Minorities and Women in Higher Education and the Role of Mentoring in Their Advancement

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The Evolution of the American System of Higher Education

The American Higher Education System

The colonial leaders knew that if the colonies were to prosper, they needed talented, intelligent, educated leaders. Therefore, among the first institutions they founded before the American Revolution were colleges. The first of these was Harvard College, founded in October 1636 and named after Reverend Mr. John Harvard (Lucus 104). Harvard was charged with a mission to educate young men of high social and economic status in religion and liberal arts. Following Harvard, eight other colleges were founded before the American Revolution, with basically the same charge and focus as Harvard's. This group consisted of William and Mary (1693); Yale (1701); Princeton (1746); Pennsylvania (1749); Columbia (1754); Brown (1764); Rutgers (1766); and Dartmouth (1769) (Lucus 105; Roby 121).

By the early nineteenth century, there existed a small group of colleges whose students consisted mostly of the sons of the wealthiest and most elite families in the colonies, as well as a few young male students of high promise from middle and lower income families. Most of the latter received scholarships, which they combined with work to pay for their tuition. All of these students were being educated to assume a leadership role in society, and were expected to be gentlemen who were religious, articulate, and analytical (Thelin 23-24; Lucus 108).

The new nation now had a new system of higher education that was exclusively for the benefit of white males. No blacks or women needed to apply because none would be admitted.

Unlike their English counterparts, these schools were governed by an external Board of Governors whose primary responsibility was to appoint a president (chancellor or provost were alternate titles) as the chief administrator and academic leader of the institution. In consultation with the faculty, the president recommended policy to the Board. The faculty had primacy in academic issues and the president had primacy on all other matters.

After the Revolutionary War, the enrollments began to increase dramatically. 1870, there were 62,000 students enrolled in US colleges, and by 1890 this number had grown to 157,000 and to 355,000 by 1910 (Lucus 140).

Most of the colleges were private. However, before the beginning of the Civil War, several states had established public colleges. In the south, these states included Georgia, Tennessee, North Carolina, Maryland, South Carolina, and Kentucky. Although these schools were called colleges, though, none of their courses qualified as collegiate level. It was not until 1825, with the founding of the University of Virginia by Thomas Jefferson, that the first truly collegiate-level public institution existed (Lucus 146-147).

In addition to the southern public colleges, similar schools were established in western states with land-grants from the federal government. But these, like their southern counterparts, offered little education that could be considered collegiate level.

The major catalyst for the founding of state-supported colleges was the first Morrill Act (Land-Grant Act) of 1862, which provided for the formula-based allotment of western lands by the federal government to the states. These lands were to be sold by the states to establish an endowment for state-funded land grant schools (Thelin 76-78; Lucus 148). The land-grant schools were expected to offer collegiate-level courses in agriculture, mechanics, mining, and military instruction. The response to the act varied by state: Some converted existing public colleges into land-grant colleges; others converted private colleges into public land-grant colleges; and a few established new land-grant colleges.)

Higher education enrollments continued to grow during the first half of the 1900s, doubling every fifteen years -- substantially faster than the nation's over-all population growth. This rapid growth in student enrollment was mirrored by the growth in faculty, graduate students, and facilities.

The impetus for much of this growth was a bill passed in Congress in 1944, known as Public Law 346, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, or more popularly as the GI Bill. The bill guaranteed veterans a maximum of 48 months of essentially cost-free education based on time of service. Although this bill was initially opposed by some higher education leaders, others embraced it and actively recruited veterans for their schools. The result was that by the fall of 1945, 88,000 recipients of the GI Bill were enrolled in college, and by 1950, that number had swelled to more than 2 million (Thelin 262-264).

These veterans played a key role in the continued expansion of access to higher education to a larger segment of society, while also increasing the quality of colleges and universities. By 1947, student enrollment had reached 2.3 million, and the number of colleges and universities (4-year and 2-year) had reached 1,800 (Lucus 227).

College enrollments continued to climb over the next several decades, influenced by several factors, including improvement in both high school graduation and college attendance rates. But the most important factor in the explosion in college enrollments during the sixties and seventies was the coming of college age of the baby-boomers (the generation of Americans born between 1946 and 1964). By 1986, college enrollments had reached approximately 12.3 million and the number of institutions had grown to 3,200 (Lucus 229). Since this time, although enrollments have continued to grow, the rate has slowed substantially. Essentially, the most recent growth was due to significant increases in enrollment of minorities and women.

The history of African-Americans and women in higher education is one of our nation's most shameful stories. It is a story of a nation's struggle to overcome overt and institutional racism and sexism.

Women's Colleges and the Education of Women

The early system of American higher education had enrolled, educated, and graduated hundreds of white men but, as a matter of policy, no women. Driven by a need for the continued education of women, a few schools, exclusively for women, were founded in the early 1800s. The earliest

of these were Troy Female Seminary (1821); Hartford Female Seminary (1823); Ipswich Female Seminary (1828); Georgia Female College (1836); and Mount Holyoke College (1837) (Lucus 154).

These early women's colleges offered no collegiate-level education, and were essentially finishing schools that offered some high school education. The first women's college to offer collegiate courses was Elmira Female College (1859). It was followed in the 1860s by Vassar College (1861) and in the 1870s by several other women's colleges, most notably Wellesley College (1870), and Smith (1871) (Lucus 155).

Oberlin College became the nation's first coeducational college when it admitted female students (4 women enrolled in the same class) in 1837 (Roby 123). These female students were enrolled in a separate department of the university and received special degrees. Following Oberlin, Hillsdale (1844) and Antioch (1853) were founded as coeducational institutions. Also, in 1855, the University of Iowa admitted four women (Roby 123).

By the beginning of the Civil War (1861), hundreds of men and women had received college degrees, but not one African-American woman. Interestingly, although these early women's colleges abhorred slavery, they still considered black women inferior and refused them admission. It was not until 1862 at Oberlin College that the first African-American woman, Mary Jane Patterson, received a college degree ("admissions").

The coeducational college movement began in earnest during the Civil War. The war created a shortage of potential male students for the rapidly growing number of all-male colleges. Therefore, as a matter of economic self interest (and, unfortunately, not humanitarian interest), additional colleges began to admit women. This was particularly true in the west, where all-male schools could not find adequate means of financial support other than tuition (Graham 1284).

The earliest of these western schools were public land-grant colleges. They included Iowa in 1855, followed during the next 10 years by Wisconsin, Indiana, Missouri, Michigan, and California (Lucus 156). By 1870 six other states, which were created or expanded by the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862 -- Kansas, Indiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Michigan and California -- had established coeducational colleges (Lucus 156). By the mid-1870s, not only were most of the colleges in the Midwest coeducational but also 17 southern colleges and eight Mid-Atlantic colleges. However, although the doors were now open for women, few of them took advantage. Only 21 percent, or 11,000, of those enrolled in college were women (Lucus 156).

It is important to note, that although these coeducational schools outnumbered the existing women's colleges, the majority of the degrees earned by women still came from women's colleges.

Beginning in the mid 1860s and 1870s, several high-quality women's schools were created in the east. The quality of these schools was almost equal to their male counterparts. Because of this, the interest of Eastern women in coeducation was not as great as those in the West. Also, these Eastern women's colleges were well financed and staffed with excellent faculty. Most noteworthy of these women's college's were Vassar (1865), Wellesley (1875), Smith (1875), and

Bryn Mawr (1884). The other prominent women's college of the time was Mount Holyoke, which did not officially become a college until 1888. (Brown 7; *"Readers"*)

Unfortunately, but consistent with racism of the times, it was not until 1881 that the first college for African-American women was founded—Spellman College.

By 1900, the enrollment of women had reached 85,000 or 39 percent of the country's college students (MacLachlan). However, after 1920, larger absolute numbers and percentages of white males began to enroll in college. This led to shrinkage in the proportion of women collegiate students. Over each of the next several decades, the proportion of women declined even though their absolute numbers increased -- from 47 percent (283,000) in 1920 to 30 percent (should have a number here, as well) in 1950 (MacLachlan; "Readers").

After the death of Martin Luther King Jr. in 1968 and the riots that followed, American leaders demanded educational equality, and the states responded by beginning to remove all legal barriers to the inclusion of minorities and women in governmental-sponsored or -supported institutions and programs. This led to the passage, in 1972, of an amendment to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that required schools to affirmatively recruit women and minorities to all schools receiving public assistance. The result was hundreds of colleges all over the country developing inventive affirmative action programs for the recruitment and retention of women and minorities.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities

Before the Civil War, only a few free African-Americans in the north were able to attend white northern colleges. However, in the southern states, the situation was even worse for African-Americans—both slave and free. In these states, it was against the law to teach slaves to read, and even free African-Americans were denied access to colleges. This led to a passion among black freedmen to learn to read and write and obtain a higher education. Their efforts resulted in the reduction of illiteracy from 70 percent in 1880 to 57 percent in 1890, to 44.5 percent in 1900, to 30 percent in 1910, and to 22.9 percent in 1920 (Davis 312). Thus, there developed a need for greater access for African-Americans to white colleges. More important, African-Americans desperately needed colleges exclusively dedicated to the higher education of former slaves and freedmen. The first of these colleges to be founded were Cheyney University (1837); Lincoln University (1854); and Wilberforce College in 1856 (PBS).

The highest priority of African-American leaders during this period was the development of more of these colleges to meet the demand for more African-American teachers and skilled workers. Several groups -- including the American Missionary Association (AMA), the Friends Association for Aid to Freedmen, the American Baptist Home Mission Society, The Board of Freedmen's Missions of the United Presbyterian Church, black churches, and the Freedman's Bureau -- rallied to successfully support this cause (Lucus 160; "the History"). The AMA alone, between 1861 and 1870, was responsible for the founding of seven black general educational colleges and 13 normal or teaching colleges ("the History" 1). AMA's efforts, along with the other church and benevolent organizations, were responsible for founding around 200 black private and religious schools during the 1870s and 1880s. However, most of these colleges were

financially troubled and many failed. Also, unfortunately, most of the curricula of these so-called colleges was at the elementary or secondary school level.

In 1862, the first African-Americans graduated from college in America -- Edward Jones from Amherst College and John Russworms from Bowdoin. In 1865, Edward Bouchet, a Yale graduate student, became the first African-American to obtain a doctorate degree. His degree was in physics and he was elected to the Phi Beta Kappa Honor Society. But, despite his achievement, not one American university or college offered him a job.

Between 1870 and 1910, a variety of state governments began to establish the first wave of public black colleges. Unfortunately, this was not done out of the goodness of their heart or the righteousness of the cause but because they were mandated to do so by the Second Morrill Act (Land-Grant Act) of August 30, 1890. That Act appropriated $15,000 to each college in its first year, and increased that amount by $1,000 per year until the maximum of $25,000 was reached (Fleming 171).

However, most important for African-Americans, the act required states receiving federal land-grant funds to either integrate or establish separate colleges for the education of blacks (Lucus 164). Unfortunately, the states chose the latter alternative, thus creating two separate and unequal systems of higher education in America (Lucus 164). One of these systems was well funded, all white, and offered a collegiate level curriculum. The other was poorly funded, all black, and offered a curriculum dominated by elementary and secondary courses. The black system consisted of nine black land-grant colleges between 1870 and 1890, and by 1915, this number had increased to 16. At that time there were also seven state-owned black colleges, yielding a grand total of 23 publicly owned black colleges that enrolled a total of 7,513 students (Anderson 238-239). However, it is important to reiterate here that most of these were colleges in name only because they taught primarily elementary and secondary level courses. Only one land-grant college, Florida A&M, enrolled students (12) in college level courses (Anderson 238-239). With the exception of these 12 students, the remaining 2,474 Black students who were enrolled in college level courses in the southern states were enrolled in private Black colleges (Anderson 238-239).

The reason why so many Black public colleges, especially in the south, offered high school education is that there were few public supported high schools for Blacks. Those that existed were poorly funded, and the quality of education suffered accordingly (Fleming 88). Also, because there was a great need for black elementary and secondary teachers, the dominant major at the public Black colleges was teacher education (Kujovich 65-70). Teaching was one of the few professions open to African-Americans and therefore many young African-American students were attracted to it. This resulted in many public Black colleges transforming themselves into teacher-training colleges (normal schools) (Kujovich 65-70).

Also, in 1917, a report sponsored by the United States Bureau of Education and the Phelps Stokes Fund, which focused mainly on private black colleges, found that few Black colleges were equipped to offer college-level courses. The exceptions were Fisk University and Howard University, both of which were judged to be truly collegiate-level institutions (Fleming 88-89).

By the mid-1930's, the percentage of Black college students attending public Black Colleges began to increase and stood at approximately 43 percent in the southern states. By 1936, the number of Black colleges hand increased to 121 (Anderson 238-239). By 1960, these historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs, defined as degree-granting institutions established prior to 1964 with the principal mission of education Black Americans) educated one-third of the 434,000 black students enrolled in higher education institutions.

However, beginning in the 1960s, traditionally white institutions (TWIs), in response to federal and state political pressure in the aftermath of the 1968 assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr., began to admit and graduate large numbers of African-American students. This led to a dramatic drop in the percentage of Black college students who received their degrees from Black colleges -- from 35 percent in 1977 to 22 percent in 2002 (Orlans 145).

Also, HBCUs responding to state legislatures and court rulings began to admit more white and Hispanic students. The former increased by 66 percent in the last 25 years while Hispanics doubled their enrollment (Ahmad). By the mid 1980s, there were 100 HBCUs, which represented only 3.3 percent of American colleges. But their importance could still be seen by the fact that they graduate 50 percent of Black students and employed 33 percent of all Black faculty (Hoffman 108).

Without these colleges, most African-Americans over the age of 60 would not have been able to go to college, and therefore, would not have been in position to lay the foundation for the success of so many who came after them. Also, "Many college students from urban areas come from families with little or no personal experience with higher education. Historically, black colleges and universities have proved masters at taking such students and molding them into professionals and scholars and leaders… (Jenifer)" These institutions took on the responsibility of not only providing these young future African-American leaders with the knowledge they needed for future employment, but also they taught them the social skills of how to talk, walk, behave, and dress. In short, they prepared them to compete in a world where, because of their race, they did not have the luxury of being just as good as their White counterparts but that they had to be better (Jenifer).

Higher Education in the Post Civil Rights Era

Beginning in the 1960's, and in particular after the riots following the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr., African-Americans began making gains in the number and percentage of them admitted to predominantly White American colleges and universities. Also, as a result of the Supreme Court's decision in the Adams et. al. v. Elliott Richardson case, both White and Black southern colleges were required to more effectively integrate (Orlans 145).

By the dawn of the 1970's, essentially all of the legal barriers for the full inclusion of African-Americans and women in all phases of America's social and economic life, including higher education, had been eliminated. Also, national and local governments instituted a variety of tough anti-discrimination laws that effectively ended intentional discrimination and racial segregation as a matter of law.

However, these new anti-discrimination laws were focused on preventing future discrimination and not on current discrimination that resulted from past discriminatory practices -- *de facto* discrimination. *De facto* or (unintentional or institutional) discrimination was as effective as the *de jure* (legal) form of discrimination it replaced (Sedler 125; Allport 14).

Whether intentional or unintentional, those with power and privilege in America had effectively institutionalized their privileged economic status, and by doing so, they created an insidious new form of discrimination referred to as institutional discrimination (Allport 14; Hargreaves 543). This new institutional racial prejudice began to play a greater role in racial discrimination in America.

Institutional discrimination is much more subtle than the old type of discrimination associated with intentional individual racist practices. It is manifested when the actions, policies or rules of an institution have a disproportionately negative impact on those Americans with the least amount of economic or political power.

Affirmative Action and Higher Education

The most effective program used to address institutional discrimination was affirmative action. Iin a speech made on July 19, 1995 in the rotunda of the National Archives, President Clinton described the purpose of affirmative action as a tool "…to give our nation a way to finally address the systemic exclusion of individuals of talent on the basis of their gender or race from opportunities to develop, perform, achieve and contribute. Affirmative action is an effort to develop a systematic approach to open the doors of education, employment and business development opportunities to qualified individuals who happen to be members of groups that have experienced long-standing and persistent discrimination." (President William Clinton)

Much of the success of African-Americans and Hispanics in gaining access to traditionally white institutions was due to the aggressive affirmative action admission programs used by many of these schools. In 1965, only one third of African-American high school graduates enrolled in college, compared to one half of white high school graduates. The gap between the college-going rate of African-Americans and Whites remained essentially the same until the early 1970s when the African-American rate became roughly equal to that of Whites ("African-Americans"). This was very important because a college education substantially increases one's earning power. The result was a substantial decrease in the gap between the earning power of African-Americans and women and their white male counterparts.

The first major legal challenge to affirmative action in higher education came in the case of *The Regents of the University of California v. Allan Bakke*. Bakke was a White student who believed that he was the victim of reverse discrimination because he was rejected from admission to the medical school although his scores where higher than every minority student admitted. The minority students were admitted through the University's special minority program that reserved 16 out of 100 openings solely for minority students. (Regents…)

On June 28, 1978, the United States Supreme Court handed down a confusing five-four decision of 154 pages with six different opinions (Regents …). Four Justices agreed with the University

of California and voted to uphold affirmative action; four others ruled to admit Bakke and against affirmative action; and one (Justice Lewis Powell) agreed with Bakke that the use of a rigid racial quota program was a violation of the 14th Amendment, but also agreed that race could be used as one of several factors in determining admission (Regents …).

Justice Thurgood Marshall's dissenting opinion represented the general view of all of those who supported affirmative action:

> "While I applaud the judgment of the Court that a University may consider race in its admissions process, it is more than a little ironic that, after several hundred years of class-based discrimination against Negroes, the court is unwilling to hold that a class-based remedy for that discrimination is permissible. In declining to so hold, today's judgment ignores the fact that for several hundred years Negroes have been discriminated against, not as individuals, but rather solely because of the color of their skins. It is unnecessary in 20th century America to have individual Negroes demonstrate that they been victims of racial discrimination; the racism of our society has been so pervasive that none, regardless of wealth or position, has managed to escape its impact. The experience of Negroes in America has been different in kind, not just in degree, from that of other ethnic groups, it is not merely the history of slavery alone but also that a whole people were marked as inferior by the law. And that mark has endured. The dream of America as the great melting pot has not been realized for the Negro; because of his skin color he never even made it into the pot." (Regents …400)

The Court's decision threw a legal cloud over affirmative action programs. Predictably, in the late 1980s and rapidly escalating during the 1990s, these programs began to come under a relentless attack by middle- and lower-class White male Americans. They believed that affirmative action amounted to nothing but reverse discrimination. In the 1994 off-year elections, which have been referred to as the "Republican Revolution," these frustrated and angry white Americans voted into office a wave of conservative Republicans who shared their views (Fineman 23-25).

Another major attack on affirmative action in higher education occurred on July 20, 1995, when the Board of Regents of the University of California voted to support an anti-affirmative action proposal submitted by Regent Ward Connerly, a 57 year old African-American (Bensimon 2). His proposal prohibited the consideration of race in all programs in the university, including student admission, faculty and staff hiring, and contract awarding.

Also in 1995, the Supreme Court sent a strong message in the Adarand v. Pena decision that all publicly supported programs that used race as a factor in deciding admissions, promotions, or contract awarding would have a difficult time passing constitutional scrutiny (Sealing 182).

In addition, in the summer of 1995, President Clinton, in response to the recommendations made by a commission he had established and the Adarand decision, reversed the administration's prior position on affirmative action with a new policy stating that programs that gave preference to women or minorities solely on the basis of race or gender were illegal and,where they existed, they should be discontinued (Greenhouse). Clinton described this new policy as "mend it, don't end it."

These actions by the California Regents and President Clinton were soon followed by Supreme Court and Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals decisions in Maryland and Texas respectively that forbid the use of race in college and university admission decisions.

Other universities, following what they perceived as the intent of a conservative judiciary and a nervous executive, began to eliminate programs at their institutions that used race as a factor in their admissions program. Eric Grodsky, an assistant professor at the University of California at Davis, reported that between 1986 and 2003 the percentage of colleges using race as one of its factors in admission consideration had fallen from 57 to 45.

All of this came at a time when African-Americans were still woefully underrepresented in those professions that would generate middle-class income. For example, they constituted only 4.2 percent of physicians, 5 percent of college teachers, 3.7 percent of engineers, 3.3 percent of lawyers, 1.4 percent of architects, 3.6 percent of natural scientists, and 9.1 percent of firefighters (Roberts 32).

Higher Education and the Economy

It was clear then and even more so now that the gateway out of poverty is higher education. America's new economy is based on technology and brains, and in order to compete successfully in it, an individual must have at least 14 years of education. Those who do not have skills and/or advanced education will be permanently relegated to the underclass. This means that higher education must remain affordable and accessible to low-income Americans. It is therefore imperative that African-Americans and Hispanics receive the same quality and quantity of education as their white contemporaries. (Evans 19)

The authors of "A Nation at Risk Report" (published in 1983) stated the situation best when they noted:

> The people of the United States need to know that individuals in our society who do not possess the levels of skill, literacy, and training essential to this new era will be effectively disenfranchised, not simply from the material rewards that accompany competent performance, but also from the chance to participate fully in our national life.

In order to be credible, higher education institutions must become more accessible. In other words, they must hire more minority and women faculty and staff and admit more minority students. Also, most important, these admissions should occur in disciplines that lead to the professions in most demand -- math, science, engineering, medical, and business — and the hires should be at major research universities.

Minority Representation and the Pipeline to the Presidency

National Demographics

As important as higher education is to ensuring that all able Americans, regardless of race, or gender, achieve a quality higher education, America has struggled unsuccessfully to make this a reality. Starting with the period of affirmative action and continuing to today, African-Americans and Hispanics have made significant gains in several key indicators of group achievement, including high school graduation rate, college enrollment, faculty employment and promotion, and promotions to senior administrative appointments. However, the subtle effects of institutional discrimination continue to plague higher education and have frustrated attempts to close the education gap between African Americans and Hispanics and their white counterparts. Also, both groups are far from achieving parity in employment and in particular key executive policy positions.

It is important, therefore, to understand the anatomy of higher education if we are to treat the chronic symptoms of institutional discrimination and design a strategy to ultimately cure higher education of this most difficult social disease.

The population of the United States in 2002-3 was approximately 291 million, consisting of 12.7 percent or 37 million African-Americans; 13.4 percent or 39 million Hispanics; and 73.9 percent or 235 million Whites. Also, in 2002, the Hispanic population surpassed the African-American population and became the nation's largest minority (McKinnon 1; Stoops; Ramirez 2; Hoffman and Llagas 6).

The largest component of the Hispanic population was Mexican-Americans, who represented 66.9 percent of that total population. They were followed by 14.3 percent of the population being of Central and South American origin; 8.6 percent of Puerto Rican origin; 3.7 percent of Cuban origin, and the remaining 6.5 percent of other Hispanic origins (Stoops; Ramirez 2).

High School Completion

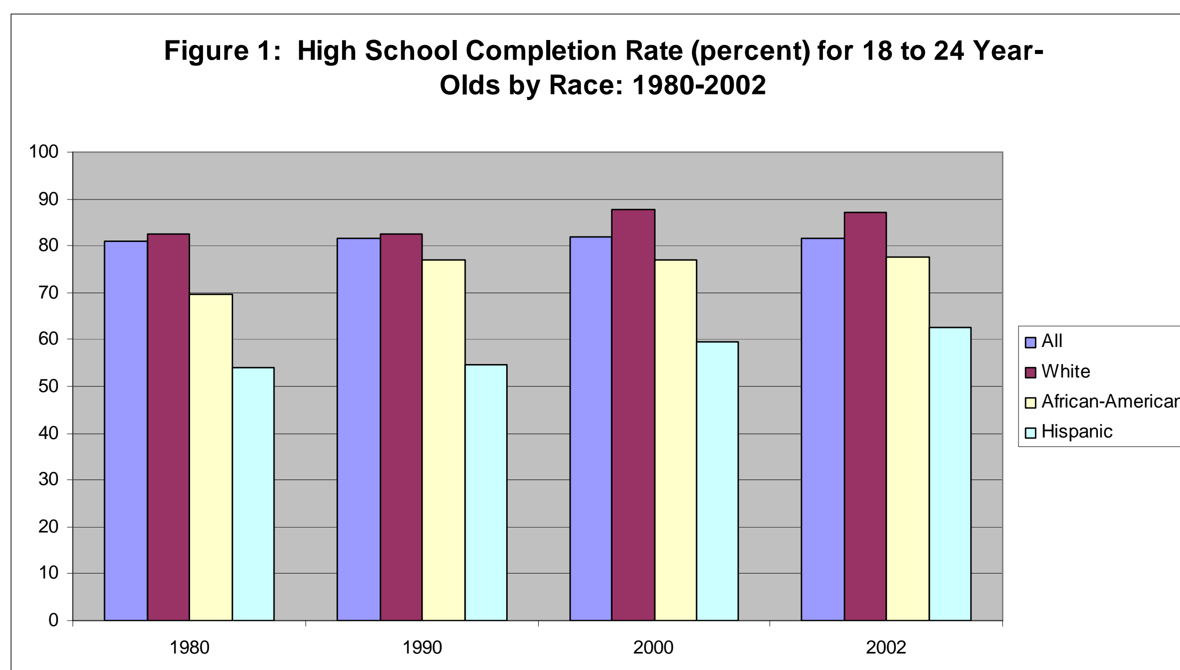
One of the major problems that have historically limited the number of African-Americans and Hispanics attending college was the relatively low number of them who completed high school. The good news is that both minority groups have substantially increased this rate over the last 20 years or so.

In 1980, of 18 to 24 year olds only 69.7 percent of African-American and 54 percent of Hispanics as compared to 82.6 percent of Whites had completed high school (Harvey 48). By 2002, African-Americans had made very modest gains ending at 77.5 percent, while Hispanics and Whites had increased to 62.6 percent and 87.0 percent respectively (Harvey 48).

In 2003, 85 percent of Americans aged 25 years and older had at least a high school diploma (Stoops 4). This represents the highest recorded high school graduation rate in the nation's history. This rate has been roughly the same (87 percent) for the last 20 years (Stoops 4).

However, of this age group, only 57 percent Hispanics and 79 percent of African-Americans, as compared to 88.7 percent Whites, had graduated from high school. Also, the percentage of all Whites with at least a bachelor's degree was higher (29 percent) than that of African-Americans (17 percent) (McKinnon 4; Stoops 4; Ramirez 4). In addition, more than 25 percent of Hispanics had less than a 9th grade education, as compared with only 4 percent for Whites (Ramirez 4).

This data illustrates that although Americans are clearly becoming more educated, the high



school graduation gap between African-Americans and Hispanics and those of Whites is still unacceptably large and inconsistent with the nations labor needs. Also, this lingering gap makes it significantly more difficult to increase their college-going rate.

College Attendance

In 2001, the total enrollment in American colleges and universities was 16 million, composed in part of 1.7 million African-Americans, 1.5 million Hispanics and 10.1 million Whites. This represented an increase since 1991 of 36.9 percent for African-Americans and 75 percent for Hispanics, while White student enrollment declined by 4.6 percent. ("Minority Enrollments"; Harvey 10)

Between 1991 and 2001, the African-American and Hispanic enrollment increased 36.9 percent and 75.1 percent respectively while White enrollment has actually declined by 4.6 percent (*Status and Trends*; Harvey x). (See figure 2)

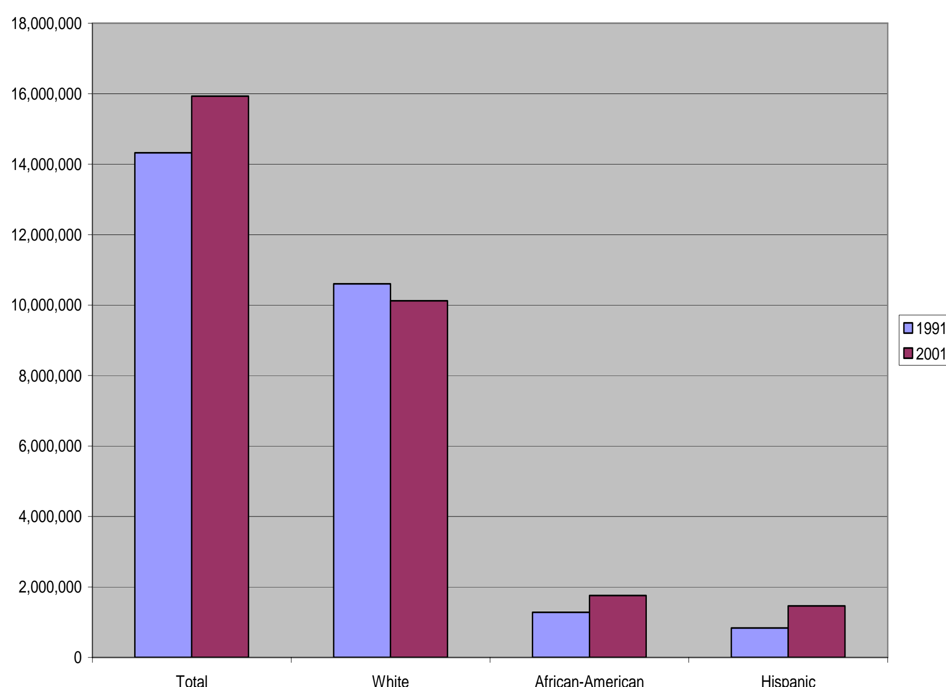
In 1980, the college-going rates of African-American, Hispanic, and White high school graduates age 18-24 were roughly equal — 27.6 percent, 29.8 percent and 31.8 percent respectively ("Minority Enrollments" 1). By 2000, the rate for White students had increased to 44.2 percent, while that of African-American and Hispanic students was 39.4 and 36.3 percent respectively ("Minority Enrollments" 1).

Women now make up 57 percent of the undergraduate population but many are still in the field of education.

Approximately 12 percent (238,638) of the African-American students attend HBCUs. Between 1991 and 2001, the African-American enrollment in HBCUs increased 9.3 percent (Harvey 10). However, the percentage of African-American college graduates who graduate from HBCUs has declined from 35 percent in 1977 to 22 percent in 2002. Also, approximately 34,908 White students attend HBCUs but their enrollment has declined by 4.1 percent, or from 36,402 to 34,908, since 1991 (Ahmad). In addition, a greater percentage of HBCU students are white — increasing by 66 percent over the last 25 years (Harvey 55).

Also, although 6,665 Hispanic students attend HBCUs, 47 percent of them attend Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSIs) (Bensimon; The Condition of Education 2005).

Figure 2: Total National Fall Enrollment in Higher Education: 1991 and 2001



Hispanics have the dubious distinction of being the most underrepresented. They are approximately 18 percent of the age population but represent only 9.5 percent of college and university enrollments (Schmidt).

Despite the fact that both African-American and Hispanics are still underrepresented in higher education, the fact is that they are enrolling in college in record numbers. However, there remain several areas of concern about the trends of minority and female students in higher education. These include such questions as what percentage of African-American high school graduates go on to college and what percentage of African-American and Hispanic college students receive their baccalaureate degrees in five years?

College Graduation

We must always keep in mind that the key question is not whether or how many of these students get into college but rather how well do they perform and are they successful in graduating.

In 2000-01, the five-year graduation rate for all students was 62.3 percent. The rate for White students was 58.0 percent as compared with only 42 percent of Hispanic students and 41.8 percent of American-American students (Walls 1; Harvey 18).

In 2001-02, approximately 111,176 African-American students received their Bachelor's degree as compared to 71,219 in 1991-92, or an increase of 13.7 percent. Hispanics had the greatest increase, 96.3 percent. They increased from 40,254 in 1991-92 to 79,029 in 2001-02. The number of Whites receiving degrees during this same period actually decreased by 0.8 percent or from 922,286 in 1991-92 to 914,704 in 2001-02 (Harvey 66). (See fig. 3)

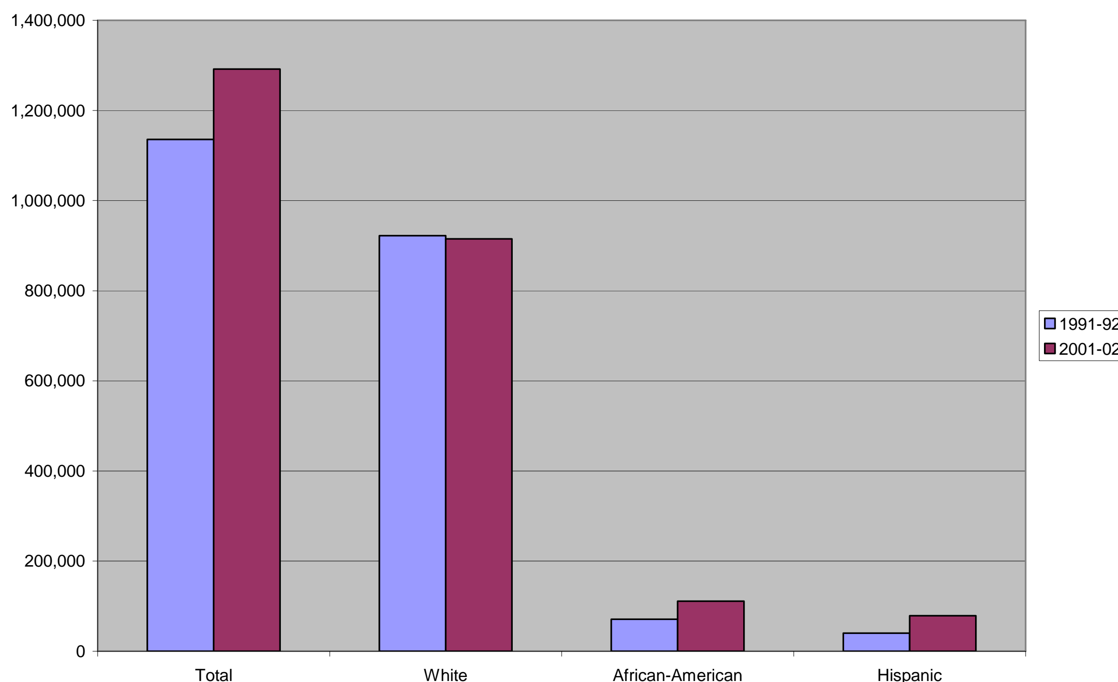
Also, although Hispanic high-school graduates enroll in college at about the same rate as whites, they graduate at lower rates. This is believed to be an outcome of their tendency to attend nonselective institutions that traditionally have lower graduation rates. Of the Hispanic students who attend two-year colleges, only seven percent ultimately graduate from a four-year college, as compared with 16 percent of white students (Fleming).

Only 11 percent of Hispanics over 25 years-old have a bachelor's degree as compared to 17 percent of African-Americans and 27 percent of Whites. We still have a long way to go. (Stoops 2)

Women have also made gains in their college graduation rates, increasing almost 7 percentage points in the past decade, reaching 26 percent as compared to 4 percentage point increase for men, reaching 29 percent. The percentage of women who have completed some college is 52 percent versus 53 percent for men. (Stoops 2)

In 2002, more African-American women than African-American men had earned at least a bachelor's degree (18 percent compared with 16 percent), while among Whites, a higher proportion of men than women had earned at least a bachelor's degree (32 percent and 27 percent, respectively). (McKinnon 4)

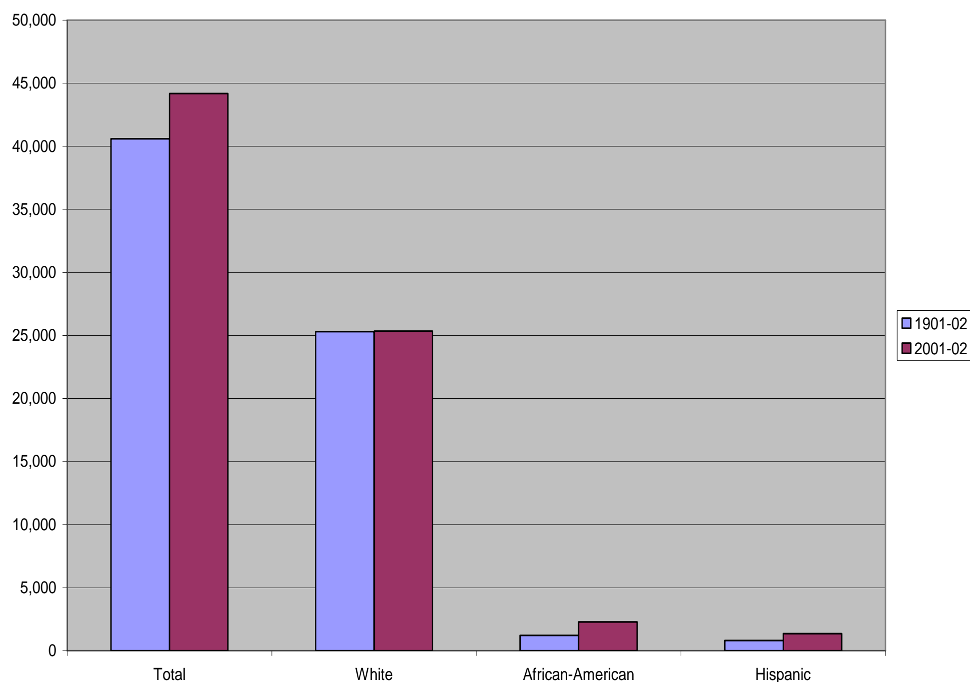
Figure 3: Bachelor's Degrees, by Race: 1991-92 and 2001-02



In addition to making gains at the bachelor's level between 1991-1992 and 2001-2002, African-Americans and Hispanics almost doubled the number degrees they earned at the associate and master's level during this same period. (Harvey IX). But what is most important, because it is a primary credential for faculty ranking, is that in 2001-02 both African-Americans and Hispanics made gains in the number of PhD awarded. African-American students received 2,271 doctoral degrees as compared to 1,353 Hispanics, 2,317 Asians, and 25,334 White (Harvey 36). This represents a gain between 1901-02 and 2001-02 of 88.9 percent, 69.3 percent and 0.1 percent for African-Americans, Hispanics, and Whites respectively (See fig.4).

The gender split among African-American doctoral degrees was 38 percent earned by African-American males and 62 percent by African-American females. Similarly, Hispanic females were a larger portion of Hispanic doctorate degrees earned versus male, 55 percent and 45 percent respectively ("Minority Report").

Figure 4: Doctoral Degrees, By Race: 1991-92 and 2001-02



College Faculty and Senior Staff

In the fall of 2001, there were 31,681 full-time African-American faculty members, and of these, there were only 5,030 who were full professors (Harvey 91). There were 18,514 Hispanic full-time faculty members but only 3,120 of them were full professors. In contrast to both the Black and Hispanic faculty members, there were 499,557 White faculty members of whom 142,597 were full professors (Harvey 91). (See Table 1)

Between 1993 and 2001, numbers of African-American, Hispanic, and White full-time faculty members have increased 23.5 percent; 53.3, and 6.6 percent respectively (Harvey 42; U.S. Dept. of Ed. 29).

The American Association of University Professors reports that 30 percent of all full-time faculty are women. However, they tend to better represented in the lower academic ranks. For example, only 23 percent of full professors are women while 58 percent of instructors and 54 percent of lecturers are women (“Women faculty”).

TAble 1: Number of Full-Time Faculty Members by Rank, and Racial and Ethnic Group, Fall 2001				
	Black	Hispanic	White	Asian
Professor	5,030	3,120	142,597	9,357
Associate Professor	6,826	3,498	107,828	8,399
Assistant Professor	9,027	4,791	109,840	11,218
Instructor	6,519	4,547	74,083	3,993
Lecturer	1,052	788	15,043	868
other	3,227	1,770	50,166	4,191
TOTAL	31,681	18,514	499,557	38,026

Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2004-5 Almanac. 51.1 (2004-5): 29 http://chronicle.com

Higher education is also one of the nation's largest employers. In the fall of 2001, 3,083,353 persons (both full-time and part-time) were employed by colleges and universities (U.S. Dept. of Ed. 29). Women constituted 1,631,580 of the total as compared to 1,451, 773 men. Of the full-time employees, there were a total of 236,129 African-American employees as compared to 112,274 Hispanics and 1,520,204 whites (U.S. Dept. of Ed. 29). African-Americans also constituted 13,720 of the 146,523 executive/administrative, managerial categories of workers as compared to 5,231 for Hispanics and 121,369 for Whites (U.S. Dept. of Ed. 29), (See table 2).

Table 2: Full-time Employees in College and Universities by Racial and Ethnic Group, Fall 2001						
	Total	Indian	Asian	Black	Hispanic	White
Professional:						
Executive, Administrative, Managerial	146,523	876	3,541	13,720	5,231	121,369
Faculty Members	617,868	2,775	38,026	31,681	18,541	499,557
Other	519,293	3,094	29,150	49,515	22,283	393,732
Nonprofessional:	759,524	6,185	29,127	141,213	66,246	505,546
Total	2,043,208	12,930	99,844	236,129	112,274	1,520,204

Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2004-5 Almanac. 51.1 (2004-5): 29 http://chronicle.com

The University President

Demographics of Presidents

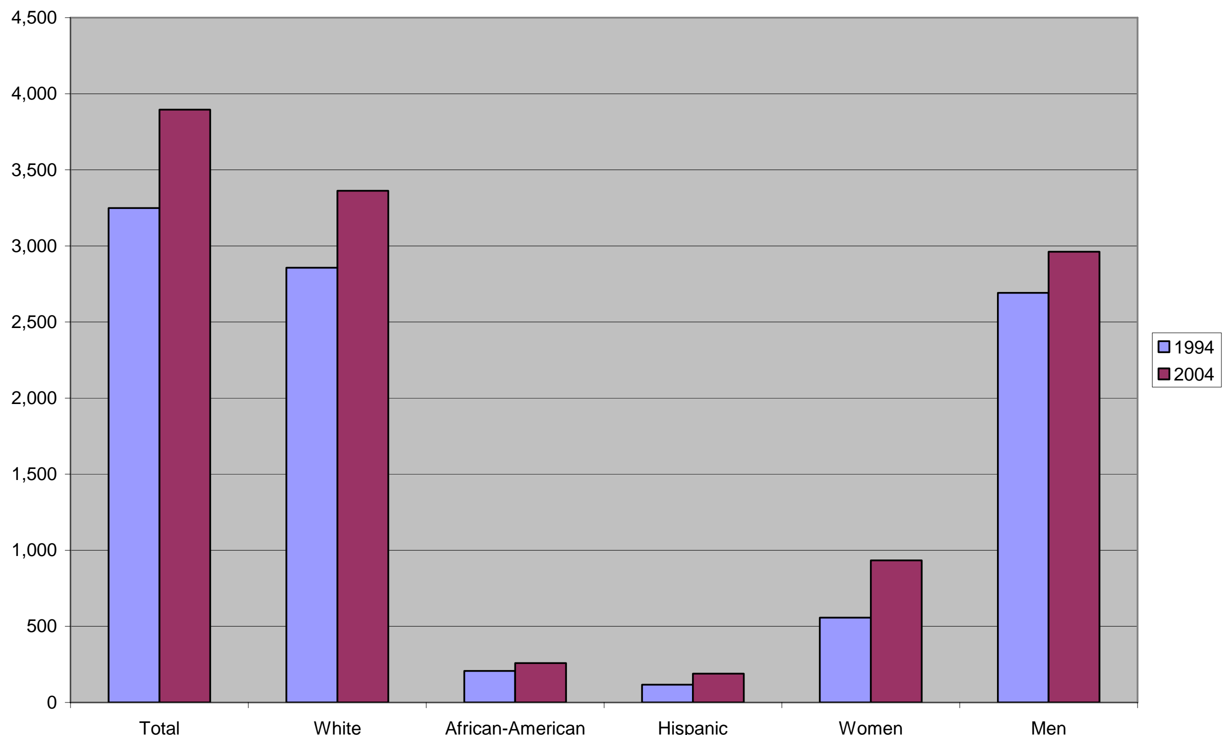
In 2004, there were a total of 3,896 university and college presidents. The latter consisted of 258 (6.6 percent) African-Americans; 189 (4.9 percent) Hispanic; and 3,363 (86.3 percent) Whites. Women constituted 933 (24 percent) of the total (Corrigan 19-20). Also, African-American and Hispanic women represent a greater percentage of their groups (25 and 33 percent respectively) who are presidents than white women (21 percent) (Corrigan 20; Lively 31).

During the ten year period between 1994 and 2004, the percentage of African-American and Hispanic presidencies increased 25 percent (207 to 258) and 63 percent (116 to 189) respectively. During the same period, the number of White presidents increased by only 18 percent or from 2,857 to 3,363. This is very encouraging news, especially in the case of the significant increase registered by Hispanics. (See figure 6) (Harvey 42 and 98)

However, one must keep in mind that virtually all of the HBCUs are headed by African-Americans and more than one-third of Hispanic-serving institutions (HIS) are headed by Hispanics. When the number of minorities heading all universities is corrected for those heading minority institutions the number drops 10 percent. ("More Women" 13)

The other major winner was women. Although, they represent only 24 percent of the presidents and 13.2 percent of the presidents at doctoral-granting institutions, between 1994 and 2004, their numbers increase by 68 percent or from 557 to 933. This is substantially more than the 10 percent increase registered by men, whose absolute numbers increased from 2,692 to 2,963. (Harvey 42 and 98; Brown 7)

These increases suggest that governing boards of universities and colleges are exerting a greater degree of effort in expanding the pool of candidates for presidents to include more qualified women and minorities. This is very good news, but hidden in the number are remaining concerns, including the relative slow growth of minorities in presidential ranks and the disproportionate concentration of minorities in two-year colleges, with few being found in tier-one research universities.



What remains a worrisome concern is the disproportionate concentration of minorities in two-year colleges and the very few found in tier-one research universities. For example, in 2004, 39 percent of African-Americans and 44 percent of Hispanic presidents were located in two-year colleges, as compared to 36 percent of Whites. (See table 3)

This same trend exists with women. Although women represent over 50 percent of the student body of most institutions, they represented only 21 percent of the presidents in 2001. Also, in 2001, women constituted only 13.3 percent of the presidents of doctoral degree granting universities and 18.7 percent of baccalaureate colleges, while they were 26 percent of two-year college presidents (Corrigan 15).

Table 3: College and University Presidents by Race and Institutional Type: 2004				
	2 year	4 year	Percent 2 year	Percent 4 year
Total	1,422	2,474	36.5	63.5
White	1,207	2,156	35.9	64.1
African-American	101	157	39.1	60.9
Hispanic	84	105	44.4	55.6
Women	434	499	46.5	53.5
Men	988	1,975	32.9	67.1

Source: Harvey, William B., Eugene L. Anderson. Minorities in Higher Education: Twenty-First Annual Status Report. 2003-2004. Washington DC: American Council on Education. February 2005. Page 99-100, Table 29

Background and Credentials of Presidents

The background and credentials of college and university presidents have changed significantly over the years. That is particularly true about the presidents of doctoratal-granting universities. However, one thing remains the same: The majority of the presidents in the more prestigious universities are white males. This being said, there are other characteristics that are more common than others. Some of these have been identified by a periodic study of the *American College President* conducted by the American Council on Education. The 2002 edition of that study, authored by Melanie Corrigan, noted that most presidents possess either a PhD (55.6 percent) or an Ed.D. (20.8 percent). The other degrees they possessed range from a high of 11.4 percent for a master's to 4.1 percent and 1.4 percent for J.D. and M.D. degrees respectively. The top four major fields of study of the presidents were education or higher education (55.6 percent); humanities or fine arts (13.5 percent); law (4.5percent); and business (3.8 percent). Also, the two major prior positions held by presidents were Provost or Vice President for Academic Affairs (27.8 percent) and President or CEO (20.4 percent). Finally, 62.7 percent of presidents were employed in another institution and 27.8 percent were employed at the same institution prior to assuming the presidency. (See table 4) (Corrigan 23-25; "Characteristics of")

The background and credentials of community college presidents differ considerably from those of four-year colleges and universities. Most striking is that 60 percent of the community-college presidents who hold doctoral degrees hold them in education (Ed.D). (Vaughn).

Table 4: Characteristics of College Presidents, 2001	
Highest Earned Degree:	
Ph.D.	55.6
Ed.D.	20.8
M.D.	1,4
J.D.	4.1
Masters	11.4
Field of Study:	
Education or higher education	43.8
Humanities or fine Arts	13.5
Law	4.5
Business	3.8
Title of Prior Position:	
Chief Academic Officer or Provost	27.8
President or CEO	20.4
Other, not in higher education	14.7
Senior Executive in Finance or Administration	12.8
Senior Executive in Academic Affairs	13.0
Place of Prior Position:	
Same Institution	27.8
Different Institution	62.7
Not Applicable	9.5

Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2004-5 Almanac. 51.1 (2004-5): 28 < http://chronicle.com>

Presidents of Doctoral-Granting Universities

At the pinnacle of higher education stand the doctoral-granting universities and their presidents. These research universities are the places that produced the faculty for all the many higher education institutions: two- year; four-year baccalaureate; master's; and doctoral granting universities. These institutions are also critical to the nation's production of excellent scientist and engineers.

The presidents of this sector are very different from those to be found in the other two sectors (four- year baccalaureate and two-year colleges). However, there is one striking similarity that the typical doctoral-granting president has with the other two types of college presidents—they are predominantly white and male. Most of these institutions only began in the 1960s to accept female students or hire female tenure-track faculty (Lively). That was the period when most of the current female provosts earned their PhDs. From that point, these young faculty members began climbing the academic ladder earning tenure and becoming full professors in the late

1970s, the 1980s and early 1990s. During the 1990s, many of these women became department chairs, deans, and provosts and are now positioned for presidencies of prestigious universities (Lively).

The good news is that there has been a gradual increase in the number and percentage of minorities and women who are doctoral–granting institutional presidents. For example, in 1986, only four percent of these presidents were women. By 2001, their numbers had increased to 13 percent (Corrigan 23-25).

Also, by 2001, minorities represented 9 percent of the presidents -- a significant increase over their 1986 percentage of 2 (Corrigan 23).

Slowly but surely, doctoral-granting universities are recruiting new presidents who have not previously been university presidents. This is evident from the fact that, in 1938, thirty-seven percent of sitting presidents had previously served as president, compared to only 28 percent in 2001(Corrigan 23-24). In addition, essentially all of these presidents had had a career as a tenured faculty member in another doctoral-granting university.

Higher Education and the New Economy

The Role of Doctoral-Granting Research Universities

The United States has long been the most power economic and military nation in the world. Much of this success has been due its leadership in technological discovery. As the work of Nobel Laureate Robert Solow has shown, most of the economic growth of nations is attributable to their technological growth (AAU). And, much of the basic research that supports the technological innovations inherent in this technological growth has been conducted in the laboratories of the nation's leading research universities (AAU). Therefore, if the nation is to continue global leadership as the world moves toward an economy dominated by information and technology, the excellence of these research universities must not just be maintained but enhanced.

The best of these research universities belong to the American Association of Universities (AAU). A white paper produced by the AAU identified four key areas of national focus:

- Sustaining economic development and global technological leadership
- Educating a knowledge-based workforce
- Ensuring continued medical breakthroughs and improving public health
- Maintaining national security in a more uncertain world

In addition to these foci, these research universities must continue to produce the future generations of scientist and engineers the nation needs (AAU).

Given the dramatic demographic shifts occurring in our nation, many of these new scientists and engineers will need to be Hispanics, African-Americans, and women.

In the past, when we talked about the relationship between the economy and higher education, we were speaking almost exclusively about the nation's AAU universities, where the top 25

percent of the country's brightest students were enrolled. This was acceptable then, but as Lester Thurow noted in his book *HEAD TO HEAD: The coming economic battle among Japan, Europe, and America*, it may not be acceptable for the future. In particular, Thurow observed that:

> If the route to success is inventing new products, the education of the smartest 25% of the labor force is critical. Someone in that group will invent the new products of tomorrow. If the route to success is being the cheapest and best producer of products, new or old, the education of the bottom 50% of the population moves to the center of the stage. This part of the population must staff those new processes. If the bottom 50% cannot learn, new high technology processes cannot be learned. (52).

Also, in the past, there were plenty of jobs that required only a high school education or less, a strong work ethic, and physical strength. These jobs were in large national corporations that employed large numbers of unskilled and semiskilled workers to produce large volumes of products.
However, increasingly, the jobs being created in our new information and technology economy are requiring at least two years of postsecondary education, and those who fail to get this education will find themselves forever trapped at the bottom of the economic ladder.

Today, these national corporations no longer produce a large volume of goods and services by using armies of high-wage unskilled and semiskilled factory workers and managers. They have transformed themselves into international corporations that find it more advantageous to outsource their labor needs to other developing nations because the overseas workers are just as well educated, have comparable skills, and cost less.

Therefore, it is equally important that we continue to enhance the quality of our two- and four-year colleges. These colleges have the critical role of ensuring the education of the other 75 percent of Americans and providing the nation with the educated workforce needed for continuous economic growth and leadership.

The Role of Four-year Public Comprehensive Colleges in the New Economy

Most of the four-year public colleges and universities belong to the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU), which represents over 400 public colleges, universities, and systems of higher education. AASCU describes the hallmark of its member colleges as extending access to all citizens, many of whom belong to currently underrepresented-- in higher education-- racial/ethnic groups (AASCU).

This latter point is particularly important because of the changing demographics of our nation. Already in California, Florida, and Texas, minority groups constitute the majority of the population. This means that increasingly the nation's high school students will be members of these groups. Unfortunately, these are the students who have traditionally had the highest dropout rates, lowest enrollment in college preparatory courses, lowest college-going rate, and the lowest college-completion rate. Fortunately, AASCU schools have a mission and tradition of commitment to these students and of preparation of K-12 teachers (Swail).

No mission is more important to this nation and its constituent states than that of the AASCU colleges and universities, and yet, too many of these schools feel underappreciated. Thus, many of them seek to change their mission to be more in line with that of research universities. This practice of "mission creep" is increasingly being observed in most systems of four-year public colleges and universities. It must be remembered, the vast majority of legislators, doctors, lawyers, schoolteachers, pharmacists, allied health workers, nurses, civil leaders, and other professionals and leaders are graduates of this stratum of higher education. It will be economic suicide if we lose their unique contribution to this nation. Therefore, policy makers must develop financial models that reward these schools for success in their mission of access and excellence. Also, institutional leadership is needed to rally faculty and student support for a rededication to this mission.

This rededication will be very difficult to achieve, for the management structure of colleges and universities does not lend itself to rapid change. These institutions are, for the most part, governed by a collegial collective of boards, president, faculty organizations, and students. And, unfortunately, since everyone is in charge, too often that means no one is in charge. The boards say they are supportive of strong presidential leadership, but also, too often they give peace on campus a higher priority. All of this serves to make the transformation of our institutions, in anything like a revolutionary way, impossible. Instead, what we are witnessing is change in an incremental or ad hoc fashion.

George Keller, in his book *Academic Strategy: the Management Revolution in American Higher Education,* perhaps describes this incremental change process best. In his words:

> Presidents [of higher education institutions] still hold to the incrementalist approach to governance…Incrementalist say change comes about through hundreds of tiny steps, no one of which is heavy enough to rock the boat. The steps need to appear as remedies, as small, reasonable responses to great pressures…Incrementalism is usually consensual and, in a way, democratic. There is no right way; at best there is enlightened partisanship. The approach also avoids speculation about the long run. To incrementalists no one can predict the future, so forecasting is bunk. As one president said, "He who lives by the crystal ball often eats glass." Besides planning is too time-consuming and collecting all that data and doing all that forecasting is too expensive."

Clearly incrementalism is not the answer; what is needed is bold leadership on the national and state level. These colleges, where appropriate, must be allowed to have a limited number of doctoral programs and to conduct major research in focused areas. This is very important if they are to attract and retain excellent faculty, but they must not be allowed to stray away from their primary and noble mission of access to excellence.

The Role of University Presidents in the New Economy

The key to improving access of minorities to higher education is the college or university president. He/she is the critical element in fundamentally changing the direction of the university. Although the president operates in a managerial environment of collegial governance that requires him or her to consult widely with the key communities in the university on major policy matters, he/she provides the leadership that ultimately results in official policy decisions.

In addition, the president is the institution's paladin. He/she personifies the university, its values, and visions. The president represents the institution and articulates these values and visions to a host of external audiences including legislators, community leaders, corporate leaders, potential students and their parents, and potential financial benefactors ("Former Presidents"; Munitz; Shaw 13; Goldschmidt).

The president must be perceived as an expert on such subjects as cost and funding of higher education, including tuition policy, collegiate athletics, not-for-profit financial accounting and management, higher education national issues, student affairs including housing and residential life; life long learning; distance learning; diversity; technology; academic affairs including appointments and promotions; fund raising both private and governmental; admissions and retention; and town-and-gown relations.

Given the breadth and depth of expected presidential knowledge, it is understandable why most experts believe that presidents are key to any fundamental changes in institutional practices and policies. However, if these leaders, particularly those of public institutions, are not broadly representative of the public that funds them, then the likelihood exists that their institution's policies will not be representative of all elements of that public. Clearly the presence of more minorities and women in senior policy making positions in higher education, particularly the presidency, would have a significant positive impact on diversity.

However, although substantial progress has been made in including more African-Americans, Hispanics, and women in the ranks of college and university presidents, these positions still remain predominantly white. Some of this is clearly related to the shortage of supply of eligible individuals in the pipeline, but the shortage itself is caused by unintentional institutional discrimination.

Most observers believe that modern presidents lack the stature of presidents of the past. Critics of the modern presidency argue that presidents of 25 year ago were fearless leaders who made the tough decisions without concern about how those decisions would be perceived by their critics (Dennison). In contrast, modern presidents are either afraid to make tough decision or not allowed to make them. All of this criticism may be appropriate, but what is too often overlooked is that the job of president is not only different but has gotten to be much more difficult. Today, the focus of most presidents is on issues outside of the university---attending community activities, fund raising, governmental relations, and giving speeches. Twenty-five years ago a president devoted more time on campus working with the faculty and students in building a sense of community. (Shaw 13). Robert Hahn, President of Johnson State College in Vermont humorously described modern presidents as follows:

> "Presidents are like baseball managers—they turn over often, are blamed for what they can't control, and are eagerly sought by other organizations after they've been given a ticket out of town by their last one (Dennison)."

This view seems to be supported by data that shows that the tenure for college presidents has become much shorter. In the last five years there have been over a dozen votes of no confidence in presidents by the faculty (Dennison). Also, studies have shown that only 57 percent of full-time faculty members are satisfied with the performance of their president and his team

(Birnbaum 1). These along with a variety of other issues have reduced the average presidential tenure from 10 years to 5-7 years (Marlin).

The next generation of college presidents must be bold leaders who understand and appreciate the mission of both the research and comprehensive four-year colleges. They must also have the vision and leadership skill to help the students, faculty and others relish the relative importance of the mission of both types of institutions. In addition, he/she should understand the moral and self-interested importance of diversity to the institution and the nation, and have the communication skills to explain this to the both internal and external stakeholders.

Some of these qualities are congenital, others have to be learned. And, those most capable of teaching these skills are current or past presidents who have a track record of successful tenures. The best venue for the training to occur is through structured mentorship programs.

Mentorship Programs for Potential and New Presidents

Mentoring as an Effective Executive Training Technique

The common usage of the word mentor has its origins in the works of François Fénélon's Les Aventures de Télémaque (1699), the French writer who wrote about the education of Ulysses' son by a friend named Mentor (Tenner 3). In the 1960s and 1970s the word was used both in the corporate and collegiate arenas to mean a wise veteran counselor to potential leaders. Recently, the word has gained wider usage because of the success of this strategy in developing leaders (Tenner 3).

Two articles in the Harvard Business Review launched the modern era of mentoring. One was an interview with a group of senior executives from the Jewel Companies that concluded in part by noting that, "Everyone Who Makes It Has a Mentor." The second article was by Gerard R. Roche, president and Chief Executive officer of Heindrick and Struggles Inc. After examining and analyzing recently hired executives, he concluded that most of them had benefited professionally by having mentors (Tenner 3).

Unfortunately, the mentors and protégées in both studies were white males. If mentoring is to be effective for women and minorities, then both of these groups need to be represented in both the mentor and protégé groups (Tenner 3). Regarding this latter point, relatively more women than men report that mentors helped guide and advise them in the early stages of their professional careers and continued to assist them in obtaining their current position (Hubbard 297).

The ideal mentor is usually a more senior and experienced person who takes on the responsibility of helping a promising person (protégé) prepare for promotion to a more senior position. In our case, that senior position is a college presidency. The mentor is first and foremost a teacher tutoring his protégé in the essential skills and knowledge expected of the college president (Rao 4). The mentor also oversees the professional development of the protégée by making sure he is placed in increasingly more challenging situations (Holloway 2). Also, the mentor should emphasize that strong values are essential to enduring respect.

National Mentoring Training Programs

Over the last three decades, several national higher education associations, university systems, and individual universities have launched executive mentoring and leadership development programs focused on senior college faculty and administrators with the ability and interest in becoming university presidents. The programs vary in their mode of operation and content, but most contain at least three components: mentoring by seasoned current presidents, teaching of essential skills, and networking (Carr 37). Some of the programs are designed for specific groups--women, minorities, or community college mid-level administrators. But most recruit their participants nationally, and the only criteria for acceptance are the desire and potential for executive leadership.

Several notable programs are:

- The American Council on Education (ACE) Leadership program
- Harvard University Institute for Educational Management (IEM)
- HERS Management Institute for Women in Higher Education Administration
- Higher Education Resources Services (HERS), Summer Institute for Women in Higher Education Administration
- American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) Millennium Leadership Initiative (MLI)
- Kellogg MSI Leadership Fellows Program. (Carr 37)

The oldest and most recognized of these programs is the ACE Leadership program, inaugurated in 1964. It enrolls approximately 35 ACE Fellows--senior faculty or mid level administrators--who participate in a one year structured learning, mentoring, and networking program. The participants attend week-long seminars where a variety of issues critical to academic leadership are discussed (ACE). Also, each fellow spends at least 10 weeks at a host university under the mentorship of the president. At the host institution, the Fellows participate in key management meetings, take on critical assignments, and work closely with the president (Carr 37). The cost of the program is usually covered by the Fellow's home college. The Fellows meet and get to know a national network of academic leaders, contacts that will be invaluable to them throughout their careers (ACE).

The program has been enormously successful. Since its founding, approximately 1,499 fellows have attended the program, of whom nearly 300 have become presidents and more than 700 have become other senior level leaders (ACE). Also, since the program's founding, the fellows have been representative of the racial and gender diversity found in higher education.

The American Council of Education also sponsors a leadership program designed for Chief Academic Officers. The program consists of a year long series of meetings designed to improve the participants' leadership skills in resolving a variety of challenging academic issues including financial management, academic personnel management, strategic planning, and effective communication.

In addition to the ACE Fellows program, the other highly regarded program for the training of potential presidential candidates is the Harvard University Institute for Educational Management (IEM). IEM, which is celebrating its 36th year of operation, is a summer residential program intended for senior level academic administrators.

IEM focuses on the skills necessary to manage change in the dynamic and challenging environment of higher education. The participants delve into several critical issues facing higher education, including: "Leading in a changing context; Balancing internal and external leadership roles; working effectively as a member of the senior management team; fostering and supporting organizational change; and articulating a powerful institutional vision and enlisting other in pursuit of that vision (IEM)." Also, each participant is presented with the essential conceptual and managerial tools required to effectively lead and manage colleges and universities. In addition, the participants explore the variety of environments that academic leaders must work in and the moral dimensions and challenges inherent in these complex environments. The mode of instruction consists of formal lectures, case studies, role playing and small group projects and discussions (IEM). Also, because of the high caliber of the participants and lecturers and the residential nature of the program, the networking experience of the program is an invaluable program asset.

AASCU's Millennium Leadership Initiative (MLI) is a program created to address the issue of the declining number of minorities in the presidential pipeline. Since its founding, 19 Blacks and Hispanics of the 181 prior participants have become presidents and 18 others have become Provosts and Vice Presidents for Academic Affairs (Hamilton). The program consists of an intensive four day professional development institute that focuses on such issues as financial management, effective communication, fundraising, effective board relationships, and governmental relations. The institute is followed by a year of one-on-one mentoring by a seasoned president or chancellor. This mentorship continues into the early years of the participant's first presidency (AASCU).

Another leadership program similar to MLI but designed particularly for those interested in becoming a president of a minority serving institution (MSI) is the Kellogg MSI Leadership Fellows Program. This program was founded by the Alliance for Equity in Higher Education, an organization consisting of three partnering groups: the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC), the Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU), and the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO). MSI, which is funded by the Kellogg Foundation, is intended to train the next generation of presidents at minority colleges and universities. The founders, several of whom now constitute the National Advisory Board of the Program, were convinced that the responsibilities and expectations of Black and Hispanic college presidents were contextually so unique that they required a special dedicated program for those aspiring to become presidents in these institutions (Hardge).

The program consists of a summer workshop that focuses on leadership skills unique to success in minority communities and MSIs. The curriculum includes, among other things, such topics as board relations and cultivation; information technology; senior staffing; time management and priority setting; crisis management and conflict resolution; and public speaking and advocacy (Hardge). During the remainder of the year, the Fellows participate in a variety of seminars and

meetings designed to strengthen essential skills. Also, each fellow is assigned a mentor who helps guide his career to the presidency (Hardge).

Like MSI, HERS Summer Institute for Women in Higher Education Administration is another focused program. However, this time the focused audience is women faculty and administrators. The program is sponsored by Bryn Mawr and Higher Education Resource Services, Mid-America, and is in its 27th year of operation. Each year it brings together 75-80 women faculty and administrators from around the world for a month long program to improve the employment status of women in higher education. The program provides the participants with an intensive training program designed to improve the management skills associated with the administration and governance of higher education institutions. The curriculum consists of seminars on academic environment, external environment, institutional environment, and professional development. The program also introduces the participants to a network of women and men from government, foundations, professional organizations, as well as academia, who are interested and willing to continue to assist them in their careers. Over 1,950 women have participated in the program and they include presidents, chancellors, provosts and other senior leaders of higher education worldwide.

Finally, HERS Management Institute for Women in Higher Education has a similar curriculum and focus as the Summer Institute, but is sponsored by the New England branch of HERS. Its program is primarily for women working in higher education in the New England states. The program consists of a series of five seminars offered on weekends at Wellesley College that focus on fiscal management, managing organizations, and professional development. The program accepts approximately 50 participants a year and to date over 1,200 women have successfully completed it (HERS).

A Memoir to 20 years of Successful Mentoring

Introduction:

My resignation from the Presidency of the University of Texas at Dallas and retirement brought to an end a very successful and rewarding career that included almost 20 consecutive years as president or chancellor in both public and private universities and university systems. As would be expected, a career of this length has many memories and highlights. But, what I am most proud of are the outstanding individuals that it has been my pleasure to work with and who consider me a mentor. My pride comes from the fact that several of these individuals have made a significant impact on the lives of young people and in particular minorities and women.

I am particularly proud of those protégées who are white women or Black or Hispanic. As I have noted throughout this paper, the nation desperately needs their presence in the ranks of senior level managers in higher education if the nation is to benefit from the potential talents of all Americans. I do not mean that being a woman or Black or Hispanic uniquely qualifies a person to be sensitive to matters of gender and racial equity. Thousands of outstanding white men have made enormous contributions to access and excellence in higher education, and, as you well see later, I have been privileged and honored to have had several of them mentor me over my career.

What I mean is a more diversified leadership in higher education will give us the best chance of access with excellence.

This section of the paper will focus on how my mentors have helped me, and how I have, hopefully, been able to helped others.

A Tribute to My Mentors

My first mentor was Mr. Ernest Kirkland, my Boy Scout leader. I was raised in a single parent family with a mother as the head of the household. She desperately wanted to get both my brother and me into an environment that would counter the negative one that we were forced to live in and to introduce us to some positive Black male role models. So, she enrolled both of us in scouting. It was there that I met Mr. Kirkland who became my surrogate father. He was and remains the most intelligent person that I have ever personally known, and yet, he had not completed high school. He introduced me to science, African-American history, poetry and the joy of reading. But most important he impressed on me my responsibility to myself and my family and then to those who need a helping hand. But what he taught me, by just being himself, is that there is a difference between wisdom and intelligence. There are millions of intelligent people but few who are truly wise--he was both, and yet, he carried himself with humility and a quiet sense of moral strength.

My next major mentor was Dr. Jaspers Kaper, Research Scientist, Plant Virology Laboratory, Plant Industry Station, Department of Agriculture. I first met Dr. Kaper when I was a graduate student at Howard University. He came to Howard to recruit a graduate student to work in his laboratory. After interviewing several students, he selected me. Dr. Kaper was a world class scholar and scientist in a world class laboratory, and the opportunity for a kid from my background to work with him was a dream come true. He literally made a scientist out of me. He taught me everything from the correct way to pipette to how to run and analyze data from the analytical ultracentrifuge. My time with him was both the best and worst years of my young career. What made the years bad was that Dr. Kaper was an unforgiving taskmaster who made my training analogous to military boot camp. What made the years good was that our laboratory was one of the most highly respected in the nation, and I was, therefore, a well trained and sought after scientist and potential faculty member.

Another important mentor was Dr. Robert Jenkins, chairman of Biology, Livingston College, Rutgers University. Dr. Jenkins recruited me from the Plant Virology Laboratory just as I was completing my Ph.D. degree. Livingston College was a new campus of Rutgers University established to attract a diverse high quality student body, representative of New Jersey's population. Most of the faculty and the student body were politically very liberal; opposed to the Vietnam War; and actively involved in the civil rights movement. Dr. Jenkins traveled the country recruiting minority and women faculty with standard academic credentials and a strong social conscience to serve as role models for these students. I was excited about this opportunity because it provided me with an opportunity to continue to do serious research while at the same time continuing my involvement in the Civil Rights Movement.

Dr. Jenkins taught me how to be an effective teacher and a productive academic citizen. He saw to it that I had the start-up funds to get my laboratory going and to recruit graduate students. He also mentored me through the promotions process, making sure that I covered all of the expected bases. He cared about me personally and professionally, and made sure that I met all of the appropriate persons. When he stepped down as Chairman of the Department, he openly supported me to replace him, which I did. He then remained available to help me understand the role of chairman and to make me the best in that position that I could be.

Still another important person in helping me with my career was T. Edward (Ted) Hollander, Chancellor of Higher Education, Board of Regents of New Jersey Department of Higher Education. Dr. Hollander recruited me from my position of Associate Provost for Academic Personnel, Rutgers University, Newark Campus to assume the position of Vice Chancellor--his deputy and the number 2 position in the Department of Higher Education.

Working with Dr. Hollander was like getting a Ph.D. in academic administration. His Ph.D. was in accounting and his prior position had been as Vice Chancellor of the City College University System of New York. This gave him the most complete and detailed understanding of budgeting and finance in higher education of anyone whom I have known. I was fortunate that he shared this understanding with me. Also, Dr. Hollander introduced me to his management style—a style that I adopted as my own for the remainder of my administrative life. I call it the cabinet style. The cabinet consisted of the most senior executives in the department—the Assistant Chancellor for State Colleges, Assistant Chancellor for the University, Assistant Chancellor for Community Colleges, Assistant Chancellor for Finance and Budget, the Assistant Chancellor of Student Affairs, and me. The Cabinet was the senior policy advisory committee to the Chancellor. The Cabinet met once a week and was chaired by the Chancellor or in his absence me. Each Assistant Chancellor presented the various matters he or she was considering and shared his or her recommendations on appropriate actions to be taken. Each matter was fully vetted and a consensus was usually reached. The effect of this style was to make each of the senior executives thoroughly knowledgeable about all areas of the department. Also, it was an excellent platform for the Chancellor to evaluate and to mentor all of us and for each of us to learn the operations of the other.

My last notable mentor was Edward Lashman, Former Chairman of the Massachusetts Board of Higher Education. Mr. Lashman was Chairman of the Board of Higher Education when I was selected to become the Chancellor. He was a major confidant of the then Governor Michael Dukakis and a well-known and highly regarded public servant. Mr. Lashman was an expert on how to manage an effective board and its relations with the chief executive officer, and he taught me everything he knew about that process. Most important, he taught me to always keep the board informed; not to play favorites among the board members; not to get openly involved in board politics (That was the chairman's responsibility); to have regular, open and honest dialogue with the Chairman; to never intentionally lie or hold back critical information from the Board; and to maintain a professional relationship with the Board as their professional(?). Most of all, he taught me that the Chancellor was the agent of the people-- not the faculty, students, alumni or even the legislature—charged to produce and maintain a system of quality higher education responsive to the state's needs.

I personally thank each of these individuals, for they deserve much of the credit for whatever success that I and, through me, my protégés have had.

My Protégés:

I have been honored to have mentored numerous junior and senior administrators over my professional career. Several of them have held or continue to hold either presidencies or senior executive positions in higher education. Their demographics are as follows:

Race/Ethnicity and Gender	Professional Relationship	Executive Positions Held
Hispanic Female	Director Community College Office, New Jersey Department of Higher Education	President of 2 community college presidents—one public and one private and is now senior executive of national higher educational search firm
Hispanic Female	Director of State Colleges, Massachusetts Department of Higher Education	President of a large comprehensive 4 year public university
White Male	Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Massachusetts Department of Higher Education	President of medium size 4 year public State College
White Female	Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Massachusetts Department of Higher Education	President of a large comprehensive 4 year public university
African-American Female	Vice President of Academic Affairs, Howard University	President of a large research level public university
African-American Male	Vice President and Treasurer, Howard University	Vice President for Finance at Large public 4 year research university; Vice president for Finance and Business at small private elite Black college; and Senior Vice President for very large university system.

African-American Male	Vice President for Information Systems, Howard University	Executive Vice President for External Relations and Governmental Affairs; very large public four year research university
Hispanic Male	Special Assistant to the President, University of Texas at Dallas	Vice President for Development and Vice President for External Relationship and Governmental Affairs, Large public 4 year research university
African-American Female	Vice President Student Affairs, University of Texas at Dallas	President of Small 4 year Historically Black College
African-American Male	Associate Vice Provost, University of Texas at Dallas	Interim Vice President for Business Affairs and Executive Vice Provost, large 4 year research university

I wanted individuals who were passionate about the belief that higher education must be both excellent and accessible. I wanted individuals who believed that diversity in academe was not a passing shibboleth but an enduring value that would improve the quality of teaching and learning, while also expanding the breadth of research and scholarship. I was, also, looking for individuals who possessed traditional academic credentials—a Doctorate or appropriate terminal degree. In addition, I tried to identify individuals who were confident without being arrogant, strong while being compassionate, humorous with dignity, and loyal but not to a fault. Finally, I wanted individuals who knew their own mind, who would argue with me and also teach me a few things.

In almost every instance I was fortunate to find an individual who fit most of these characteristics. And, all but one has proven to be an outstanding administrator.

My System:

The mentoring that I provided to my protégés was not unconscious, casual, or unintentional, as so much of mentoring is, but thoughtful, formal, intentional, and often intensive. I saw as one of my responsibilities the training of the next generation of leaders—men and women who could continue my commitment to demonstrate that excellence and diversity were not antagonistic concepts but complementary. That meant that I had to select my potential protégés carefully—these were not regular employees but persons who showed commitment and extraordinary competence.

The mentoring system I employed consisted of two phases: one-on-one mentoring and Cabinet round-table.

In addition to their regular responsibilities and mine, I expected each of my protégés to spend some time with me every day. Usually, this would be early in the morning and over coffee. There was no fixed agenda for these meetings, and they ranged from discussions on such topics as:

Diversity, affirmative action, and equal opportunity	Comparative analysis of fund raising in public and private higher education
The primacy (role and scope) of the faculty in academic matters	The new president and dealing with the rhetoric and reality of the institutions mission
Time management (Working smart rather than exclusive hard (?)or “separating the wheat from the chaff”)	Maintaining some level of scholarly involvement
appropriate behavior (Better safe than sorry)	The public policy implications of the budget (the budget as a political document)
Delegate authority (You can’t do it all) while maintaining oversight and responsibility.	academic appointments and promotions (Business as usual or not)
Effective public speaking and presentations	Build effective governmental relations.
How to build quality Town and Gown relations	Develop good Press Relations
Crisis management (sooner or later you will need it)	Building good staff relations
The university family wants a leader not a buddy.	Standing on principle while not falling on your sword (You can only fall on your sword once.)
Live and work healthily (you are no good to anyone if you’re dead.).	You can’t solve every major problem of the university in one year. (Take your medicine slowly; if it wasn’t good for you, it wouldn’t taste so nasty.)
Remember you are the schools Chief Advocate; act like it!	Most Presidents fail because of a series of little things going wrong. (Make sure you have someone keeping on top of the little things that sometimes mean so much)
Always take the presidency seriously but never yourself (It’s the position stupid!).	Keep your superiors well advised of major issues or impending crisises (no manager likes surprises)
The Cabinet Style of administration is not for everyone.	Keep your Board well educated on the key issues facing higher education in general and at your institution.
When in doubt about a major policy direction, just do the right thing (Simple, is it not!).	Keep your finger on the institutional pulse.

Although, I have strong opinions on these subjects, I am very careful not to subtly impose my views on my protégés by judging them on the basis of whether they agree with me. However, what I do want and expect is that they give my views serious consideration, because they are based on actual personal experience and the experiences of others whom I have been privileged to observe.

A specific example of one of these sessions would be a discussion that flowed as follows: Many new presidents, particularly those in the public sector, are advised by their boards of the need for quick and definitive action in addressing major new public policy issues that are often a part of their governor's political agenda for higher education. This agenda in most cases includes several major controversial issues, all of which are considered high priority. Often the new president, eager to make a positive impression on those who appointed him/her, is overly zealous to demonstrate that he/she is a visionary, take charge, and "kick butt" administrator. Therefore he/she begins to institute a series of dramatic policy initiatives prior to doing the prerequisite due diligence. Unfortunately, he/she has only a surface understanding of the institutional culture, knows little about the board's internal politics, knows few of the major campus players, and none of the political potholes. The results, in too many instances. in the new presidents alienating both the board and the campus community, and begins the long slide to termination.

A wise new president needs to be very careful not to get caught up in the hype of his/her appointment. The first thing he/she needs before deciding the remedy is to determine what the problem is (whether the patient [institution] is just sick or is dying). The four symptoms of a dying institution are: chronic deficit budgets (expenditures exceeding revenues over two successive years); chronic enrollment decline (three successive years of unscheduled enrollment declines); dilapidated and dangerous facilities and infra-structure (life threatening); extremely low faculty, student and staff morale (one or more votes of no-confidence in the administration in last three years); and chronic negative press.

When one or more of these situations exist, the president must act quickly and decisively. Often, this means that he/she must act with only the consent and endorsement of his/her board and without necessarily having a consensus in the university community about the appropriateness of the impending remedies. When a president has to take this type of action he/she needs a strong board and a strong chairman to garner the understanding and support of the governor, legislature, and press. Even in the best of circumstances few presidents can long survive (3-4 years) the climate created when draconian measures are continually required over several years. It takes at least two presidencies to turn these types of institutions around.

If a presidential candidate believes that this is the type of situation he/she will face as president, he/she must insist upon a term contract that guarantees employment for a set period of time, with the sole exception of termination for cause. The contract should also guarantee a competitive salary with annual merit incentives base on pre-established goals (Marlin).

Fortunately, most colleges and universities are in relatively good shape. Therefore, most new presidents find themselves in institutions that have few or no life-threatening problems, and for those that have major problems, the problems are typically acute in nature rather than chronic.

Acute problems, particularly in an otherwise healthy institution, can usually be fixed with a one time aggressive remedy.

If the problems faced do not require immediate attention, then a wise president will commission a strategic analysis of the university by a group composed of respected members (students, faculty, alumni, and staff) of the academic community and friends of the university. This commission should be charged with reviewing the appropriateness of the current mission statement in the current and future (3-5 years) social and economic environment. Also, every major aspect of the university (academic, business, student, development, and administrative affairs) should be evaluated to determine its effectiveness, efficiency, and level of customer service. This planning will require a considerable amount of time (6-10 months) and should not be rushed.

The results of this effort, the Institutions Strategic Plan, should be presented to the Board of Governors of the University for its review and approval. The final plan now constitutes the president's and his/her administration's blueprint for action, and has the endorsement of the leadership of the entire academic community.

In talking about such matters and other challenges of a new president with my protégé, I use comparative examples out of my past—Howard University versus University of Texas at Dallas. These two fine universities are very different and required a very different presidential approach.

The other component of my system is the President's Cabinet (Round Table). The role of the Cabinet is to serve as the senior policy advisory group to the president. It is composed of the following individuals:

- The President (Chairman);
- Chief Academic Officer;
- Chief Business/finance Officer;
- Chief Student Affairs and External Relations Officer;
- Special Assistant to the President; and
- others on a need-to-know Basis (My Protégé included)

The Cabinet meets every other week, and on the week that it does not meet another senior group (The Senior Staff) meets.

The role of The Senior Staff is to brief and advise the Cabinet and President on all matters of importance in their area and impending policy issues. All of the members of the Senior Staff report directly to the President. The Senior Staff is composed of the following officers:

- The Cabinet;
- Executive Director of Information Systems;
- Executive Director of New and Information;
- Executive Director of Research and Planning; and
- General Council

This organizational format has two extraordinary benefits. First, every member of the President's Cabinet gets to know a great deal about the operation of every major aspect of the university—

from program approval to groundskeeping. Second, every major university policy recommendation is thoroughly reviewed and analyzed by the most senior officers of the university.

The typical cabinet meeting agenda is as follows. I chair all meetings, and begin them by asking each Cabinet member to present an update on his/her area. This is followed by a lengthy question and answer period. In most instances other Cabinet Members use this period to get a better understanding of the workings of their colleagues' areas. My protégés find this period extremely helpful, and are encourage to actively participate, and they do. Next, we review all policy proposals that have been placed on the Agenda by me or another Cabinet Member along with any back-up materials. The respective Cabinet Member presents his/her items and then the floor is open for discussion. I typically save my questions until the end; however, if there are too few questions by others, then I play the role of devil's advocate.

I evaluate each Cabinet Member on the basis of the quality of his or her questions and analysis. My goal here is to maximize the chance that any policy matter passing Cabinet, can pass any higher level of review. Again, my protégés are encouraged to participate, and their views are openly sought during the meeting.

The day after Cabinet Meeting, I evaluate the meeting with my protégé, discussing why I asked certain questions and what I thought about each issue presented. I also ask what he/she would have done if he/she were president.

Within two years most of my protégés are ready for either a presidency or other senior level position in higher education.

An excellent example of the effectiveness of my system is Dr. Mary Sias, President of Kentucky State University. Prior to her current position, Dr. Sias was Senior Vice President of Student Affairs and External Relations. Her situation is an unusual one, because there is a strong bias in higher education against the appointment of a vice president of student affairs to the presidency of a 4 year college or university. However, first the search firm and then the search committee soon found out that Dr. Sias was extremely knowledgeable about all of the major areas of the university and had participated in making critical decisions in each of them. This unusual level of sophistication is attributable to my system and her industriousness.

Another example is Dr. Larry Terry, Executive Associate Provost, and Interim Vice President for Business Affairs, University of Texas at Dallas. When a vacancy occurred in the position of Senior Vice President for Business Affairs, Dr. David Daniel, the new president of the university, felt comfortable turning to Dr. Terry to fill the position on an interim basis while he conducted a thorough national search. Not only was Dr. Daniel comfortable with this decision but the entire campus concurred, because they knew that Dr. Terry, as my protégé, had served on the Cabinet for two years and was therefore very knowledgeable on matters relating to the office.

By all accounts, Dr. Terry has done an outstanding job in his capacity as Interim Vice President for Business Affairs. He is also author of the University's proposal for the Bush Library, and is considered by many search firms as a leading candidate for a significant presidency.

A third example is Mr. Carlos Pena. I hired him 8 years ago as my Special Assistant. Mr. Pena had several strikes against him-- no prior experience in higher education and no terminal degree. But, there was something very special about him: He had leadership potential. Initially, Mr. Pena responsibilities included governmental relations and secretary to the Cabinet. However, in reality, he was an executive in training. First, I began to gradually increase the level of his responsibilities. Next, I encouraged him and then made it possible for him to enroll as a part-time student in UTD's Ph.D. program in Educational Leadership.

Six years ago, I made him interim Executive Director for Development and Governmental Affairs. I advised him to attend every national training program in the field of development, and he did. After 18 months, I made him Vice President for University Advancement-- responsible for both development and governmental relations. I believe he was the first Hispanic of Mexican decent to hold such a position at a major research university.

Recently, President Daniels appointed Mr. Pena to the new position of Vice President for External and Governmental Affairs. Mr. Pena is highly regarded by members of the legislature and also has completed all of the coursework for his PhD.

Despite the success I have had with this system, I do not recommend it for all persons or in all circumstances. Presidents who have difficulty delegating authority or who tend to micromanage should not use this system. Also, by its very nature, the cabinet style on occasion creates competition and tension between senior managers. Therefore, the only way the system works is if all parties see the president as an impartial and experienced arbiter.

Summary and Conclusions

From the founding of American higher education in 1636, it has remained an institution that both overtly and inadvertently discriminates against African-Americans and women. This legacy of discrimination has been one of the nation's greatest moral problems and challenges. However, increasingly, it is becoming self evident that if America wants to continue as the most powerful economic and military nation on earth, it will need the brainpower of all of its citizens. This will require that, at every level of the educational pipeline, we eliminate the gap between the participation rates of minorities and women and whites. This problem has resisted solution for decades, but increasingly, it is clear that one feature of any cure will be having more women and minorities in leadership positions and, in particular, serving as university presidents.

The most effective tool used in the preparation of future university presidents is mentoring. There are a number of national programs for the preparation of presidents that have mentoring as an essential feature. These programs have proven extremely successful in producing university presidents for a variety of institutional types, from 4 year research universities to community colleges. However, by far the largest numbers of mentoring programs are found in the hundreds of personal—one-on-one—initiatives.

During my approximately twenty years as a president and a chancellor in both public and private institutions, I have used a structured mentoring program that has produced several college and university presidents. This programs consists of two parts—the Cabinet and one-on-one coaching.

I am confident that these leaders and the others produced under similar systems will provide the diversity of leaders that the nation's colleges and universities need. I, also, hope that more senior administrators will take on the responsibility and joy of training the next generation of university and college leaders.

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