

Fifth David D. Henry Lecture: Socially Imposed Costs of Higher Education by Howard R. Bowen

Collection: David D. Henry Lecture Series, 1972-2008

Repository: University of Illinois Archives

Rights: Data

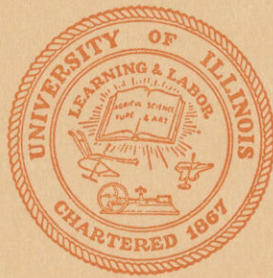
Digital Collections at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Library

<https://digital.library.illinois.edu/items/5182b8a0-fed9-013d-3124-02d0d7bfd6e4-7>

Downloaded on April 22, 2026

**Socially Imposed Costs
of Higher Education**

by
Howard R. Bowen



Fifth David D. Henry Lecture
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle
Chicago, Illinois

The David D. Henry Lectureships in Educational Administration are endowed by gifts to the University of Illinois Foundation in recognition of Dr. Henry's contributions to the administration of higher education, including his career as president of the University of Illinois from 1955 until 1971. The lectures are intended to focus upon the study of the organization, structure, or administration of higher education, as well as its practice. Selection of persons to present the lectures is the responsibility of the chancellors of the three campuses of the University. Presentation of the lectures is alternated among the campuses on an annual basis.

**Socially Imposed Costs
of Higher Education**

by
Howard R. Bowen

Fifth David D. Henry Lecture
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle
Chicago, Illinois

April 24-25, 1978

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

1998

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

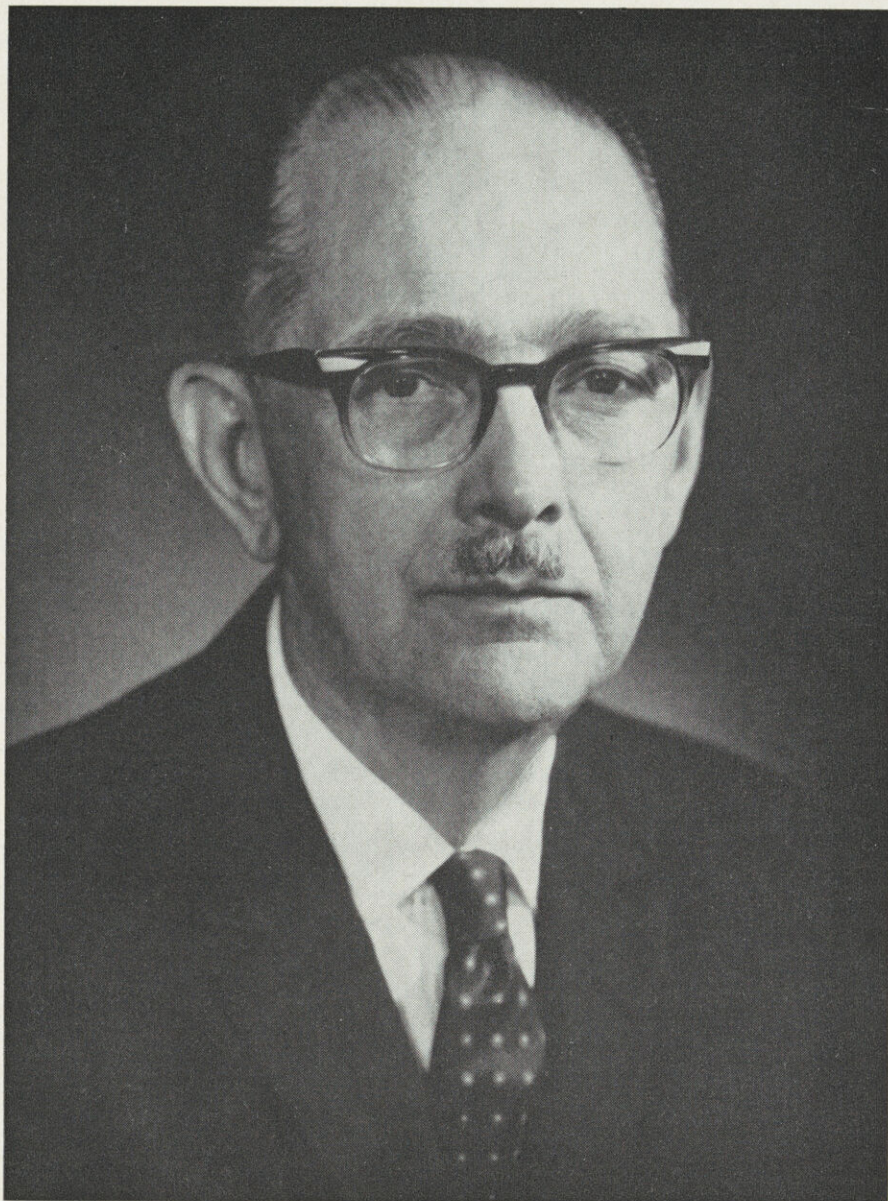
PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

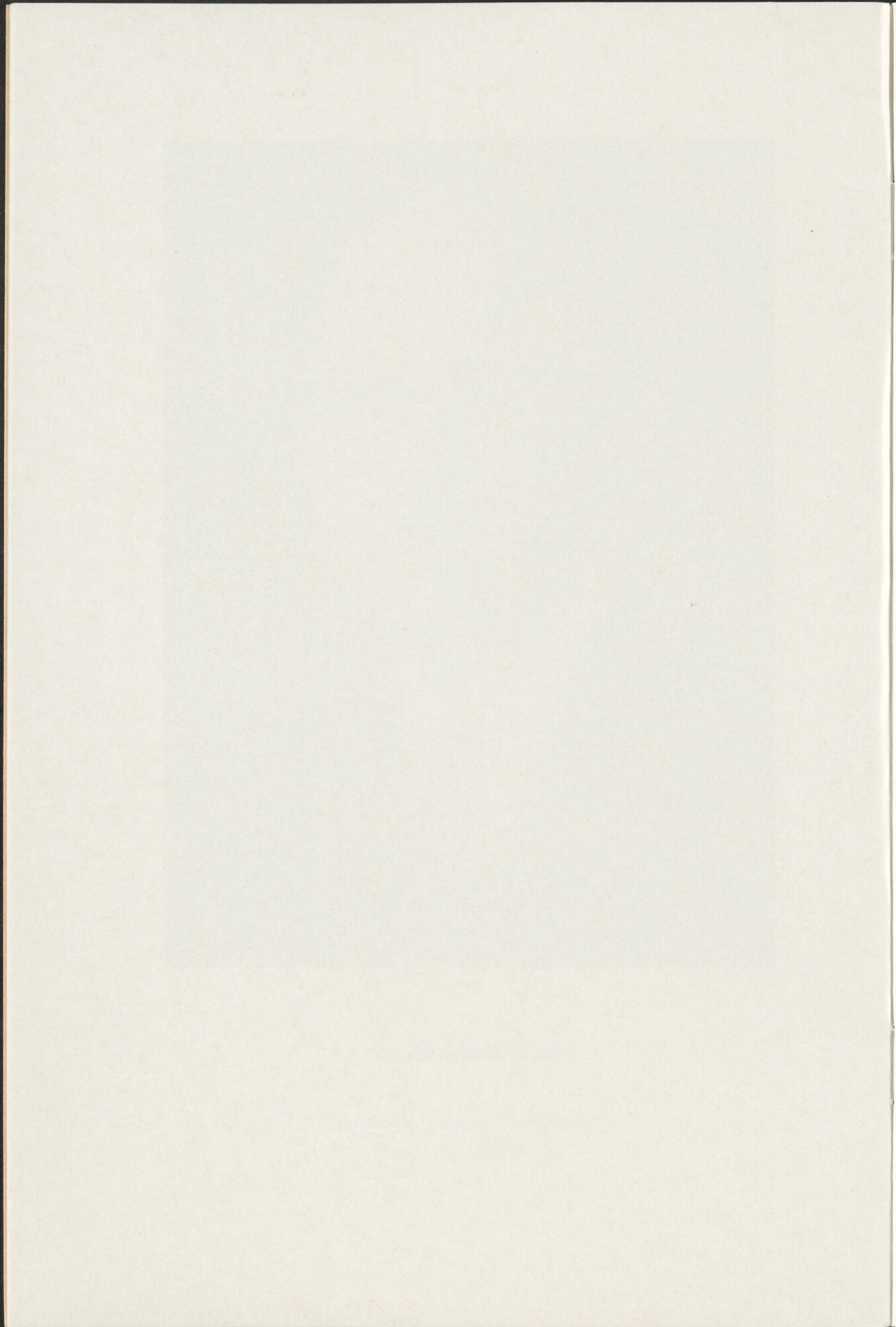
PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT



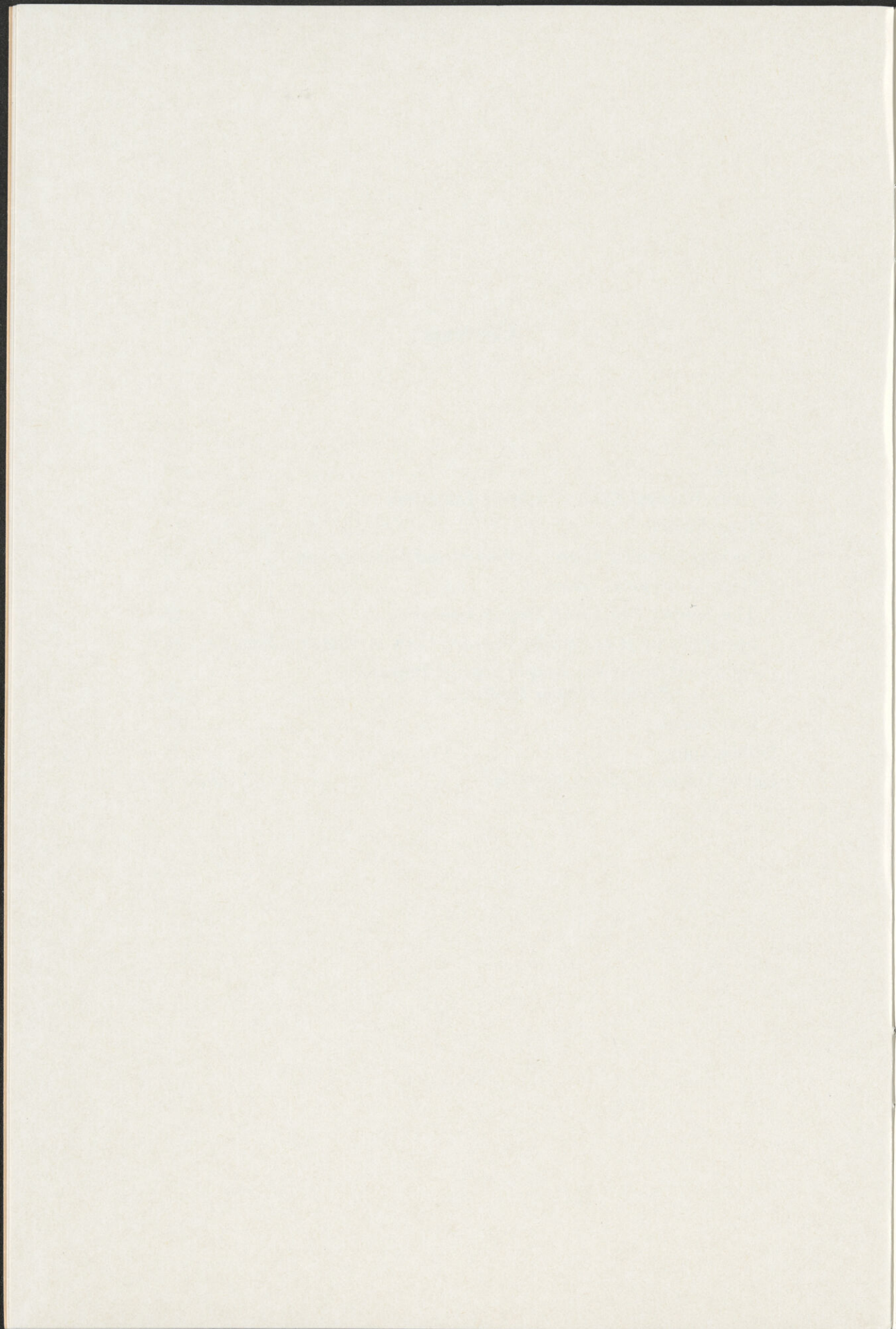
David Dodds Henry

President, University of Illinois
1955-71



Contents

Foreword	7
Preface	9
Socially Imposed Costs of Higher Education.....	11
Introduction	11
Socially Imposed Costs: A Widespread Phenomenon.....	13
Some Conceptual Issues.....	14
The Special Position of Higher Education.....	18
Specific Sources of Socially Imposed Costs in Higher Education..	19
Estimated Dollar Amounts of Socially Imposed Costs Affecting Higher Education.....	30
Conclusions	32
Bibliography	34
List of David D. Henry Lectures.....	cover 3

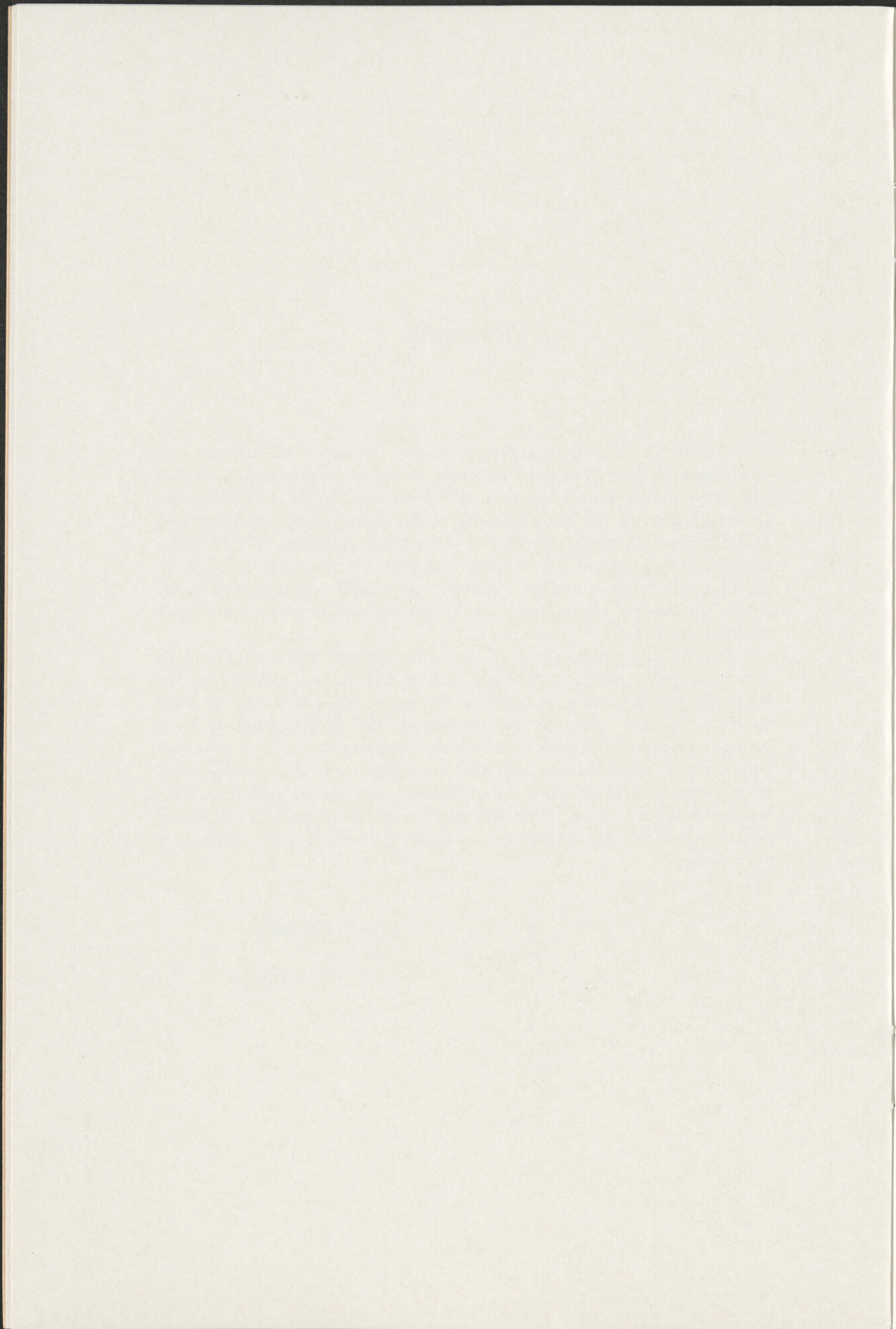


Foreword

The David D. Henry Lectureship at the University of Illinois was established by friends of the University to honor a man and to further the profession to which that man still dedicates his life. Following the announcement of the establishment of the lectureship, President and Distinguished Professor of Higher Education Emeritus Henry commented that he hoped the lectures and publications made possible by the program would mark the University of Illinois as a center of learning in the field of educational administration which would serve both the University and the profession.

We at the University of Illinois are pleased that the esteem in which our colleague, David Henry, is held has made it possible for his hopes for the lectures to be fulfilled. In an era when it is said by some that no "giants" exist in the profession, the Henry lectures have brought together individuals who belie that statement. It is my bias that today's world brings renewed significance to the profession of educational administration, to its theory, and to its practice. This volume extends a series which has made and continues to make sound contributions to that profession, and we present it with pride and enthusiasm.

John E. Corbally
President
University of Illinois

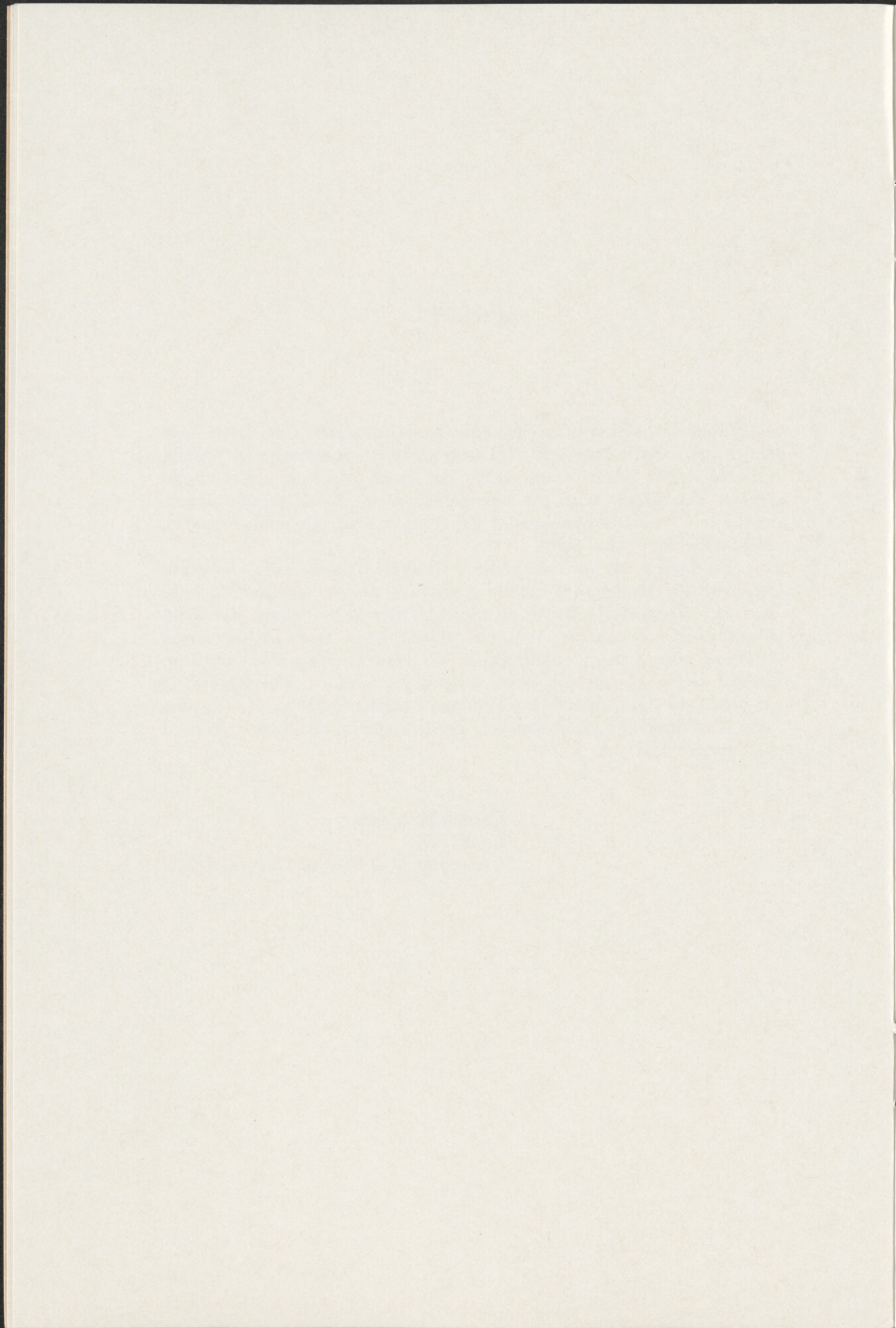


Preface

No public institution of higher education can stand aloof from costs which are socially imposed. This campus of the University of Illinois, situated in the midst of the state's largest metropolitan region, must reckon unceasingly with the compoundings of social interest which, in the most constructive sense of the term, tax our physical, financial, and intellectual capacities.

To review for us how these "socially imposed costs" have intensified the challenges to higher education, we are fortunate to have had Dr. Howard R. Bowen at Chicago Circle to deliver the Fifth David D. Henry Lecture. It would be difficult to find another person who has met as many challenges as has Howard Bowen as educator, college and university president, analyst, and author. The lecture, in its published form, should prove to be a valuable study tool for anyone who is a student or practitioner of good academic health and, if need be, survivorship.

Donald H. Riddle
Chancellor
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle



Socially Imposed Costs of Higher Education*

by Howard R. Bowen

R. Stanton Avery Professor of Economics and Education,
Claremont Graduate School

Introduction

When historians reflect on the three decades following World War II, they will, I think, judge this period to be one of the most creative in American history. And they will conclude that a significant and influential feature of this period was the intense interest of the American people in learning and the consequent growth, enrichment, and diversification of our system of higher education. The vision underlying this development was that for the first time in all of history, a serious attempt should be made to confer appreciable cultural advantages upon a substantial part of the whole population, and at the same time to achieve new peaks in intellectual and cultural excellence. Of course, the vision has not yet been fully realized. The millennium has not yet arrived. But there can be no doubt that the introduction of mass higher education was an historic event of almost unparalleled significance.

We are here today to honor one of the most eminent figures in this historic episode, David Dodds Henry. His accomplishments have been in three parts. First, under his leadership the University of Illinois reached its present position as one of the most distinguished institutions in the world. Second, and equally important, his vision and energy were major factors in the development of urban centers of excellence in higher education — especially at the Chicago Circle campus of the University of Illinois but also at Wayne State University and New York University. Third, he served, and continues to serve, as

* The author expresses gratitude to the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation for generous support of the study reported in this paper.

educational statesman *par excellence*. In this role, he has been president of the major educational associations, adviser to governments and universities, and author of important and widely read commentaries on higher education. Withal, he is a friendly, quiet, and unassuming person whose outstanding quality is wisdom. I am delighted to be here and to take part in honoring David Henry.

The paper I have prepared for this occasion is concerned with the rising costs of higher education. Institutional expenditures for higher education in the United States have increased at a prodigious rate. Total current expenditures grew from \$2.2 billion in 1949-50 to an estimated \$41.9 billion in 1975-76 — a nineteen-fold increase. Part of this remarkable growth was due to an explosion of enrollment and part was due to price inflation.* But even after adjustment for these two factors, expenditures per student in constant dollars nearly doubled over the twenty-six-year period, increasing at the average rate of about 2½ percent a year. Though the rate of growth has been slower in recent years than in the 1950s and 1960s, it has still been substantial.

Various reasons have been given for the rapid growth of expenditures. Some critics allege that the higher educational community has expanded its functions and its work load unnecessarily, that it has not been adequately attentive to efficiency and cost control, and that it has been able to indulge these follies through access to funds beyond its essential needs. Others, more friendly toward higher education, have argued that the increased expenditures have been necessary to bring about much-needed improvements in quality of instruction and research; or they have argued that the increased expenditures have been thrust upon higher education by unavoidable increases in wages, salaries, and other costs that could not possibly have been offset by improvements in productivity. Doubtless there is substance to all of these explanations.

In addition, another explanation of the growth in expenditures is that they have been induced — in part at least — by social demands for new services, new activities, and new standards of operation. Such demands are said to have been an outgrowth of changing social values and expectations often leading to reinforcement through governmental laws and regulations. It is widely asserted that they have imposed heavy costs for substantive compliance and also for onerous reports and red tape connected with governmental intervention. I shall be concerned primarily with the growth of higher educational expendi-

* Later in this paper, the question of the meaning and measurement of the rate of inflation will be considered. Some of what is ordinarily called inflation may have been due to the very socially imposed costs that are under review in this paper.

tures attributable to the new social demands. The focus will be on "socially imposed costs." The main objective will be to identify the sources of these costs, to estimate their amount, and to judge their impact on higher education. These socially imposed costs are of special concern to educators who fear that social pressures and governmental intervention will erode institutional autonomy and thus impair academic freedom. A spirited discussion of socially imposed costs has occurred in higher educational circles in recent years, a considerable though fragmented literature has appeared, and some partial and preliminary cost estimates have been made. The federal government has responded with initial efforts to assess the situation and to seek solutions.

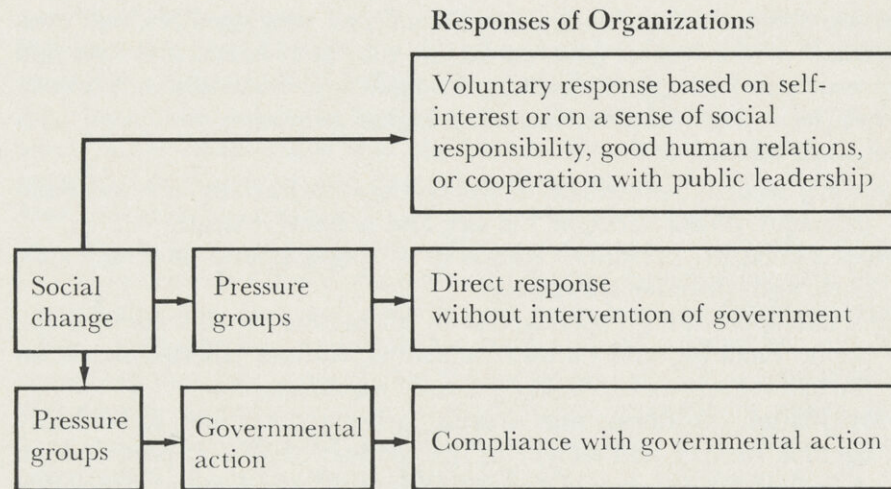
Socially imposed costs: a widespread phenomenon

Higher education is of course not the only sector of the economy that is subject to socially imposed costs. The operations of virtually all businesses, nonprofit organizations, municipal and state agencies, and even agencies of the federal government are subject to social pressures and governmental programs resulting in significant increases in expenditures. Most organizations, including higher education, are faced with demands relating to:

- Personal security: protection of workers against hazards such as unemployment, illness, accident, old age, and premature death
- Work standards: prescribed standards of wages, hours, working conditions, and collective bargaining
- Personal opportunity: open access of all persons to education, work, public facilities, and cultural amenities without discrimination on the basis of sex, race, religion, personal handicaps, etc.
- Participation, openness, due process, privacy: rejection of arbitrary decision making and secrecy in the conduct of affairs; participation of individuals in organizational decisions affecting them; protection of individual privacy
- Public information
- Environmental protection

In addition, most industries are subject to particular socially imposed costs related to their special circumstances. For example, railroads are subject to special rate regulation and labor standards, automobile companies are subject to special requirements relating to fuel consumption and pollution, and multinational companies are subject to the requirements of U.S. foreign policy. Similarly, colleges and universities are subject to special costs connected with the emancipation of youth, federal grants and contracts, various socially imposed costs related to teaching hospitals and clinics, and tax reform.

Organizations of all kinds, including higher education, have responded to these social demands in four ways: (1) by voluntarily adjusting to the new conditions in ways that will best protect their own interests; (2) by voluntarily modifying their behavior according to their own concepts of social responsibility, of good relations with workers, consumers, suppliers, and the general public, or of cooperation with public leadership; (3) by altering their behavior in ways forced upon them by collective bargaining, community opinion, mass protest, threat of governmental action, etc.; and (4) by changing their behavior in conformity with specific governmental sanctions. Governmental sanctions in turn have been responses to these same social demands. Thus, basic social change — not merely the arbitrary or whimsical decisions of government — lie at the root of much of the behavioral modification of organizations. The path of causation is illustrated in the following diagram.



The changed behavior of organizations, and any associated increases in costs, are ultimately due to social change — sometimes mediated through government and sometimes not. Governmental programs and regulations are thus seen as part of a more fundamental social process. This chapter is concerned with all socially imposed costs, not merely with those in which government happens to be involved.

Some conceptual issues

When one contemplates the phenomenon of socially imposed costs, one immediately faces several basic conceptual issues.

First, social change of the kinds under consideration may raise cost, lower cost, raise income, lower income, or have no effect on

either cost or income. The frequent assumption that such social change will always raise cost is surely false. For example, when an organization responds to social demands regarding the conditions of work, the morale or the health or the job satisfaction of workers may be enhanced and, as a result, worker productivity may be raised and cost lowered. Even when this effect is not immediately noticeable within the particular organization, improved working conditions may in the long run bring about a rise in productivity for the whole society (eventually including the particular organization). Comparably, a change in tax laws intended to enhance the fairness of the tax system may reduce philanthropic contributions and thus lower the income of nonprofit organizations, an effect which would be tantamount to an increase in cost. In view of these possibilities, socially imposed costs should be defined to include positive and negative effects on both costs and income in the long run.*

Second, socially imposed costs may be usefully divided into two groups: (1) costs for actual program operations, and (2) costs associated with compliance or information. For example, one may distinguish between Social Security taxes paid versus filling out forms and record-keeping; operating a black studies program versus providing statistical information on minority enrollments; improving animal care facilities versus preparing annual compliance reports; increasing the faculty-student ratio as suggested by an accreditation team versus preparing an institutional self-study. These distinctions may break down when pressed too far, but they are important because much of the furor about social costs pertains to costs of compliance or of gathering and supplying information rather than to program costs which in the aggregate are much greater.

Third, the period of time over which socially imposed costs are to be measured must be specified. In the literature, there is a good deal of carelessness about this matter. In a sense all costs of higher education are socially imposed in that all were at one time or another added on in response to the needs and demands of society. When one attempts to identify such costs that are of recent vintage, one must indicate clearly the period of time under consideration. Also in specifying the time period, a distinction should be made between capital costs and

* When judging the effect of a social change on cost, one must ask: Compared to what? For example, if the workers of the nation are demanding universal health insurance, their morale and productivity might fall if the demand is rejected. Meeting the demand, then, may be said to increase productivity and lower cost, *compared* with what it would have been with rejection but not compared with past performance. On the other hand, in a different psychological climate, adopting universal health insurance might raise morale and increase productivity compared with past performance. The effect on cost, then, may be relative to the psychological climate.

recurrent operating costs and between startup costs and continuing recurrent costs. For example, some of the costs of the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA) may be in the form of one-time capital costs which loom very large in the near future but which would seem less overpowering if amortized over the life of the capital improvements. Whereas another program involving mainly operating costs — for example, establishing women's intercollegiate athletics — may be seemingly less awesome in the near future but may in the long run be far more costly than OSHA. Similarly, in many cases, costs of compliance or of supplying statistical data are relatively high in the first year when new procedures and new computer programs must be adopted and employees must be trained, but become much lower in later years when the operations can be routinized.

Fourth, a distinction must be made between the increasing of costs and the changing of priorities. When social or governmental intervention imposes new programs and activities upon organizations it does not necessarily follow that aggregate costs will be increased. Such intervention may merely change the priorities of the organizations, causing a substitution of new programs or activities for old ones, with total costs unchanged. For example, if higher education had not been required to meet the specifications of the Employment Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA), introduce ethnic studies, follow affirmative action, etc., the same money might have been spent to raise faculty-student ratios, to expand libraries, or build new sports arenas. The amount of money available to spend would not necessarily have been greater because of the imposed social costs. The priorities would simply have been altered. Similarly, when administrators and faculty members are called upon to assemble statistics, prepare reports, entertain site visitors, negotiate, lobby, read governmental regulations, etc., these activities may not increase aggregate expenditures but may merely divert staff time and energy from accustomed work to new tasks. In other words, these new demands may change the priorities but not necessarily increase aggregate costs. One then must ask whether the new priorities involve an improvement or a deterioration in the efficiency of the organization viewed from the standpoint of the broad public interest.

Consideration of these four conceptual issues suggests caution in rushing to the conclusion that every social pressure or governmental regulation raises cost or reduces efficiency. However, the probabilities are high that the combined net effect of these social changes have indeed raised costs of traditional services or have changed priorities in ways that impair efficiency of conventional operations. When these social changes are viewed in a broader context, however, they may mean that in recent decades society has chosen to take an increasing

share of the national product in the form of security, safety, health, participation, due process, equality, privacy, consumer protection, agreeable working conditions, environmental improvement, conservation of resources, information, etc. And it has chosen to take a smaller share in the form of conventional goods and services. Society has apparently chosen a more secure, a more humane, and a more informed world in place of a more affluent world. This is not necessarily a bad choice — though people may disagree on the details — but the consequence is a significant change in the composition of the national product. However, our conventional social accounting does not include these new goods relating to security, opportunity, due process, etc., as part of the national product. The cost of producing these goods is assigned to the production of ordinary goods and services and shows up as reduced efficiency or impaired productivity in the production of these ordinary goods and services rather than as legitimate costs that yield distinctive and useful, albeit intangible, products.

These costs are akin to taxes. To finance them, organizations must either increase their revenues or make offsetting reductions in regular costs. They may increase revenues by raising the prices of the ordinary goods and services they produce. Or they may reduce their regular costs by lowering the range or quality of goods and services produced. In either of these cases, costs are shifted forward to consumers. Non-profit organizations may shift some or all of the cost forward to consumers by raising tuitions and fees or to philanthropists and taxpayers by obtaining increased amounts of gifts or appropriations. On the other hand, organizations may shift some or all of the new costs backward to workers by paying wages and salaries lower than would otherwise prevail. It is often argued that payroll taxes and other fringe benefits paid for by employers are shifted in the long run to workers in the form of lower wages. This conclusion has been based on the assumption that real labor costs (including wages, salaries, and fringe benefits) are limited by the net productivity of workers. The question of the precise shifting and incidence of taxes and related charges is far from settled. Since most members of the population are both workers and consumers, it may not make much practical difference whether the shifting is backward to workers or forward to consumers. But to the extent that the shifting is forward to consumers, and in my judgment a large part of it does go in this direction, it is likely that some of the steady relentless inflation we experience year after year is due to socially imposed costs which are passed through to consumers in the form of higher prices or reduced quality of product, or to taxpayers and philanthropists through increased appropriations and more generous gifts.

To the extent that the new costs are shifted to consumers in the

form of higher prices, they affect the general price indexes, accelerating the rate of increase in these indexes. Some of what is ordinarily called "inflation," then, is almost certainly due to cost increases generated by social demands. Strictly, these costs should not be registered in the price indexes because they are incurred for the purpose of producing important social values such as personal security, job satisfaction, participation, environmental improvement, and all the rest. But since these values are not counted statistically in the national product, they show up as higher prices for ordinary goods and services with which they are jointly produced. It is not known to what extent the price indexes have been biased upward because of these social costs. But it is certain that the effect has been substantial, and that the true rate of inflation derived from monetary and fiscal factors has been substantially less than usually supposed.

Because some socially imposed costs become incorporated in the general price indexes, it is necessary in estimating social costs to avoid the error of deflating expenditures on the basis of a general price index and then considering the social costs as part of the deflated expenditures. Rather, at least some part of social costs must be considered as part of the expenditures reflected in the rising price indexes.

The special position of higher education

Up to this point, the discussion has been concerned with socially imposed costs in general as applied to all sectors of the economy, colleges and universities being only one class of organizations affected. I shall now consider the special position of colleges and universities.

Higher education became subject to some of the socially imposed costs later than other industries. For example, higher education was exempted in the early years of Social Security, minimum wage laws, collective bargaining legislation, and other social programs and was brought in only after many years. More recently, however, higher education has come to be regarded for purposes of social legislation as no different from other industries, and in the newer programs it has been included from the start. As a result, higher education has had to adjust to the many socially imposed costs over a shorter period of time than other industries. This problem has been exacerbated because the cost and inconvenience of social programs is greater at the time of startup than over the longer pull when they become routinized.

Higher education (and other nonprofit organizations) may have more difficulty than profit-making enterprises in shifting social costs. Whereas profit-making enterprises are financed almost wholly from the sale of their products in the market, colleges and universities receive only part of their income from tuition and fees and the rest from appropriations, gifts, and investment income. For higher educational

institutions to recover increased social costs, they must usually enlist the aid of legislators and donors as well as raise prices in the form of tuitions and fees. If they are unsuccessful in this effort, then their only recourse is to absorb at least some of the costs within their budgets at the expense of the range or quality of their programs. In this case, the social costs are indeed shifted to consumers but through deterioration of programs, a way that is seldom acceptable to educators. This is not to say that profit-making enterprises can always shift new social costs instantly through higher prices to consumers, but only that their power to do so may be greater than that of higher education.¹

Higher education differs from business in that it is largely tax exempt. This special status cuts two ways. On the one hand, higher education receives a hidden subsidy in the form of general governmental services for which it does not pay. This may justify government in expecting colleges and universities to bear some social costs or to serve in partnership with government in some costly research and training programs. On the other hand, tax exemption means that higher education is not able to deduct socially imposed costs from taxable income, as private business can do, and that colleges and universities must bear the whole cost rather than about half the cost as in the case of private companies of comparable size.

Though the special conditions within higher education may put it at some disadvantage in comparison with profit-making business, the differences are not very pronounced. On the basis of the differences mentioned, it would be hard to make a case that higher education should have special treatment, except the obvious and important one that its funding sources should take socially imposed costs into account in setting the amount of appropriations and gifts. There is, however, one additional difference that stands alone because of its central importance. This is the special need of colleges and universities for freedom from governmental controls and social pressures. Profit-making enterprises are, of course, as concerned as any other organizations to protect their freedom of decision and action. However, colleges and universities as centers of teaching and research have a special interest in autonomy because of their responsibility to protect freedom of thought from encroachments either of interest groups or of government. For this reason, the sensitivity and the resistance of the higher educational community to some forms of external pressure and control are likely to be greater than the resistance of profit-making enterprises — and properly so.

Specific sources of socially imposed costs in higher education

In this section I shall try to identify the principal sources of socially imposed costs that have affected higher education in the decades of

the 1960s and the 1970s and comment briefly on them. In a later section, I shall present some rough estimates of the magnitude of these costs.

Personal security. The increasing concern in our society for the protection of individuals against such hazards of life as unemployment, illness, accident, old age, and premature death has resulted in many informal influences on organizations to adopt practices that will enhance personal security, and has also resulted in a flood of legislation — federal and state — requiring organizations to provide for the personal security of their workers. Most of these programs or practices involve substantial costs for both the benefits afforded employees (and in some cases students) and for expenses of compliance. Among the specific laws, regulations, and practices are the following:

Federal legislation or regulations

Social Security Act of 1935 as amended providing old-age pensions, survivors' insurance, disability insurance, unemployment compensation, and health insurance

Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 (OSHA)

Employment Retirement Income Security Act of 1974 (ERISA)

Legislation regarding radiation safety and protection of human and animal subjects used in research and teaching

State and local legislation or regulations

Workmen's Compensation

Building codes for protection against fire, flood, earthquake, panic, etc.

Rules and inspections relating to public health and health-care services

State laws and programs relating to retirement, occupational health and safety, unemployment compensation, etc., some of which overlap with federal programs

Institutional practices resulting from informal social influences

Provision of fringe benefits in the form of pensions, health and disability insurance, life insurance, severance pay, etc.

Granting of tenure and other long-term employment contracts

Adoption of procedures making termination of employment legally and practically difficult

Work standards. Over the years, prevailing standards for wages, hours, and other conditions on the job have steadily risen. The nation has chosen to reap part of its increased productivity in higher wages, shorter hours, and improved working conditions. These changes, though basically derived from widespread and insistent social demands and reflected in generally accepted standards of life on the job, have often been backed up by legislative mandate. Higher education has long been affected by social demands for improved work standards

but has only recently become subject to the principal legislation concerning work standards. This legislation includes:

The Wagner Act of 1935 (as frequently amended) providing the right of workers to organize, to bargain collectively, and to strike, and formulating rules governing collective bargaining

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (as frequently amended) providing minimum wages, maximum hours, time-and-a-half for overtime work, etc.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 providing that employees doing similar work should receive the same pay regardless of employee's sex

Innumerable state laws regarding working conditions other than wages and hours

Collective bargaining is, with few exceptions, fairly new to higher education, but it has probably already had a substantial impact on costs. There is a question as to whether collective bargaining in the long run raises the level of real wages in the economy as a whole, but it probably does raise the wages of particular groups. Colleges and universities have had a long record of paying less than prevailing wages to their nonacademic employees. They have been able to do so in part by offering steady employment, by providing pleasant and humane working conditions, by exploiting captive workers such as students, wives of students, and faculty wives, by placing workers under less pressure than is customary in private industry, and by providing special fringe benefits (for example, reduced tuition or tickets to public events). The widespread unionization of nonacademic employees has probably raised their wages and thus increased higher educational costs. In the case of faculty members, who on the whole have been well paid at least over the past decade, there is some doubt as to whether collective bargaining has raised compensation overall, though it may have done so in particular institutions. Two recent studies suggest that its effect on compensation may have been weak.² However, under conditions that can easily be visualized, the impact of collective bargaining might be considerable over the long run — especially in preventing the decline in real earnings that might otherwise accompany a weakening of the demand for faculty and administrative staff.

The minimum wage law and the requirement of time-and-a-half for overtime have both undoubtedly raised higher educational costs. Their effect has been to raise money wage payments without necessarily increasing productivity or taking away fringe benefits. Also, the secular trend toward higher standards for working conditions other than wages and hours have also undoubtedly raised costs in higher education.

Personal opportunity. Another important source of rising unit costs in higher education is the increasing concern in our society for open access of all persons to education, work, public facilities, and cultural amenities without discrimination on the basis of race, religion, sex, physical and mental handicaps, age, personal appearance, life style, etc. This concern has led to far-reaching voluntary decisions on the part of colleges and universities, to heavy informal pressures on them, and to a great deal of legislation and court-made law.

Because higher education is a vital ingredient of social mobility for disadvantaged groups and a strategic point of access to the mainstream of American society, colleges and universities have been focal points in the struggle for personal opportunity and human equality. Their role has been more significant in the areas of student recruitment and special educational programs than in the area of employment practices. To some degree, the involvement of colleges and universities in equal opportunity antedated both the intense social pressure and governmental programs of the 1950s and later. However, without the pressure — informal and governmental — it is doubtful that they would have extended themselves as much as they have.

The efforts of colleges and universities to respond to social demands for equal personal opportunity have involved substantial costs — especially in recruiting and admitting students,* supplying student aid, and providing special programs and facilities. Some of these costs have been in the form of capital investments, but most have been recurrent and increasing. Complying with various related governmental programs has involved expenditures for data collection, report preparation, and legal services. Also, dealing with campus unrest associated with minority issues has involved significant time and effort on the part of faculty and administrative officers.

Public programs of student aid have undoubtedly supplied a large part of the funds needed to assist students. Nevertheless, social pressures on institutions have required them to stretch their resources for student aid and also to bear significant administrative or matching costs connected with public student aid.

Two new areas of federal intervention with substantial cost implications are pending. One is the extension of affirmative action to student admissions and the other is providing facilities to accommodate students with physical and mental handicaps. The costs resulting from these two initiatives are likely to be very high and it remains to be seen how these costs will be financed.

* The costs to particular institutions of recruiting minority students may level off as institutions gain more experience and as they develop networks of minority alumni who can assist in the recruitment process.

Some of the specific laws, regulations, and influences relating to personal opportunity are the following:

Federal legislation or regulations

Affirmative Action: Executive Order 11246 of 1965 as amended in 1967 to include discrimination on the basis of sex

Employment Act of 1967 (relates to discrimination on the basis of age)

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 (prohibits discrimination in employment practices on the basis of sex, race, creed, or national origin)

Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 (bars sex discrimination in educational policies, programs, and employment practices)

Financial aid to students (a great variety of grants, loans, and work-study programs, some of which require institutional matching funds or substantial administrative costs)

Internal Revenue Service regulations concerning discrimination in employment and in student admissions

Many judicial decisions affecting employment, student admissions, and educational practices

State and local legislation or regulations

Legislation or regulations in some states and municipalities outlawing discrimination in student admissions or in employment, or mandating open admissions or special provisions for minorities

Institutional practices resulting from informal social influence

Active recruitment of minorities, women, the handicapped, etc., and provision of special remedial programs, counseling, curricula, facilities, and financial aid for them (these innovations were often adopted as institutions carried out their newly perceived social responsibilities or reacted to informal, but often intense, pressures)

Participation, openness, due process, and privacy. A prominent characteristic of contemporary society is the rejection of paternalism, arbitrary decisions, and secrecy in the conduct of affairs. As a corollary, there is a strong demand for participation of individuals in organizational decisions affecting them. Business, educational institutions, churches, political parties, and government have all been persuaded or forced to adopt more open and democratic decision-making processes. Closely related to the demand for wide participation has been a new insistence on due process in decisions affecting individuals. In the present climate of opinion, most organizations find it expedient or mandatory to reach decisions about individuals openly, carefully complying with established procedures including provision for appeal and

review. This is especially so because decisions often lead to litigation and courts have tended increasingly to review organizational decisions not only on the basis of substance but also of procedure. Indeed, the mandate for due process comes largely from judicial decisions rather than legislation.

The principal legislation on these matters is the First Amendment to the Constitution (as continuously reinterpreted); the Wagner Act of 1935 (as frequently amended and interpreted) providing the right of workers to organize, to bargain collectively, and to strike, and formulating rules governing collective bargaining; and various federal and state laws prohibiting secrecy in the conduct of public business. Otherwise, the sanctions derive primarily from informal social pressure and court-made law.

The demands for participation, openness, and due process have deeply affected governance and decision making within higher education. They have led to increasing influence of students, faculty, and nonacademic staff in the affairs of colleges and universities. They have led to wider consultation, to greater attention to the codification of rules, and to the adoption of formal procedures. They have given rise to pressure groups among faculty, students, and employees; to new tactics for exerting pressure including picketing, strikes, publicity, and demonstrations; to the establishment of the office of ombudsman; to formal grievance procedures; to formal procedures for reaching decisions about individuals; and to frequent litigation.

The new demands for participation, openness, and due process have required much time, effort, and money in reaching ordinary decisions and also in establishing formal procedures, settling specific complaints, obtaining legal advice, and defending lawsuits.

Closely related to these matters has been an increasing interest in the protection of individual privacy. This has been manifested in many ways, beginning with the traditional limitation on the search of private premises, and extending to more recent restrictions on covert surveillance and to limitations on the use of credit and financial records, medical histories, criminal records, letters of recommendation, identity cards, and identity numbers.

These developments have profound significance for higher education. Not only have colleges and universities kept records on employees, they also have accumulated detailed records on individual students. The student records have contained information on academic performance, campus work, personal behavior, and health; faculty members and administrators have added to these records by conferring awards and prizes and by writing letters of recommendation; and these records have been shared with other educational institutions, prospective employers including the armed services, and law enforcement

agencies. Often these records have had a bearing on crucial educational decisions such as admissions, promotion, retention, the awarding of degrees, transfer to other institutions, etc. In the present climate of opinion, and especially since the enactment of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974 (known as the Buckley Amendment), institutions of higher education have undoubtedly been subjected to increased cost in connection with the management of records and the release of information.

Emancipation of youth. In recent decades, a veritable revolution has occurred in the degree of freedom of young people with respect to manners, mores, dress, general mode of life, and personal life decisions. Along with this has come a rejection of paternalism both within the family and within educational institutions. The chief legal manifestation of this social change has been the constitutional amendment lowering the age of majority to eighteen.

Higher education has been deeply influenced by the emancipation of youth. It has largely abandoned the concept of *in loco parentis* and deals with its students as adults. It has greatly reduced specific curricular requirements and social rules, and has narrowed its responsibilities for supervision and guidance. The percentage (though not the absolute number) of students living in institutional residences has declined. Also, in view of the reduced formality of life style and manners, emphasis on gracious surroundings, served meals, formal parties, and receptions has been reduced. These changes may have resulted in somewhat lower costs. These savings may have been offset, however, by changing conditions in the job market which have led to expanding services in vocational guidance and placement and to the introduction of new vocational curricula; by new sexual mores which have led to new demands for medical services; by the increasing use of cars, television sets, hi-fi sets, and other gadgets by an affluent generation of students which has increased energy consumption and parking costs; and by new behavior patterns which have increased the need for campus security. In balance, though the emancipation of students itself may have reduced costs, other factors have probably been offsetting.

Perhaps the most important aspect of the emancipation of youth has been its potential effect on student finances. The basic concept underlying student financial aid is that the amount of funds to be granted any student is largely determined by the financial circumstances of the student's family — the family defined to include the student, his parents, and other contributing members. But if a student becomes emancipated from his family, as increasing numbers do, the parental family is no longer relevant to student aid allotments. The "family" of a single student then becomes simply the student himself and the family of a married student becomes the student, a spouse, and

children if any. Thus the amount of financial need of an emancipated student may be more than that of one who is still part of a parental family. This situation is aggravated by the increasing average age of students in college. Emancipation also affects in-state versus out-of-state tuitions in public colleges and universities. Historically, the residence of a student has been deemed to be the residence of his parents. But emancipated students, and others as well, often may establish residence in the state where they go to college (regardless of where their parents reside) and thus qualify for in-state tuition. The impact of emancipation upon expenditures for student aid and on income from tuitions has probably already been substantial. If the trend toward emancipation continues, the financial effect could be enormous.

Public information. Colleges and universities have been required to supply increasing amounts of public information about their activities. To comply has been expensive not only in money but also in administrative time and frustration. The requests for information are related primarily to five areas: (1) consumer protection, (2) fund-raising, (3) enforcement of governmental programs, (4) general statistical needs of society, and (5) general public demands for accountability. The information is furnished mainly through special written reports, published documents, and site visits.

Consumer protection has a long history in American society and has been gathering steam in recent decades. Its purpose has been to protect health and safety and to prevent deception and exploitation of consumers. In the case of higher education, the concern has been mainly to avoid deception and exploitation of students, and the traditional agency has been voluntary accreditation through regional associations of colleges and universities. Over recent decades, however, increasing numbers of specialized professional associations have become active in accreditation with respect to particular professional fields. In some states, departments of education, statewide coordinating agencies, departments of finance, and even legislative committees have become involved in accreditation. The federal government has also been marginally involved. In addition to all this, various educational associations, journalists, and private entrepreneurs have gathered information from institutions which they have published — sometimes with judgmental evaluations or rankings. Recently, abuses in the proprietary sector, the appearance of degree mills, and also the general concern for accountability of colleges and universities have led to further demands for consumer protection.

Over the years, both federal and state governments have demanded increasing amounts of information in connection with general institutional appropriations and applications for grants and contracts for specific purposes. This has been due in part to the rapidly growing

amounts of appropriations which have encouraged greater scrutiny, and in part to the increasing use of categorical grants and contracts which have required special review of each project. Similarly, as institutions have received increasing amounts of money from private foundations, corporations, and individuals, the demands for information have multiplied. In many cases, information is needed as part of the application for appropriations and grants, for interim reports during the course of the grant period, and for retrospective reports at the end of the grant period.

Governmental agencies require information also in connection with the auditing or enforcement of programs such as student aid, affirmative action, worker safety and health, building codes, radiation safety, and protection of human and animal subjects used in research and teaching. As these programs proliferate, informational requests multiply apace. Moreover, as colleges and universities collectively occupy a more influential role in society and become a larger part of the total economy, the demand for general statistical information about higher education increases.

Finally, occasions of adverse public attitudes and increased political attention directed toward colleges and universities have led to the "accountability" movement involving new demands for statistical information, self-studies, special reports, justifications of fund requests, inspections, investigations, new layers of accreditation, etc. Most of this activity has been centered at the state level and most — but not all — has been directed toward public institutions. Vast amounts of information have been requested, often in detail and on short notice, by legislative committees, governors, state finance officers, state personnel offices, coordinating boards, and other agencies. Attacks upon higher education by political candidates and public officials have been frequent and have had to be answered or counteracted. These developments have not only produced additional demands for information but also have impaired institutional autonomy as decision making has been shifted upward to central offices of multicampus institutions, superboards, legislative committees, and state finance offices.

Ironically, the growing involvement of higher education with federal and state government has increased the need within the institutions for information about existing laws, regulations, and programs and about proposals for new ones. It has also required increasing attention to formulating positions on future legislation or regulation and to advocacy of these positions.

There can be no doubt that colleges and universities — along with companies and private individuals — have been faced with increasing governmental demands for information. Some of the demands have been seemingly useless, or ambiguous, or duplicative. Most request

data in unique forms that necessitate special analyses. The time, effort, and frustration involved have been substantial. Nevertheless, that large quantities of information are legitimately needed can hardly be disputed. Indeed, colleges and universities are in an embarrassing position when they object to the load of questionnaires and reports. They are important research organizations themselves and are among the leading perpetrators of requests for data. Literally hordes of graduate students and professors are seekers of information in the form of responses to questionnaires or personal interviews. Moreover, much of the data collected by government is of greater use to academic researchers than to any other group. Colleges and universities clearly place a heavier burden on society than society places on higher education for the supply of information. Nevertheless, compliance with government in the supply of data does impose significant costs on higher education.

Environment. A major feature of recent decades has been a growing social concern for the environment. The relationship between the environment and higher education may be considered from two points of view: the effects of higher education on the environment and the effects of the environment on higher education.

Colleges and universities do not have a strong impact on the environment, and their effects tend on the whole to be benign. However, they do sometimes emit pollutants from their power plants, or discharge liquid wastes into streams, or dispose of solid wastes inadequately; they sometimes create neighborhood nuisances related to traffic, parking, and student behavior; they sometimes use (or wish to use) land in ways contrary to overall city plans; and they sometimes engage in research that may conceivably endanger the environment, for example, research involving radiation or recombinant DNA. In correcting these problems, in response to informal social pressures or governmental mandates, many institutions have been subjected to substantial costs, but overall the costs involved have probably been modest in relation to total budgets.

The impact of neighborhood environments on institutions of higher education may have generated more significant costs, especially in urban institutions. In recent decades there has been a visible increase in urban decay, crime, vandalism, and militant protest in many of the communities where higher education operates. These social changes have increased the costs of higher education. Neighborhood deterioration has required increased provision for security, higher insurance premiums, losses from theft and vandalism, and unwelcome changes in mode of operation. Also some institutions have found it expedient to incur large expenditures for property acquisition, urban renewal, and other neighborhood improvements in areas adjacent to their campuses.

Shared costs in federal grants and contracts. In connection with governmental grants and contracts to support research and training in academic institutions, provision for indirect or overhead costs is a major issue because the federal government treats universities less generously than private business in allowances for such costs. The theory underlying this discriminatory treatment is in two parts: (1) because one of the established functions of colleges and universities is to conduct research, their regular funding sources should share in the costs of governmentally sponsored research, and (2) because colleges and universities are going research enterprises, the overhead costs related to governmentally sponsored research do not increase in proportion to the expanded volume of research undertaken and reimbursement of marginal rather than average overhead costs is adequate. This theory and specific cost reimbursement formulas have been a perennial subject of debate. Many educators argue that institutional costs are increased by reasons of federal research grants and contracts and that which is euphemistically called "cost sharing" probably places a considerable burden on higher educational institutions. On the other hand, billions of dollars worth of grants and contracts have been voluntarily accepted by higher educational institutions on terms that do not begin to cover full overhead cost. The question of what is a fair distribution of overhead cost remains unresolved, and the extent of the burden on the institutions is unknown.

Special costs of teaching hospitals and clinics. Government has imposed many requirements affecting teaching hospitals and clinics that tend to add to cost or reduce income. These requirements relate partly to the time and effort involved in health planning procedures, patient care review, accreditation and licensure, accounting requirements, drug and blood regulations, radiation protection, use of human and animal subjects for research, liaison with the Veterans Administration, and many others. Government also controls the reimbursement of hospitals and clinics for medical services performed for Medicare, Medicaid, and patients in other programs whose bills are paid partly or wholly by public agencies. The issue here is similar to that of overhead cost reimbursement in the case of research contracts and grants. The socially imposed costs are substantial.

Tax reform. In recent years, a slow erosion of the traditional tax-exempt privileges of higher education has occurred. In some respects, this has tended to raise costs and in others to lower income. The federal government has modified taxes in ways that may inhibit philanthropy and constantly threatens more drastic action. The federal Internal Revenue Service has increasingly scrutinized the operations of non-profit organizations—partly to discover taxable income and partly to enforce affirmative action. As a result, significant new demands have

been made on the time and effort of college and university administrative staffs. In many areas of the nation, local and state governments have become less lenient with respect to tax exemption on the property and sales of nonprofit institutions. Colleges and universities have often been persuaded — in some cases pressured by threats of adverse rulings on zoning — to make contributions in lieu of property taxes. And some local and state governments have stiffened their policies on taxation of property not directly used for educational purposes, taxation of “unrelated” income, and tax treatment of charitable contributions.

Concluding comment. I have reviewed a wide range of socially imposed costs that have probably affected higher education. In most cases, these costs have been generated by basic social changes and have been mediated to some degree through government. It is clear from this review that a vast array of new or accentuated social influences have come to bear on higher education and that most of them tend to raise institutional costs, a few tend to lower institutional income, and a few have a negligible financial effect.

Estimated dollar amounts of socially imposed cost affecting higher education

In this section I shall consider the aggregate impact of socially imposed costs over the period 1959-60 to 1974-75. Because of lack of relevant data, and serious conceptual problems as well, estimates of cost are bound to be no more than guesses, and so I shall not dwell at length on the estimation procedure. In general, I reviewed increases in administrative expenditures, increases in fringe benefits, several studies of socially imposed costs (especially Van Alstyne and Coldren, 1976), and a great deal of anecdotal information about effects of socially imposed costs on particular institutions (especially the University of Iowa, 1976). My guess, and it is no more than a guess, is that the addition to higher educational expenditures resulting from socially imposed costs over the period from 1959-60 to 1974-75 was in the neighborhood of \$2.1 to \$2.6 billion, or 8 to 10 percent of total educational and general expenditures in 1974-75.

Of course, a guess of this kind lacks reliability not only because underlying numbers are not available but also because it depends on what is included within the elastic concept of “socially imposed costs.” The 8 to 10 percent would include the following:

- Payroll taxes and other fringe benefits
- Impact of collective bargaining and wages and hours legislation
- Equal opportunity laws, affirmative action, and other programs for minorities and women

Shared costs in connection with government grants and contracts

Mandatory changes in buildings resulting from new building codes, fire marshall directives, OSHA, provision for the handicapped, new needs for security precautions, and the like*

Costs of general compliance, statistical reports, and other paperwork

Most of this 8 to 10 percent would be connected with employee compensation, shared costs of grants and contracts, and changes in physical plant. All the rest would be of the order of 1 or 2 percent. However, **had such items as increased student financial aid, new adult education programs, and new public service programs been included, the percentage would have been much larger.**

There is no way of knowing to what extent the included socially imposed costs have been shifted backwards to workers in the form of reduced wages and salaries (as compared with what otherwise might have been paid), or shifted forward to government, donors, and students in the form of increased institutional income (as compared with what would otherwise have been received). In the recent and present psychological and financial climate in which higher education is operating, it is likely that some part of these costs has had to be financed by retrenchment of program, impairment of educational quality, or reduction in operating efficiency. But the amount that has been absorbed internally could be known only if one knew the amount of revenue the institutions would have received if there had been no new socially imposed costs. It is possible, but not certain, that some of the funds spent on higher wages and fringe benefits, on minority programs, on building safety, and on paperwork and negotiation might otherwise have been used for upgrading faculty, for program and facility improvement, for long-range planning, for building maintenance, for accumulation of endowment, etc. It is possible also that the demands on faculty and administrators to fill out forms, read governmental regulations, negotiate with public officials, lobby in Washington or in state capitals, and mollify pressure groups have impaired their effectiveness as educational leaders. It is sometimes argued, on the contrary, that socially imposed costs have higher priority than some kinds of expenditures educators would make if the decisions were left wholly to them. It is also sometimes argued that it is good for educators to be brought into the processes of democratic government rather than to be isolated in their autonomous ivory towers. There may be honest differences of opinion on these matters. However, because of the tight financial position of higher education in the past decade, it is possible that the heavy dose of socially imposed costs in recent years has cut

* Conceptually, I have considered modifications of physical plant to be amortized over a period of fifty years.

into, or at least threatened, educational excellence. In some ways, also, it may have impaired academic freedom. In my judgment, there is need for a pause in the imposition of new social costs while the recent spate of such costs can be assimilated by the financial system and the administrative structure of higher education.

Conclusions

All higher educational costs are socially imposed in the sense that all are in response to the needs or demands of society. The question of which ones are to be selected out and labeled "socially imposed" or "governmentally mandated" is wholly arbitrary. It is asking only: What is society expecting higher education to do today that it was not doing last year, ten years ago, or twenty-five years ago? Or what is higher education voluntarily doing today, in the public interest as perceived by educators, that it was not doing before? With this all-inclusive definition of socially imposed cost, the dollar amount over a given period of time could be computed merely by comparing total expenditures at the beginning of the selected period with those at the end of the period. Even the rising costs due to inflation could be said to be socially imposed. Thus, efforts to calculate the amount of expenditures associated with socially imposed costs is not a hugely rewarding activity. The basic issues relating to socially imposed costs are philosophical or political.

One issue is whether some of the socially imposed programs or activities are directed toward improper objectives. Is higher education being asked to engage in socially harmful or socially useless activities? My reading of the literature suggests that there is little complaint among educators about the objectives of most of the socially imposed activities. Hardly anyone opposes efforts to improve personal security, equality of opportunity and access, environmental conditions, etc.

A second issue pertains to the appropriateness of the procedures and the skill and efficiency with which governmental programs are administered. In this connection, there is much criticism of clumsy administration, lack of understanding of the academic community, arbitrariness, tactlessness, redundancy, inefficiency, etc. There is also complaint about the large number of new programs being imposed over so short a period of time that they cannot be readily assimilated.

A third issue pertains to finances. The plea is often made that the government should finance the additional costs it foists upon higher education. The plea, however, is simply part of the ongoing debate over the question: How much money should higher education receive? If society (represented by legislative bodies and donors) believes that higher education gets more money than it needs, then the imposition of new costs does not necessarily call for increased appro-

priations and gifts, but only for rearranged priorities within given levels of expenditures. On the other hand, if it is believed that higher education is impoverished, then the new costs will call for comparable increases in revenues. The question of financing socially imposed costs is thus simply a subtopic under the general questions of the proper level of financing for higher education and of the distribution of the burden among the federal government, state governments, donors, and students. Included within this issue is the question of the relative difficulty that many institutions of higher education face in shifting socially imposed costs forward.

A fourth issue relates to governmental control and academic freedom. Many educators believe that the proliferation of socially imposed activities and governmentally mandated programs represents a threat to the kind of institutional autonomy which is the foundation of academic freedom. This view leads to the recommendation that desirable ends sought by the society should be achieved through means that would bear down less heavily on institutional autonomy.

As I see the matter of socially imposed costs, the objectives being sought are, on the whole, laudable; the execution is often clumsy and wasteful; more new demands are being piled on the higher education community in a short span of time than can be readily assimilated; in the financing of higher education, inadequate attention is being given to financial needs created by socially imposed costs; and, as Earl Cheit has pointed out,³ educational leadership may be losing a sense of "the larger vision" because of its preoccupation with immediate social and governmental demands. Even more important, the proliferation of new socially imposed programs and governmental laws and regulations is a serious threat to academic freedom. Perhaps the greatest need in connection with socially imposed costs is to explore carefully the question of how the legitimate needs of society for security, equality, environmental improvement, etc., may be reconciled with the needs of the academy for intellectual freedom.

Footnotes

1. Van Alstyne, Carol, and Sharon L. Coldren, *The Costs of Implementing Federally Mandated Social Programs at Colleges and Universities*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1976. Pp. 18-19.
2. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, "Do Unionized Faculty Members Get Bigger Pay Raises?" December 6, 1976.
3. Cheit, Earl, "What Price Accountability?" *Change*. November 1975. P. 33.

Additional Bibliography

- Andringa, Robert C., "The View from the Hill." *Change*. April 1976. Pp. 26-30.
- Bender, Louis W., *Federal Regulation and Higher Education*. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education. 1977.
- Birnbaum, Robert, "Unionization and Faculty Compensation: Part II." *Educational Record*. Spring 1976. Pp. 116-18.
- Bok, Derek C., *Harvard University: The President's Report, 1974-75*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University. 1976.
- Bork, Robert H., "Can Universities Escape the Regulation They Prescribe for All Other Institutions?" *The Alternative: An American Spectator*. April 1977.
- Bowen, Howard R., "Faculty Salaries: Past and Future." *Educational Record*. Winter 1968. Pp. 9-21.
- Brewster, Kingman, "Higher Education and the Federal Government." *Congressional Record*. March 10, 1975. Pp. S3515-17.
- Brown, William W., and Courtenay C. Stone, "Academic Unions in Higher Education." *Economic Inquiry*. July 1977. Pp. 385-96.

- Chambers, M. M., *Should State Legislatures Insist on Appropriating Federal Funds?* Normal, Illinois: Illinois State University. 1977.
- Cheit, Earl F., "The Benefits and Burdens of Federal Financial Assistance to Higher Education." *American Economic Review*. Vol. 67, no. 1, February 1977. Pp. 90-95.
- Commission on Federal Paperwork, Report, *Education*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. April 29, 1977.
- Enarson, Harold L., "The Common Good: Foundation for Partnership." *Educational Record*. Spring 1977. Pp. 123-31.
- Enarson, Harold L., *Restoring the Partnership*. Columbus: Ohio State University. 1976 (mimeo).
- Finn, Chester E., Jr., "Federalism and the Universities: The Balance Shifts." *Change*. Winter 1975-76. Pp. 24-29, 63.
- Heyns, Roger W., "Our Best Defense against Regulation." *AGB Reports*. May-June 1977. Pp. 9-13.
- Interagency Task Force on Higher Education Burden Reduction of the Federal Government, *Report*. December 14, 1976 (mimeo).
- Lilley, William, III, and James C. Miller III. "The New 'Social Regulation'." *The Public Interest*. Spring 1977. Pp. 49-61.
- McGill, William J., "The University and the State." *Educational Record*. Spring 1977. Pp. 132-45.
- Mezvinsky, Edward, "Higher Education Strangling in Federal Red Tape," *Congressional Record*, September 9, 1976. Pp. H9662-3.
- Oaks, Dallin H., "A University President Looks at Government Regulation," Address to the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, St. Louis, Missouri, October 18, 1976. Excerpted in *AGB Reports*. January-February 1977. Pp. 41-46.
- O'Neil, Robert M., *The Courts Government and Higher Education*. New York: Committee for Economic Development. 1972.
- Saunders, Charles B., Jr., "Easing the Burden of Federal Regulation: The Next Move Is Ours." *Educational Record*. Vol. 57, no. 4. Pp. 217-24.
- , "Association View of Federal Impact on Education." *Educational Record*. Spring 1975. Pp. 89-95.
- Scott, Robert A., "The Hidden Costs of Government Regulations," *Change*, April 1978. Pp. 16-23.
- Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, *Colleges and Universities Speak Out on Cost of Federal Compliance in Higher Education*. Atlanta, Georgia: Commission on Colleges, Southern Association of Schools and Colleges. 1976.
- Spriestersbach, D. C., and William J. Farrell, "Impact of Federal Regulations at a University." *Science*. October 1977. Pp. 27-30.

University of Iowa, *Impact of Federal Regulations on the University of Iowa: A Compilation of Campus-wide Responses*. Iowa City: Office of the Vice-President for Educational Development and Research, University of Iowa. 1976 (mimeo).

University of Wisconsin, *Report on Questionable Federal Regulatory Activities*. Undated (mimeo).

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Civil Rights, *Higher Education Guidelines, Executive Order 11246*. Washington, D.C.: Health, Education, and Welfare. 1972.

U.S. News and World Report, "Another Campus Revolt—This Time against Washington." July 5, 1976. Pp. 91-94.

Wile, Howard P., "What's So Special about Higher Education?" National Association of College and University Business Officers. *Studies in Management*. Vol. 3, no. 8, 1974.

**The David D. Henry Lectures
in Higher Education**

“The Administration of Higher Education in an Era of Change
and Conflict,” by Clark Kerr, October 1972

“Can We Maintain Quality Graduate Education in a Period
of Retrenchment?” by David Riesman, April 1975

“The Administration of Education for the Health Professions:
A Time for Reappraisal,” by John R. Hogness, April 1976

“The Education of Administrators for Higher
Education,” by Harlan Cleveland, April 1977

“Socially Imposed Costs of Higher Education,” by
Howard R. Bowen, April 1978

Copies of these publications may be obtained from the President's Office,
364 Administration Building, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

