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ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES FOR OFF-CAMPUS EXTENSION

CLASSES FOR TEACHERS IN THE NORTH

CENTRAL ACCREDITING AREA

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ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES FOR OFF-CAMPUS EXTENSION
CLASSES FOR TEACHERS IN THE NORTH
CENTRAL ACCREDITING AREA

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Universities and colleges have for many years offered off-campus extension classes for the benefit of public school teachers. However, in recent years there has been a renewed emphasis given to classes in the field because of the severe shortage of teachers and the requirements for higher standards for teachers. Universities and colleges have consequently felt an obligation to increase their efforts in teacher education by offering more work for teachers in the field. Institutions of higher learning throughout the country have varied greatly in their administrative practices and policies concerning off-campus programs.

It is the purpose of this study to discover the administrative practices and policies being followed by universities and colleges in connection with off-campus credit classes for teachers in the North Central accrediting area. (See Appendix 1.) From this study it is hoped that many desirable practices will be discovered so that these can be considered in the administration of teacher education programs. An

examination of these practices may lead to a higher degree of standardization of administrative practices.

Need for the Study

There has been considerable criticism of off-campus extension, and there is some justification for this criticism. A lack of library facilities, unsatisfactory class meeting places, poorly qualified instructors, and inferior instructional methods are criticisms leveled at some off-campus extension classes. Harold Benjamin voiced another criticism when he said, "Extension work as nourishment for a degree-seeker is commonly thought to lack various cultural vitamins."¹ Briggs and Justman acknowledge that there are grounds for criticism when they state, "Professional schools have been quick to see the opportunity of extending their facilities and influence by giving courses off the campus. . . . Unfortunately, certain abuses of this practice have been not infrequent."²

Much of the criticism has undoubtedly resulted from a phenomenal growth in extension offerings by universities and colleges in recent years. Education in the Forty-eight States, A Report to the Governors' Conference, says,

In recent years, programs of adult education and other general extension activities carried on by institutions of higher education

¹Harold Benjamin, "The University's Responsibility in Adult Education," Educational Method, XVIII (March, 1939), p. 300.

²Thomas H. Briggs and Joseph Justman, Improving Instruction through Supervision (New York: Macmillan Company, 1952), pp. 447-448.

have grown substantially. There are no accurate means of measuring the extent to which these broad service programs have expanded, but it has been estimated that one-fourth of all persons over twenty-one years of age devote part of their time to participation in some adult education program.³

Much of this expansion has resulted from the need of the teaching profession--training teachers to meet the teacher shortage following World War II, enabling teachers to meet higher certification requirements, and making it possible for teachers to qualify for salary increments based on further education. Teacher training institutions felt obligated to meet these needs by expanding their off-campus class offerings. Many problems pertaining to administrative practices resulting from this expanding program have been encountered. Many institutions accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may have found little time to study and plan for a long range program that would be educationally sound.

Considerable extension work is done on a non-credit basis in an attempt to serve both the professional and non-professional groups who are not concerned with meeting certification, professional, or degree requirements. This study is limited to off-campus credit courses for teachers.

Definition and Use of Terms

According to the educational literature, there is little agreement as to the exact meaning of extension, correspondence study, adult

³Higher Education in the Forty-eight States, A Report to the Governors' Conference (Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1952), p. 54.

education and university extension.

"Extension" is a term often used loosely and could mean a variety of things. As one reads concerning "extension," one realizes that there is little agreement concerning its meaning. Lorentz H. Adolfson says, ". . . the Extension Division may be said to operate on a campus co-extensive with the boundaries of the state."⁴ This statement indicates that the state is the campus and the facilities of the campus become a service to all residents of the state. However, there are some universities and colleges that claim to offer "extension services" but render little service as their programs are very limited. The Dictionary of Education broadens the definition of "extension" when it states that "Extension is the general expansion of educational opportunity, especially through the efforts of colleges, universities, museums, and library organizations to expand the formal and informal services of the parent institution to reach beyond their traditional clientele."⁵

For the purpose of this study, the writer prefers to think of "extension" as being those educational off-campus activities organized principally for part-time students. These activities are usually given in the late afternoons or evenings or on Saturday mornings.

"Correspondence study" is not as difficult to define as is "extension." The Dictionary of Education defines this type of instruction

⁴Lorentz H. Adolfson, "University Extension and Industrial Relations in Wisconsin," Journal of Educational Sociology, XX (April, 1947), p. 489.

⁵Carter V. Good (ed.), Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945), p. 163.

by saying, "Correspondence is the formal study and instruction conducted by mail, using texts, course outlines, and other materials, with lesson reports, corrections, and examination."⁶ From this definition one may conclude that "correspondence study" is an exchange of instructional materials between student and instructor and is usually carried on by mail. If a university or college has a general extension division, "correspondence study" is often considered a part of that division.

"Adult education" had an early start in this country when English was taught to foreigners in order to help them become American citizens, but this teaching of English to foreigners has become a very minor part of "adult education" today. "Adult education" is another term that has many interpretations. The following definition is taken from the

Encyclopaedia Britannica:

In the United States the term adult education is used to denote an education movement for men and women, young and old, who no longer are in contact with formalized education and whose primary interest lies in a vocation but who possess a secondary interest in their own educational improvement as a sustained and continuing process. . . . It interprets graduation from any sort of schooling as a commencement of educational opportunity extending throughout life.⁷

Another definition of "adult education" is given in the Dictionary of Education.

Adult education is the (1) formal and informal instruction and aids to study for mature persons; (2) all activities with an educational purpose carried on by mature persons on a part-time

⁶Ibid., p. 103.

⁷Morse Adams Cartwright, "Adult Education," Encyclopaedia Britannica, Vol. 1, 14th ed., p. 185.

basis; (3) any voluntary, purposeful effort toward the self-development of adults, conducted by public and private agencies, such as adult schools, extension centers, churches, clubs, etc.⁸

Hall-Quest, in his book, The University Afield, gives a good definition of "adult education" as follows:

Adult education through university extension seeks to provide adults of any age, who have not pursued all or part of a university curriculum or who, having had a part, desire to continue such a curriculum into more advanced subjects, opportunity for intellectual improvement at such time and place as approximate adults' convenience, such opportunity being dependent on the university's type of instructor and his organization of the subject. . . .⁹

It may be concluded that "adult education" is education which is provided for adults who are seeking personal development rather than college credit. According to Lyman Bryson, "Adult education includes all the activities with an education purpose that are carried on by people engaged in the ordinary business of life."¹⁰

"University extension" includes various functions in different institutions. In some institutions, "university extension" may include only a few functions whereas in others it may include a multitude of services, such as off-campus classes, workshops and conferences, correspondence courses, the broadcasting of instructional materials, library services,

⁸Good, op. cit., p. 13.

⁹Alfred Lawrence Hall-Quest, The University Afield (New York: Macmillan Company, 1926), p. 19.

¹⁰Lyman Bryson, Adult Education (New York: American Book Company, 1936), p. 3.

and educational and business surveys. John P. Morton defines "university extension" as follows:

University extension conducts instruction for adults. Its activities are designed primarily to aid those who fall in the collegiate and professional groups rather than adults of less educational experience. It differs from the public school adult programs in emphasizing work for the professions and for the former college student seeking further development.¹¹

The definition of "university extension" given by the Encyclopaedia Britannica follows much the same thought as the preceding one. According to this source, "university extension"

. . . is a term applied to provision of lecture or other teaching by universities for the general public not members of the university.

.

It grew out of the public demand for the extension of the advantages of the university to the community in general.¹²

Another description is found in the Dictionary of Education, where "university extension" is spoken of as

. . . a historical development and contemporary process by which institutions of higher learning develop, in widening geographical area, educational and welfare services for academic and nonacademic groups. . . . offered by the faculty of a college or university, on or off the campus, in classes and by mail, to persons unable to carry the usual program of full-time work as the resident student.¹³

George Zehmer, Director of the Extension Division of the University of Virginia, speaks of the activities of "university extension" as

¹¹John R. Morton, University Extension in the United States (Birmingham, Alabama: Birmingham Printing Company, 1953), p. 29.

¹²David Herbert Somerset Cranage, "University Extension," Encyclopaedia Britannica, Vol. XXII, 14th ed., p. 881.

¹³Good, op. cit., p. 163.

manifestation of the belief that

. . . new ways and means must be found and developed to spread hope and opportunity among men and women. Specifically it represents the attempt to extend educational opportunities to those who, for one reason or another, cannot attend colleges and universities, and to render specialized educational service to all members of the body politic.¹⁴

In this study the term "off-campus extension class" is any organized teacher training course which is taught off-campus by a university or college faculty member and for which credit toward a degree, a certificate, or periodic professional requirement is offered. Evening classes, Saturday classes, conferences, and workshops, when conducted on the campus, are classified as "on-campus extension."

"Correspondence study" is instruction for credit carried on by mail and offered by a university or college for those persons who wish to expedite their teacher training programs.

"Adult education" is used to refer to all those educational activities for adults given without credit and without regard for the nature of the organization arranging the activity. In other words, adult education programs may be arranged by such organizations as universities, Y.M.C.A.'s, churches and labor unions. Because teachers practically always desire to have college credit for classes in which they enroll, off-campus classes for teachers are not considered to be "adult education" classes, as that term is generally used. However, the teacher who

¹⁴George B. Zehmer, "Development of University Extension Service in the United States," Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions 1945 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946), p. 53.

wishes to take a class to improve his or her professional work, whether or not credit is received, is motivated in the same way as are those who enroll in "adult education" classes.

"University extension" refers to all of those educational activities which are carried on by a university for the students who are not regular members of the student body. University extension, extension division, extension department, and continuation school are used as synonymous terms in this study.

Methods of Research

The normative-survey type of research was used in this study.¹⁵ This is a status study, based on a questionnaire (see Appendix II) and interviews. Great care was taken in preparing the questionnaire and validating it through interviews. Good, Barr, and Scates make the following statement concerning the use of a questionnaire: "The questionnaire is an important instrument in normative-survey research, being used to gather information from widely scattered sources."¹⁶ Koos justifies the use of the questionnaire by saying,

It should mean something for the legitimation of questionnaire investigation that the proportion of educational literature taking rise in it is so large--roughly a fourth of all published articles or of space occupied by them. It should be significant also that the proportions are approximately equal in educational periodicals and in research series published by higher institutions: not only do reports of questionnaire studies pass muster with the editors

¹⁵Carter Victor Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglass E. Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), pp. 286-376.

¹⁶ibid., p. 325.

of periodicals, but they are approved in about the same proportions by those who render judgment on the typically more substantial investigations submitted as doctors' dissertations or are otherwise published in monograph form.¹⁷

Starting in the summer of 1952, the writer compiled a list of questions concerning administrative practices for off-campus extension programs. These questions were based on readings in the field and on actual experience in extension work by persons who had many years of experience in the field. This list was used as a basis for interviewing university and college faculty members who were experienced in the administration and the teaching of off-campus extension classes. As a result of these interviews, some questions were added to the basic list and some others were discarded. A tentative questionnaire was developed by grouping the basic list of questions into four areas. The four areas are as follows: general information, instruction, enrollment, and financial aspects. Each area was studied separately at this point by persons familiar with each of these areas of off-campus extension. Several revisions of the questionnaire were made in order to shorten and clarify the questions.

It was thought that if the questionnaire could be condensed, returns would be received more promptly and in greater numbers. After additional revisions, suggested by persons familiar with questionnaire studies, an acceptable form that would go on two pages was printed.

The following criteria were used as a basis for validating the construction and administration of the questionnaire:

¹⁷Leonard V. Koos, The Questionnaire in Education (Chicago: Macmillan Company, 1928), pp. 144-145.

1. Is the information asked for on the questionnaire obtainable?
2. Is the purpose of the study clearly stated?
3. Is a summary of the findings promised to respondent?
4. Are the questions organized in logical sequence?
5. Are the questions clearly and briefly worded?
6. Can the questions be briefly answered?¹⁸
7. Are the intended respondents willing to furnish the desired data?
8. Are the respondents qualified to furnish the desired information?¹⁹
9. Was the questionnaire submitted to critics for suggestions?
10. Can the answers be easily tabulated?²⁰

After the questionnaire had been fully developed, double post cards were sent to the offices of the president of all accredited universities and four-year colleges in the North Central accrediting area. Only two questions were asked: (1) Do you offer off-campus (extension) credit classes for teachers? (2) What person at your institution is responsible for this program? Of the 321 cards sent to member institutions, 310, or 96.6 percent, were returned. These replies

¹⁸John K. Norton, The Questionnaire, Research Bulletin, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Jan., 1930), p. 39. (This reference applies to items 1 to 6, inclusive.)

¹⁹Koos, op. cit., p. 159. (This reference applies to items 7 and 8.)

²⁰Harold Hensch Bixler, Check Lists for Educational Research (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 34. (This reference applies to items 9 and 10.)

indicated that 149 of the reporting institutions offered off-campus credit classes for teachers and 161 did not.

The printed questionnaire was then sent to the individual responsible for extension classes in each of the 149 institutions offering off-campus credit work for teachers. Accompanying each questionnaire was a letter (see Appendix III) asking for cooperation and for a prompt reply. This letter was signed by Rees H. Hughes, President of Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas, where the writer is the director of extension. Three weeks after the questionnaires were sent out a second request was sent to each of those who had not replied, followed by a third request two weeks later. Of the 149 questionnaires sent, 135, or 90.6 percent, were returned. There were twenty-one replies that indicated that the institution did not offer extension classes. The 114 usable questionnaires were used for this study.

A check on the accuracy and adequacy of the answers given on the questionnaires was made by interviewing directors of extension attending the Conference of the Association of Field Services in Teacher Education at Muncie, Indiana, May 2-5, 1954. Some of those who had filled out and returned questionnaires were interviewed at that time. Another check upon the accuracy of the answers to the questionnaire was made while the writer was visiting the campuses of some of the participating institutions. Neither at the Muncie meeting nor on any of the campuses was information discovered which was inconsistent with the replies given on the questionnaires. In order to clarify some replies, sixty-nine individual follow-up letters were written. Replies were received from sixty-five of the follow-up letters, a response of 94.2 percent.

In order to obtain information concerning the recording of credit for extension class work and correspondence study, an inquiry was sent to each of the directors of admission at the institutions from which questionnaires had been returned. The 114 double post cards asked: (1) How do you indicate off-campus extension credit on your permanent records? (2) How do you indicate correspondence credit on your permanent records? Replies were received from 112 directors of admissions, a response of 99.1 percent.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF EXTENSION

Early Development

In order to understand modern extension and its many ramifications one needs to study the development of the extension movement. Extension started in Europe with correspondence and off-campus classes and has developed to include the university extension and adult education which we have in the United States today.

In Europe, correspondence study had an early beginning, according to J. S. Noffsinger.

In 1856 Charles Toussaint, a Frenchman teaching his native language in Berlin, and Gustav Langenscheidt. . . combined to found a school for the teaching of languages by correspondence. . . . Their plan was to send each student a monthly printed letter containing drills in grammar, exercises in conversation and installments of a continued story in the language taught.¹

A few years later, correspondence instruction was started in England, sponsored in its beginning by the universities.

Off-campus extension was soon to follow the precedent set by correspondence in extending higher education beyond the campus boundaries. Extension classes were inaugurated in England by the latter part

¹John Samuel Noffsinger, Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauguas (New York: Macmillan Company, 1926), p. 4.

of the nineteenth century and expansion took place rapidly.

Before the end of the century every large town in England and most small ones had a university extension center, the subjects studied including history, geography, literature, art, music, science, economics. Since then, the older type of extra-mural work, called officially university extension at Oxford and London, and university local lectures at Cambridge, has continued to advance.²

Off-campus extension in nineteenth century England was an innovation in English education.

There is a remarkable movement in England toward the higher education of the people. Common schools have long been recognized as pillars of free government, but the extension of higher education by the classes to the masses is a striking phenomenon in aristocratic England. The old-time exclusiveness of English universities is breaking down.³

In America, instruction for the adult population had its beginning with the lyceum and chautauqua movements. The lyceum movement was responsible for the formation of many local libraries and reading centers throughout the country.

The first lyceum was formed in Millbury, Massachusetts, in 1826, as a result of the efforts of Josiah Holbrock of Derby, Connecticut. . . . The membership of these first lyceums consisted chiefly of farmers and mechanics who met "for the purpose of self-culture, community instruction, and mutual discussion of common public interests."⁴

²David Herbert Somerset Cranage, "University Extension," Encyclopaedia Britannica, Vol. XXII, 14th ed., p. 881.

³Herbert B. Adams, "University Extension in England," John Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science (Baltimore: N. Murray Publishing Agent, 1887), p. 445.

⁴Dorothy Rowden (ed.), Handbook of Adult Education in the United States (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1936), p. 103.

The Chautauqua movement was similar to the lyceum movement but developed later as is shown by the following.

The first Chautauqua was started in 1874 and was called the Chautauqua Sunday School Assembly. The Chautauqua plan fitted the needs of many persons who had missed earlier educational and cultural training and had enough time to study. This movement had phenomenal growth in that interesting and important information was dispensed to many on a non-profit basis.⁵

Hall-Quest adds further details concerning the Chautauqua movement. "The Chautauqua movement in the last half of the century provided a more formal and organized means of education through its summer sessions, courses for college credit, and its correspondence program."⁶

During the 1920's the Chautauqua virtually disappeared because of other means of satisfying intellectual curiosity had been developed; newspaper and magazine circulation increased and radio receivers became a common piece of household furniture.

Later Development

University extension may be said to have originated in 1873 at Cambridge University, since ". . . an extension program was officially established there after one of the fellows had experimented with a series of lectures."⁷

There are many factors which contributed to the development of university extension. Bittner indicates that university extension was

⁵Ibid.

⁶Alfred Lawrence Hall-Quest, The University Afield (New York: Macmillan Company, 1926), p. 13.

⁷Ibid., p. 11.

added to adult education because of the demands of the public for extended opportunities for learning.

Historically, university extension is best understood as a part of the rising interest in adult education in countries where political democracy and rapid industrialization put a premium on literacy, knowledge, and skill in the interest of social utility.⁸

It is evident that this trend toward educating more people, especially the adult population, was not being ignored by the universities of America. Stephan writes in the Harvard Educational Review as follows:

University extension in this country was, in the main, an English importation, the borrowing taking place in the latter part of the last century. Though the idea of university extension was English in origin, the soil for the planting of the extension movement in America was prepared by previous efforts in adult education, by the cardinal position of education in American life, and the social conditions of the times. The American Lyceum and the Chautauqua were predecessors to university extension.⁹

Libraries, because of their position in supplying materials for adult educational projects, have been closely associated with the adult education movement. "In 1887 an address before the American Library Association on the subject of the English system of university extension aroused much interest, and as a result university extension work was begun in several cities in connection with the city libraries."¹⁰ For example, the State Library of New York became actively engaged in

⁸Walter Simon Bittner, "Extension Education," Encyclopaedia of Educational Research (New York: Macmillan Company, 1950), p. 417.

⁹A. S. Stephan, "Backgrounds and Beginnings of University Extension in America," Harvard Educational Review, XVIII (March, 1948), p. 99.

¹⁰William Watson, "Supplemental Education," The Encyclopaedia Americana, Vol. XXVI, 14th ed., p. 882.

university extension.

In 1890, when Mr. Dewey had become the librarian of the State Library of New York, the regents following his suggestion, endorsed by 31 colleges of the state, determined to establish a system of university extension and obtained from the legislature an appropriation of \$10,000 for administrative expenses.¹¹

In the West, the University of Chicago led the way in university extension, correspondence, and summer school, but it was at the University of Wisconsin that a general pattern was formulated that has served as a guide for similar development in other institutions. Charles Van Hise, the president of the University of Wisconsin, made the following statement.

Each such university is supported almost entirely by public money granted by a state legislature. It is apparent, therefore, that the university has a direct responsibility to the people of the state who supply the funds. This responsibility is exercised in several ways: through undergraduate and graduate teaching of as high a caliber as possible; through research of a rigorous sort; and through giving the people of the state direct opportunity to benefit from the teaching and research in ways which have relevance to their situations and needs.¹²

The "Wisconsin Idea," as the plan originating there was known, is as follows:

It is now literally true that there is not a man or woman, boy or girl, of the two and a half million people in Wisconsin whom the university is not prepared to teach, anything he or she wishes to know. Probably this record is unmatched in all the other institutions of the world. There is something inspiring in this thought

¹¹David Herbert Somerset Cranage, "University Extension," Encyclopaedia Britannica, Vol. XXII, 14th ed., p. 882.

¹²Cyril O. Houle, "University Adult Education in the United States," University Quarterly, VI (May, 1952), p. 279.

of a university with the whole state for its campus and the whole population for its student body.¹³

In 1915 the National University Extension Association was founded. At its first meeting, held on the University of Wisconsin campus, twenty-two institutions were represented.

Columbia University	University of Michigan
Harvard University	University of Minnesota
Indiana University	University of Missouri
Iowa State College	University of North Carolina
Pennsylvania State College	University of Oklahoma
State University of Iowa	University of Pennsylvania
University of California	University of Pittsburgh
University of Chicago	University of South Carolina
University of Colorado	University of South Dakota
University of Idaho	University of Virginia
University of Kansas	University of Wisconsin ¹⁴

In 1925, ten years after the initial meeting at the University of Wisconsin, the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the National University Extension Association described the progress that had been made. The Proceedings also indicated that the program for the annual meeting included discussions on field organization, visual instruction, short courses and institutes, package libraries, university credit for correspondence courses, and broadcasting university extension courses.¹⁵

By 1925 the expectations of George Frances James, who was the

¹³F. P. Stockbridge, "A University that Runs a State," Worlds Work, XXV (April, 1913), p. 702.

¹⁴James Creese, The Extension of University Teaching (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941), p. 55.

¹⁵Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the National University Extension Association (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1925).

general secretary for the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching from 1891 to 1893, had been nearly achieved.

This, then, is University Extension. It is the bringing of the university to the people when, under our social and economic relations, the people can no longer go to the university. The privileges of knowledge shall be no longer only for those who are able to satisfy the conditions of academic residence, no longer for those alone who can go through years of careful preparation and devote additional years to the sole occupation of study. Once more, the university was founded for the people, and the aim of this movement is to have the people share as largely as may be in its benefits.¹⁶

At the present time university extension has become an accepted responsibility of many state supported institutions of higher education in the United States. These institutions have seen the need for expanding their services and have accepted the challenge by more nearly meeting "all the needs of all the citizens" within their geographical area. Hyatt, in writing of the President's Commission on Higher Education, says,

. . . every college and university must become a community college. . . it must cease to be campus bound. It must take the university to the people wherever they are to be found and by every available and effective means for the communication of ideas and the stimulation of intellectual curiosity.¹⁷

The Journal of Higher Education enumerates some of the newer aspects of the National University Extension Association.

. . . at its 1949 convention the Association authorized the

¹⁶George Frances James (ed.), Handbook of University Extension (Philadelphia: American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, 1893), p. 51.

¹⁷Dave Hyatt, "At Your Service," School and Society, LXX (October 1, 1949), p. 216.

creation of a standing Committee on Implications of Atomic Energy for Adult Education.

.....

It lists five ways in which extension services can work in civilian defense: giving short courses to train teams to cope with radiological hazards; train local leaders to handle problems of community organization, communications, and the use of specialized assistance; conducting courses in sanitation, first aid, and general health care; advising communities on the use of federal funds for building up physical facilities, such as fire-fighting equipment, medical supplies, and sanitary equipment; and assisting in preparing films, slides, radio transcriptions, and printed materials.¹⁸

The National University Extension Association has also been concerned with the near crisis in teacher education. However, the directors of extension and the public school administrators have not been in perfect agreement in regard to the use of extension as a means of alleviating the teacher shortage. Nickell has expressed the view held by many school administrators.

1. Extension courses should be more functional, and should give credit, even when the final examinations are not given.
2. Extension courses should reflect the real need of teachers on the job, and be as helpful as possible to teachers, community, and children.
3. Extension courses should not be scheduled in certain centers without previous references to local needs.¹⁹

However, some administrators of extension take a position as follows:

1. General agreement in principle that extension courses should

¹⁸University Extension and Atomic Energy Education," Journal of Higher Education, XXII (October, 1951), pp. 391-392.

¹⁹Vernon L. Nickell, "The Improvement of Off-Campus Training of Teachers," Educational Press Bulletin, XLII (November, 1951), p. 16.

be functional, and should meet the needs of teachers, community, and pupils.

2. This general agreement, however, was prefaced by the following remarks:

- A. It is a real accomplishment to get the regular release of extension courses to specific extension centers.
- B. Since extension courses are often taught by research people, they may at times be non-functional. Not all instructors are "poor extension teachers."
- C. Extension courses can be tailored for local needs but college credit is definitely jeopardized by such adaptations. Taking a course for credit pre-supposes an exposure of knowledge and principles in a certain field.
- D. The administrators should see their problem from the point of view of the academic faculty as well as that of the directors of extension. As a general result of this meeting it is agreed that the committee should meet with the administrators and college instructors on their own campus.²⁰

In addition to alleviating a teacher shortage, university extension serves other purposes. There are those who need a great deal of information about a variety of subjects, and there are those who must utilize extension services if they are to earn the credits and degrees which lead to higher positions and higher incomes. A study of those who have made use of extension services indicates a number of motivating factors.

Approximately 3 of every 4 persons being served by extension classes, resident center activities, and correspondence instruction wished to have college degree credit for the work they did. In all the other types of university extension services, degree credit was not an important consideration. The subject-matter fields in which actual users of university extension services reported activity have a very close correlation in the chapter of this

²⁰ ibid., pp. 16-17.

study dealing with professional and subject-matter fields. Slightly more than 4 of every 5 persons indicated that they used university extension services in order to improve their incomes or their vocational efficiency. About 19 percent reported use of university extension services either to improve their general education or for recreational or vocational purposes.²¹

Adult education has probably always been in existence in some form, as mature people often try to improve their way of life by continuous vocational or avocational study. In the United States, adult education was without national organization until the formation of the American Association for Adult Education (1925), which

. . . owes its inception to a conference of persons familiar with different aspects of adult education called by the Carnegie Corporation of New York in 1924. . . . This conference unanimously approved in principle the formation of a national association designed to correlate the scattered and unrelated enterprises in adult education.²²

The adult education movement in this country has continued to be very active and progressive from 1925 until the present time, except in the early nineteen thirties, when lack of financial resources resulted in a dormant condition. This continued progress has been significantly aided by the leadership of the American Association for Adult Education and a few universities and colleges which have been especially interested in adult education.

Bryson indicates in the following statement the degree to which adult education had developed by 1948:

²¹John R. Morton, University Extension in The United States (Birmingham, Alabama: Birmingham Printing Company, 1953), p. 93.

²²Dorothy Rowden (ed.), Handbook of Adult Education in the United States (New York: J. J. Little and Ives Co., 1934), p. 29.

Promoters of adult education believe, of course, that there should be community centers in which education and recreation and reading and music and discussion of public questions and other activities for the betterment of ordinary living can be carried on. This is standard doctrine in adult education.²³

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that extension has had a reasonably rapid and continuous development during the last one hundred years, beginning in Europe and later being brought to America. At the present time there is a wide-spread extension movement in the United States, as exemplified by the work of the American Association for Adult Education and the National University Extension Association.

²³Lyman Bryson, "What We Mean by Adult Education," Handbook of Adult Education in the United States (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948), pp.4-5.

CHAPTER III

GENERAL INFORMATION CONCERNING OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide tabular information relative to off-campus extension classes. These data were taken from the questionnaire (see Appendix II, Part I) and are considered from the following aspects: (1) the number and percentage of institutions that increased or decreased off-campus classes from November 1, 1952, to November 1, 1953; (2) the increase and decrease of off-campus classes offered by universities and colleges; (3) the increase and decrease of off-campus enrollment; (4) the resident or non-resident credit given for off-campus classes; (5) the departmental offerings in off-campus classes; (6) the off-campus credit accepted toward the baccalaureate degree; (7) the off-campus credit accepted toward a graduate degree; and (8) the limiting of students' off-campus enrollment for any one semester. In this chapter each of these phases is treated separately.

Increase and Decrease of Off-Campus Classes and Enrollment¹

The on-campus enrollment of a university or college (see Appendix

¹See Tables 1, 2, 3.

TABLE I

INCREASE AND DECREASE IN OFF-CAMPUS CLASS OFFERINGS BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
NOVEMBER 1, 1952, TO NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Schools	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Showing increase from November 1, 1952, to November 1, 1953.....	6	31.6	12	35.3	18	41.9	10	55.6	46	40.3
Showing decrease from November 1, 1952, to November 1, 1953.....	6	31.6	13	38.2	19	44.2	6	33.3	44	38.6
Showing no increase or decrease from November 1, 1952, to November 1, 1953.....	7	36.8	8	23.5	5	11.6	2	11.1	22	19.3
Not reporting.....	0	00.0	1	3.0	1	2.3	0	00.0	2	1.8
Totals.....	19	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	18	100.0	114	100.0

TABLE 2

INCREASE AND DECREASE IN NUMBER OF OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES
BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
NOVEMBER 1, 1952, TO NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Classes	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment	Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment	Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment	Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment	Totals 114 Schs.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Classes in 1952.....	76	224	935	1064	2299
Classes in 1953.....	81	230	852	1087	2250
Number of classes increased or decreased.....	+5	+ 6	- 83	+ 23	- 49
Percentage of increase or decrease.....	+6	+2.7	-8.9	+2.2	-2.1

TABLE 3

INCREASE AND DECREASE IN OFF-CAMPUS CLASS ENROLLMENT
 BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
 NOVEMBER 1, 1952, TO NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Enrollment	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment	Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment	Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment	Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment	Totals 114 Schs.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Enrollment in 1952.....	1339	4959	21,092	24,235	51,625
Enrollment in 1953.....	1648	4615	20,318	24,109	50,690
Number of increase or decrease....	+ 309	-344	-774	-126	-935
Percentage of increase or decrease.....	+23.1	-6.9	-3.7	-0.5	-1.8

IV) is often indicative of the number of classes offered off-campus. For the most part, the larger an institution's on-campus enrollment the greater the number of off-campus classes offered. The larger institutions may have a rather large increase or decrease of extension classes which may or may not be significant. Consequently, the tables used in this study have been divided into four groups (see Appendix V) according to the total on-campus enrollment of each participating institution. This division provides for studying the problems of larger schools with their larger number of off-campus classes separate from the problems of the smaller schools with their smaller number of classes.

The Group A schools, with less than 500 on-campus enrollment, include 19, or 16.7 percent, of the 114 participating institutions, and Group B schools, with enrollments of 500 to 999, include 34, or 29.8 percent. Group C schools, with enrollments of 1,000 to 4,999, include 43, or 37.7 percent, of the institutions, and Group D schools, with 5,000 or over on-campus enrollment, include 18, or 12.5 percent.

As shown in Table 2, Group A schools show an increase of five classes, and in Table 3 these same schools show an increase of 309 students. This increase may have been caused by the efforts of the smaller schools to retain their faculty members during a period when G.I. enrollments were falling. The increase in classes and in enrollment might also have resulted from the increased effort of the smaller schools to recruit students by means of off-campus classes.

Table 1 also shows that 12 schools of Group B increased their off-campus classes while 13 decreased their number. Table 2 shows an

increase in classes by six, but Table 3 reveals that Group B schools had a decrease in enrollment. The thing that stands out in this group is the decrease in enrollment of 344 even though there were six more classes.

The medium size institutions, which comprise Group C, follow the same pattern as Group B, with 12 schools showing an increase and 19 schools showing a decrease in the total number of classes. Table 2 shows that 935 classes were held on November 1, 1952, and 852 classes on November 1, 1953, a decrease of 83 classes. A decrease of 774 in enrollment, as shown in Table 3, seemed extremely large. In order to obtain further information which might explain the decrease both in the number of classes and in the enrollment, a letter was written to the director of extension at one of the institutions reporting an unusual decrease. The directors of extension of two other institutions who reported similar decreases were contacted personally. The director of extension at one institution reported a decrease of 18 classes and 304 enrollments from the year before. He explained that a new president, appointed during the summer of 1953, thought it advisable to curtail extension classes until a study could be made of the off-campus program. Off-campus class activities for the following year were eliminated except for a few classes, the few being classes which had been planned earlier for the fall semester. Another director of extension, who had reported a decrease of 73 enrollments, explained that the administrative authority had suggested that greater emphasis be given to non-credit work. As a result of this emphasis there was a decrease in off-campus credit classes. The third director of extension, who reported a decrease of 17 classes and 126 enrollments, explained that this situation resulted from a decrease in

state appropriations and could not be compensated for by student fees because these fees, by law, go to the state treasurer.

As revealed by Table 1, Group D is the only group in which more institutions increased than decreased their offerings. For this group of institutions, as shown by Table 2, the number of classes increased by 23, but as shown by Table 3, the enrollments decreased by 126. This information indicates that from November 1, 1952, to November 1, 1953, extension programs of the 114 participating institutions have decreased slightly, both in number of classes and enrollment, with the average enrollment per class remaining virtually stationary, at slightly more than 22 students per class. Despite these decreases, which the writer does not consider significant, the total off-campus program of universities and colleges in the North Central area (50,690 students enrolled in 2,250 classes as of November 1, 1953) is an extremely large educational enterprise.

Type of Credit--Resident or Non-Resident²

The type of credit given for off-campus classes in the North Central accrediting area is not uniform. However, Table 4 reveals that 88, or 77.2 percent, of the institutions give only non-resident credit. The reasons generally offered for giving non-resident credit are the lack of library facilities, the occasional use of instructors who are not regular faculty members, and the failure of some instructors to maintain the high standards found in campus instruction.

²See Table 4.

TABLE 4

TYPE OF OFF-CAMPUS CLASS CREDIT GIVEN BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Type of Credit	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Resident.....	1	5.3	2	5.9	2	4.7	1	5.6	6	5.3
Non-resident.....	18	94.7	27	79.4	34	79.0	9	50.0	88	77.2
Both ^a	0	00.0	1	2.9	1	2.3	1	5.6	3	2.5
Not reporting.....	0	00.0	2	5.9	0	00.0	0	00.0	2	1.8
Others ^b	0	00.0	0	00.0	3	7.0	3	16.6	6	5.3
More non-resident credit accepted when at centers.....	0	00.0	2	5.9	3	7.0	4	22.2	9	7.9
Totals.....	19	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	18	100.0	114	100.0

^aResident credit given when a regular faculty member teaches the class; non-resident credit given when the class is taught by a non-faculty teacher.

^bUnusual practices that can not be considered as either resident or non-resident credit.

The largest percentage of institutions giving non-resident credit is in Group A. The one institution reporting resident credit had only one class with 10 students enrolled. It seems probable that this institution has offered few extension classes and these classes may be so nearly equivalent to campus classes as to justify resident credit. The information, as reported for Group A, indicates that the smaller schools generally offer off-campus classes for non-resident credit.

Group B schools predominately offer non-resident credit, with 79.4 percent of the institutions offering this type of credit. In this group, one institution reports giving both resident and non-resident credit. This institution differentiates between resident or non-resident on the basis of the person who instructs the class. If a regular faculty member from the campus teaches the class, resident credit is given; if someone other than a regular faculty member teaches the class, non-resident credit is given. Also in this group, two institutions report that non-resident credit is given but resident credit is applied toward a degree when classes are taken at an established off-campus center. This practice may be justifiable if classes are taught by regular college faculty members and if the centers have facilities equivalent to those on the campus. The two institutions that did not report in regard to the type of credit given reveal in another part of the questionnaire that they have not offered off-campus classes for the past two years. However, they indicate certain restrictions on the use of off-campus work which undoubtedly means that this work, when offered, was for non-resident credit.

An interesting finding in Group C is that three institutions listed "others" when asked the type of credit given. One of the three institutions listed its credit in this way because all credit was considered as resident, but their resident credit taken off-campus is limited in the number of hours applicable toward a degree or certificate. Another institution gives resident credit with no limits if it is used toward a degree at that institution. The other institution offers an unlimited amount of graduate resident credit for Negroes, if taken at their extension center, but whites receive only non-resident credit for both undergraduate and graduate classes. Three institutions report that more non-resident credit is accepted when the work is taken at an extension center. In each case the institution is located near a large city and each has an extension center there.

The Group D schools differ considerably from the other groups in that 50 percent of the institutions give only non-resident credit but at the same time 5.6 percent give only resident credit. Of the institutions in this group, 22.2 percent (four institutions) report that they accept more non-resident credit on a degree when the class work is taken at an extension center. Of these four institutions, two have no limit on the amount of graduate credit taken at one of their extension centers. One reports that it gives resident credit for the work taken at its extension center, but the amount of credit which can be offered on a degree is limited. The other institution reports that all off-campus classes give resident credit as each class is held at a center.

There are three institutions listed as "others" because of

unusual practices in giving credit for off-campus classes. One institution reports that course work may be accepted for resident credit by petition from the student. The practice of another institution is similar in that a degree candidate, in being admitted to candidacy, may have non-resident work accepted as a part of his program. The other institution reports a two-year off-campus special cadet teacher training program that gives resident credit.

Any school that gives resident credit for their own off-campus work, but limits off-campus credit transferred from another institution, may be using this practice to recruit students or to indicate belief in the high standards of their own off-campus classes.

Departmental Off-Campus Offerings³

Although Table 5 shows that 16 departments offer off-campus courses, over 50 percent of the total number of classes are given by the education and social science departments. Classes offered by the education departments represent 33.1 percent of the total and classes offered by the social science departments represent 17.4 percent of the total. Because of the many phases of social science--history, sociology, economics, government, and sometimes geography--and because of the renewed emphasis on Americanism, social science classes are in demand by those in the teaching field. Some states have statutes requiring teachers to take American history and state government courses to qualify for a certificate to teach.

³See Table 5.

TABLE 5

OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES OFFERED, BY DEPARTMENTS, IN 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Departments	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Art.....	12	14.8	11	4.8	71	8.3	43	4.0	137	6.1
Biological Science.....	2	2.5	6	2.6	26	3.1	21	1.9	55	2.4
Commerce.....	1	1.2	5	2.2	22	2.6	110	10.1	138	6.1
Education.....	20	24.5	63	27.4	321	37.7	340	31.3	744	33.1
English and Literature...	6	7.4	38	16.6	71	8.3	91	8.4	206	9.2
Health and Physical Education.....	5	6.2	12	5.2	20	2.3	17	1.6	54	2.4
Home Economics.....	0	00.0	1	00.4	1	00.1	2	00.2	4	00.2
Language.....	2	2.5	2	00.9	5	00.6	13	1.3	22	1.0
Library Science.....	0	00.0	1	00.4	1	00.1	8	00.7	10	00.4
Mathematics.....	2	2.5	8	3.5	14	1.6	96	8.8	120	5.3
Music.....	2	2.5	7	3.0	12	1.4	19	1.7	40	1.8
Philosophy.....	3	3.7	1	00.4	0	00.0	5	00.5	9	00.4
Physical Science.....	2	2.5	15	6.5	9	1.1	71	6.4	97	4.3
Psychology.....	9	11.2	12	5.2	44	5.2	69	6.4	134	5.9
Social Science.....	13	16.0	42	18.3	207	24.3	129	11.9	391	17.4
Speech.....	2	2.5	6	2.6	28	3.3	53	4.8	89	4.0
Totals.....	81	100.0	230	100.0	852	100.0	1087	100.0	2250	100.0
Percent of total.....		3.6		10.2		37.9		48.3		100.0

Of the 81 classes offered by the Group A institutions, 54 of the classes are offered by four departments--education, psychology, social science, and art. The 27 remaining classes are offered in ten other departments, ranging from six in English and literature to one in the commerce department. No extension classes are offered by Group A schools in home economics or library science.

The commerce departments in Group D schools give 110 classes as compared to a total of 28 commerce classes given by all the institutions in the three other groups. This large number of classes might conceivably be the result of large institutions having large cities located in their service area. Commerce classes, being specialized in nature, are generally difficult to organize in a sparsely settled area. In Group D there are eight classes given by library science departments, as compared to a total of two classes for the other three groups, indicating that the larger institutions are the only ones that are greatly concerned with classes in the field of library science. The fact that there are a total of only 10 off-campus classes in library science indicates that the in-service training of public school librarians is progressing slowly.

Off-Campus Credit Accepted toward
the Baccalaureate Degree⁴

There is little agreement among institutions as to the amount of off-campus credit that may be accepted toward the baccalaureate degree. Table 6 includes reports for both credit classes and correspondence

⁴See Table 6.

TABLE 6

OFF-CAMPUS CREDIT ACCEPTED TOWARD THE BACCALAUREATE DEGREE
BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Undergraduate Credit Accepted	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Average Semester Hours for 114 Schools (Range)
Off-campus credit from one's own school.....	28.6 (0-90)	31.3 (0-90)	41.2 (16-90)	52.8 (30-94)	30.1 (0-94)
Off-campus credit from another school.....	24.6 (0-31)	32.2 (24-90)	37.3 (10-90)	42.0 (0-94)	27.3 (0-94)
Correspondence credit from one's own school...	19.7 (0-31)	21.7 (0-67)	24.7 (0-47.5)	40.0 (0-90)	20.1 (0-90)
Correspondence credit from another school.....	20.7 (0-31)	21.6 (0-32)	27.9 (0-47.5)	34.7 (15-94)	20.5 (0-94)
Combination of off- campus and correspon- dence credit from one's own school.....	28.6 (0-90)	31.7 (0-90)	43.8 (16-90)	54.5 (30-94)	31.1 (0-94)
Combination of off- campus and correspon- dence credit from another school.....	25.1 (0-40)	32.5 (24-90)	39.0 (10-90)	43.8 (0-94)	28.1 (0-94)

work, as the two are often combined in respect to accepting credit for a degree. As shown in Table 6, when one seeks a degree from the institution from which he has received off-campus credit, the average amount accepted toward the baccalaureate degree is 30.1 semester hours. However, an average of only 27.3 undergraduate semester hours is accepted by transfer from another institution. This is a larger amount of credit than these institutions will accept of their own correspondence work, which averages 20.1 semester hours. When credit classes and correspondence work are combined the average is 31.1 semester hours, which is more than either the credit classes or the correspondence work that is acceptable. When a combination of credit classes and correspondence work is taken at an institution other than that at which the person seeks a degree, the amount acceptable is less, an average of 28.1 semester hours.

Table 6 reveals an interesting situation in regard to correspondence credit. An average of 20.5 semester hours of correspondence credit will be accepted from other institutions, but an average of only 20.1 semester hours is acceptable if the student takes the correspondence work from the institution from which he seeks a degree. This apparent inconsistency can be understood by viewing the breakdown for individual institutions reporting. Six of the participating institutions offer no correspondence work but will accept correspondence credit from another institution.

Those institutions with an on-campus enrollment of less than 500 students are the most conservative in accepting off-campus and correspondence credit. An examination of Table 6 shows that in each of the categories listed, the smaller schools accept less credit than any other

group of institutions. These Group A institutions will accept an average of 28.6 semester hours of off-campus credit taken at their own institutions and will accept an average of 28.6 semester hours of a combination of off-campus and correspondence credit taken at their own institutions. This is the highest average found in any of the categories for the Group A schools, yet it is lower than any of the categories for the Group D schools, where there is an average of 34.7 semester hours for correspondence credit which can be transferred from another institution and applied on a degree.

The data concerning Group B institutions also support the view that the smaller schools are more conservative than the larger institutions in accepting off-campus and correspondence credit toward a degree. In each of the categories in Table 6, Group B schools accept less credit than the larger institutions, Groups C and D, but in each category the Group B schools accept more credit than the smaller Group A schools. Again Table 6 shows an apparent inconsistency. The Group B schools will accept an average of 31.3 semester hours of credit earned at the school where the degree is sought, but will accept by transfer an average of 32.2 semester hours credit taken at another institution. This inconsistency cannot be explained as was the previous one, because each of the 34 Group B schools offers off-campus courses. Perhaps this is a statistical indication of the attempt of some small schools to attract students by accepting a relatively great amount of off-campus credit earned at another institution.

Group C and D institutions, as has been noted, are on the average

more generous than the smaller ones in accepting off-campus and correspondence credit. A larger institution's acceptance of its own credit may be explained by the fact that larger institutions are much more likely than the smaller ones to have established off-campus centers with a resulting high standard of instruction. The acceptance of their own correspondence work may be explained by the fact that some larger institutions have a staff of instructors, many of whom work only with correspondence courses. This situation probably promotes greater respect for correspondence work than in those smaller schools where the correspondence work is handled by instructors on a part time basis.

Off-Campus Credit Accepted toward
the Graduate Degree⁵

Correspondence credit is almost never accepted toward a graduate degree. However, Table 7 shows that an average of 6.9 semester hours of correspondence graduate credit is acceptable toward a graduate degree when the credit earned is from the institution from which the degree is sought, or an average of 7.1 semester hours is acceptable if the credit is a combination of off-campus and correspondence work taken from that institution.

Only one institution of Group A offers a graduate degree. This institution accepts six semester hours of graduate credit transferred from another institution toward a graduate degree. It reports that it will accept either six semester hours toward a graduate degree by a combination of off-campus classes and correspondence work taken at this

⁵See Table 7.

TABLE 7

OFF-CAMPUS CREDIT ACCEPTED TOWARD THE GRADUATE DEGREE BY 59 NORTH CENTRAL
ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Graduate Credit Accepted	Group A 1 School below 500 Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Group B 6 Schools 500-999 Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Group C 34 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment Ave. Sem. Hrs. (Range)	Average Semester Hours for 59 Schools (Range)
Off-campus credit from one's own school.....	6 (None)	3.5 (0-9)	7.4 (0-16)	7.1 (0-16)	6.9 (0-16)
Off-campus credit from another school.....	6 (None)	4.5 (0-9)	5.4 (0-14)	4.5 (0-10.7)	5.0 (0-14)
Correspondence credit from one's own school....	0 (None)	0.0 (None)	0.4 (0-9)	0.0 (None)	0.2 (0-9)
Correspondence credit from another school.....	0 (None)	0.0 (None)	0.4 (0-9)	0.0 (None)	0.2 (0-9)
Combination of off-campus and correspondence credit from one's own school....	6 (None)	3.5 (0-9)	7.8 (0-16)	7.1 (0-16)	7.1 (0-16)
Combination of off-campus and correspondence credit from another school.....	6 (None)	4.5 (0-9)	5.4 (0-14)	4.5 (0-10.7)	5.0 (0-14)

institution or six semester hours of credit taken at another institution and transferred to this school.

Only six schools of the 34 in Group B offer a graduate degree, and these six allow an average of 3.5 semester hours of off-campus credit toward a graduate degree if this work is taken at the institution from which the degree is sought. This is a lower average than is reported by Group A, Group C, or Group D, which can be explained by the fact that three of the six institutions offer no off-campus graduate courses, although all six schools have graduate programs. One institution of these three offers no off-campus graduate classes but will accept six semester hours by transfer from another institution for application toward a graduate degree. This causes the average to increase from the 3.5 semester hours acceptable from their own institution to an average of 4.5 semester hours acceptable by transfer.

In Group C there are 34 schools that offer graduate programs and 9 that offer no graduate program. These 34 institutions report an average of 7.4 semester hours of off-campus work that will be accepted toward the graduate degree if this work is taken from the institution from which the degree is sought. This is a larger average than for Group A, Group B, or Group D. This average would be a little higher if all the institutions that have on-campus graduate programs also had graduate courses offered off-campus, but three of the 34 institutions reporting offer no off-campus graduate classes. It is only in this group that correspondence credit is accepted toward a graduate degree, two institutions reporting the use of correspondence credit acceptable toward a graduate degree. One of these institutions accepts six semester

hours of graduate correspondence credit and the other institution accepts nine semester hours. Each of these institutions will accept the same number of hours of correspondence credit by transfer from another institution as they will accept of their own toward the requirements for the graduate degree.

All of the institutions with an on-campus enrollment of 5,000 or more students offer graduate programs. These schools report a larger average, 7.1 semester hours, of off-campus class credit acceptable toward the graduate degree than is reported by Group A or Group B, but a smaller average than Group C. Group D also reports a smaller average in every category than the Group C schools. The Group C schools, those with an on-campus enrollment of 1,000 to 4,999, seem to be the most willing to accept off-campus and correspondence work toward a graduate degree.

Limitations on the Amount of Off-Campus Work
Taken at Any One Time⁶

There seems to be a great variety of policies and practices pertaining to the amount of work that can be taken off the campus by a student who is employed full time. As shown by Table 8, institutions vary in practice from a three-semester hour limitation, or one-class limitation, to no regulations. The most prevalent practice is the six-semester hour limitation as used by 50 schools, which is 43.8 percent of the 114 participating institutions.

The one-class limitation is more prevalent in the smaller institutions than in the larger institutions. This limitation is probably

⁶See Table 8.

TABLE 8

LIMITATIONS ON OFF-CAMPUS WORK TAKEN AT ANY ONE TIME
BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Limitations	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
3 semester hours.....	3	15.8	3	8.8	5	11.6	1	5.6	12	10.5
4 semester hours.....	1	5.3	8	23.6	4	9.3	1	5.6	14	12.3
5 semester hours.....	2	10.5	1	2.9	4	9.3	4	22.2	11	9.7
6 semester hours.....	6	31.6	16	47.1	22	51.2	6	33.3	50	43.8
7 semester hours.....	0	00.0	0	00.0	1	2.3	0	00.0	1	0.9
9 semester hours.....	1	5.3	0	00.0	0	00.0	0	00.0	1	0.9
12 semester hours.....	0	00.0	1	2.9	0	00.0	0	00.0	1	0.9
1 class.....	2	10.5	4	11.8	1	2.3	1	5.6	8	7.0
2 classes.....	0	00.0	0	00.0	3	7.0	0	00.0	3	2.6
No regulation or limit..	4	21.0	1	2.9	3	7.0	5	27.7	13	11.4
Totals.....	19	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	18	100.0	114	100.0

not difficult to enforce in the smaller institutions because of the small number of off-campus classes offered.

Several institutions report unusually generous limitations. One Group A institution reports a nine-semester hour limit. A 12-semester hour limitation is reported by a Group B institution. At least one school of each group reports that it has no limit on the amount of work that can be taken at any one time.

Of the 13 institutions which report no limitations, three report that they have no restrictions on the amount of work that can be taken at any one time, but consider each student's enrollment on the basis of his ability. Just how and by whom the ability of a student is evaluated will surely vary a great deal.

Several schools, as related by the director of the off-campus class program, have experienced the off-campus student enrolling in two or more institutions at the same time and taking the full amount of work allowable at each. This practice has been practically eliminated as the unscrupulous students have generally been caught and exposed. The person in charge of the off-campus class program also has been alert to the possibility that a student may enroll in two institutions, thus taking more work than will be accepted. The person responsible for the registering and enrolling of students will often announce by word of mouth or by written directions the regulation concerning the limitation on the amount of off-campus work that may be taken at any one time. If a student then enrolls in two institutions for more work than is permissible, it becomes his own responsibility and he has no one but himself to blame when some of the credits are not accepted. The amount of

work, time, and expense that may be wasted by the student in not abiding by the regulation is nothing short of foolish.

CHAPTER IV

OFF-CAMPUS FACULTY AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Introduction

Off-campus classes are often criticized on the basis of inferior instruction and the lack of adequate instructional materials. It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the instruction of off-campus classes and the means by which instructional materials are supplied to these classes in the North Central accrediting area. The interpretations of the data result, to a large degree, from interviews and correspondence with directors of extension who have had many years of experience in off-campus class organization, administration, and supervision. The three phases of the material to be treated are: (1) the teachers of off-campus classes; (2) the faculty rank of off-campus teachers; and (3) the methods of supplying library books and instructional materials for off-campus classes.

Teachers of Off-Campus Classes¹

The practice of employing off-campus class teachers who are not regular members of the university or college staff has resulted in criticism that has jeopardized the credit and has weakened off-campus programs.

¹See Table 9.

TABLE 9

TEACHERS OF OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES IN 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Teachers	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Full-time faculty members teach- ing only off-campus classes....	0	0.0	0	0.0	21	3.2	30	3.6	51	2.9
Full-time faculty members teach- ing part-time off-campus classes.....	59	88.1	191	93.6	566	87.0	468	56.9	1284	73.6
Part-time faculty members teaching only off-campus classes.....	8	11.9	10	4.9	60	9.2	299	36.3	377	21.6
Part-time faculty members teaching both on and off- campus classes.....	0	0.0	3	1.5	4	0.6	26	3.2	33	1.9
Totals.....	67	100.0	204	100.0	651	100.0	823	100.0	1745	100.0

The argument in favor of this practice is that a person who is not a regular faculty member may be a better teacher for a particular class than anyone available on the regular staff. An opposite viewpoint is that a class should not be given if there is no regular faculty member available. It may also be added that the person employed in the field to teach a class is generally employed full-time in another capacity and would not generally have time to do a good job with a class.

As reported by the 114 participating schools, 73.6 percent of those teaching off-campus classes are full-time faculty members who teach these classes as a part of their regular teaching load or as an overload. Table 9 also reveals that 2.9 percent of those teaching off-campus classes are full-time faculty members who teach only off-campus classes. This leaves 23.5 percent who are part-time faculty, generally having full-time employment outside the university or college in addition to their extension class teaching. A few part-time teachers, 1.9 percent of the total, teach both on-campus and off-campus classes, but the majority of the part-time teachers, 21.6 percent of the total, do not teach on-campus classes.

The smaller institutions, classified as Group A schools, use relatively few part-time faculty members for teaching off-campus classes, 11.9 percent compared with 88.1 percent who are full-time faculty members. This is the only group of schools that reports no part-time faculty member teaching both on-and off-campus classes. In this group of smaller schools, no full-time faculty members are teaching only off-campus classes. This condition is probably caused by the fact that these schools do not, as a rule, have programs large enough to justify the

employment of teachers for only off-campus teaching.

Group B has the smallest percent, 4.9, in the category of those who are part-time faculty and teach only off-campus classes. Therefore, Group B schools have the highest percentage of teachers who are full-time faculty members teaching off-campus classes part of the time. Three teachers listed by schools in this group teach classes both on-and off-campus on a part-time basis. This situation may prevail when the campus offerings by a certain department are limited and a qualified person living in the community teaches a class on a part-time basis on-campus and would conceivably be available for some other teaching.

When the Group C schools are considered, it is found that 3.2 percent of the total off-campus faculty are full-time faculty members who teach only off-campus classes for their university or college. Group C schools, with a larger on-campus enrollment than Group A and B schools, and with a larger off-campus program, are in a better position to justify full-time instructors who teach only off-campus classes.

The larger schools, those with an on-campus enrollment of 5,000 or more, have among their off-campus teachers a smaller percentage of full-time faculty members, 56.9, than any other group of schools, therefore a larger percentage than any group, 36.3, who are part-time faculty members. The use of part-time faculty by the larger institutions is probably due to the fact that full-time faculty members would have to travel excessive distances from the campus in order to serve the large area generally covered by these institutions. This group of institutions also reports the use of 3.2 percent of the total off-campus instructors as part-time faculty members who teach both on-and off campus. It is not

unusual for a graduate or a post graduate student, who is doing a research project at one of the larger institutions, to be employed to teach both on-and off-campus classes.

Faculty Rank of Off-Campus Teachers²

The rank of the teachers who instruct off-campus classes may indicate the importance given to off-campus programs by the 114 institutions participating in this study. Table 10 reveals that 385 teachers, or 22.1 percent, are classified as lecturers or special instructors. Among those that teach off-campus classes, the rank of assistant professor predominates, with 21.9 percent. It is interesting to observe that off-campus classes were taught by 288 professors, or 16.5 percent of the total number of teachers, as compared to 222 instructors, which is 12.7 percent of the total.

The smaller schools, more than any other group of institutions, use those with the rank of professor as teachers. For the Group A institutions this percentage is 25.4. There is one institution which uses no faculty ranking for teachers, but had 13 faculty members teaching off-campus classes. The one teacher that is listed in the category "others" was described by the respondent as a person employed to teach one course and is not under full-time contract.

In the Group B schools, 52.4 percent of the total number of teachers are listed as having no rank. These teachers are faculty members of schools which report that they do not make use of faculty rank.

²See Table 10.

TABLE 10

FACULTY RANK OF OFF-CAMPUS TEACHERS FOR 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Faculty Rank	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No. Percent		No. Percent		No. Percent		No. Percent		No. Percent	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Professors.....	17	25.4	32	15.7	146	22.4	93	11.3	288	16.5
Associate Professors....	14	20.9	23	11.3	172	26.4	110	13.4	319	18.3
Assistant Professors....	15	22.4	17	8.3	200	30.7	151	18.3	383	21.9
Instructors.....	7	10.4	13	6.4	72	11.1	130	15.8	222	12.7
Graduate Assistants.....	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	1.5	15	1.8	25	1.4
Others.....	1	1.5	12	5.9	48	7.4	324	39.4	385	22.1
No Rank.....	13	19.4	107	52.4	3	.5	0	0.0	123	7.1
Totals.....	67	100.0	204	100.0	651	100.0	823	100.0	1745	100.0

There are 12 teachers, or 5.9 percent of the total number of off-campus teachers, representing five institutions, who are listed as "others."

These five schools are the same ones that employed part-time teachers as shown for Group B in Table 9. As can be seen by comparing Group B, as shown in Table 9, with Group B, as shown in Table 10, one of the 13 part-time teachers must have had faculty rank. Rank for a part-time teacher may result from a situation in which a teacher is employed in the same manner as a full-time teacher but is given only a part-time teaching load.

The Group C schools report that a total of 10 graduate assistants were assigned to off-campus classes, which was 1.5 percent of their off-campus teachers. Neither Group A nor Group B lists any graduate assistants as teaching off-campus classes. In larger institutions a graduate assistant sometimes teaches a class under the supervision of a full-time faculty member. This class may be reported as the responsibility of the full-time faculty member. Therefore, there may be more graduate assistants teaching classes than Table 10 indicates.

Group D schools have 324 off-campus teachers, or 39.4 percent of the total, listed as "others." This is the largest number reported in that category for any group of schools. These 324 teachers are employed by 8 institutions listed in Group D. Of these 324 teachers, 259 are classified as special instructors by their respective schools. The remaining 65 are classified as lecturers.

Library Books and Instructional Materials
for Off-Campus Classes³

The lack of adequate library books and instructional materials has often been the basis for criticizing off-campus classes. Of the 114 participating schools, 57, or 50 percent, supply classes with library books and instructional materials by a cooperative effort of the university or college and the local school library. A slightly smaller number of schools, 48, or 42.1 percent, report that they alone supply the instructional materials and library books. In discussing this matter with various directors of extension, it was discovered that the real difficulty is not so much the method of supplying books and instructional materials but the human element involved in the method used. Some instructors are careless or neglectful in regard to checking out library books and collecting instructional supplies needed for their classes. This problem has been remedied in some institutions by means of an extension library service which collects books and instructional materials for the teachers.

Five institutions indicate that they have "other" methods of supplying library books and instructional materials. Two of these schools report that library books and instructional materials are furnished by the students, while another school reports that it uses materials from the public library in the locality where the class is held. Another reports that library books and instructional materials are furnished by the university's adult education library. The fifth school reports that

³See Table 11.

TABLE 11

METHODS OF SUPPLYING LIBRARY BOOKS AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR OFF-CAMPUS
CLASSES AS REPORTED BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Methods	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Supplied by University or College...	11	57.9	18	52.9	17	39.5	2	11.1	48	42.1
Supplied by a local school library off-campus.....	0	00.0	2	5.9	0	00.0	2	11.1	4	3.5
Supplied by University or College and a local school library off- campus.....	8	42.1	12	35.3	24	55.8	13	72.2	57	50.0
Others.....	0	00.0	2	5.9	2	4.7	1	5.6	5	4.4
Totals.....	19	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	18	100.0	114	100.0

it has library facilities made available by a state library system.

It is interesting to note that 72.2 percent of the schools in Group D supply library books and materials by making use of the university or college library and the local school library. This large percentage is significant as it suggests excellent cooperation between the sponsoring institutions and the public schools.

CHAPTER V

PUBLICIZING AND ENROLLING OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES

Introduction

Universities and colleges have varied practices in regard to publicizing and enrolling students in off-campus classes. In this chapter these phases of the off-campus program will be treated: (1) the methods of publicizing enrollment for off-campus classes; (2) the enrolling of off-campus students; and (3) the minimum enrollment necessary to justify an off-campus class.

Methods of Publicizing Enrollment for Off-Campus Classes¹

The people in charge of off-campus class programs are always concerned with methods of publicizing classes. As will be reported later, many extension divisions and off-campus programs are expected to be self-supporting. Consequently, costs involved for publicity may also be a problem. It would be desirable if all prospective students could be informed with a minimum of difficulty and expense, but such is not the case. Table 12 reveals that publicity through newspapers and local school administrators are the methods most frequently used. Generally, a news-

¹See Table 12.

TABLE 12

METHODS OF PUBLICIZING ENROLLMENT FOR OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES
USED BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Methods of Publicizing	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 19 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Individual letters.....	11	18.6	17	17.3	22	13.9	10	14.3	60	15.6
Bulletins.....	10	17.0	18	18.4	33	20.9	15	21.4	76	19.8
Newspapers.....	18	30.5	24	24.6	38	24.1	15	21.4	95	24.7
Through local school administrators.....	15	25.4	27	27.5	38	24.1	18	25.7	98	25.4
Radio.....	5	8.5	12	12.2	24	15.2	10	14.3	51	13.2
Others.....	0	00.0	0	00.0	3	1.8	2	2.9	5	1.3
Totals.....	59	100.0	98	100.0	158	100.0	70	100.0	385	100.0

paper will run, as a public service, a notice of the organization of a class in its area. However, as a rule newspapers prefer to incorporate the notices in news stories that have local appeal and interest to all readers. Local school administrators also are usually cooperative in assisting in publicizing off-campus classes. School administrators usually have plans in operation for the making of announcements to their teachers. Only 13.2 percent of the total colleges surveyed use radio for announcing classes. This small percentage is probably the result of the expense involved in purchasing radio time.

The smaller institutions use newspapers more than any other method, 30.5 percent of the Group A schools using this method for announcing classes. This high percentage is probably caused by the fact that this method involves very little expense and by the fact that many of the off-campus classes of these institutions are located in small communities where it is not difficult to have such announcements placed in local newspapers.

The larger institutions are more likely to use bulletins and radio announcements than smaller schools because their larger programs and financial resources make it possible for them to invest more money in the publicizing of classes.

Group C includes three schools which report "other" methods of publicizing their classes. The methods reported by these schools are as follows: (1) the organizing of classes only when a local group asks for a specific class; (2) written replies to inquiries; and (3) personal interviews. The Group D schools that report "others" use posters and word of mouth as methods of publicizing enrollment.

Enrolling Off-Campus Students²

Enrollment procedures are complicated because of the various kinds of requirements which the students are trying to meet and because of the various institutional regulations, as well as the special off-campus regulations, that must be adhered to. To add to the difficulty, a student may have a transcript from another institution, or from another state, that is confusing to the person in charge of enrolling. Another difficulty results from students who are enrolling under the G.I. bill. Because of the many problems encountered by the person or persons charged with the responsibility of enrolling students, it would be highly desirable for those in charge to have had a considerable amount of supervised experience before being put in complete charge of enrolling classes. As is shown in Table 13, 34.2 percent of the 114 participating institutions have the teacher of the class enroll the students. The next highest percentage, 27.2, is for the colleges in which the director of extension or the person in charge of the off-campus program does the enrolling.

It is interesting to note that in the smaller Group A schools, with their limited programs, the director often enrolls the students for the few classes offered. In 63.1 percent of these schools this is the practice that is followed.

Schools with an on-campus enrollment of 1,000 to 4,999 make the most extensive use of off-campus teachers in the enrolling of classes. This method is used by 51.2 percent of these institutions. This is by

²See Table 13.

TABLE 13

METHODS OF ENROLLING OFF-CAMPUS STUDENTS USED BY
114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Methods	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
By person in charge of the off-campus program...	12	63.1	10	29.4	6	13.9	3	16.7	31	27.2
By representative of the Extension Division.....	1	5.3	7	20.6	10	23.2	6	33.3	24	21.1
By person in charge of off-campus program and the teacher of the class.....	0	00.0	7	20.6	5	11.7	2	11.1	14	12.3
By the teacher of off- campus class.....	6	31.6	8	23.5	22	51.2	3	16.7	39	34.2
Not reporting.....	0	00.0	2	5.9	0	00.0	0	00.0	2	1.7
Others.....	0	00.0	0	00.0	0	00.0	4	22.2	4	3.5
Totals.....	19	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	18	100.0	114	100.0

far the highest percent reported by any group of schools and can be accounted for by the low percentage of directors of extension in this group who enroll students. This group of larger schools presumably have programs so large that the directors of extension have insufficient time for the enrolling of students. In 23.2 percent of the schools in this group, representatives of the extension division are used for enrolling students.

Group D schools have the largest percent, 33.3, that use representatives from the extension division to enroll off-campus students. This practice is characteristic of large schools with their large programs and an administrative staff. There are four schools, or 22.2 percent of the total in this group, that report enrollment practices as "others." One of these institutions that reports "others," uses a local secretary, who is not a university employee, and the teacher of the class to handle the enrolling of students. Two report that the enrolling is done by the local school administrator and the teacher of the class. The fourth reports that students are enrolled by mail. Enrolling by mail has some advantages and some disadvantages. The advantages are: (1) sufficient time for careful checking of enrollment cards; (2) ample opportunity for the checking of transcripts; and (3) the availability of office secretaries or clerks for sorting, recording, and filing enrollment cards. The disadvantages of enrolling by mail are: (1) the lack of opportunity for consulting with the student in regard to errors on enrollment cards; (2) the delay by students in mailing enrollment cards; and (3) the absence of individual counseling or guidance for the student.

Minimum Enrollment Necessary to Justify
an Off-Campus Class³

The minimum number of student enrollments necessary to justify holding an off-campus class presents a problem for many institutions, just as the minimum number necessary to form an on-campus class often becomes a problem. It is difficult to set an exact minimum because certain courses which are highly specialized in nature attract few students. In general, elective courses attract fewer students than required courses. Consequently, it is often difficult to meet a minimum class size regulation. It would seem to be unjust to require the same minimum class size regulation for a class located in a sparsely settled area as for one located in a densely settled area. For this reason, some schools employ a local person to teach a class located in a sparsely settled area which is a considerable distance from the campus. The resulting reduction in cost of instruction justifies the lowering of the minimum enrollment. However, the quality of instruction may be lowered by hiring a local person. It is not necessarily the minimum class size, but whether or not a class can support itself financially, that often becomes a problem. As is shown by Table 14, 50.9 percent of the 114 institutions report a minimum enrollment regulation of 10 to 20 students for off-campus classes. Table 14 also shows that 17.6 percent of all the institutions report a minimum class size regulation of 20 to 25 students. This number seems rather high in relation to other institutions unless the 20 schools reporting

³See Table 14.

TABLE 14

MINIMUM ENROLLMENT NECESSARY TO JUSTIFY OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES
AS REPORTED BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Minimum Enrollment	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
5-9.....	1	5.3	0	00.0	2	4.6	0	00.0	3	2.6
10-14.....	7	36.8	7	20.6	11	25.8	3	16.7	28	24.6
15-19.....	4	21.1	14	41.2	7	16.3	5	27.8	30	26.3
20-24.....	5	26.3	4	11.7	6	13.9	5	27.8	20	17.6
Sufficient to meet expenses of a class.....	0	00.0	5	14.7	6	13.9	2	11.1	13	11.4
No regulation.....	2	10.5	2	5.9	4	9.3	1	5.5	9	7.9
Not reporting.....	0	00.0	2	5.9	1	2.3	0	00.0	3	2.6
Others.....	0	00.0	0	00.0	6	13.9	2	11.1	8	7.0
Totals.....	19	100.0	34	100.0	43	100.0	18	100.0	114	100.0

in this category either have a large student potential where less than 20 students enrolled in a class would be very unusual, or the student fees are expected to pay the cost of the class. Of the 114 schools, 13 report that their regulation is "sufficient to meet expenses." This regulation has more flexibility than those regulations which specify a particular number of students, but has certain disadvantages. When the fees must pay the expenses of the class, students living greater distances from the campus and those living in sparsely settled areas are required by some institutions to pay higher fees.

Group A institutions, as shown in Table 14, have the largest percentage, 36.8, reporting a minimum class size regulation of only 10 to 15 students. As this percent is the largest shown for any group of schools, it may be interpreted to mean that a greater effort is being placed on off-campus classes by this group of small schools. It also may mean that the service areas are smaller than for the other groups of schools, and consequently less expensive to serve. There are two institutions that report no regulations pertaining to minimum enrollment necessary to justify a class. It may be presumed that these two schools, with on-campus enrollment of less than 500 students, have such small programs and faculties that seldom are classes given off-campus. Thus a regulation concerning minimum class size has not been a problem. As has been shown earlier in this study, only 83 off-campus classes were offered by the 19 schools in this group, an average of 4.4 classes for each school.

The institutions in Group D have only 16.7 percent of their schools in the category of 10 to 14 students. This low percentage, in contrast with the other groups, is possibly the result of the larger

service areas covered by these larger institutions. In other words, these larger schools can require a larger enrollment for a class because the larger the service area the easier it is to locate a class in an area which will draw more students.

There are eight institutions which report "other" kinds of limitations. Two of these eight report a regulation based on whether the class is an undergraduate or a graduate class. These two require a minimum of 20 enrollees for undergraduate courses and 10 enrollees for graduate courses. A third school requires 10 students to form a class at an established center and 16 students at another location. Two schools of the eight report that the minimum size of a class is determined by the distance to be traveled. Another school reports that a class is justified by the need, the need being determined by the director of extension. One of the larger institutions reports that the minimum number for a class depends upon the course given and the size of other classes meeting at an extension center. Another school has a 15 student minimum, or an over-all average of 20 students.

The practice of using an over-all average for justifying the establishment of classes has the distinct advantage of making it possible to offer classes in isolated areas that would otherwise have difficulty meeting the minimum requirement for a single class. Of course, a problem would arise unless some minimum number is required for each class. If students were enrolled and classes started without some plan concerning class sizes for individual classes, there might be almost any average imaginable by the time all off-campus classes had been organized. This over-all average plan, although it has its faults, is more flexible and therefore better than any of the other plans reported.

CHAPTER VI

FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES

Introduction

Information relative to the financial aspects of off-campus classes will be presented and discussed in this chapter. The data are taken from the questionnaire. (See Appendix II, Part IV.) The data and information that are considered in this chapter have to do with: (1) the budgets for extension divisions and off-campus classes; (2) the methods of paying full-time faculty members who teach off-campus classes; (3) the methods of paying the expenses incurred by teachers while off the campus; (4) the enrollment fees charged by the participating institutions; and (5) the methods of collecting off-campus enrollment fees.

Budgets for Extension Divisions and Off-Campus Classes¹

Whether or not a university or a college has a separate budget for the extension division may be indicative of the prestige or importance given to its extension division. Generally, the larger institutions, which have division budgets, will also have budgets for their off-campus class programs. Some of the schools report only one budget be-

¹See Table 15.

TABLE 15

BUDGETS FOR EXTENSION DIVISIONS AND OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES
OF 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS,
NOVEMBER 1, 1953

Budgets	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Have an extension division budget.....	3	15.8	7	20.6	23	53.5	15	83.3	48	42.1
Have no extension division budget.....	16	84.2	27	79.4	20	46.5	3	16.7	66	57.9
Have an off-campus class budget.....	5	26.3	9	26.5	17	39.5	12	66.7	43	37.8
Have no off-campus class budget.....	14	73.7	25	73.5	26	60.5	6	33.3	71	62.2
Off-campus classes are expected to be self- supporting.....	17	89.5	29	85.3	28	65.1	8	44.4	82	71.9
Off-campus classes are not expected to be self- supporting.....	2	10.5	5	14.7	15	34.9	10	55.6	32	28.1

cause extension may mean an off-campus class program, their only extension activities being classes held in the field. Many schools expect the student enrollment fees to support their total off-campus class program, which would include instructional, subsistence, travel, and administrative costs.

Table 15 is concerned with: (1) the extension division budget; (2) the off-campus budget; and (3) whether or not the off-campus classes are expected to be self-supporting. Of the 114 participating institutions, 48 have extension budgets which include the off-campus class programs. The remaining 66 institutions do not have extension division budgets. Therefore, it can be said that having an extension division budget is not a general practice in the North Central accrediting area. Table 15 also reveals that 43 institutions have separate off-campus class budgets. Therefore, five schools do not have a separate budget for off-campus classes within their budget for the extension division. This practice allows for a considerable amount of flexibility if there are several areas of service in an extension division, but would indicate a generally unacceptable business practice. There are 82 schools, or 71.9 percent, that report that their off-campus class programs are expected to be self-supporting. It is highly possible that, even though a large number of schools expect their programs to be self-supporting, many do not pay their way. However, a self-supporting program may be of questionable value if the institutional objectives of a school include being of service to the people in the area. The prevalence of a self-supporting program seems to indicate that many schools have not accepted the off-campus class program as an institutional obligation.

The fact that 84.3 percent of the Group A schools do not have extension division budgets is not unexpected. These schools with their small programs may not have separate extension divisions but have their extension programs incorporated with other institutional services. In fact, the person in charge of the off-campus program (see Appendix VI) for a small school often has a title or occupies a position that suggests duties in addition to extension services. It is also revealed by Table 15 that there are 14 Group A schools, or 73.7 percent, that do not have off-campus budgets. Therefore, there is a smaller percentage that do not have off-campus class budgets as compared to those that do not have extension division budgets. This situation may indicate that an institution may have an off-campus class program but offer no other extension services.

The Group A schools report that 17, or 89.5 percent, are expected to have self-supporting programs. This is the largest percentage reported in the self-supporting category. This situation in the smaller schools is probably due to the small size of the schools and their small service areas. In a small service area the demand for and the offerings of classes will generally be limited. Therefore, classes may not be given each term and the off-campus program may not be considered stable enough to be a part of the regular over-all institutional program.

Group B institutions show a larger percentage having extension division budgets than do Group A, and a smaller percentage with no divisional budgets. As might be expected, these Group B schools, with their larger programs, would be more consistent in the size of their off-campus class programs, thereby being able to justify the need for extension division budgets.

The schools in Group B report practically the same situation pertaining to off-campus class budgets as do Group A schools, and the reason is the same as previously stated--the lack of other extension services. Group B includes 29 schools reporting that their classes are expected to be self-supporting. These 29 schools are 85.3 percent of the Group B schools. This percent is slightly lower than reported for Group A, but this somewhat lower percentage may be indicative of a greater obligation for off-campus classes by larger institutions. In fact, one finds that the larger the institution the less likely it is to expect its classes to be self-supporting. Among the Group C schools, 28, or 65.1 percent, of the 43 institutions are expected to have self-supporting programs. This 65.1 percent is less than that reported by the Group A or Group B schools. This condition substantiates the assumption, stated earlier, that the larger schools with their larger programs will provide classes as an institutional service with little regard as to whether or not the programs are self-supporting. Group D has only eight schools, or 44.4 percent, that report that their classes are expected to be self-supporting. This 44.4 percent is the lowest for any of the groups in the self-supporting category.

It is interesting to note that the group having the largest percentage of schools with extension division budgets also had the smallest percent of schools that are expected to have self-supporting off-campus class programs. For example, Group C schools report that 53.3 percent have extension division budgets, as compared with 20.6 percent for Group B, and 15.8 percent for Group A. Another example is provided by the

Group D schools, which report that 15, or 83.3 percent, of the schools have extension division budgets. As the 83.3 percent reported by the Group D schools, the status of extension in larger institutions may be revealed.

Methods of Paying Full-Time Faculty Members
Who Teach Off-Campus Classes²

Determining the most satisfactory procedure to be used in paying full-time faculty members who teach some off-campus classes as a part of their teaching load, or who teach some classes as an overload, is a problem that directors of extension have difficulty in working out for their respective institutions. Some of the questions raised by directors of extension concerning the methods of paying these faculty members are:

1. Should a faculty member who is employed to teach full-time and is not teaching a full load on-campus be paid extra to teach an off-campus class?
2. How much should a full-time faculty member who is not carrying a full load be paid?
3. Should a faculty member who is teaching a full load on the campus be paid to teach an off-campus class? How many classes that are an overload should a full-time faculty member be permitted to teach?
4. How much should a full-time faculty member be paid to teach a class that constitutes an overload?
5. On what basis should full-time faculty members be paid for teaching off-campus classes?

Table 16 includes data concerning the methods used for paying full-time faculty members who teach classes as a part of their regular

²See Table 16.

TABLE 16

METHODS OF PAYING FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS WHO TEACH OFF-CAMPUS
CLASSES BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Methods of Paying Faculty	Groups				Totals	
	A No.	B No.	C No.	D No.	No.	Percent
When off-campus class is part of the regular teaching load						
No extra pay.....	5	5	18	4	32	45.7
Distance.....	0	0	3	2	5	7.1
Credit hours.....	4	8	9	1	22	31.5
Class size.....	0	1	0	0	1	1.4
Distance and credit hours.....	0	2	3	0	5	7.1
Distance and class size.....	1	0	1	0	2	2.9
Distance and rank.....	0	0	1	0	1	1.4
Credit hours and rank.....	0	1	0	1	2	2.9
Totals.....	10	17	35	8	70	100.0
When off-campus class is in addition to regular teaching load						
Distance.....	0	1	1	0	2	4.5
Credit hours.....	7	12	6	4	29	65.9
Distance and credit hours.....	1	2	0	2	5	11.4
Distance and rank.....	0	0	0	1	1	2.3
Credit hours and rank.....	0	0	0	3	3	6.8
Rank.....	0	0	1	0	1	2.3
Class size and credit hours.....	1	2	0	0	3	6.8
Totals.....	9	17	8	10	44	100.0

teaching load and full-time faculty members who teach classes in addition to their regular load. Of the 114 institutions in this study, 70 consider off-campus instruction as a part of a teacher's regular load, and the remaining 44 schools have their teachers instructing classes in addition to their regular campus classes. These 44 schools pay their teachers, by one method or another, for off-campus teaching. Of the 70 institutions which consider off-campus teaching to be a part of the teacher's load, 32 do not offer additional salary for their work. However, 38 of the 70 schools pay for off-campus instruction even though this instruction is a part of the teacher's regular load.

The data reveal that there are a total of 82 institutions which pay their teachers an additional salary for off-campus teaching. The majority of these institutions, 51 out of 82, base this salary on the number of credit hours of instruction done by the teacher. When the teaching is assigned as a part of the regular load of a teacher, the extra salary paid for the teaching may be very small or nothing at all. In fact, one Group A institution reports that its rate is only \$2.50 per quarter hour. However, another school in this same group reports a rate of \$75.00 per semester hour. In general, the rate is higher when the teaching is done as an overload. Of the seven Group A schools which pay on the basis of credit hours for teaching as an overload, the rates vary as follows: one school, \$30.00 per semester hour; two schools, \$60.00 per semester hour; one school, \$85.00 per semester hour; two schools, \$100.00 per semester hour; and one school, one-fifteenth of the teacher's salary per semester hour.

Although the prevalent means of paying off-campus teachers is on the basis of the number of credit hours taught, there is a great variety of methods, some of them being very unique. Several methods involve the rank of the instructor. One school reports that full-time faculty members receive pay that is based only on the rank of the teacher. A professor receives \$600.00 for a course, an associate professor receives \$500.00, an assistant professor receives \$400.00, and an instructor receives \$300.00. This plan indicates an inducement for those with the higher ranks to teach off-campus classes. Another school pays its teachers according to rank and the number of credit hours of a course. A professor receives \$180.00 for teaching a three or four semester hour course, and those below the rank of professor receive \$150.00. Still another school pays teachers on the basis of distance of the class from the campus and the rank of the teacher. The schedule has a range of \$130.00 to \$160.00 for a professor, \$120.00 to \$150.00 for an associate professor, and \$110.00 to \$140.00 for an assistant professor. The amount a teacher is paid within the ranges indicated is determined by the distance to the class, whether it is from one to 25 miles, 26 to 50 miles, 51 to 75 miles, or more than 75 miles.

In determining the rate of pay, the distance traveled is sometimes used in combination with other factors. One school uses a distance-and-class-size plan that pays the teacher 65 percent of the enrollment fees if the class is less than 25 miles from the campus, or pays the teacher 70 percent of the enrollment fees if the class is more than 25 miles from the campus. Another school reports that the teacher's pay is based on the distance traveled and the number of credit hours of a course.

The amount paid is agreed upon by the teacher and the director of extension. This plan is very indefinite, but the school is small and has a small off-campus program. Other schools are more specific in their method of calculating pay based on distance and credit hours. One reports paying \$40.00 per semester hour plus \$1.50 per mile (one way) allowance for travel time which is paid only once for each course. Another school pays \$300.00 for a three semester hour course that is 35 to 50 miles away, and \$350.00 for a three semester hour course that is more than 50 miles from the campus. Three Group C institutions base their instructional pay only on distance traveled. The three schools report an "energy increment" that will pay a teacher 12 cents a mile per class meeting, with a minimum of \$15.00 and a maximum of \$25.00 per trip. The three schools reporting this practice are all located in the same state.

Two schools have unusual and indefinite plans for paying their teachers. One of these schools determined the amount paid a teacher by a consultation of the president of the institution and the teacher concerned. The other school has an even more unusual plan, or it could be called lack-of-a-plan. This lack-of-a-plan consists of the off-campus teachers "dividing most of what is left from the off-campus enrollment fees after deducting all expenses."

Methods of Paying the Expenses of
Off-Campus Teachers³

Paying the expenses incurred by teachers of off-campus classes

³See Table 17.

TABLE 17

METHODS OF PAYING THE EXPENSES OF OFF-CAMPUS TEACHERS
BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Methods Used	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Meals and room paid for by teacher and not reimbursed.....	9	47.4	8	23.5	7	16.3	1	5.6	25	21.9
Meals and room paid for by teacher and reimbursed.....	10	52.6	26	76.5	36	83.7	17	94.4	89	78.1
Travel paid for by teacher and not reimbursed.....	2	10.5	0	0.0	1	2.3	0	0.0	3	2.6
Travel paid for by teacher and reimbursed or a means of travel is furnished....	17	89.5	34	100.0	42	97.7	18	100.0	111	97.4

presents numerous problems. The phases of this material to be presented are:

1. Reimbursements for meal and room expenses.
2. Allowances for meals and room.
3. Travel allowances.

In studying the Group A schools, one finds that in 47.4 percent of them, the teachers pay for their own meals and rooms. These schools offered only 15 off-campus classes, or an average of 1.7 classes per school. Four of the schools had classes that were close enough that meals and room expenses were not necessary. The assumption might be made that these smaller schools with their smaller service areas do not have many of the problems encountered by the larger schools with their larger service areas. On the other hand, 89.5 percent of these institutions pay the travel expenses of their teachers or furnish transportation by other means. These schools pay from five to 7.5 cents a mile, or an average of 6.2 cents per mile, to the teachers for driving their own cars. Two schools report that no transportation expenses are paid nor is transportation furnished. One of these two schools indicates that its one off-campus class is taught by an institutional representative who is paid to be in the field as a supervisor. The other school pays the full-time faculty member who teaches the one off-campus class 50 percent of the enrollment fees. It may be assumed that his fee for teaching the class is sufficiently large to compensate him for his travel expense.

Of the 26 schools in Group B that pay the expenses of meals and rooms for their teachers, there are several unusual plans. One school,

when making financial arrangements with a teacher for teaching, adds an extra amount for expenses to the amount that the teacher will receive for meeting the off-campus class. Another school in this group pays the actual costs of meals and room with \$10.00 as a maximum for one day's expenses. Another school allows \$1.00 per meal and still another allows \$1.50 per meal.

All of the Group B schools either pay the travel expenses or furnish transportation for their teachers. The amount paid to drive one's own car ranges from five to 7.5 cents per mile, or an average of 6.3 cents per mile, which is probably a sufficient amount to pay for the expenses involved, but the existence of many varying conditions makes it impossible to determine what the actual payment per mile should be.

In the larger schools, one finds a higher percentage that reimburse the teacher for meals and room. In Group C this percentage is 83.7. For paying these expenses several unusual plans are used. One school reports that \$1.90 is allowed for each six-hour period that a teacher is away. Another reports a \$3.00 per trip allowance, even though the teacher is away only long enough for one meal. One school allows \$1.80 for a meal if the teacher returns after 9 p.m. and has been more than 50 miles from the campus. Two schools report higher allowances for meals and rooms than the others in this group. It was learned that each of these schools held classes in a large city which was far enough away from the campus to make staying over night almost imperative for a teacher. Another school in this group allows \$4.00 per day for meals with no limitation on room expense. The absence of a limitation on the amount for room expense seems desirable as the price

paid for a room depends to a considerable degree upon the size of the city.

Group C includes 42 schools, or 97.7 percent of the group, which pay for travel or furnish transportation for their teachers. The allowance for travel ranges from five to eight cents per mile, or an average of 6.5 cents per mile, for the 43 schools. One school does not pay the travel expenses because off-campus teachers are employed on a part-time basis and live in or near the location of their classes. Another school in this group reports an 8 cents a mile car allowance, which is the largest amount paid by any of the 114 participating schools.

Only one Group D school does not reimburse teachers for meals and room expenses. This school reports that no meal or room allowance is provided because no class is far enough away from the campus to justify these expenses.

It could be argued that the paying for meals by any school may be difficult to justify, as the person would eat at his own expense if at home or not on college business. But, of course, one's meal expense would probably be less at home than when eating out while teaching a class. There is one school that allows \$2.00 per meal and \$5.00 for a room, which would be \$11.00 per day for subsistence.

All 18 schools in Group D furnish transportation to and from off-campus classes. The mileage paid to drive one's own car ranges from five to seven cents per mile. One school in this group reports five cents per mile if a university car is not available at the time it is needed. Only one school of the 114, a Group D institution, reports the use of airplanes for travel to and from classes. This school will furnish

transportation by airplane if the distance to be traveled and the time saved warrants the use of air travel.

Enrollment Fees Charged for Off-Campus Classes⁴

There seems to be no standard practice as to the amount of enrollment fees charged by the 114 participating schools, except in some instances it will be found that schools within a state have agreed upon uniform fees. There is no reason for believing that all enrollment fees should be the same for all schools. Whether or not the off-campus program is expected to be self-supporting, the size of a school's service area, and the amount paid the teachers help to determine the enrollment fees charged.

Table 18 reveals that 79 institutions that use the semester hour credit system charge enrollment fees that average \$8.47 per semester hour credit. The 35 institutions that use the quarter hour credit system charge enrollment fees that average \$5.28 per quarter hour credit (converted to semester hours credit, \$7.92). The schools that use the quarter hour credit system charge an average of 55 cents less per semester hour than is charged by the schools using the semester hour credit system. This table shows that only 57 schools, or 50 percent of all school reporting, offer off-campus graduate classes.

Group D schools have, on the average, the highest enrollment fees for both graduate and undergraduate work. The only exception is the \$9.69 average which the Group A schools charge per undergraduate semester

⁴See Table 18.

TABLE 18

ENROLLMENT FEES CHARGED FOR OFF-CAMPUS CLASSES
BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Enrollment Fees Charged	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment		Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment		Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment		Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment		Totals 114 Schs.	
	Ave. Fee		Ave. Fee		Ave. Fee		Ave. Fee		Ave. Fee	
	No.	(Range)	No.	(Range)	No.	(Range)	No.	(Range)	No.	(Range)
Undergraduate per semester hour credit.....	13	\$9.69 (\$5-15)	23	\$7.62 (\$4-12)	29	\$8.27 (\$5-16.50)	14	\$9.18 (\$5-20)	79	\$8.47 (\$4-20)
Undergraduate per quarter hour credit.....	6	4.91 (3-7.50)	11	5.91 (4-9.50)	14	4.46 (3-6.50)	4	7.00 (5-17)	35	5.28 (3-17)
Graduate per semes- ter hour credit....	1	\$7.50 (None)	1	\$7.50 (None)	25	\$8.89 (\$5-16.50)	13	\$10.19 (\$5-20)	40	\$9.24 (\$5-20)
Graduate per quar- ter hour credit....	0	0.00 (0)	2	4.75 (4.50-5)	11	4.40 (3-6.50)	4	7.00 (5-11)	17	5.05 (3-11)

hour credit. This fee is the highest charged by any institution participating in this study. In Group D schools, although the range is from \$5.00 to \$20.00 for both under-graduate and graduate fees per semester hour credit, the average is \$9.18 for undergraduate credit and \$10.19 for graduate credit. The difference may result from the fact that graduate classes are generally smaller than undergraduate classes. Therefore, the higher fee for a graduate class may compensate in some degree for the smaller enrollment expected.

Methods of Collecting Off-Campus Enrollment Fees⁵

The methods of collecting enrollment fees depends to a considerable extent upon the methods of enrolling students in off-campus classes. As a general rule, the person or persons in charge of enrolling these classes collect the fees at the time of enrollment. When people who work with off-campus classes are discussing their problems, the best method of collecting fees often has top priority in these discussions. To illustrate the interest in this problem, in 1954 two schools sent representatives to the national meeting of extension directors at Muncie, Indiana, to learn how enrolling students and collecting fees by mail had worked out at other schools.

Table 19 reveals that 41 schools, or 36 percent of the total, have the instructors of the classes collect the enrollment fees. This method is reasonably simple as the instructors often are responsible for enrolling the classes and will be returning to meet with the classes, which makes it convenient for them to follow-up any delinquent enrollment

⁵See Table 19.

TABLE 19

METHODS OF COLLECTING OFF-CAMPUS ENROLLMENT FEES
USED BY 114 NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Fees Collected by	Group A 19 Schools below 500 Enrollment	Group B 34 Schools 500-999 Enrollment	Group C 43 Schools 1,000-4,999 Enrollment	Group D 18 Schools 5,000 or over Enrollment	Totals 114 Schs.	
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	Percent
Instructor.....	7	15	16	3	41	36.0
Director of off-campus program.....	2	4	7	6	19	16.7
Director of Admissions.....	0	1	1	0	2	1.7
Mailed to extension division.....	0	1	1	1	3	2.6
Mailed to admissions office.....	1	0	0	2	3	2.6
Mailed to business office.....	3	3	1	1	8	7.0
Instructor or Director of Extension.....	1	7	10	2	20	17.5
Instructor or mailed to business office.....	2	1	1	0	4	3.5
Instructor, Director of Admissions, or mailed to business office.....	1	0	0	0	1	.9
Director of Extension or mailed to business office.....	1	0	0	0	1	.9
Director of Extension or mailed to extension office.....	1	1	2	2	6	5.3
Instructor, Director of Extension, mailed to business office, or mailed to extension division.....	0	1	4	1	6	5.3
Totals.....	19	34	43	18	114	100.0

fees. Table 19 also shows that 20 schools, or 17.5 percent, have the instructor or the director of extension collect enrollment fees. This plan of collecting fees often results in the director of extension enrolling the class and collecting fees at the first meeting. The instructor, at the next meeting, will process late enrollments and collect those fees that were not paid at the regular enrollment session. In 19 schools, or 16.7 percent of the 114 total, the directors of off-campus classes collect the fees. The difficulty with this plan is that a director, with no help in enrolling and collecting fees when a class is being organized, is likely to make errors. This table also shows that six schools, or 5.3 percent, report enrollment fees are collected by the directors of extension or mailed to the extension offices. This method relieves the instructor of a class of the responsibility for collecting late fees. Six schools have a plan for the collecting of fees by the instructors of the classes, by the directors of extension, or by having the fees mailed to the extension divisions or to the business offices. This combination of methods would probably expedite the paying of fees but would complicate record keeping. There are 36 institutions that permit fees to be mailed to the institutions. The mailing of fees is the only method of paying fees in six of the 36 schools. The mailing of fees is usually one of several alternate methods of paying fees. The collecting of fees by mail has the same basic disadvantages as does enrolling students by mail. If there is an error in an amount of enrollment fee collected, several days, or perhaps a week, will be required to return the fee and receive the correct amount. Paying fees by mail may also be complicated by the fact that a student may include in a check

or money order the cost of a text book or an incidental fee that must be a separate payment in the institution's bookkeeping system.

This discussion of methods used for collecting fees may be concluded by calling attention to the fact that there are 12 different plans used by the 114 participating institutions. Admitting that a particular method may work better for one institution than for another, the variety of plans reported indicates that no perfect plan has yet been devised for collecting off-campus enrollment fees.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The present study has been concerned with the administrative practices for off-campus classes for teachers in 114 universities and colleges accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which, in 1952-53 reported off-campus classes for teachers.

The purpose of this chapter is: (1) to summarize the information from the questionnaire responses, the follow-up letters, and interviews with directors of off-campus teaching; (2) to present problems that were revealed by this study; and (3) to present the writer's suggestions for improving the work of off-campus classes for teachers. These suggestions are based, not only upon the responses to the questionnaire, but also upon extended correspondence with some respondents, interviews and conferences with many who direct the work of these classes, and from extensive experience and observation in the program of off-campus teaching for teachers.

Summary

General Information Concerning Off-Campus Classes

1. Forty-six of the 114 participating schools showed an increase in off-campus class offerings while 44 showed a decrease from November 1,

1952, to November 1, 1953. The schools with enrollments of 5,000 or over had the largest percentage of increase.

2. In respect to the number of classes offered by all of the 114 schools, there was a total of 2,299 classes on November 1, 1952, as compared to 2,250 classes November 1, 1953. This decrease in the number of classes represented a total decrease in enrollments of 935 for the dates given.

3. Off-campus classes are generally offered for non-resident credit. Eighty-eight of the 114 schools gave only non-resident credit for these classes. Although all schools had a limitation on the amount of off-campus credit that will be accepted for a degree, a few of the larger schools would accept additional credit for classes held at their off-campus extension centers.

4. Education departments offered the largest number of classes, 744 of the 2,250 total. Social science departments followed by offering 391 classes.

5. A combination of off-campus and correspondence credit accepted toward the baccalaureate degree averaged 31.1 credit hours for the 114 schools when this work was taken at the school from which a degree is being sought, or an average of 28.1 credit hours by transfer from another school. Off-campus credit accepted from one's own school toward the baccalaureate degree averaged 30.1 credit hours, or 27.3 by transfer.

6. Fifty of the 114 participating schools limit the amount of off-campus work to six semester hours that can be taken at any one time. Thirty-seven have a limitation of less than six semester hours, leaving 27 with a limitation exceeding six semester hours or with no regulation

concerning this matter.

Off-Campus Faculty and Instructional Materials

1. Of the 1,745 off-campus instructors who were teaching 2,250 classes in November, 1953, there were 1,284 full-time faculty members who taught off-campus classes as a part of their regular load. Of the total number of instructors, the largest number, 385, were classified as special instructors or lecturers. Nearly an equal number, 383, were classified as assistant professors.

2. Fifty-seven of the participating schools supplied library books and instructional materials by using a local library, off-campus, supplemented by the university or college library. Forty-eight institutions provide all of their own reference materials.

Publicizing and Enrolling Off-Campus Classes

1. The two media employed most frequently for announcing the organization of off-campus classes are newspapers, used by 95 of the schools, and local school administrators, used by 98.

2. The teacher of the off-campus class enrolls the students for 39 of the 114 schools. Thirty-one schools utilize the director of off-campus classes or one of his staff as the agent for enrolling students.

3. Seventy-eight of the schools have regulations specifying a number between 10 and 24 as the minimum enrollment necessary to justify an off-campus class.

Financial Aspects of Off-Campus Classes

1. Of the 114 universities and colleges that participated in this

study, 82 expect their off-campus classes to be self-supporting. Forty-eight institutions have extension division budgets as compared to 66 that do not. Even fewer, 43 schools, have off-campus class budgets, leaving 71 that do not.

2. In those institutions in which off-campus teachers receive extra compensation, several methods are used for determining the extra remuneration. The method used most often is one based on the number of credit hours taught. Fifty-one schools use this method. Thirty-two schools pay nothing extra to the off-campus teachers, other than expenses, when the teaching is a part of the regular teaching load.

3. Eighty-nine schools pay the meals and room expenses of off-campus teachers while 25 do not. As for transportation, 111 schools either reimburse the teacher or provide a means of transportation.

4. The enrollment fees per semester hour average \$8.47 for undergraduate courses and \$9.24 for graduate courses. The range is from \$4.00 to \$20.00 for undergraduates and \$5.00 to \$20.00 for graduates. Enrollment fees per quarter hour average \$5.28 for undergraduate courses and \$5.05 for graduate courses. The range is from \$3.00 to \$17.00 for undergraduates and \$3.00 to \$11.00 for graduates.

5. Forty-one schools report that off-campus enrollment fees are collected by the instructor of the class. Twenty other schools have either the instructor, the director of off-campus classes, or a member of his staff collect the fees. In 19 additional schools the collecting of fees is handled by the director of extension. The practice of mailing fees to the extension office, the admission office, or the business office is used by 14 institutions. The methods mentioned above account

for the procedures used by 94 of the 114 participating institutions.

Problems Concerning Off-Campus Classes

Administrative Practices in Organizing Off-Campus Classes

Before an off-campus class program can be organized the person in charge must make a number of decisions regarding the proposed program. The chief problems with which he will be concerned are: (1) determining the service area of his institution; (2) determining the teachers to be used; (3) locating the classes; (4) scheduling the classes; (5) publicizing the classes; and (6) enrolling students.

In determining service areas, large state universities often consider the boundaries of the state as the boundaries of their service area, while small colleges generally serve a more limited area. The cooperative effort of colleges within a state sometimes eliminates overlapping of class areas. However, by mutual agreement, one institution may offer a class in another's area because of the expertness and availability of a certain teacher, or because of the need for a graduate class in an area serviced by a college that does not offer graduate work.

A factor which affects the size of the area is the fact that the off-campus class program is generally expected to be self-supporting. (See Table 15.) The distance to be traveled by a teacher to his class involves both time and expense. However, large cities provide a large student potential, and the service area of an institution is sometimes extended in order to include such a city.

The administrative problems of an off-campus class program may

be complicated by the fact that the instructional staff is not permanently assigned to off-campus teaching. Some institutions have certain faculty members regularly assigned to teach a predetermined number of off-campus classes each school term. Other institutions assign teachers to these classes at the time the campus schedule is made or after the on-campus enrollment has been completed. When the latter system is used, the planning and organizing of classes will have to be tentative until the instructional staff is determined. The experienced director of off-campus classes is frequently able to make some very accurate estimates in regard to the teachers who will be available. In those institutions in which additional compensation is paid for off-campus teaching, there is generally no problem in obtaining a sufficient number of teachers.

After the service area and the instructional staff have been determined, the director may proceed to locate classes. In the locating of these classes, the principal administrative problem is meeting the needs of as many students as possible. Off-campus classes are generally located where the requests are the most numerous for a specific class. But the need for a particular class could be greater in a community where the number of requests is small, as in the case of a small isolated community. The institutions which have off-campus extension centers attempt to locate as many of their classes as possible in these centers.

The location of a class may also be influenced by the desire of the institution to recruit students from a particular area. A class could be the means by which students are attracted to a particular institution, and having established a relationship to that institution, these students may continue as on-campus students.

The distance of the proposed class from the institution is an additional consideration in the locating of off-campus classes. Other factors being equal, a class located close to the campus is more economical and consumes less teacher time than one located at a greater distance. However, a location, although a great distance from the sponsoring institution, may be more easily reached by good train or airplane connections than one closer to the campus but lacking such transportation services.

Distance is a special factor in locating a class when a woman teacher is to be used. If a driver is not provided for a woman teacher, she is often not expected to drive home from a great distance late at night.

Two or more teachers of classes sometimes ride together if each has a class meeting on the same evening and in the same area. This traveling together may necessitate a staggering of time for the beginning of class meetings, which would result in some extra time being spent by some of the teachers.

Securing a suitable meeting place to conduct an off-campus class should be of prime concern in administering the program. A lack of concern by the director of off-campus classes in this matter may cause undue trouble, inconvenience, and even more important, an undesirable teaching-learning situation. Classes are usually held in public school buildings and facilities are generally suitable only for young people or children and day time use. Such problems as these must be considered:

1. Who will open and close the building to be used?

2. Is there adequate lighting?
3. Will the building be heated at times when the class meetings are to be held?
4. Is there sufficient blackboard space for the class?
5. Are there convenient electric outlets for those teaching aids that require electricity?
6. Is the room large enough for the class?
7. Is the room equipped with suitable seating accommodations?
8. Are there adequate tables for those classes that need table space?
9. Is there suitable storage space for instructional materials and equipment?
10. Will toilets be open and conveniently located?
11. Is the space for parking cars both adequate and convenient?
12. Are there excessive stairs to be climbed in order to get to the class room?

Other factors to be considered in deciding both the town in which a class will be held and the room in which the class will meet are the amount of rent, if any, which will be charged, and the willingness of local people in helping to make suitable arrangements for the meetings of the class.

Making a schedule for classes involves the complicated problem of fitting together the needs of the students in the service area for particular classes, the securing of places for the classes to meet, the availability of qualified teachers, the providing of transportation for the teachers, and the setting of the meeting time for each of the classes.

The day of the week on which a class will meet is sometimes determined by the wishes or the availability of the instructor. At other

times it is determined by the wishes of the students. The availability of transportation sometimes will be the factor that determines the day of the week on which a class will meet.

As a general rule, the time of day at which a class will meet will be determined by the convenience of both the teacher and the students. Classes generally meet at the earliest hour that is convenient for all of those concerned. Sometimes this meeting time is as early as three o'clock in the afternoon if the class is an in-service class for a particular school. Seldom will a class begin its meetings after seven o'clock in the evening.

After the service area, the teaching staff, the location of classes, and the schedule for these classes have been determined, the planning of the publicity for announcing these classes is the next administrative step. There are numerous methods used in announcing classes. (See Table 12.) Many directors of off-campus classes contend that personal contact of the director with school administrators and with individual teachers is the best method, but this method is probably the most difficult because of the amount of traveling and time that it requires. Other directors insist that the most economical and effective method of publicizing classes is by communicating by letter or telephone with county school superintendents and city school superintendents. These administrators usually have an established plan for making announcements to their teachers and are willing to include announcements pertaining to off-campus classes to be offered in their communities and in nearby communities. Mailing announcements to all the teachers in an area is

also effective but is expensive. Some universities and colleges have announcements of classes published in a newspaper in the community where a class is to be held. Radio as a means for announcing classes is not used a great deal. A few universities and colleges report that they do not publicize their classes, but offer classes only on request from school administrators or groups of students. When a class is publicized, a combination of methods is generally used. The alert director of off-campus classes sees to it that the publicity is issued well in advance of the beginning of the class. If announcements of a class reach the prospective students early, they will be able to check their records to see if the class being offered is a class they need, and they will help publicize the class by discussing it with others.

The enrolling procedure for off-campus classes is another important administrative problem, being handled in various ways in the North Central accrediting area. (See Table 13.) A small institution will generally have the person in charge of the off-campus class program enroll the students for each class. A large school will often have the teacher of the class enroll the students. The largest schools, usually with large programs, generally use members of the extension staff for enrolling students. The difficulty encountered in enrolling students by mail is the multitude of corrections that need to be made and the delay in correcting these errors.

The enrolling session requires a great amount of time for the careful checking of enrollment cards and for the paying of fees. At least two schools in the North Central accrediting area have an afternoon

and evening session for enrolling each class, thus providing ample time for the processing of enrollments.

A part of the administrative duties of the director of off-campus classes is to arrange for a suitable time and place for the enrolling session of each off-campus class. The person charged with the responsibilities for enrolling the students may be notified and given all needed information, often in the form of mimeographed or printed instructions. Also, mimeographed or printed instructions may be distributed to the students at the enrolling session.

Instruction in Off-Campus Classes

One of the real problems concerning off-campus classes is improving the quality of instruction. The limitations on credit accepted toward an undergraduate or a graduate degree (See Tables 6 and 7) is evidence that off-campus credit, in the eyes of administrative officials, may not be on a par with on-campus credit. It can not be denied that there are practices that justify these limitations. The writer is aware of many substandard practices in off-campus classes. One teacher, as reported by students enrolled in his class, met with the group only half the required number of times and required no reports or study by the students. Another teacher gave no examinations but each student received an "A" grade. Still another teacher allowed the class to increase the length of class periods in order to complete the course in half the required number of meetings. These are unusual cases and not general practices, but happen too often for off-campus classes to remain above suspicion and help to justify the limitations put on the acceptance of

off-campus class work toward a degree.

But there are sometimes other evident reasons for instruction being of poor quality. The director of off-campus classes may be responsible for the poor quality of instruction. Classes that are enrolled a few weeks after the beginning of campus classes might be expected to finish at the end of the regular semester. In order to meet a class size regulation, students may be enrolled without the necessary prerequisites. A class is sometimes organized without a competent teacher being available and a poorly qualified teacher is employed. The lack of a plan for obtaining and distributing text books to students will often delay and jeopardize instruction. Another reason that credit is often suspected is that the director of off-campus classes may not abide by the institutional regulations as a result of a conflict between institutional regulations on the one hand and continuous pressure to increase class size on the other. Off-campus students are often in a good position to ask for special favors on the basis of the likelihood that another school would be willing to offer the class and grant the favor requested.

Another reason that off-campus classes often do not have the best instruction is that the teacher may not be an excellent instructor. It is not unreasonable to expect a teacher to be assigned to a class when one of his on-campus classes has not developed a sufficient enrollment to justify its being continued. When teachers are selected in advance of the beginning of the school term, department heads may assign off-campus class responsibilities, as a part of the regular teaching load, to a teacher who is young and inexperienced, or to a faculty member who has a

feeling of insecurity. Such teachers are possibly more agreeable to off-campus assignments than others. Even when no extra pay is involved, an insecure teacher has been known to ask for off-campus classes in order to make his position more secure.

Still another reason that off-campus classes often do not have the best instruction is that teachers may not teach as well as they are capable because they feel that they have been imposed upon, that they have been forced into an off-campus assignment. Because the teacher may feel imposed upon and because classes are sometimes started at irregular times, the teacher is frequently susceptible to the suggestions of students which result in a shortening of the length of time used for instruction. Also, students may be successful in suggesting shorter assignments or other special favors.

Ironical as it may seem, one of the reasons for the poor quality of off-campus instruction is that the classes are held off-campus. Although certain universities and colleges attempt to compensate for the lack of campus library facilities by setting up branch libraries where classes are held, these facilities may be inadequate. The teacher is not available for conferences between class meetings, and the lectures and meetings that are often a supplement to on-campus instruction are not readily available to off-campus students.

Additional reasons for the poor quality of instruction in off-campus classes are some of the prevalent practices in connection with these classes. Classes generally meet only once a week and in the evening. The result is that they meet for sessions of two or more hours,

at a time of day when the students are often exhausted after a day of teaching. Under such conditions the students are not highly receptive to instruction. Another disadvantage of long class sessions is that when it is necessary for a student to be absent because of some activity connected with his teaching position, he will generally miss an entire week of instruction during a single evening.

Financing Off-Campus Classes

Financing the off-campus class program is an administrative function that has many ramifications. Some universities and colleges have accepted extension services, including off-campus classes, as an institutional responsibility to the extent that they have made financial provisions for these services in their institutional budgets. Other institutions, while accepting responsibility for extension services, expect the services, especially off-campus classes, to be self-supporting. (See Table 15.) Whether or not the classes are expected to be self-supporting, the financial problems that are of special concern to the director of off-campus classes are: (1) preparing the off-campus class budget; (2) paying off-campus instructional costs; and (3) collecting off-campus class fees.

Preparing an off-campus class budget is a difficult problem because the revenue and the expenditures are based on many variable factors, such as the size of classes, the number of classes, and the distance between each of these classes and the sponsoring institution. If the extension services receive an appropriation, the preparing of an off-campus class budget is generally less difficult because educational needs

of students can be met without first consideration being given to whether or not a proposed class will be self-supporting.

Since good instruction should be a primary consideration in offering classes, obtaining good teachers for the classes becomes a goal for the directors of off-campus classes. Many of these directors contend that extra remuneration for teaching will create a sufficient supply of good teachers, but should a regular college faculty member be paid extra to teach a class when this teaching is either part of his regular teaching load, or in addition to his regular teaching load? If extra remuneration is to be paid, on what basis should this extra payment be made? On the distance traveled? On the number of students in a class? On the number of credit hours of the class? On the faculty rank of the teacher? Or on some combination of these? If extra remuneration is to be paid someone will need to determine the amount to be paid.

The practice used in paying the travel and subsistence expenses of teachers is another administrative problem that seems to have no standardized pattern, which indicates that there is little agreement among institutions as to what is a good plan. (See Table 17.) Schools within a state often use the same plan because of a state governing board regulation or mutual agreement made among the institutions in the state. There are only a few cases where meals, room, and travel expenses are not paid the teacher of classes. The few that do not pay the teachers' expenses have a reason for not doing so, or compensate them in some other way. It was found that several institutions pay a travel bonus as an inducement to teachers of off-campus classes. The smaller

colleges with a very small number of offerings, often have classes held in a town which is only a short distance from the campus and little travel, meals, or room expenses are involved. The larger universities and colleges generally have a larger program which covers a rather broad service area. Some classes are held at such a great distance it may be impractical for a teacher to return home after meeting with a group. These classes result in greater expenses for both travel and subsistence.

Many institutions own cars for faculty members to use in traveling away from the campus on institutional business, including off-campus classes. The scheduling of school cars for teachers is handled in almost every conceivable manner. Sometimes off-campus teachers have preference in obtaining a school car but more often the "first come, first served" method is used. Because of the uncertainty in obtaining the use of institutional cars, some teachers prefer to drive their own cars and receive the five to eight cents per mile allowance. Airplane travel may be furnished to teachers for classes at a sufficient distance to make air travel practical. On a particular evening several teachers may be transported by airplane to the airports of each town where classes are held and picked up following the class meetings. From the examples given, it is evident that practices vary a great deal from one institution to another. However, this pointing out of the lack of uniformity does not mean that these practices should be the same for all institutions.

In the absence of a regulation by a governing board of an institution, determining the amount to charge off-campus students per quarter or semester hour credit is another administrative function. Larger institutions generally charge higher fees than do smaller colleges. (See

Table 18.) Private colleges, as a general rule, charge higher fees than do state supported institutions. Two private schools in different states gave as the reason for not offering many off-campus classes the fact that their fees were nearly twice those charged by the state supported schools within their state. Graduate fees are sometimes no higher than are undergraduate fees, even though graduate classes may have fewer students enrolled and a graduate faculty member is expected to have high rank. When the undergraduate fees are less than the graduate fees, students who are meeting a periodic professional growth requirement will sometimes enroll for undergraduate credit unless graduate work is specified in the requirement. A senior-graduate class, one that can be taken for either senior college or graduate credit, will usually have more students enrolled because it is open to those with a more varied degree of educational training.

Developing the method of collecting off-campus class fees is an administrative function that results in a variety of methods being used in the North Central accrediting area. (See Table 19.) When students pay their fees in cash they may not get a receipt from a busy and unbusinesslike representative of the extension division or the teacher. This unsatisfactory practice is more prevalent than it should be. Several directors of off-campus classes have related to the writer that after having enrolled a class and collected enrollment fees they have returned to the campus late at night with several hundred dollars in cash in their possession. Having fees mailed to the institution from which a class is being taken has been experimented with many times and

with many variations. When fees are mailed to the sponsoring institution by off-campus students, the problem of handling cash by a representative of the extension division or the teacher is generally solved, but other problems arise. A student may neglect the sending of his fees until after a deadline, while regularly attending class for several sessions. A student may register for a class, attend two or three meetings, but not mail his fee to complete his enrollment until he decides whether or not he likes the teacher, whether there is much outside work, and whether everything else is to his liking. It is possible that a number of students who have registered for a class will never complete their enrollment, causing the class to be too small to justify its being continued; but since other students have complete their enrollment and attended several class meetings, the class cannot be discontinued.

Recommendations

Administrative Practices in Organizing Off-Campus Classes

1. In a state in which off-campus teachers are sent a great distance from their own institutions, there may be an overlapping of service areas among institutions and some degree of inefficiency because of this overlapping. It is recommended that representatives of the schools concerned reach an agreement that will eliminate the overlapping of areas served.

2. Since it is impractical in most institutions to have faculty members who are used exclusively for the teaching of off-campus classes, and since it is equally impractical to use as teachers only those whose

on-campus classes fail to develop, it is recommended that the cooperation of department heads be solicited in scheduling teachers for off-campus classes. When this practice is followed, the director of off-campus classes is more likely to know what teachers are available for his use.

3. Many off-campus classes meet in public school buildings where no rent is paid; therefore, the prevailing practice is for the director of off-campus classes to ask the superintendent of schools for the use of a room. To be sure, it is seldom appropriate to ask for special favors, but in requesting the use of a room, it is recommended that the director indicate to the superintendent the features that are desirable for a room in which the class is to meet. The superintendent will not always be able to provide a room with all the characteristics desired, but he is more likely to provide a suitable room if he is informed in regard to what is wanted.

4. Ideally, it may seem desirable to consult both the teacher and the students in regard to the day of the week and the time for the meeting of a class. However, it is recommended that the director of off-campus classes consult the teacher in regard to his wishes, consider the wishes of the students, and schedule the class accordingly. To be sure, some students may be inconvenienced by this method, but they will be no more inconvenienced than they would if the members of the class were allowed to haggle over the details of the schedule.

5. In publicizing the organizing of an off-campus class, it is recommended that for complete coverage of potential students a combination of methods be used. Informing a school administrator of a class to be offered will generally result in all of the teachers under his

jurisdiction knowing about the class, but it is suggested that announcements be sent also to all other teachers in the area whose names can be secured. If these two methods are reinforced by newspaper announcements, there should be little danger of a class being held without those who might want to take it being informed.

6. There seems to be no best way of enrolling off-campus students. The fact that there are numerous methods used by schools offering off-campus classes indicates that no one method has been found to be most satisfactory. The director of off-campus classes often finds that he is not prepared to answer all questions asked by students. The same is true of the teacher of a class. It is recommended that the director, or one of his staff members, go with the teacher of the class to minimize the number of unanswered questions. Although the registrar and bursar of an institution would frequently be of assistance in enrolling students, taking them along is hardly practical--unless several classes are being enrolled at the same time at an off-campus extension center.

Instruction in Off-Campus Classes

1. The justifiable criticism that has been leveled at off-campus class instruction could be alleviated if extension directors were made as responsible for the quality of work done as for the size of the classes. A program that has a minimum class size regulation in order for the program to be self-supporting, with little or no regard for the excellence of instruction, is subject to severe criticism. If a minimum class size is required to make a plan self-supporting, it is recommended that the regulation be made more flexible by using an average for all

classes. Difficulties still might arise with an "average system," as some classes might be larger than desirable in order to maintain the average.

2. It is recommended that the quality of instruction be improved by setting up an extension faculty, approved by an extension committee. Some criteria for selection to the extension faculty would be high faculty rank, superior academic preparation, and recognition as a good teacher of mature people.

3. Text books for an off-campus class should be paid for by the student and delivered to him at the time of enrolling.

4. Faculty morale should be promoted by discovering some way to reimburse teachers for small incidental expenses, such as tips, car parking charges, and newspapers. Such items do not amount to much expense, but having them recognized as legitimate expenses and being reimbursed for them would add significantly to the morale of off-campus teachers.

5. The off-campus teacher may be expected to drive a car owned by the university or college, but this car should be at least the equal of his own in respect to insurance coverage and driving performance.

6. The possibility of a class not holding the regular number of meetings should be minimized by having the director of extension make up a schedule of class meetings for each class at the time it is organized. This schedule, giving the place, time and date of each class meeting, should be given to each teacher and to the members of each class with the instruction that it should not be changed without the consent of the

director of off-campus classes.

7. Although the lack of campus facilities is sometimes overlooked, attention given to this problem and careful planning can largely overcome it. It is recommended that a member of the college library staff, or extension staff, be specifically assigned to take care of the library needs of the off-campus class program. This member of the library staff should consult with the director of the program and the teacher in regard to the needs of each class. The library staff member may collect and package reference material for the teachers to take to their classes.

8. As another means of providing an off-campus instructional situation as nearly comparable to that on-campus, it is recommended that the teacher be expected to arrive at the class meeting place previous to the scheduled meeting time or to remain for awhile after each meeting. The consistent following of this practice by the teacher would encourage students to confer with him in regard to problems pertaining to the class and to their professional problems.

9. Alleviating the difficulties that result from having classes meet in two or more hour sessions once a week is not impossible. In some instances, a weekly class meeting might be divided into two sessions. It is recommended that one session be held in the late afternoon with another session following during the evening, or perhaps one session could be held on Saturday morning with a second session in the afternoon. The use of this method for shortening the length of class sessions may result in some increase in instructional costs, but what is being recommended are ways of improving instruction, not ways of reducing the cost of that instruction.

10. A factor in favor of off-campus classes is that students can often make immediate use of their course work and are thereby better motivated than other students. It is recommended that courses that have immediate value to the students be encouraged for off-campus classes. These courses are closely related to the teachers' problems and include such courses as methods of teaching, educational use of radio, and curriculum construction and revision.

11. In order to provide for the best possible instruction for off-campus students, it is recommended that those in charge of the off-campus class program develop a plan for evaluating their program at least once a year. This result may be accomplished by getting information from the students in regard to the effect of the off-campus instruction on their own teaching.

Financing Off-Campus Classes

1. When we compare off-campus classes with on-campus classes, we find that on-campus classes are practically never self-supporting. For the support of the on-campus work the institution receives money from a legislative appropriation, interest from investments, gifts, or a combination of these sources. Since it seems fitting for an institution to assume the same responsibility for supporting its off-campus class program as it does for supporting its on-campus program, it is recommended that the administrative costs and a part of the instructional costs come from an appropriation set aside for off-campus classes. These classes should be self-supporting only in respect to travel and subsistence, with any balance remaining to be used for additional instructional expenses

that may be needed, including supplies and equipment, such as books and audio-visual equipment. This plan would provide a greater degree of flexibility and a greater opportunity to offer educational service than is now possible for most off-campus class programs.

2. Since it is essential that off-campus instruction be of high quality, it seems undesirable for a class to be taught by a teacher as an overload. It is recommended that the off-campus class be a part of the teacher's regular load but that the teacher receive extra load credit for teaching the class. For example, a teacher having a class only a short distance from the sponsoring institution might receive one and one-half hours of load credit for each credit hour taught, while a teacher having a class at a greater distance might receive two hours of load credit for each credit hour taught. The division line between the two zones should be located in such a manner that a minimum number of possible class locations be near this line. For some institutions, the location of the line should be affected by the topography of the service area.

3. In respect to the expenses of the off-campus teacher, it is recommended that fixed amounts, based on local conditions, be established for the major items of expense. An adequate amount should be set as compensation for each meal that must be eaten away from home, for each mile traveled when the teacher uses his own car, and for each night of lodging away from home. When the service area of an institution includes a city or cities in which expenses are extremely high, a special amount for meals and lodging should be applicable to classes taught there.

4. The collecting of fees cannot, as a rule, be handled as efficiently off-campus as on-campus, but proper care will provide for

off-campus fees being collected more efficiently than is now customary. The real difficulty is not merely whether or not the fees are collected, but whether or not the handling of the fees is performed in a business-like manner. It is recommended that, in addition to the teacher and a representative of the off-campus program, a representative of the business office of the institution be present at the enrolling session of each class to collect fees and issue receipts. These people should be able to provide the same degree of efficiency in enrolling off-campus students as is provided for enrolling on-campus students. In regard to late enrollments, the same rules should apply to both on-campus and off-campus students with the exception that the late enrollments may be handled by correspondence between those enrolling late and the office of extension.

The writer believes that if the recommendations suggested in this chapter concerning administrative practices could be put into effect, there would be an improvement in off-campus class programs with beneficial results to both the students who enroll and the institutions that sponsor these programs.

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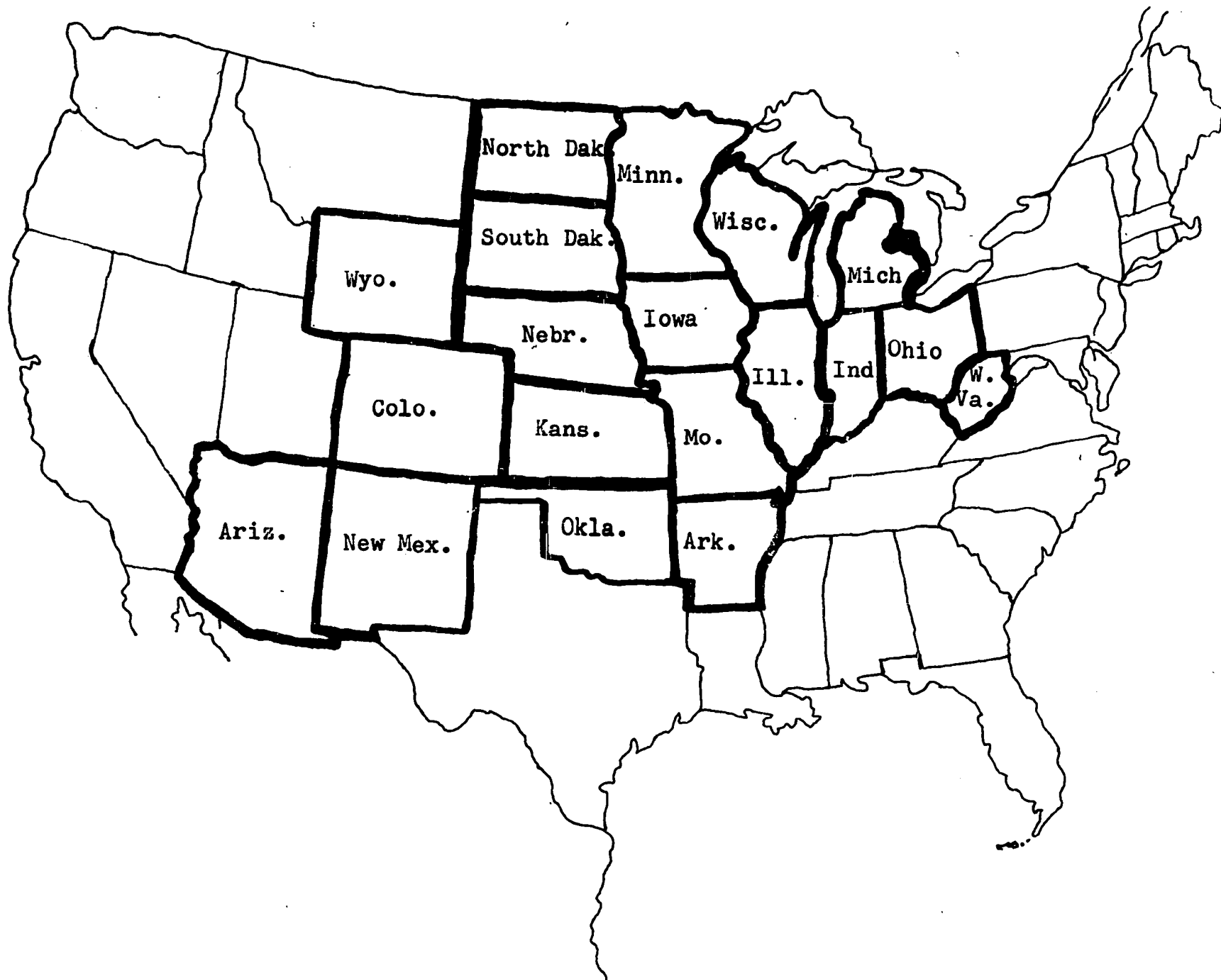
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OUTLINE MAP OF NORTH CENTRAL ACCREDITING AREA



APPENDIX II QUESTIONNAIRE

Administrative Practices and Policies: Off-Campus Teacher Education Extension Classes*

For this questionnaire and study, off-campus extension classes will mean instruction that is given for credit by a university or college, beyond what is normally considered the campus, for teachers actually teaching or for those preparing to teach. This includes centers or classes located off-campus where resident credit and/or non-resident credit is obtained. This questionnaire is for teacher education courses only.

(Name of person reporting)	(Title)
(Name of Institution)	(City)
	(State)

I. General Information

- A. Do you use the semester system?..... Quarter system?.....
- B. What was the number of off-campus extension classes on Nov. 1, 1952?..... Nov. 1, 1953?.....
- C. What was the number of enrollments in off-campus extension classes on Nov. 1, 1952?..... Nov. 1, 1953?.....
- D. Do your off-campus extension classes give only non-resident credit, limited for degree and/or certificate?..... Only resident credit, not limited for degree or certificate?..... Both non-resident and resident credit?.....
- If "both non-resident and resident", please explain:.....

- E. How many hours are considered a full teaching load on-campus?..... Off-campus?.....
- F. What is the number of off-campus extension classes offered this semester or quarter by departments?

Biological Science	Health and Phy. Ed.	Psychology
Commerce	Languages (Foreign)	Social Science
Education	Mathematics	Speech
Eng. and Lit.	Physical Science		

What other department are giving courses this semester or quarter? How many classes are being given by these departments?

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- G. How many hours of off-campus extension from your institution will be accepted toward your undergraduate degree?..... How many hours of correspondence?..... Of both?.....
- H. How many hours of off-campus extension from other institutions will be accepted toward your undergraduate degree?..... How many hours of correspondence?..... Of both?.....
- I. How many hours of off-campus extension from your institution will be accepted toward your master's degree?..... How many hours of correspondence?..... Of both?.....
- J. How many hours of off-campus extension from other institutions will be accepted toward your master's degree?..... How many hours of correspondence?..... Of both?.....
- K. What is the limit of off-campus extension work that can be taken in any one semester or quarter when student is working or teaching full time?.....

II. Instruction

- A. How many regular, full-time faculty members are teaching off-campus extension, no campus teaching?..... Teaching off-campus extension classes part of the time?.....

*Off-campus teacher education classes will be referred to as off-campus extension for the remainder of this questionnaire.

B. How many part-time faculty members are teaching only off-campus extension?..... Teaching both on and off-campus classes?.....

C. How many faculty members are teaching off-campus extension classes this semester or quarter according to rank?

Professors	Asst. Professors	Graduate Assistants
Assoc. Professors	Instructors	Special

Please explain what is meant by "special", if it applies:

D. Are reference books and/or source materials supplied by the university or college?..... The local school libraries, off-campus?..... A combination of these?.....

III. Enrollment

A. Are prospective students notified of classes offered by individual letters?..... Bulletins?..... Newspapers?..... Local school administrators?..... Radio?..... Other means?.....

B. What is your policy or practice as to minimum class size? (Use back of page if needed).....

C. Who does the actual enrolling of off-campus extension classes? (Use back of page if needed.)....

IV. Financial Aspects

A. Do you have an over-all extension division budget? Yes No

B. Do you have a separate budget for off-campus extension class work? Yes..... No.....

C. Are your off-campus extension classes expected to be self-supporting? (Include instructional, subsistence, travel, and administrative costs.) Yes..... No

D. Do you ever give extra pay to regular full-time faculty members for off-campus extension instruction? Yes No

1. Based on class size? Yes No

2. Distance traveled? Yes No

3. Credit hours of course? Yes..... No.....

4. Over teaching load? Yes No

If your answer is "yes" to any of the questions under "D", what is your plan?.....

E. Does the instructor pay his own expenses, which are not reimbursed? Yes No

F. Is the instructor allowed a per diem allowance? Yes No

If your answer is "yes", what is the amount?.....

G. What is the amount allowed, if any, for subsistence (meals and room) per day?.....

H. What is the amount paid per mile for using a private car?

I. Is the off-campus instructor reimbursed for the exact amount of bus, train and plane expense? Yes No

J. Is transportation furnished for off-campus instruction by a school car part of the time?..... All the time?..... By plane part of the time?..... All of the time?..... By the instructor using his own car part of the time?..... All of the time?.....

K. Are instructor's off-campus expenses paid by a zone system? Yes No

If your answer is "yes", what are the details of your zone system? (Use back of sheet if needed.)

L. Does your instructor receive any remuneration for extra expenses other than those listed above? Yes No

If your answer is "yes", what is your plan? (Use back of sheet if needed.)

M. What is the enrollment fee for undergraduates per semester credit hour?..... For graduates?

What is the enrollment fee for undergraduates per quarter credit hour?..... For graduates?

If fees vary for any reason, what is your plan?.....

N. Are your off-campus extension fees set up to be in line with another institution?..... Other institutions?..... By a governing board?.....

O. Are fees collected by the instructor?..... The director of extension?..... The director of admissions?..... Sent by mail to extension division?..... Sent by mail to admissions office?..... Sent by mail to business office?.....

APPENDIX III

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

November 10, 1953

Dr. Loren N. Brown, Acting Director
Department of School and Community Services
Extension Division
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma

Dear Dr. Brown:

We are interested in the prevailing practices and patterns for off-campus extension courses in colleges and universities of the North Central Association. We shall appreciate it if you will fill in answers to the questions on the enclosed pages and return them to us at your earliest convenience.

The questionnaire has been prepared by our Mr. Norland Strawn, Director of Extension, after a great deal of thought on his part. We believe the information will be significant, and your assistance will be greatly appreciated. You know, of course, that the report will be treated confidentially, and after a summarization has been made, copies will be forwarded to you.

A prompt reply will be appreciated.

Yours very truly,

Rees H. Hughes
President

APPENDIX IV

CAMPUS ENROLLMENTS OF THE INSTITUTIONS
PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY¹

Enrollment	Number of Institutions	Enrollment	Number of Institutions
0-999	53	11,000-11,999	0
1,000-1,999	19	12,000-12,999	0
2,000-2,999	11	13,000-13,999	1
3,000-3,999	7	14,000-14,999	0
4,000-4,999	6	15,000-15,999	0
5,000-5,999	2	16,000-16,999	1
6,000-6,999	3	17,000-17,999	2
7,000-7,999	3	18,000-18,999	1
8,000-8,999	2	19,000-19,999	0
9,000-9,999	0	20,000-20,999	1
10,000-10,999	2		

¹Education Directory, 1952-1953, Part 3, Higher Education
(Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1952).

APPENDIX V

SCHOOLS PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY GROUPED
ACCORDING TO CAMPUS ENROLLMENTGROUP A
19 schools
below 500 enrollment

Arizona State College--Flagstaff, Arizona
Ashland College--Ashland, Ohio
Bemidji State Teachers College--Bemidji, Minnesota
Bethel College--North Newton, Kansas
Black Hills Teachers College--Spearfish, South Dakota
College of St. Scholastica--Duluth, Minnesota
Friends University--Wichita, Kansas
Glenville State Teachers College--Glenville, West Virginia
Huron College--Huron, South Dakota
Illinois College--Jacksonville, Illinois
Nebraska State Teachers College--Chadron, Nebraska
Nebraska State Teachers College--Peru, Nebraska
Northwestern State College--Alva, Oklahoma
Parsons College--Fairfield, Iowa
Shepherd College--Shepherdstown, West Virginia
State Teachers College--Dickinson, North Dakota
State Teachers College--Valley City, North Dakota
State Teachers College--Winona, Minnesota
Wilmington College--Wilmington, Ohio

GROUP B
34 schools
500-999 enrollment

Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College--College Heights, Arkansas

Concord College--Athens, West Virginia

Concordia Teachers College--River Forest, Illinois

East Central State College--Ada, Oklahoma

Evansville College--Evansville, Indiana

Fairmont State College--Fairmont, West Virginia

Fort Hays Kansas State Teachers College--Hays, Kansas

Henderson State Teachers College--Arkadelphia, Arkansas

LaCrosse State College--La Crosse, Wisconsin

Lincoln University--Jefferson City, Missouri

Luther College--Decorah, Iowa

Manchester College--North Manchester, Indiana

Moorhead State Teachers College--Moorhead, Minnesota

Muskingum College--New Concord, Ohio

Nebraska State Teachers College--Wayne, Nebraska

New Mexico Highlands University--Las Vegas, New Mexico

New Mexico Western College--Silver City, New Mexico

Northeastern State College--Tahlequah, Oklahoma

Northern Baptist Theological Seminary--Chicago, Illinois

Northern State Teachers College--Aberdeen, South Dakota

Northwest Missouri State--Maryville, Missouri

Southwestern State College--Weatherford, Oklahoma

GROUP B
(continued)

State Teachers College--Kearney, Nebraska

State Teachers College--Minot, North Dakota

Western State College of Education--Gunnison, Colorado

West Liberty State College--West Liberty, West Virginia

West Virginia Wesleyan College--Buckhannon, West Virginia

Wisconsin State College--Eau Claire, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College--Oshkosh, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College--Platteville, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College--River Falls, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College--Stevens Point, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College--Superior, Wisconsin

Wisconsin State College--Whitewater, Wisconsin

GROUP C
43 schools
1,000-4,999 enrollment

Arizona State College of Tempe--Tempe, Arizona
Arkansas State College--State College, Arkansas
Arkansas State Teachers College--Conway, Arkansas
Ball State Teachers College--Muncie, Indiana
Bowling Green State University--Bowling Green, Ohio
Bradley University--Peoria, Illinois
Central Michigan College of Education--Mount Pleasant, Michigan
Central Missouri State College--Warrensburg, Missouri
Colorado State College of Education--Greeley, Colorado
Drake University--Des Moines, Iowa
Eastern Illinois State College--Charleston, Illinois
Illinois State Normal University--Normal, Illinois
Indiana State Teachers College--Terre Haute, Indiana
Iowa State Teachers College--Cedar Falls, Iowa
Kansas State College--Manhattan, Kansas
Kansas State Teachers College--Emporia, Kansas
Kansas State Teachers College--Pittsburg, Kansas
Mankato State Teachers College--Mankato, Minnesota
Marshall College--Huntington, West Virginia
Miami University--Oxford, Ohio
Michigan State Normal College--Ypsilanti, Michigan
New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts--State College, New Mexico

GROUP C
(continued)

Northeast Missouri State Teachers College--Kirksville, Missouri
Northern Illinois Teachers College--De Kalb, Illinois
Ohio University--Athens, Ohio
South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts--Brookings,
South Dakota
Southeastern State College--Durant, Oklahoma
Southeast Missouri State College--Cape Girardeau, Missouri
Southern Illinois University--Carbondale, Illinois
Southwest Missouri State College--Springfield, Missouri
State Teachers College--St. Cloud, Minnesota
University of Akron--Akron, Ohio
University of Arkansas--Fayetteville, Arkansas
University of Kansas City--Kansas City, Missouri
University of New Mexico--Albuquerque, New Mexico
University of North Dakota--Grand Forks, North Dakota
University of South Dakota--Vermillion, South Dakota
University of Wichita--Wichita, Kansas
University of Wyoming--Laramie, Wyoming
Western Illinois State College--Macomb, Illinois
Western Michigan College of Education--Kalamazoo, Michigan
West Virginia University--Morgantown, West Virginia
Wittenberg College--Springfield, Ohio

GROUP D
18 schools
5,000 or more enrollment

Iowa State College--Ames, Iowa
Kent State University--Kent, Ohio
Loyola University--Chicago, Illinois
Michigan State College--East Lansing, Michigan
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College--Stillwater, Oklahoma
Purdue University--La Fayette, Indiana
University of Arizona--Tucson, Arizona
University of Denver--Denver, Colorado
University of Illinois--Urbana, Illinois
University of Kansas--Lawrence, Kansas
University of Michigan--Ann Arbor, Michigan
University of Minnesota--Minneapolis, Minnesota
University of Missouri--Columbia, Missouri
University of Nebraska--Lincoln, Nebraska
University of Oklahoma--Norman, Oklahoma
University of Wisconsin--Madison, Wisconsin
Wayne University--Detroit, Michigan
Western Reserve University--Cleveland, Ohio

APPENDIX VI

TITLES OF PERSONS IN CHARGE OF OFF-CAMPUS CLASS
PROGRAMS OF THE 114 PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

GROUP A 19 schools below 500 enrollment	
	Number
Audio Visual Director.....	1
Co-ordinator of Student Personnel Services.....	1
Dean of College.....	3
Dean of Instruction.....	2
Director of Adult Classes.....	2
Director of Extension.....	5
Director of Extension and Field Services.....	1
President.....	1
Professor of Chemistry and Director of Extension.....	1
Registrar and Director of Extension.....	2
GROUP B 34 schools 500-999 enrollment	
Administrative Vice-President.....	1
Assistant Dean of College.....	1
Co-ordinator of Student Personnel Services.....	1
Dean of College.....	7
Dean of Extension.....	1
Dean of Instruction.....	1

GROUP B
(continued)

Director of Extension.....	8
Director of Extension and Field Services.....	1
Director of Extension and Public Relations.....	2
Director of Extension and Summer Session.....	1
Director of Field Services.....	2
Director of Placement and In-Service Education.....	1
Director of Public Information and Services.....	1
Director of Special Services.....	1
Director of Teacher Training.....	1
Extension Director and Head of Education Department.....	1
Registrar and Director of Extension.....	3

GROUP C
43 schools
1,000-4,999 enrollment

Administrative Vice-President.....	1
Assistant Dean of College.....	1
Dean of College.....	5
Dean of Extension.....	1
Dean of Science and Applied Arts.....	1
Director of Adult Classes.....	3
Director of Division of Extension and Summer Session.....	2
Director of Extension.....	16
Director of Extension and Adult Education.....	1

GROUP C
(continued)

Director of Extension and Field Services.....	2
Director of Extension and Public Relations.....	1
Director of Field Services.....	3
Director of Special Services.....	1
Extension Director and Head of Education Department.....	1
Head of Department of Extension Division.....	2
Registrar and Director of Extension.....	2

GROUP D
18 schools
5,000 or over enrollment

Acting Director of School and Community Services.....	2
Assistant Dean of College.....	1
Co-ordinator of Extension Services.....	2
Dean of College.....	1
Dean of Extension.....	1
Director of Division of College Extension.....	1
Director of Extension.....	3
Director of Extension and Adult Education.....	1
Director of Extension Classes and Centers.....	1
Director of Special Services.....	1
Director of University Extension Division.....	1
Extension Director and Head of Education Department.....	1
Head of Department of Vocational Education.....	1

GROUP D
(continued)

Supervisor of Extra-Mural Classes..... 1

ALL GROUPS

Acting Director of School and Community Services..... 2

Administrative Vice-President..... 2

Assistant Dean of College..... 3

Audio-Visual Director..... 1

Co-ordinator of Extension Services..... 2

Co-ordinator of Student Personnel Services..... 2

Dean of College.....16

Dean of Extension..... 3

Dean of Instruction..... 3

Dean of Science and Applied Arts..... 1

Director of Adult Classes..... 5

Director of Division of College Extension..... 1

Director of Division of Extension and Summer Session..... 2

Director of Extension.....32

Director of Extension and Adult Education..... 2

Director of Extension and Field Services..... 1

Director of Extension and Public Relations..... 3

Director of Extension and Summer Session..... 1

Director of Extension Classes and Centers..... 1

Director of Field Services..... 5

ALL GROUPS
(continued)

Director of Placement and In-Service Education.....	1
Director of Public Information and Services.....	1
Director of Special Services.....	3
Director of Teacher Training.....	1
Director of University Extension Division.....	1
Extension Director and Head of Education Department.....	3
Head of Department of Extension Division.....	2
Head of Department of Vocational Education.....	1
President.....	1
Professor of Chemistry and Director of Extension.....	1
Registrar and Director of Extension.....	7
Supervisor of Extra-Mural Classes.....	1