the Indiana Project done in 1968, (and other studies) to show what changes were occurring.

Institutions in this study, their policy boards and members. The typical institution in this study had an enrollment under 1,000, was founded in the period immediately following the Civil War and was regionally accredited by the Southern Association. Although most were created by a sponsoring church, many have merged to form joint affiliations and others have become independent of their church parents. Disappearing church ties were evident in the greater numbers of members being selected by the board itself than by church conferences.

The average number of voting members on black college boards was 27. Clergymen, businessmen and educators formed the largest group of professions represented. The number of black trustees had increased 24 per cent from 1969 to 1974 in the 17 colleges that supplied information on that question, but black college boards were also increasing in size. Thus the percentage of blacks on the boards was not vastly different.

The most common membership pattern provided for a three year, overlapping term of office. The larger proportion of board members were in their second terms. The majority of boards had no ex officio members other than the presidents (who were, except for four cases, ex officio members of their boards). In a few cases, church officials were ex officio members. Black college board members did not usually live in the local vicinity of the institutions they served. Only 12 per cent had no earned degrees and these were generally students. The largest per cent earned between $20,000 to $50,000 a year. The trustees of private black institutions were not generally related to any of the faculty, staff, or administration of their institutions, and received neither any honorary degrees from their schools nor any monetary compensation for their services.

Organization and operation of the boards. In 22 institutions the chairmen were elected by their boards and could succeed themselves. Only four boards maintained separate personnel and offices outside the office of the chief executive of the institution. Executive committees, operating in all the institutions of this study, met on irregular bases to conduct their business. Standing committees were employed by all institutions and the major ones were development, facilities, curriculum, student and student affairs and finance. Students and faculty participated on these committees in 77 per cent of the institutions. In the

majority of the institutions the executive committees met more often than the full boards to conduct business and could conduct business and could substitute for the board in all activities including approval of standing committee recommendations.

Thirty-eight per cent of the institutions reported that attendance at full board meetings was from 50 to 75 per cent. More than 50 per cent achieved 75 per cent attendance or above. Most board meetings were restricted and were held more often than required by the by-laws and lasted from two to three hours to two full days. The chief executives were almost always responsible for the preparation of agendas and if they received help it was from the chairmen of their boards. Vice-presidents, deans, business managers and development officers were the other institutional officers most often required to attend board meetings. Even though the president felt that administrators had a better understanding of the distinction between policy making and administration, they also felt that the board members had a good understanding of this distinction. The majority of the presidents believed that institutional employees and faculty understood that they were responsible to the board only through the president. Always, or nearly always, the president believed that the board members recognized that they had authority only as members of their boards and not as individual members. Policies supportive of academic

freedom were existent in all but one institution and were being adhered to.

Comparison of 1974 data with 1968 data. Characteristics in which predominantly black private four-year colleges and their boards studied in 1974 were similar to private four-year colleges and their boards studied in 1968 were the following. Independent colleges tended to be larger than church related colleges. More were Protestant church affiliated than were independent or Catholic church related. Boards were similar in size, particularly Protestant church related boards. The proportion of blacks on the predominantly black college boards was similar to that reported earlier but the boards had increased in size. Terms of office of board members were similar. The understanding of the difference between policy making and administration was reported to be similar in both groups. The problems which boards spent most time on were also similar.

Characteristics in which differences appeared, most of them relatively minor, were the following. Black colleges were older and larger proportions were accredited; self-perpetuation as a method of selection of board members was more widely used in black colleges. Students and faculty were more likely to be involved in board activity in black colleges in 1974, although this condition may have been a function of the passage of time. Alumni were better represented on black college boards and there was a larger

proportion of trustees from the field of education. Incomes of black college trustees were higher in 1974, but this too, may have been a function of the passage of time, and the onset of inflation. There appeared to be some differences in committee practices, indicating that full board control had grown between 1968 and 1974.

Conclusions

On the bases of the findings of this study the following conclusions seem warranted.

1. Boards of predominantly black private colleges and universities are similar in membership and operation to those of private colleges and universities studied earlier. The proportions of blacks on these boards may have increased slightly, but numbers of members have increased considerably.

2. Boards of predominantly black private colleges and universities typically operate extensively with standing and executive committees but may rely on them somewhat less and utilize students and faculty on them more than did institutions studied in 1968.

3. Presidents of predominantly black colleges and universities are typically ex officio members of their boards. Ex officio status otherwise is limited to church officials in a few cases. Otherwise, self-perpetuation is the typical method of selection. Women make up a very small proportion of board members.

4. Board members of predominantly black college and universities recognize limitations on the authority of individual members.

5. Primary concerns of boards are finances, facilities, students, and student affairs in that order. There is lack of evidence of deep board concern for institutional purposes, academic programs, and faculty recruitment and retention.

6. Boards of predominantly black private colleges and universities are expanding in size and are expected to include younger members and more women, students, alumni, faculty, and blacks in the future.

7. Black colleges, by virtue of the times in which they were founded and the social circumstances which made them practically the sole transmitters and suppliers of higher education to U. S. blacks, have made important contributions to higher education in the United States.

Recommendations

1. A future study, on the order of the Nabrit and Scott study, should be conducted in which an individual or groups of individuals can actually visit the campuses and examine the boards in session and their constitutions and by-laws in order to obtain more reliable data. The administrative staffs of many black colleges are not sufficiently

large to fill out the many questionnaires that are sent their way.

2. In order that trends might be identified in the operation, organization and membership of policy boards of black higher education institutions, this study and related ones should be repeated in the near future. Interested individuals should seek grants which would cover the expenses of such a project.

3. Future studies should be made in which special attention is given to the contributions made to board operations by new kinds of board members, i.e., women, faculty, students, and others not typically found on boards.

4. Each board should review, study, and reassess its own selection procedures in order to assure improved representation.

5. Greater efforts should be made to increase the percentage of blacks serving on the boards of private black institutions. Diversity of publics should be represented among these blacks.

6. Studies of institutions of higher education, although including black trustees at predominantly white colleges, have shown a tendency to neglect black trustees at black institutions. With their increased prominence future research should include black institutions.

7. Black colleges will have to guard against the threat to the concept of full board control by increasing

the frequency and length of full board meetings, and by diminishing the use of executive and standing committees. Executive and standing committees are not needed to provide interim leadership when the full board meets frequently.

8. To aid in control against executive domination presidents should consider dropping ex officio memberships on boards.

9. Since by-laws and charters stipulating the sizes of the boards and other trustee qualifications seem often ignored, regular and periodic review and study of the by-laws should be made items on the agendas of full boards.

10. Periodic attempts should be made to define the responsibilities and duties of trustees in conjunction with overall goals and objectives of institutions.

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APPENDIX

INDIANA UNIVERSITY
School of Education
EDUCATION BUILDING
BLOOMINGTON, INDIANA 47401

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TEL. NO. 812 337 0369

The Department of Higher Education is conducting a study of policy boards and policy making in institutions of higher education. Very little is known about boards and policy making of our predominantly black colleges and universities and it is hoped that this study will provide needed information in this neglected area.

I am inviting and urging you to make a personal contribution to a very important study which will provide a current and comprehensive body of data concerning the operation, organization, and membership of these boards.

This is not a "sample" study. Every nonpublic predominantly black institution in the country is being included and we need accurate up-to-date information from each one.

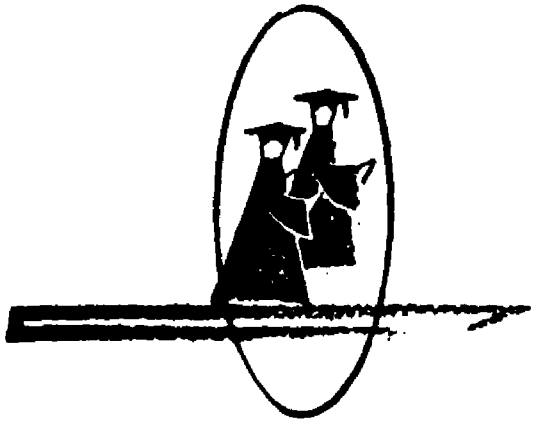
Instructions for completing the information are included on the enclosed instrument. Most of the questions can be answered by simply checking the appropriate space or writing in a short answer, but if you wish to make additional comments, we will welcome them.

All of the information received will be carefully processed to protect the anonymity of responses and in no way will questions of opinion be attributed to your institution. If there are questions of opinion which you feel are best left unanswered, we will certainly understand.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

DeWitt S. Williams



A STUDY OF POLICY BOARDS AND POLICY MAKIN IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

PRIVATE PREDOMINANTLY BLACK INSTITUTIONS

Conducted by
Department of Higher Education
School of Education
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

This request is being sent to the presidents of all private predominantly black colleges and universities in the United States in an effort to gather a comprehensive body of data concerning their governing boards.

Space at the bottom of each page is left for you to write any comments or explanations which will help to interpret responses. It is urged that you add comments freely, using additional pages if you feel this is desirable.

NEITHER YOU NOR YOUR INSTITUTION WILL BE IDENTIFIED IN ANY REPORT OF ANY FINDINGS. NOR WILL ANY INFORMATION OR COPIES OF ANY COMPLETED INSTRUMENTS BE ALLOWED TO FALL INTO THE HANDS OF UNAUTHORIZED PERSONNEL.

Name of Institution _____

Location _____
Post Office State Zip Code

Name of chief executive _____
(If title is not president, please specify)

Name and person completing this report (if not the chief executive) _____

Telephone number(s), including area code _____

---

1. Total enrollment during the largest term of the 1973-74 academic year. _____
2. As chief executive, are you an ex officio member of the board? ___yes ___no
3. As chief executive, are you an officer on the board or its executive committee? If yes, what office? ___yes ___no
4. Are you, the chief executive, a member of the board of some other institution of higher education? ___yes ___no
5. How many ex officio members other than the president are there on your board? _____ If there are ex officio members, by virtue of what offices are they members of the board?
6. How many voting members are there on your board? _____
7. How many blacks now serve on the board? _____ How many blacks served on the board five years ago? _____
8. How many board members are chosen by the board itself (self perpetuating plan)? _____
9. Are women eligible to serve on the board? ___yes ___no
10. Is there a requirement that women serve on the board? ___yes ___no
11. How many women now serve on the board? _____
12. Are any board members selected by the faculty of your institution? ___yes ___no
13. Are faculty members of the institution eligible to serve on the board? ___yes ___no
14. Are faculty members of the institution now members of the board? ___yes ___no
15. If No. 14 is no, are there any plans for a change? ___yes ___no
16. Do faculty members serve on board standing or advisory committees? ___yes ___no
17. Are any board members selected by the students of your institution? ___yes ___no

Comments concerning items on this page.

18. Are students of the institution eligible to serve on the board? ____yes ____no
19. Are students of the institution now members of the board? ____yes ____no If so, how many? _____
20. If students do not serve on the board, is it anticipated that there will be plans to allow students to serve on boards? ____yes ____no
21. Do students serve on board standing or advisory committees? ____yes ____no
22. How many members of your board are selected by alumni? _____
23. Is there a requirement that alumni must be represented on the board? ____yes ____no
24. How many alumni now serve on the board? _____
25. Is it required that some board members be representatives of certain occupations or professions? ____yes ____no
26. How many board members are estimated to be in each of the following ranges?
    _____under forty, _____40-60, _____61-70, _____over seventy
27. How many members of each of the following professions or occupations are represented on the boards?
    _____ Agriculture, _____ Clergy, other religious, _____ Finance and insurance,
    _____ Education, _____ Government and legal, _____ Health professions,
    _____ Labor, _____ Industry and business, _____ News media, _____ Other (identify)
28. How many board members are estimated to have annual incomes within each of the following income brackets?
    _____ less than $10,000, _____ $10,000 to $20,000,
    _____ $20,000 to $50,000, _____ over $50,000
29. How many of your board members hold no earned degrees? _____
30. How many of your board members hold one earned degree? (e.g., associate, bachelor, first professional) _____
31. How many of your board members hold two or more earned degrees? _____
32. How many board members are estimated to fall within each of the following categories of approximate distance of residence from the institution?
    _____local, _____ not local but within 100 miles, _____ 100 to 500 miles,
    _____ more than 500 miles
33. How many board members are related by blood or marriage to members of your institution's administration, faculty or staff? _____
34. How many of your board members are serving on governing boards of other institutions of higher learning? _____
35. How many of your board members are serving as faculty or administrators at other colleges? _____
36. Have any of your present board members received honorary degrees from your institution? ____yes ____no
37. How many years constitute a term of office for a member of the board? _____
38. Is a system of overlapping terms used? ____yes ____no
39. Is a board member permitted to succeed himself? ____yes ____no
40. Is there a limit to the number of terms a board member may serve? ____yes ____no
41. How many board members are now in their second terms? _____ third terms? _____
42. How many board members have served more than three terms? _____
43. What is the estimated average attendance (in percentages) of board members at full board meetings? _____
44. How often are full board meetings held each year? _____
45. Is there a required minimum number of annual meetings of the full board? ____yes ____no If yes, how often?
    _____
46. How long does the average meeting of the full board last for consideration of business? _____
47. Who prepares the agenda for the board meetings
    _____the chief executive of the institution, _____ Chairman of the board,
    _____Secretary of the board (if other than chief exec.), _____No agenda is prepared,
    _____other (please specify)
48. Do members of the board receive compensation for their services other than reimbursement of expenses? ____yes ____no
49. Are board meetings open to anyone other than board members and others necessary to conduct business? ____yes ____no
50. How many institutional officers, other than the chief executive, are typically required to be present at board meetings whether they are open or closed? Who are they? _____
    _____
51. If meetings are open, is attendance restricted? ____yes ____no ____not applicable.

Comments concerning items on this page.

52. If attendance is restricted, which of the following are permitted to attend?
_____Administrators other than those required to attend, _____Faculty members,
_____News media representatives, _____Students, _____General public

53. How is the chairman of the board chosen?
_____*ex officio* (by virtue of what office?), _____elected by board,
_____other (please specify)

54. May the chairman succeed himself if he is not ex officio? ____yes ____no ____not applicable.

55. Does the board have an administrative office and administrative personnel outside the office of the chief executive of the institution? ____yes ____no

56. Is there an executive committee of the board? ____yes ____no If so, how often does it meet? _____

57. Does the board operate with standing committees? ____yes ____no

58. If there are standing committees, what are they?
_____Endowments, _____Annual giving, _____Real estate, _____Curriculum,
_____Development, _____Personnel, _____Planning, _____Facilities (buildings)
_____Students & student activities, _____Other (specify)

59. Does the executive committee usually meet to conduct business for the board with the total board meeting once or twice a year to approve what the executive committee has done? ____yes ____no

60. Do standing committees or their chairman usually implement recommendations which they make and which are approved by the board in contrast to delegating them to the chief executive? ____yes ____no

61. Do standing committees and/or their chairmen usually wait for full board approval before initiating action on their recommendations? ____yes ____no

62. Does the executive committee of the board usually substitute for the board (i.e., in giving approval for standing committee recommendations) in situations such as those mentioned in items 60 and 61? ____yes ____no

63. How do you describe the board's understanding of the distinction between policy making and administration?
_____well understood, _____fairly well understood,
_____understood, but not well, _____poorly understood

64. Describe the understanding of the chief executive and top administrators of the distinction between policy making and administration?
_____well understood, _____fairly well understood, _____poorly understood

65. Has the distinction between policy making and administration been put in writing for your institution? ____yes ____no

66. Has any problem arisen in recent years concerning the distinction between policy making and administration involving either the board, board members individually, or the chief executive? ____yes ____no

67. Do you, the chief executive, see any point in giving consideration to the distinction between policy making and administration insofar as your own situation is concerned? ____yes ____no

68. Do you believe it is possible to make a clear distinction between policy making and administration? ____yes ____no

69. Theory tends to have it that all institutional employees and the faculty are responsible to the board only through the president. Is this theory carried out in your institution in every respect except that one or two officers may be employees of the board and are not responsible to the president? ____yes ____no

70. In which areas does the board consider it has major policy responsibility?
_____all, _____business, _____finance, _____curriculum, _____personnel,
_____facilities & real estate, _____students

71. In which operating (administrative) areas does the board consider it has major operating or administrative responsibility?
_____none, _____all, _____business, _____facilities & real estate,
_____curriculum, _____finance, _____personnel, _____students

72. Does the board have a policy in support of academic freedom? ____yes ____no

73. If it has a policy on academic freedom, does the board adhere to the policy readily and without question? ____yes ____no

74. Have there been any recent cases in which the policy or the adherence to it were questioned by those who claimed to be supporting academic freedom? ____yes ____no

75. Have there been any recent cases in which the policy or the adherence to it were questioned by those who claimed that license was being substituted for academic freedom? ____yes ____no

76. Does each board member accept the fact that he has no authority as an individual but only as a member of and through the group which is the board? i.e., that is, does each board member avoid trying to use his influence as a board member in individual action?
_____always, _____nearly always, _____most of the time, _____seldom, _____never

Comments concerning items on this page.

77. What are the most important questions or decisions the board has faced in the past few years? (Use additional paper if necessary).

78. If you feel that the legal basis (e.g., charter, statute, or constitution) for the operation of the board affects the membership and operation of the board more significantly than is indicated by the preceding questions, will you please explain at bottom of page.

THIS FINAL SECTION TO BE COMPLETED BY CHURCH RELATED INSTITUTIONS ONLY

---

79. How many board members are chosen by a corporation of church members? _____
80. How many board members are chosen by a church conference or religious order? _____
81. How many board members are chosen by a denominational board of education? _____
82. What is the denomination or religious order with which your institution is affiliated? _____
Please explain if an unusual type of affiliation is involved. _____
_____
83. Does the affiliation with a religious group involve a central denominational board of higher education to which your board has a relationship? ____yes ____no
84. If there is a relationship such as that described in 83, what is the nature of the relationship?
_____not applicable, _____advisory only, _____largely advisory, but significant appropriation of funds is involved, _____some of our board members are selected by the central committee, _____the central board can reverse our board's decisions,
_____other (please specify)
85. Are you, the chief executive, a member of the denomination, church, or order with which your institution is affiliated? _____yes, such membership is required, _____yes, but such a membership is not required, _____no
86. Are you, the chief executive, by virtue of your position, a member of a board of higher education or similar board of your institution's denomination? ____yes ____no ____there is no such board
87. Is membership in the denomination or religious order with which your institution is affiliated required of your board members?
_____all must be members, _____a fixed number (Please write it here_____),
_____not required
88. Is there any other requirement concerning church membership of board members? ____yes ____no If yes, what is it? _____
89. Are any board members required to be clergymen? ____yes ____no If yes, how many? _____
90. How many of your board members fit into each of the following categories of church membership?
_____denomination (or religious order of the college), _____Protestant (other than denomination of the college), _____Roman Catholic (other than order of the college), _____Jewish,
_____other affiliation, _____no church affiliation, _____unknown

Comments concerning items on this page.

VITA

DeWitt S. Williams was born August 21, 1939, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. He was awarded the Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in theology in 1962 by Oakwood College, Huntsville, Alabama. In 1965, he received the degree of Master of Arts with a major in systematic theology and a minor in church history from Andrews University Theological Seminary, Berrien Springs, Michigan. He has studied, in addition, at the University of Oklahoma, at Eurocentre in Switzerland, and at the University de Lovanium in Zaire. In 1972 he entered Indiana University, Bloomington, to pursue advanced graduate study in linguistics and subsequently changed his goal to pursuit of the doctorate with a major in the Department of Higher Education.

Mr. Williams' full-time employment has involved serving as pastor of the Tenth Street Seventh-day Adventist Church in Oklahoma City; directing youth activities for the Seventh-Day Adventist Church in Lubumbashi, Zaire; and serving as president, West Zaire Field for that Church at Kinshasa, Zaire. In 1974 he became assistant director of communications, General Conference of Seventh-day Adventists, Church World Headquarters, Washington, D.C.

Mr. Williams and his wife, Margaret, have two children and reside in Beltsville, Maryland.