A HISTORY OF THE NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1986

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ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express her gratitude and sincere appreciation to her adviser, Dr. Harold J. Polk, for help and valuable suggestions during the study; to Dr. Melvin D. Miller, Dr. Jerry Davis, and Dr. Wilbur D. Johnson for their guidance and patient counsel in the development of this dissertation.

The writer is indebted to Betty Leslie for her typing services. The writer wishes to thank the various librarians who helped her find the documents and materials for this study.

Lastly, the writer wishes to thank her sister, Lillie, for her support, understanding, and patience.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A distinguishing feature of American education has been a commitment to a philosophy of full educational opportunity for the total society. In about 350 years, higher education in the United States has evolved from traditional systems transplanted from Europe to a system that is uniquely American and marked by diversity.

Through many adaptations, American institutions have attempted to make the curriculum of higher learning both flexible and functional in order to meet the needs of the citizenry. Following World War II, with the wave of veterans returning to the classroom, the concept of the university student began to change. In an effort to accommodate and meet the urgent needs of adult students who could not attend college on a full-time basis, new emphasis was given to established alternative and nontraditional programs such as correspondence, evening, extension, and other off-campus programs. In the late 1960s, a renewed interest in developing nontraditional delivery systems for adult students was generated, steming in part from the civil rights movement. The decade of the 1970s witnessed a marked increase in nontraditional academic offerings. This included a proliferation of nontraditional degree programs which are not centered on traditional patterns of residential study (Houle, 1977).

Though seemingly a new phenomenon, the nontraditional degree has

historical antecedents not only in this country but also in England. The American nontraditional degree program displays considerable variation in program and curricular content, but several basic tenets characterize most interesting programs: (a) individualized study with time- and space-free arrangements, (b) minimum residency requirements, (c) transfer of previous college course work, and (d) recognition of experiential learning.

During the decade following the emergence and implementation of the nontraditional degree programs, the concept of nontraditional education continued to stimulate discussion within academic circles. Such discussion encompassed the gamut of opinion ranging from unbridled enthusiasts who herald these programs as an educational panacea to opponents who view the programs as academically tainted maverick offerings. Between these two extremes are proponents who also view nontraditional degree programs as legitimate creative educational alternatives for adult students. This is a legitimate concern of both colleges and universities as well as students. According to Munzert (1976), alternatives to traditional higher education are long overdue, that learning takes place in many other ways and places, and that such learning should be given the formal recognition it deserves. It is, in fact, this dedication that is responsible for this dramatic new movement in American education. So in view of all the many opinions of nontraditional degrees, more information is needed to place nontraditional degrees in their proper place in higher education.

Statement of the Problem

No study has been found that traces the history of the development of the nontraditional degree in England and the United States. At present, administrators who desire to develop an understanding of the nontraditional degree must search through a mass of books and articles to derive the necessary background material upon which to base decisions. Though a considerable body of written material concerning the nontraditional degree exists, there is no single study that brings all the essential information together in an easily accessible form to help temper attitudes for and against such designs with logic.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to address the origins of the nontraditional degree, charting its course from its conception in England to its transplantation and growth across the Atlantic in the United States.

Need for the Study

It is important for administrators to have a history of the landmark nontraditional degree programs in England and the United States in one volume for study and comparison. It is also important to students who may be thinking of enrolling in one of these programs.

Limitations of the Study

This study does not attempt to trace the evolution of every nontraditional degree program in the United States and England. Sufficient

historical perspective can be gained in viewing certain major programs that may deserve description as nontraditional degree programs because of their development and growth have provided the impetus for other similar programs.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made for the purposes of this study. Two basic forms of criticism weighed the value of the data: external criticism determined if the document is authentic and internal criticism determined if the data inside the document is accurate and relevant. After making this critical analysis of the document and the data inside the document, it was assumed that these documents and data were accurate and authentic.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were developed to help clarify how these terms were used in this study.

Nontraditional Degree - Generally speaking, a nontraditional degree is one that is earned outside the walls of the traditional institution of higher learning.

External Degree - The external degree is one kind of nontraditional degree and it is earned mainly away from the main campus.

Extension Degree - The extension degree is one kind of nontraditional degree and it is earned mainly away from the main campus.

Correspondence Degree - The correspondence degree is one kind of nontraditional degree and it is earned mainly away from the main campus.

Continuing Education - Continuing education is evening or weekend classes to help students continue their education.

CAEL Assessment - The Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning is the guide to use in assessing life experiences, work experiences, and other nontraditional learning for academic credit.

Learning Contract - This is an agreement between the student and the faculty adviser stating the kind and amount of work needed for the degree.

External Criticism - Is the book or article genuine?

Criteria for Genuine - Is the document what it purports to be?

Internal Criticism - Is the data inside the document trustworthy?

Criteria for Trustworthy - Is it truthful? It is accurate?

Alternative Education - This is a term applied to any form of education that differs from the nontraditional on-campus structure and is widely used.

Prior Learning Credit - This is academic credit awarded for experiential learning that has been evaluated and validated by faculty as being the equivalent of college-level learning just as traditional schools give credit for Army service.

Colloquium - This means three weeks in residence with directed studies of a particular theme or topic.

Organization of Study

The present research has six chapters. Chapter I is the introduction, which has a statement of the problem, purpose of the study, need for the study, limitations of the study, assumptions, definition of terms, and the organization of the study. Chapter II contains the

review of the related literature. Chapter III deals with methodology. Chapter IV gives the history of nontraditional degrees in England. Chapter V gives the history of nontraditional degrees in the United States, and Chapter VI gives the summary, conclusions, and recommendations found from the research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Since the nontraditional degree is a relative newcomer to the scene of American higher education, published studies have only recently begun to emerge. The research venture of this writer was to examine the historical development of the nontraditional degree in the United States and England, and it was determined that such a study should be preceeded by a review of related literature encompassing the origins, concepts, and the philosophy of the nontraditional degree. A historical context thus could provide a point of departure for the specific concerns of the study.

The initial part of this chapter provides an overview of the history, rationale, and design of the nontraditional degree and its delivery systems. Both direct and indirect aspects of the nontraditional degree will be reviewed in the last part of the chapter.

Origins

Houle (1977) traced the origin of the nontraditional degree to the 16th century when, in 1534, the Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Aranmer, was given authority by the English parliament to confer academic degrees to individuals who had not necessarily received collegial instruction. In the traditional universities of Oxford and Cambridge, the students received instruction in the individual colleges and were

examined and awarded degrees by the larger university. These traditions of separation of instruction and degree awarding had been institutionalized in the British educational system by the middle 1800s; from them grew, according to Houle (1977).

> A faith in external generalized examinations--as used for testing applicants to colleges for admission to the civil service and for addressing the relative accomplishment of schools by measuring the knowledge of their students--forecast the concern for evaluation and assessment which was to occur in the United States over a hundred years later (p. 10).

Until the mid-19th century, higher education was highly elitest in England, and only a small minority of the population had the means to enter the universities. Later, the University of London, the Council for Academic Awards, and the Open University were designed to provide access to higher education for a much broader spectrum of students.

The University of London

The University of London, established in 1836 by royal charter, initially did not perform any teaching functions but was a testing body which conferred degrees to all who passes prescribed examinations. Today, the University of London is a complex system extending throughout the United Kingdom and offers several degrees and a broad curriculum through which students can study internally at a wide range of affiliated colleges or externally through private independent study.

The Council for National Academic Awards

The Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA), a degree-awarding governmental body, was established in 1964. The CNAA approves curricula offered by teaching institutions that have not been elevated to

university status and that lack the authority to grant their own degrees. The CNAA does not examine but instead confers degrees by provision of the examinations administered by the approved colleges. Several degrees at the undergraduate and graduate levels can be obtained in a variety of programs including the arts, humanities, social sciences, and science and technology.

The Open University

The most daring and innovative government-established institution of higher learning was the Open University. These colleges without walls with external degree programs were discussed later by Brubacher (1976). The Open University was the brain-child of the Labour party. It was chartered in 1969 and was designed specifically to serve the adult population of Great Britain. The university operates through a sophisticated network of telecommunications libraries, correspondence instruction, and counseling and instructions located throughout the country. Through independent study at home and brief residential summer sessions at the various centers, students can earn an undergraduate degree in approximately six years. Houle (1973) studies the historical roots of the degree and why it would become prominent in the future.

These three institutions are significant for several reasons. Their development, support, and acceptance have provided alternatives to what historically has been a rigid and narrowly defined system of higher education. Thousands of students, who otherwise would not have had the opportunity to know higher learning, have been provided with access to college degrees. In addition, the programs and their

inherent philosophies have served as the impetus and models for similar programs in other countries, including the United States.

Studies on Nontraditional Programs

In a study by Driscoll (1971), the conclusion was drawn that higher education should be accessible to all who could benefit from it even if it meant nontraditional methods. These nontraditional methods were listed as ways to obtain nontraditional degrees.

Perlman (1975) attributed this willingness to re-examine extant programs and practices to the results of the civil rights movement, student activism, concern for the isolated and minorities, experimental "free universities", and the financial crisis faced by higher education in the latter part of the decade. Houle (1977) and Cross (1971) discussed the increased attention and interest in the potential clientele of a vast underserved adult population whose employment and family responsibilities precluded enrollment in full-time traditional programs.

Perlman (1975) stated that, by 1970, there was a "ground swell of feeling toward the widening of educational opportunities by means of alternative delivery systems, including the establishment of nontraditional degree programs of various types" (p. 322) and this receptivity was due not only to societal forces but also to the examination of the British models and a decrease in academic opposition to innovative alternatives. A speech made in October, 1970 by Pifer (1971), President of the Carnegie Corporation, at the annual meeting of the College Entrance Examination Board, declared that the time was optimum for the development of nontraditional programs through which students could

earn college degrees. Valentine (1972) cited this speech as being the catalyst for the implementation of American nontraditional degree programs.

Three Important Commissions

Three important commissions in the early 1970s studied the conditions of higher education in the United States and made a number of recommendations for greater flexibility through curricular and administrative change in the nation's institutions. Each of the commissions embraced the concept of lifelong learning and emphasized the need for nontraditional programs of study for adults. Newman (1973), chairman of two special task forces for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, stated in one of the Newman reports:

> A more rational relationship between education and careers can come about if realistic opportunities exist for students in formal education on a recurrent basis throughout life. . . . this would allow the starting of a career without the feeling that one has lost one's only opportunity to insure social mobility through education, would allow an initial career choice without the fear that one has made an irrevocable life commitment and would also allow a weighing of the value of varying types of education (p. 55).

In his review and analysis of the findings and reports of another national study, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Mayhew (1973) observed:

> An essential ingredient of a revised degree structure would be the creation of many opportunities for persons to reenter higher education at any point in life and to receive academic credit for life experiences. These opportunities for reentry should also be facilitated through flexible use of credit by examinations, televised courses, correspondence courses, and independent study (p. 15).

Houle (1977) recognized the nontraditional degree as a broadening

educational need of a democratic society and a significant movement in adult education as a part of higher education. According to Darkenwald and Merriam (1982), historical, scholarly research has touched on only a few of the important questions that must be explored if one is to understand better the development of American adult education.

According to Bear (1976), for over 100 years, London University (London, England) was the world's only accredited, totally respectible source of degrees by mail. The University's nontraditional degree program was initially set up to award degrees to English men and women living abroad, who were unable to study at the University. The degrees, however, were equally available to non-British citizens. London University now offers Master's and Doctor's nontraditional degrees, also.

The basic belief that American education should be disseminated broadly has progressively gained support since colonial times (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976). Further diversification of the delivery systems of higher education continued to evolve in the next century with the establishment of the land-grant colleges, the advent of co-education, the Chautaugua movement, the Harvard elective system, the implementation of the junior college concept, and the initiation of correspondence and extension courses at the University of Wisconsin (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976).

In 1947, President Truman's Commission on Higher Education reported that nearly one-half of the American population had the intellectual ability to complete at least 14 years of schooling and that higher education should be accessible to all who could benefit from it (Driscoll, 1971). During the next two decades, the number of part-time students began to increase, and in addition, many colleges began

to recognize and adopt, to some extent, alternative approaches to credit assessment. Houle (1977) described some of these practices as life experience, work experience, and specialized content. Houle stated that nontraditional degree programs came in generations. His first generation was the extension degree, and a second generation was the adult education degree. His third generation was the assessment degree.

At the core of this dramatic new movement is the idea that what one knows is vastly more important than how it was learned. It is not necessary for one to sit in a traditional classroom setting to absorb knowledge. As Knowles (1983), noted adult education educator and writer, stated in one of the writer's classes, "Someday, the dormitories will be used like weekend hotels and students will drive to the university for a tank of knowledge" (p. 25). Bear (1976) described the ideal educational system as a library where you go when you want something it has to offer; no one checks your credentials at the door; you leave when you have gotten what you wanted; and it is you, and not the librarian, who decides if it has been a worthwhile experience.

Munzert (1976) stated that the nontraditional degree program symbolizes the type of enlightened approach to education that the entire society has needed for so long. Young people will continue to enroll in the traditional structure in record numbers. However, the nontraditional degree program opens up degree possibilities for an estimated 23,000,000 adults in the country now eligible to participate in these programs. Housewives, veterans, businessmen, technical workers, dropouts, and many others may try to get the degree they want.

Follow-up studies of nontraditional degree graduates are just now beginning to emerge in the published literature. Bertinot and Maehl (1980) conducted a follow-up study of some graduates who had received bachelor's degrees through the College of Liberal Studies at the University of Oklahoma. This was mainly a personal profile study. As reported by Losty (1978), the results of such studies conclude that success, work effectiveness, and impact on life were all favorable.

A study was conducted at Britain's Open University where Craig (1980) found that it was an open admissions university that did not compromise academic standards. Questions were raised about the quality of some doctoral programs in nontraditional colleges. Ashworth (1978) found no evidence to support this doubt.

Two Major Problems

Two major problems with nontraditional degree programs were found by Furness (1971). These two problems were accreditation and residence requirements.

A most significant nationwide study by Granat (1975) found that regional accrediting associations of higher education often leave nontraditional programs free of any significant regulation. This study analyzed statutes to determine what states are doing to regulate nontraditional programs. It was found that there was very little uniformity in response to this problem.

Koch (1981) concluded that the results of her study showed that students were attracted to the Open University due to its flexibility of scheduling courses, independence in learning permitted by its method of instruction, employment reasons, and family reasons. The use of

television and radio broadcasts were definitely the most significant factor for students selecting a nontraditional form of study.

A study that found it was critical for higher education to try and attract previously ignored adult learners due to declining enrollments of 18 to 22 year old students was conducted by DePuydt (1981). To effectively compete, colleges must retool their administrative and academic frameworks to accommodate nontraditional students.

With the exceptions of Central Michigan University and the University of Northern Colorado, graduate students are rarely afforded credit for prior learning, according to Somers (1979). Both the American Council on Education and the Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning support experiential learning in the graduate sector.

A survey of 3,000 men and women by questionnaire and 1,486 degree holders indicated that the nontraditional degree had a great deal of usefulness. Sharp (1978) concluded that over half of them were admitted to more advanced education, the degree yielded sizeable benefits, and the older respondents had a personal satisfaction of being a graduate.

Two hundred and twenty graduate deans have negative attitudes attitudes for nontraditional graduate degrees but their posture regarding nontraditional degree programs was not exceedingly negative. according to Haenni (1981). The deans were from traditional schools.

Nyquist (1973) then President of the innovative University of the State of New York believed that if attendance at a traditional college is the only road to the credentials needed for a good job and high pay, such inequity should not be tolerated.

Credit for Experiences

Another recent development in accredited graduate nontraditional degree programs is to give academic credit to students for life experiences and work experiences. The life experience and work experience have to be documented and related to the study plan. There are guidelines to measure these life and work experiences. A very famous method of assessing these is the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning by Aubrey Forrest. The Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning has established some criteria or guidelines for assessing prior learning. The executive director is Dr. Morris Keeton. It is an educational association of 250 institutions of higher education. It was chartered by the Regents of the State of New York in September of 1976 for the purpose of fostering experiential learning and valid and reliable assessment of its outcomes. Houle (1977) is a member of the steering committee. An understanding of the ways colleges determine credit can help the adult returning to college to know what to expect, prepare for assessment, and select a school that offers the types of assessment he is seeking.

From the studies indicated in this research, it is easy to understand that most research has been completed on the merits for or against the nontraditional degree. Most of this was also completed in the United States. It is time the history of the degree was traced, as proposed in this study, to put the whole idea of nontraditional degrees in proper perspective in both England and the United States.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses (1) the definition and explanation of historical research, (2) the purpose of historical research, (3) the kinds of sources of information, (4) the kinds of criticism used to evaluate and analyze the information, and (5) where the information was found for the study.

Historical Method of Research

Historical research reconstructs the past objectively and accurately, often in relation to data observed by others rather than by the investigator. It denotes any effort to recount any aspect of the past life of mankind. The possible field of historical research and writing is as broad as life itself. Historical research is based upon reports of observations which cannot be repeated, although similar events may occur. Historical research is rigorous, systematic, and exhaustive. While historical research is similar to the reviews of the literature which precede other forms of research, the historical approach is more exhaustive, seeking out information from a larger array of sources. It also tracks down information that is much older than required by most reviews and hunts for unpublished material not cited in the standard references. Historical research on the nontraditional degree required that political, economic, and educational matters be examined

in both England and the United States. Accordingly, these three factors were taken into account in formulating a complete description of the origins of the nontraditional degree. When valid generalizations were developed about the nontraditional degree, it proved to be similar to putting a jigsaw puzzle together while using investigative methodology to find the pieces. There was general agreement among authors of books on the historical method of research.

Purpose of Historical Research

The purpose of historical research is to reconstruct the past systematically and objectively by collecting, evaluating, verifying, and synthesizing evidence to establish facts and reach defensible conclusions without getting outside the realms of historical research. Good data which results from painstaking detective work will analyze the authenticity, accuracy, and significance of source material. Issac (1983) stated that contrary to popular notions, historical research must be rigorous, systematic, and exhaustive. Good (1941) stated the purpose of the educational historian as that of producing a faithful record of the past and using the data to form fruitful generalizations from past experiences that may act as controls for behavior in the present or future. These experiences of the past may help in the solution of present day problems. Unfortunately, this functional character of historical research is frequently overlooked. A knowledge of the history of schools and other educational agencies is an important part of the professional training of the teacher or the administrator. The history of education enables the educational worker to detect fads and frills and it serves as a necessary preliminary to educational reform.

Primary and Secondary Sources of Information

Historical research depends upon two kinds of data: primary sources where the author was a direct observer of the recorded event, and secondary sources where the author reported the observations of others and is one or more times removed from the original event. Of the two, primary sources carry the authority of firsthand evidence and have priority over secondary sources in data collection. Vincent (1911) divided historical materials into consciously transmitted information, relics or unconscious testimony, and inscriptions, monuments, and public documents of certain types. However, even in difficult cases, it is essential to classify historical materials in terms of conscious intent to leave recorded information or of unconscious testimony in the form of relics or remains.

Probably the most useful and pertinent classification of historical sources in education are documents and relics or remains (Good, 1935). Primary sources are the only solid bases of historical research. Primary sources are the original documents or remains and the first witnesses to a fact. However, in one instance a source may be primary and in another secondary.

Originally, textbooks in the history of education are secondary sources, usually many times removed from the original event, but for the worker who wishes to study the organization used by writers in this field these books become primary. It is necessary in some historical studies to begin with secondary sources and to work back to the primary sources when the latter are not known in the beginning.

Historical research involves more intensive bibliographical work and library usage than the experimental or survey types of research.

It is most important that the researcher assemble full bibliographical information in his note system to facilitate proper documentation. The procedure of note-taking, the compilation of the bibliography, the study of subject-matter, and note-taking may well progress simultaneously throughout the course of the investigation.

Kinds of Criticisms

The historian subjects his sources to external and internal criticism. External criticism is concerned with the genuineness of the document itself, whether it really is what it purports or seems to be and whether it reads true to the original. Internal criticism deals with the meaning and trustworthiness of statements that remain within the document after any spurious matter has been removed from the text. External criticism is sometimes called lower criticism since it only provides the data to be used in the higher form of internal criticism. External criticism deals with data relating to form and appearance. Internal criticism weighs the testimony of the document in relation to the truth. The author's motive for writing the document should be examined. Both positive and negative criticism are necessary in historical research. Did the author distort the facts in any way? Was he biased or ill when he wrote it? What were the limitations of the author which might cause him to exaggerate? Was information overlooked? If so, why? This critical evaluation of the data is what makes true historical research so rigorous--in many ways, more demanding than experimental methods.

Validity

In historical research, content validity is demonstrated by showing how well the content samples the subject matter about which conclusions are to be drawn. The documents and famous witnesses were evidence of the validity of the content use. Also, both pro and con viewpoints were presented.

In judging which documents to use, the writer did some of the preliminary judging. She has a Master of Arts degree in history, taught history for many years, wrote a Master's thesis in history, and took seminar and research courses in methods of historical research. Most of these documents were selected because of experts in English history writing were J. D. Mackie, William Stubbs, John Adamson, H. C. Bernard, K. Goldstein, Michael Lane, Douglas Logan, W. H. Armytage, and Peter Smith. Some of the major experts in America who made judgments concerning documents were the following: Kathryn Cross, who wrote books and taught about adult education and nontraditional degree programs; Cyril O. Houle, who wrote books and taught about adult education and nontraditional degree programs; Malcolm Knowles, who wrote books and spoke about androgogy and self-directed learning; L. B. Mayhew, chairman of Carnegie Commission on Higher Education; Samuel B. Gould, Chairman of Nontraditional Study Commission; Frank Newman, Chairman on United States Government Commission on Alternative Education; Alan Pifer, President of Carnegie Corporation; John Summerskill, Director of the Office of External Degree Plans; Ewald Nyquist, Commissioner of Education for the State of New York; Alvin Lerheimer, Assistant Commissioner of Education for the State of New York; Ralph Dungan, New Jersey State

Chancellor of Higher Education; Earnest Boyer, Chancellor of Board of Trustees of SUNY; Edward Moore, writer on nontraditional programs in New York; R. T. Hartrell, writer on nontraditional degree programs at the Educational Testing Service; and David Sweet, President and founder of the Minnesota Metropolitan State College.

It is not suggested anywhere in this study that all of the writers were for nontraditional degree programs. Two authors who wrote about the pros and cons of the nontraditional degrees were Houle (1977) and Cross (1974). Both of them wrote of the many different viewpoints of educators and other interested people concerning nontraditional degree programs.

Major documents concerning nontraditional degrees were Statute 25, Privy Seal which is the royal accrediting council, Reform Act of 1832, Parliament papers, Royal Commission Report, Supplemental Charter of 1849, University of London Act of 1898, Royal Commission Act of 1888, London Act of 1898; Royal Commission Act of 1909, University of London Act of 1926, White Paper Act of 1966, Robbins Committee Report, and the Crown Committee Report of 1961.

Important persons who witnessed these famous documents were, Archbishop of Canterbury, Archbishop Lambeth, Gastrell, Bishop of Chester, Archbishop Crammer, famous poet Thomas Campbell, Dr. D. Oyly, a distinguished Cambridge man, Rector Lambeth, Sir Robert Peel, Duke of Wellington, Archbishop of York, Members of Parliament, Lord Selbourne, Lord Haldane, Lord Robbins, Sir Peter Venables, Sir Godfrey Agnew, Lord Prather, Sir Walter Perry, Lord Hailsham, Harold Wilson, and Margaret Thatcher.

Main Sources of Information

The main libraries where the writer got her information were: Oklahoma State University, Oklahoma University, Tulsa University, Northeastern University, and the City-County Library of Tulsa. Some other sources of inforamtion were inter-library loans, national and international search organizations, bulletins, and catalogs from colleges and universities, and related studies and literature.

Today the nontraditional degree exists, surrounded by controversy; however, in view of its origins and conceptions, this is to be expected. In the following chapters, these origins and conceptions will be related and examined.

CHAPTER IV

A HISTORY OF THE NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE IN ENGLAND

The nontraditional degree in England originated with Henry VIII and the Archbishop of Canterbury in 1534 (Machie, 1966). The study of this degree actually began in 1501.

During its spring and winter sessions in 1534 Parliament took several actions separating England from the Roman Catholic Church, declaring Henry head of the Church of England and granting him many of the powers formerly held by the Pope. One of the acts passed at this time was Statute 25 Henry VIII.c.21 which invested the Archbishop of Canterbury with the power to grant all manner such licenses, dispensations, compositions, facilities, grants, receipts, delegacies, et. cetera, as heretofore had been accustomed to be had and obtained from Rome. The power to grant the nontraditional degree was not specified in this transfer of authority, but it was understood to be included in the term facilities (Stubbs, 1864).

The archbishops exercised the right to confer degrees without objective until the reign of George I, at which time this authority was disputed and made the subject of a lawsuit. The hearing occupied 15 hours without resolving the issue in 1722. It was then carried by appeal before the King's Bench and there on May 22, 1725 the Archbishop of Canterbury's right to award academic degrees was upheld (Stubbs, 1864).

Higher education in England was dominated by clerical rule throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, with Oxford and Cambridge forming the basis of theological education in England (Burns, 1971). However, during the nineteenth century clerical rule was confronted by the growing power of the non-conformists who had been excluded from the universities. The movement to create a university in London on the model of the professional non-collegial universities of Scotland and Germany took shape in the activities of some Whigs and Radicals.

University of London

The idea of establishing a university in London originated in the 1920s with the poet Thomas Campbell, who was at that time editor of the literary publication, The New Monthly Magazine. A graduate of Glasgow and an interested observer of the new universities of Berlin and Bonn, Campbell publicly stated his scheme as early as 1824 (Adamson, 1964). In The Times of February 9, 1825 Campbell addressed a letter to Henry Brougham pleading for the establishment of a "great London University" (Bernard, 1961). As a result of the letter, the interested parties called a meeting which "delegates of almost all the dissenting bodies in London attended" (p. 10). The meeting resulted in the formation of a provisional committee to study the possibility of founding an institution of higher learning in London (Adamson, 1964).

Among its actions and proposals the provisional committee voted to omit religion from the list of proposed studies to be offered by the new university. By so doing it set a precedent for the complete secularization of all English institutions of higher education which was publicly established during the nineteenth century (Adamson, 1964).

In 1826 a joint stock company was formed to finance the venture of establishing a university in London. Finally in October 1828 the doors of the University of London opened on Grover Street. The first students followed a curriculum which included,

> languages, mathematics, physics, the mental and moral sciences, together with the laws of England, history and political economy and various branches of knowledge which are the objects of a liberal education (Adamson, 1964, p. 20).

The University of London was to be a nondenominational teaching institution where theology would be excluded from the curriculum.

The institution was a success due to three major factors: first, the annual fees were low; second, the university was nonresidential; third, many courses not taught at Oxford and Cambridge could readily be obtained at the University of London (Barnard, 1961).

Important individuals in government and the Church of England viewed the new London University as a stumbling block. They saw it as an attempt to destroy the Church of England. It was therefore felt that a counterbalancing effort must be attempted. Dr. D'Oyly, a distinguished Cambridge man and at one time Rector of Lambeth, became the force behind the counter-movement. At a meeting on June 21, 1828 officials such as Sir Robert Peel, the Duke of Wellington (who was then Prime Minister), and the Archbishops of Canterbury and York concluded:

> . . . that a college for general education be founded in the metropolic; in which, while the various branches of literature and science are made the subject of instruction, it shall be an essential part of the system to imbue the minds of youth with a knowledge of the doctrine and duties of Christianity as inculcated by the United Catholic Church of England and Ireland (Adamson, 1964, p. 9).

It was further resolved to ask King William IV to become the patron

of such a college and to permit it to be entitled "King's College, London (Adamson, 1964).

Meanwhile, the so-called "University of London" was a university in name only, for it had not yet been chartered. During this period, as today, English educational tradition separated instruction and certification. The University of London did apply to the Crown for a charter of incorporation and the draft passed the Privy Seal, the Royal accrediting council, in February, 1831. However, it was not until March, 1835 that the charter passed the office of the Home Secretary. The delay can be directly attributed to the pressures brought to bear on the government from Oxford and Cambridge in coordination with the clergy (Adamson, 1964). Action occurred only then, due to the passage of the Reform Act of 1832 which reorganized Parliament increasing middle class representation in the House of Commons and shifting the power base away from the House of Lords (Logan, 1955).

Opposition to the University of London continued, yet waned, when on November 28, 1826 two charters of incorporation took effect. Parliament, at this time, incorporated the University of London on Grover Street as strictly a teaching institution as it had the King's College. An entirely new body, the University of London, would confer degrees upon individuals educated at King's College and at University College, the former University of London on Grover Street (Adamson, 1964). Degrees initially conferred included the Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Law, Doctor of Law, Bachelor of Medicine, and Doctor of Medicine.

With its new charter the University of London shared with the Archbishop of Canterbury the authority to grant nontraditional degrees.

In contrast to traditional established universities, neither the Archbishop nor the new University of London offered any formalized instruction. Instead both, at one time or another, relied upon the examination model developed at Oxford and Cambridge. The difference between the established universities and the nontraditional degrees of the Archbishop and the University of London became the emphasis that the latter placed on testing for knowledge gained outside of the academic arena. Thus, the stage was set for additional nontraditional degree programs, first in England and eventually in the United States (Adamson, 1964).

Arguments over the existence of the University of London continued throughout the 1840s and 1850s. Educators took sides, with opposition coming mainly from the halls of Oxford and Cambridge. The Royal Commission Report of 1864, also known as the Oxford Report, condemned the idea of the University of London's nontraditional degree. The report stated that recipients of Oxford degrees have "undergone the training which cannot be received without residence" (Adamson, 1964, p. 33).

Despite academic opposition, the University of London continued to grow. Public pressure brought about the Supplemental Charter of 1849 which made it possible for an institution situated anywhere in the British Empire or in the territories under the government of the East India Company to be recognized by the Privy Council for the purpose of submitting students to the University of London for testing and certification. The Privy Council used this power with such lack of discrimination that the Charter of 1858 quietly dispensed with the requirements of attendance at an approved institution and therefore

the University of London accepted all males who presented themselves for examination, provided, of course, that they passed the matriculation examination and paid their fees (Logan, 1955).

From its inception the founders of the University of London saw it as open exclusively to the male population of Great Britain. However, in 1862 Elizabeth Garrett applied for admission to the matriculation examination. The Senate informed her that their charter did not permit them to comply with her request and that nothing less than a supplemental charter could open London's examinations to women (Adamson, 1964). Therefore, the steps were taken to secure the necessary powers. The Crown issued a supplemental charter in 1868, part of which instituted a general examination for women, the requirements for which were almost identical with those for male matriculation. London held the first examination for women in May, 1869 and in the following year University College opened its classes to women. In 1877 the Council of King's College established classes in Kensington with the purpose of providing women with university instruction. Over time other colleges in Great Britain followed the lead of the University of London. Meanwhile, in 1878, that institution attained the power to admit women to all its examinations and to confer degrees upon them.

During this period of time strong support developed for the foundation, within the University of London, of a teaching institution. In addition there was mounting public criticism of the fact that the faculty of the colleges which submitted students for University of London degrees were permitted no participation in drawing up syllabi or setting examination papers. As a result, the Royal Commission of

1888 was appointed with Lord Selbourne as Chairman (Barnard, 1961). The Commission endorsed the proposition that the university should become a teaching as well as an examination institution, but left the details undecided.

A second commission proposed a plan in 1894 that appeared in the University of London Act of 1898. This act provided that the University should continue the examining of nontraditional students who had received their instruction elsewhere or had pursued their studies privately. Such scholars were not to be deprived of their opportunity to sit for the examinations of the University of London.

The reconstruction of the University of London as a teaching as well as an examining body was a necessary step in its development, yet it resulted in a complicated organization of heterogeneous institutions and created great difficulties in the administration of the entire system. For example, if any irregularity appeared to exist within a member school, the only real sanction at London's disposal was to withdraw recognition--a sanction which was in most instances no more appropriate than using a sledge hammer to crack a nut (Logan, 1955). Such difficulties in administration were worked out in successive stages between the establishment of a Royal Commission in 1909 and the passing of a University of London Act in 1926 which included the present day constitution of the University of London.

An additional key problem was that of finance. Member schools were independent of financial control or support of the University of London. The new constitution of 1926 brought the constituent colleges and university departments into one district and organized them around the central buildings of the University (Barnard, 1961).

The University of London remained basically unchanged through the decades following the implementation of the new constitution in 1926. Admission continued to be contingent, as a matter of policy, on passing the matriculation examination. However, during the 1930s and 1940s the University of London awarded exemptions from the examination based on the results of the School Certificate Examination and/or the High School Certificate Examination. Finally, in 1950 the Ministry of Education abolished the two examinations in favor of the Examination of the General Certification of Education, which could be taken by any candidate, whether attending a secondary school or not. As a result, the University of London discontinued its matriculation examination in favor of the General Certification Examination.

The abandonment of the London Matriculation Examination was only one sign of other changes occurring through British society. During the post World War II era the government identified the increased need for scientists and technologists as being a national priority (Lane, 1975). The Percy Report suggested that new academic structures be devised to meet manpower needs for scientists and technologists and that, at the same time, existing institutions be upgraded.

As international comparisons continued to show England lagging in the production of educated technologists, the government took a second step. That same year, 1955, it decided that universities should no longer be entrusted with the sole responsibility of higher education.

With renewed public interest in higher education, the Crown organized in 1961 a committee to inquire into institutions of advanced learning. After voluminous evidence was collected the committee issued its report in 1963. The report set the principle that higher

education should be expanded to provide places for all students qualified to enter, thus marking a milestone in English higher educational planning (The Report of the Committee on Higher Education in the United Kingdom, 1963).

A new governing Council was formed in 1974. It is composed of 25 members in addition to a chairman. The Council has final responsibility for approving new degree courses and for the conferral of the appropriate degrees. While they refuse to prescribe to colleges what they should teach, they exercise a strong advisory role and provide a forum for curriculum development (Lane, 1975).

The Council for National Academic Awards (SNAA) is the evolutionary successor of the University of London. Though the University of London is not going out of the nontraditional degree business, at least for now, the CNAA shares many of the responsibilities for educating England's population. The CNAA does no teaching; rather, it awards degrees upon examination and accumulation of college credit earned, a situation similar to that used at the University of London prior to 1898 (Lane, 1975).

By 1978 the process of replacing nontraditional University of London courses with those of the CNAA was nearly complete. The Ministry of Education hopes that, like the London degree awarding arrangement of the past, this replacement of a nontraditional examination will demonstrate the advantage of flexibility and innovation while removing possible unfairness or arbitrariness inherent in the internal degree structure (Lane, 1975).

From 1954 to 1969 full-time enrollment in higher education in England increased fast. This was only one segment of a movement of

mass public higher education in England. Possibly, the most significant aspect of the movement was another governmental creation, the Open University (Burns, 1971).

The Open University

The Robbins Report issued in 1963 recommended that it would be necessary to double the available university space within the decade to meet the need for college trained individuals within the society (Smith, 1972). The idea of an Open University of the air caught fire as a campaign issue for the Labour Party in 1964. Wilson used it as a symbol of what a new government would offer against "Prime Minister Harold MacMillan's Tory Edwardian manners." After Wilson's election as Prime Minister, the formation of a program for such a university was begun which would be open to the public (Lumsden and Ritchie, 1974).

In 1967 the Secretary of State for Education and Science appointed a planning committee and charged it with the responsibility to work out a comprehensive plan for an Open University. A general degree was proposed for this new university. The degree would be nontraditional and courses would employ correspondence material as the basis of study and instruction, supplemented by television and radio. The progress of students would be monitored by a program of continuous assessment as differentiated from the single final examination system typical of traditional institutions (The Open University Report on the Planning Committee to the Secretary of State for Education and Science, 1969).

The plan gained government approval and on July 23, 1969 a charter was presented to the Open University. However, it was not until January 3, 1971 at 11:30 p.m. that the Open University became a

functional reality. It became an independent university working in close cooperation with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), utilizing an approach to higher education that had never before been tried in so comprehensive form. The government planned to serve young people after they finished a secondary school. To the contrary, the Labour Party specifically intended the Open University for adults, particularly those employed full-time (Goldstein, 1969). This emphasis on adult education represented by the Open University comes in part from the Labour Party's historical support of that concept, but also because a program solely for adults would lessen the threat to the child-and-youth serving educational establishment and would also keep the new institution from being flooded with rejects from the old ones (Houle, 1973). In keeping with this purpose the Open University made a strong effort to reach working class people over the age of 21, both men and women, for whom it might serve as a second chance for earlier missed opportunities. World War II had cut short many an education, a situation the Open University hoped to remedy. It would accept students under 21 only if there were reasons, such as physical disability or domestic circumstances, which might make it impossible for them to attend a conventional institution of higher education.

Though in 1969 the Open University possessed a charter and by-laws, it still had no permanent buildings. The Department of Education and Science had provided the Planning Committee with accommodations at 38 Belgraves Square, S.W.I. and after receiving its charter the university continued to rent that space, making this the Open University's first home.

The location of a permanent headquarters for the Open University

still had to be found. After the university examined a number of sites in March, 1969 it selected Walton Hall, a Georgian manor house on 70 acres of ground about four miles from Bletchly in North Buckinghamshire. Although the Walton area was entirely agricultural, it lay within a district designated for the new city of Milton Keynes which was planned to accommodate a projected population of 250,000 people.

The choice of the location of the Open University of Milton Keynes was, of necessity, strongly influenced by the decision that radio and television programs would be produced at the Alexander Palace Studios in central London for which the BBC would renew the lease on behalf of the university. This meant that the new headquarters would be only a short train ride from the capital.

By December, 1970 the new campus housed a total of 142 staff members encompassing 12 regional districts, one each in London, Oxford, Bristol, Birmingham, Nottingham, Cambridge, Leeds, Manchester, Cardiff, Edenburgh, and at the headquarters in Milton Keynes. A director administered each region, with the aid of an assistant director, except in Manchester where two assistant directors were required.

Areas of Study

The areas of study offered within each region covered six academic fields. Initially there were art, science, mathematics, and social studies. In 1972 educational studies and technology were added. It is important to point out that the British definition of a course indicates a program of study leading to a degree, not a single unit of study as in the United States.

Full responsibility for course material is vested in teams of

academicians, and they alone control the content of any given course. British Broadcasting representatives serve on all course teams for the purpose of advising what can and cannot be done effectively on radio and television. This pattern is in contrast with the traditional one in which the individual instructor has a considerable amount of autonomy in developing course content. All course ideas must be debated and criticized by educational technologists and specialists from the same as well as from allied disciplines (Smith, 1972).

In addition to the media, interaction by mail between faculty and students is also used as ameans of instruction. At regular intervals students receive specially written correspondence lessons which may include slides, films, pictures, records, and home experiment kits. Each course has its assigned and recommended readings. Local libraries are encouraged to acquire books and other documents for the use of Open University students.

At regular intervals class teaching is held at study centers, located throughout the 12 regional areas on conventional university campuses. In addition, a required one-week summer school provides further opportunity for face-to-face critical analysis of course content. The regional staff is responsible for setting up study centers and appointing staff tutors. They are encouraged to utilize teaching methods that will develop independent and critical study habits. Staff tutors, appointed for full-time duty supervise and coordinate the part-time tutors.

A comprehensive study guide mailed to each student provides practical advice and hints, find a place to study as far from distraction as possible, always try to study in the same place, and let it be

known that during study sessions you cannot be interrupted.

As noted earlier, students are expected, on the average, to spend 10 hours per week in study. Thus, motivation and self-discipline became major ingredients in student success. Learning problems, therefore, must be reported immediately by the individual instructors or tutors to the Institute of Educational Technology, and be systematically investigated.

The Institute of Educational Technology, a research and support division of the Open University, assists in the development of courses, observes and evaluates the six foundation courses, analyzes the aims and objectives of all courses, conducts allied research, appraises the effectiveness of teaching methods, prepares tutorial and counseling experiences, prepares evaluation measurements, and undertakes longitudinal studies of the academic progress of the first intake students. This helps students to be successful (Read, 1972).

One-week summer sessions are designed to integrate students into the academic community. Each student is required to attend one of these sessions annually. These summer sessions are held on conventional university campuses and also at Walton Hall near Milton Keynes. The courses discussed are restricted to the foundation series.

The successful completion of a 34 unit course entitles a student to one "credit", six of which are required for a degree and eight for an honours degree. Credit is awarded on the basis of performance in the tutor-graded and computer-graded assignments, the summer school, and a final examination. In its practice of awarding credits and in adopting continuous assessments as opposed to the more usual practice of judging students by performance on a single examination at year's

end, the Open University is unique among higher institutions in England.

The credit system allows individuals to be exempt from sections of a course when such exemptions are justified by earlier work. Late in 1969 the Senate and Council agreed to the broad outlines of a credit exemption policy which drew a distinction between general and specific credit exemptions. General credit exemption is defined as the awarding of advanced standing; that is, the admission of persons directly into the second year of study of a three year program on the basis of previous qualifications. Specific exemptions refer to the awarding of credit in one particular course when a student has already successfully completed a similar course at another institution.

Continuous assessment is important in the Open University context because it offers a method of identifying quickly the need for remedial action. Most Open University students have limited academic experience, and some have no high school study. Under these circumstances, periodic monitoring can easily mean the difference between success and failure (Smith, 1972).

At its outset the Open University offered the degrees of Bachelor of Philosophy, Master of Philosophy, and Doctor of Philosophy. It also offered the degrees of Doctor of Letters and Doctor of Science, but only to graduates of the Open University or full-time members of the staff. Under its Charter the university also has the power to award the honorary degree of Doctor of the University, but it is awarded only to persons of distinction (Goldstein, 1971). Graduation normally takes a minimum of six years since enrollment is limited to one course per year. Students with special qualifications may graduate in a shorter period of time. It is estimated that the cost per degree to

the student is only about one-third that of a degree in a conventional university (Read, 1971).

Postgraduate study is designed to cater to two types of students: residential students who study full-time at Milton Keynes and non-traditional students working part-time while holding a job. Residential postgraduates are required to spend a minimum period of 15 months in full-time study before they may present themselves for the degree of Master of Philosophy. A minimum of 24 calendar months of full-time study is required for the Doctor of Philosophy. At best calculation, a minimum of an additional three credits in research is required beyond the Bachelor's for the Master of Philosophy, while six credits is needed to obtain the Doctor of Philosophy (Goldstein, 1969).

A breakdown of the January, 1971 admissions records shows that 34.3 percent of all students were employed teachers, 10 percent were in the professions, and arts, 9.8 percent self-declared housewives, 9.3 percent qualified engineers and scientists, and 8.1 percent clerical. Only 2.6 percent could be included in the typical nonworking student groups (Smith, 1972).

This unusual student body of adult employed people demands vast amounts of funding to serve them. Major financial support comes from the Department of Education and Science. Almost 89 percent comes in the form of recurrent grants from the department. Student tuition fees account for just under 10 percent of the total income. The other one percent comes from research donations. Capital outlay of the university from its conception until the end of 1975 reached approximately 8.5 million pounds (Open University, Comparative General Revenue Accounts 1971-1975, 1976).

Though many praise the innovation of the Open University, critics point out areas that the administration and the government publicly ignore. The television format is not lecture oriented, students need additional assistance to use these in their studies, the majority of broadcasts made so far do not make much full use of the potential of broadcasting in the Open University, and difficulties caused by awkward transmission time, late mailings of related printed material and overloading of work impede the use students can make of any broadcast (Bates, 1974).

Though educators take the point of view that additional time is needed to evaluate the Open University system objectively, many individuals in the United States seem not to have observed it in that light. Institutions paralleling both the University of London and the Open University have rapidly evolved in America. Mostly, these have truly been nontraditional degree programs, but with a Yankee flavor. These American programs are treated in the next chapter. See Appendix A for an English time table.

CHAPTER V

A HISTORY OF THE NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE IN THE UNITED STATES

The development of the nontraditional degree in the United States started much later and took a separate path but arrived at a similar solution. The programs discussed in this chapter emphasize assessment of knowledge earned through self-study or independent learning.

Origin in the United States

Off-campus collegiate study in this country can be traced back as early as 1892 when the University of Chicago first offered such courses in its Home Study Division, founded by William Rainey Harper. By the 1930s one could receive class credit from Chicago by passing a comprehensive examination, prepared and administered by university examiners. This system, devised under President Robert Hutchins, proved that it was possible for a student to earn a degree on the basis of prior learning or independent study, without ever attending classes (Perlman, 1975). The logic embodied in these actions was employed by those who first began other attempts to serve the post-secondary needs of adults.

At the close of World War II President Harry S. Truman ordered a study of American post-secondary education. Young men were returning from war armed with a new educational tool, the G. I. Bill of Rights. In 1947 Truman's Commission on Higher Education reported, declaring

that in a democratic society higher education should be accessible to all who completed high school or its equivalent (President's Commission on Higher Education, 1947).

The pressures within the American society which created universal secondary education also fostered a move in the direction of universal higher education. Institutions investigated programs which might meet the needs of life styles of new student populations--older students, service men and returning veterans, mature women, those who work while pursuing their education, students requiring remedial instruction, and others--as a possible answer to equalize educational opportunities.

College Entrance Examination Board

In keeping with the thrust of these ideas, the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) established the Advanced Placement Program (APP) in 1956. There was a dawning awareness that a tremendous waste of academic talent results when students repeat courses in college that they have already essentially completed in secondary school. Therefore, the Advanced Placement Program was devised to legitimate college level courses that were offered in high school. Students could receive credit or advanced standing upon entering college by passing examinations on appropriate subject matter constructed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) with the assistance of secondary school and college faculty members and graded by ETS. By 1960, 88 percent of the 131 members of the Institution for the Association of University Evening Colleges and the National University Extension Association reported that they utilized programs following the APP format by either granting advanced placment or credit or both for prior learning experience.

This acceptance of the principle of credit by examination furthered the acceptance of the nontraditional degree concept (Vermilye, 1972).

Educational Testing Service

During the early 1960s the Educational Testing Service (ETS) started experimenting with measuring college level achievement through an examination known as the Comprehensive College Test. This development stemmed from the conclusion that an alternative system of higher education, different from the conventional form, needed to be developed. The view was that a large segment of the population, educationally motivated, but not attending college, was pressuring society to react (Cross, 1973). By the 1960s 12 million adults over the age of 25 had some college education but had never graduated, while an additional 38 million had completed high school but had never attended college. Educators projected the numbers to be 22 million and 59 million respectively by 1990 (Perlman, 1975).

The Comprehensive College Test had been sufficiently developed by 1965. That year the College Entrance Examination Board undertook to sponsor the Comprehensive College Test by creating a council of educators who could accept responsibility for what came to be called the College Level Examination Program (CLEP). The Carnegie Corporation provided a grant to support further development of CLEP and by 1972 it had made three such grants totaling in excess of $3.1 million as a commitment of its resources to the American nontraditional degree.

The College Entrance Examination Board established CLEP in contrast to the Advanced Placement Program for the nontraditional as well as the traditional student regardless of age, educational experience, or

socioeconomic status. The Advanced Placement Program concentrated on students moving from secondary school right into higher education. CLEP was designed to be of value to the unaffiliated student--typically an adult who may have acquired college level learning and skills outside normal class attendance. The College Level Examination Program rather than measuring a prescribed body of knowledge, measures the attainments normally expected of students completing subjects given in the first years of college. The content and level of expectation is defined by representative faculty members selected from a range of colleges and universities.

Carnegie Corporation

Alan Pifer, President of the Carnegie Corporation, delivered an address in October, 1970 before the annual meeting of the College Entrance Examination Board, and called attention to the need and prospects for degrees in the country that could be earned outside the normal institutional framework, specifically the establishment of an American nontraditional degree program (Perlman, 1975).

The United States Government published the Report on Higher Education in 1971 which contained the findings of a commission chaired by Frank Newman. The report called for the development of equivalency examinations "so that individuals can receive credit for skills and knowledge acquired in a variety of ways" (p. 15). In accordance with this air the report proposed:

> . . . new degree granting institutions . . . which could not only administer these examinations but also grant college degrees. The institutions would be degree granting and examining institutions alone--they would not offer courses but would administer examinations and grant degrees (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1971, p. 15).

A growing interest in American nontraditional degrees was anticipated so the College Entrance Examination Board established a Commission on Nontraditional Study in March, 1971 in cooperation with the Educational Testing Service. It was funded by a $140,000 two-year grant from the Carnegie Corporation and headed by Gould. The Commission concentrated its work in four areas. Those were access, means of learning, recognition of achievement, and finances (Doran, 1971).

The Commission began to report its findings in 1973 in the form of monographs on specific topics. The introductory piece was written by Gould called Diversity by Design in 1973. One major book was produced by Houle entitled The External Degree in 1973. Houle's book was the first major work published on the American nontraditional degree and it remains highly relevant even today to the subject of nontraditional degrees and related topics.

The Educational Testing Service and the College Entrance Examination Board also jointly established an Office of External Degree Plans, directed by Summerskill, for the purpose of providing consulting and advisory services to colleges and universities and other degree-granting agencies which were broadening educational opportunity and recognizing a variety of learning experiences through nontraditional degree programs. Many educators foresaw an additional function of the new office: coordinating the offerings of the College Level Examination Program with the undergraduate programs of the Educational Testing Service in order to help provide an examination basis for the nontraditional degree (Vermile, 1972). In the summer of 1972 the name of the External Degree Plans was officially changed to the Office of New Degree Programs, thus indicating that development in the field had moved from planning to

implementation.

At the time when the College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service were involved in the aforementioned activities that supported the growth of an American nontraditional degree, certain educators were already taking action to establish nontraditional degree programs in their own domains. The State Education Department of New York made its first contribution to the enlargement of opportunities to secure credit in recognition of nontraditional study when, in 1963, with aid from the Ford Foundation, it established a College Proficiency Examination Program (CPEP). The focus of this program was the production of tests produced with the intent to cover the work of one or more semesters of college. The tests were constructed by faculty members of New York State institutions of higher learning under the guidance of the State Education Department staff and assisted by specialists in educational testing. The passing of these examinations was not intended to guarantee the automatic awarding of credit, for in New York only a chartered institution could grant credit. Nevertheless, a large number of colleges and universities showed a willingness to grant credit in recognition of satisfactory scores earned on these tests.

Once the College Proficiency Examination Program proved itself, a logical next step would be to award degrees based on the passing of these examinations. Nyquist, Commissioner of Education for the State of New York, declared that "there are thousands of people--men and women of all ages, social classes, and walks of life--who contribute in important ways to the life of their community without benefit of a college degree" (Knowles, 1977, p. 25). In this inaugural address in

September, 1970, Nyquist (1970, p. 15) proposed "a more flexible and open system of education" which could be achieved through development of state examinations. He promised funds in his 1971-72 budget to achieve this goal. The new program was not intended to compete with existing institutions of higher learning, but rather to complement them (Knowles, 1977).

Nyquist (1970) stated that he was:

> . . . proposing to the Board of Regents that the University of the State of New York award undergraduate degrees to those who are able to demonstrate that they possess knowledge and abilities equivalent to those of a degree recipient from a New York State college or university, regardless how the candidates had prepared themselves (p. 16).

He hoped that "success in this venture would stimulate New York's colleges and universities to use their grant resources to expand their own programs for the extension of educational opportunities" (p. 16).

Regents External Degree

During the rest of 1970 the University of the State of New York made plans to implement a "regents external degree." The University of New York as distinguished from the State University of New York, was established in 1784 by the legislature. It is the oldest state educational agency in the nation and it is presided over by a Board of Regents and administered by the State Commissioner of Education. It has no buildings or faculty of its own but it actually encompasses all the educational endeavors in the state. The University of the State of New York encompasses all public and private colleges and universities, elementary and secondary schools, libraries, museums, historical societies, and other educational agencies in the state. This university holds the right to award academic degrees at its discretion.

The Carnegie Corporation awarded a grant of $400,000 in early 1971 to assist in the formation of the Regents External Degree. This figure was matched by the Ford Foundation and promised to give additional financial aid in the immediate future (Nelson, 1974). The combined grant figure exceeded $1.8 million.

As soon as the first of the grants was received, the University of the State of New York developed three programs and called them the Associate of Arts, a Bachelor of Science in Business Administration, and an Associate in Applied Science in Nursing. These programs came from a plan written by 175 college professors, administrators, and state education department officials. Lerheimer (cited in Doran, 1971) Assistant Commissioner of Education described the new programs as, "an experimentation model with no instructional component" (p. 10). He believed that people learn in different ways and if a person has the knowledge we are prepared to provide the documentation. Specifically designed examinations were used to satisfy this documentation but the examinations could be waived by earning credit in appropriate college courses (Anstett, 1974).

A profile of the average student who earned one of these external degrees from the University of the State of New York is highly revealing. In the first graduating class of 414 the age range was from 20 to 63. Almost half were New York State citizens and most of them were employed full-time. A little over half were employed by the federal government as a part of the Armed Forces. About 16 percent were in business or industry. Only 7.5 percent listed themselves as unemployed and 1.7 percent listed themselves a full-time students. To satisfy the degree requirements 25.2 percent used course credit obtained from prior

experience in four year colleges. The proficiency examinations combined with college courses were used by 36.3 percent to satisfy the degree requirement, while 12.6 percent used proficiency examinations exclusively to satisfy the degree requirements. The College Level Examination program's General Education Exam and the United States Institutes Subjects Standards Test were used most frequently (Anstett, 1974).

The Regents External Degree challenged many procedures of the American higher education system. Formal admission requirements were abandoned. All effective methods of learning were accepted as valid. The degree was awarded from what is as much a department of government as was the University of London in the early period of nontraditional degrees (Houle, 1973).

Nyquist (1970) continued to try and expand the ideas of the external degree and he was joined by the New Jersey State Chancellor of Higher Education in 1972 in a plan to coordinate the development of external degree programs.

Edison College formally accepted its first external degree program students in July, 1972. It became the only institution in the United States which totally separated the functions of assessment from those of instruction (Nelson, 1974).

State University of New York

In 1948 New York moved forward in the field of nontraditional education on several fronts. The publicly supported colleges and universities of New York State except those in New York City, had organized into a new entity--the State University of New York (SUNY). Eventually, it encompassed 72 institutions of various sizes. SUNY

fostered a spirit supportive of the new experimental programs from its inception. One of the new innovations was Empire State College, a non-residential external degree institution. Funding for SUNY came from the Carnegie Corporation in 1971 (Nelson, 1974).

The resources of the entire SUNY system are available to Empire State but it has its own small corps of administrators and faculty members. Empire State is headed by President James W. Hall. Saratoga Springs is the location of its coordinating headquarters, however, the college also maintains learning centers across the state to which students have access, and where most of the students' direct contacts with the institution occur.

Each center serves about 400 full-time enquivalent (FTE) students. The staff at each center consists of about 15 permanent faculty together with some part-time faculty members. Empire State put 20 centers into operation in 1975. The current number is 19 (Moore, 1975).

Empire State sees itself as simply another institutional part of SUNY, yet one that is nonresidential and offering students a nontraditional type of education through independent study. Students pursue most of their education without residing on campus or meeting in a classroom. They may spend a semester or more at another institution, but most of their academic program is completed at their own homes or on the job.

Prospective students may be of any age, but they must be high school graduates or hold an equivalency certificate. Previous credit is taken into account in granting advanced standing. This understanding is fostered in its students through consultation with learning center staff members, and by attendance at an orientation workshop

without which admission is denied.

Empire State differs most radically from other nontraditional degree programs because it addresses itself primarily to the normal college age population. Furthermore, Empire State does not address itself to the part-time student. It is not a "second chance" institution as many view the Open University in England. It expects its students to have admission credentials that would be acceptable at any other SUNY institution. Finally, it is not primarily for older people or those who have had work experience, although it does not bar them. In short, it seeks to provide a nonresidential route to a nontraditional degree for those young people who prefer that option (Moore, 1975).

A student may begin a program at any time during a year by developing a contract in consultation with a mentor. The contract describes what educational goals he will attempt to achieve and how he proposes to achieve them. The contract will state how the student will be evaluated. Generally, each contract is part of a larger program of study upon which the mentor and student agree. If the student is preparing to enter a graduate school, it is expected that the program be constructed with that in mind.

The mentor who guides a student's progress is an academically trained person who has had experience as a faculty member. Mentors are either full-time or they are faculty members at another institution within the SUNY system. The mentor's role is to help students clarify their purpose, develop a general framework for program planning, make specific plans for study and evaluate their progress. Students are encouraged to work with mentors whose area of competence and interest parallel their area. During the course of the individual contract,

> . . . the mentor helps the student evaluate its effectiveness and renders his own judgment concerning the student's performance in the various learning activities undertaken. For a portion of some contracts the mentor also will be a tutor for those areas of knowledge and competence which he can meet (Interim Report, 1971-72, p. 5).

As a student nears the completion of a program of study that the faculty supports, the Empire State awards a degree. In general, formal study credit undertaken at accredited colleges is transferable. Every student must complete a minimum program of study of not less than three months duration for the associate degree and six months for the Baccalaureate degree (Interim Report, 1971-72).

The administration of SUNY worked very hard to assure the success of Empire State. In 1973, SUNY admitted only 4,600 new students. New York State hopes to save 70 percent of the cost of educating the Empire State student over the cost of education in other SUNY institutions (Moore, 1975).

New York's external degree programs comprised only one segment of the American discovery of nontraditional education. During the fall of 1972 the University of Houston, Rutgers University, and the University of Maryland began offering the Open University foundation courses in humanities, natural sciences, and mathematics for 15 credit hours each. At the conclusion of the first year of this operation the Carnegie Corporation funded a study by the Educational Testing Service. The study was directed by Hartrell (1971). It was noted that 65 percent of those enrolled in these universities completed them. Student responses to questionnaires indicated that Open University courses really consumed vast amounts of time. The majority of those completing the course work did not indicate that they found it overly difficult, but did express dissatisfaction in the difficulty of finding adequate

time to complete each segment of study. Contrary to expectations, only minimal criticism was expressed concerning the orientation of the course material (Mayeske, 1974).

Prior to Educational Testing Service study of Houston, Rutgers, and Maryland experiences, the University of Pittsburg commissioned an independent study of the Open University. The report was submitted by Kitzes and Knox (1972) and located a stumbling block concerning the cost of media production.

A massive expense of media production and the lack of federal commitment to an Open University in the United States has caused new nontraditional degree programs in this country to resemble the innovations developed in the New York educational system rather than the English system. One of the most prominent is the Minnesota Metropolitan State College (MMSC). It was chartered by the Minnesota State Legislature in 1971 and it serves a seven county region in the St. Paul-Minneapolis area. It collaborates with the existing institutions in an attempt to reach the clientele that they miss. MMSC has no permanent campus and it uses existing facilities within each community. Part-time faculty are used only to teach. Full-time faculty teach and are also assigned the additional task of guiding students through the program. Sweet (1972), the founding president, pointed out that:

> MMSC serves a student body that is beyond the traditional age group of 17 to 21 or 18 to 22--the immediate post-high school graduate. Seventy-five percent of MMSC's students are over 25. In addition, the college is committed to provide education opportunities for the poor, minority groups, and women. Specifically, the students MMSC serves are adults who have dropped out of college (or never went) but who have the potential to complete college degrees (p. 20).

People who wish to enroll must have completed two or more years of satisfactory work (at least a "c" average) at another college or university or be able to show an equivalent amount of education by other means such as College Level Examination Program scores. Prospective students may apply for admission at any time during the academic year. Upon acceptance the student receives extensive counseling prior to joining an orientation group which probes deeply into each student's understanding of the program and the necessary readiness to undertake the demanding work. The MMSC program of study is similar to that used at Empire State College. Students develop degree contracts with help from faculty and fellow students in a special Assessment, Advising, and Contracting Committee. The student may complete the program as soon as he feels he has completed the degree contract. When this occurs a Final Assessment Committee, composed of both faculty and fellow students, reviews the student's progress. As Sweet (1972) stated:

> The key to our educational program is assessment. We believe that the competence-assessment process-both initially and throughout the student's affiliation with the college, including the assessment which will culminate in his receiving a degree--should be individually structured to give the student a complete opportunity to demonstrate his abilities. The function of assessment is not to fail students but to make sure they have the skills and knowledge, the values and attitudes and the understanding--in short, the competencies--which are appropriate to their educational, career, and life goals (p. 15).

Minnesota Metropolitan State College offers only the Bachelor of Arts degree in Urban Liberal Arts with a concentration in either Administration or human service. If some students cannot meet the degree requirements to the satisfaction of the Final Assessment Committee, they are permitted to continue until such time as these

requirements are satisfactorily met.

Assessment

Other nontraditional degree programs continue to spring up throughout the United States. All appear to follow one or more of the characteristic models presented in this chapter. Each emphasizes assessment of knowledge gained outside the classroom while acquiring unique learning experiences. The differences that exist between programs are discussed in this chapter are not philosophically based, but are pragmatic in origin. The Minnesota Metropolitan State College and Empire State College emphasize faculty involvement while the Regents External Degree in New York State and Edison College in New Jersey stress to a greater degree self-directional instruction. Knowles' (1975) theory of self-directed learning seems to be in effect in both the Regents External degree program and also in the Edison College program. This difference is evident throughout the individual programs across the United States.

The growth of nontraditional degrees in the United States is one of the most significant and rapidly proliferating educational movements. In just a few short years, a number of states are moving toward legislation to form guidelines for regulating these new programs. Further, there is a growing trend for the accreditation for independent and self-directed study (Bear, 1976).

Similar Nontraditional Programs

There are at least four nontraditional degree programs in the United States that are similar enough to notice. These are at Oklahoma

University, Nova University, Union College, and Fielding Institute.

The University of Oklahoma College of Liberal Studies offers a Bachelor and Master of Liberal Studies nontraditional degree. Both are fully accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. The degrees are in humanities, natural sciences, and social sciences. There is a short residency of at least four weeks on the campus to develop a plan of study. Directed readings, an in-depth study, a seminar, and a colloquium are also required. The fees are $1,250 for Oklahoma residents. Out of state fees are $2,450 (The University of Oklahoma College of Liberal Studies Bulletin, 1983).

Nova University in Fort Lauderdale, Florida offers a doctoral degree in administration, behavioral science, higher education, education, and school leadership. This is a nontraditional degree that is fully accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. It was founded in 1964 and it was the first university in the United States to offer nontraditional doctorates to receive full traditional, regional, accreditation. A short residency is required to develop a study plan. Seminars are held in cities and states where there is a large cluster of students taking the program. Professors are flown in for seminars. At present, 21 states are being served. Persons with a full-time educational job can expect to complete the Doctor of Education degree in about three years without leaving their jobs for any extended period of time. One must have a master's degree to enter the program. The cost is in excess of $5,000 (Nova University Bulletin, 1984).

The Union Graduate School in Yellow Springs, Ohio has a Doctor of Philosophy nontraditional degree. It offers one of the best-reputed,

most widely accepted, and quite possibly the best nontraditional Ph.D. program in the United States (Bear, 1976). The program begins with a ten day meeting with the faculty. Doctoral committees are developed with faculty assistance. Contracts are developed and signed by the students. Students develop an internship program. The dissertation or project topic is selected. The school is only for students who cannot get a doctoral degree in a traditional program. The cost is $1,000 per quarter until the program is finished, even though most of the work is completed at home under the director of adjunct professors. Colloquia are arranged several times a year in various locations and include about 30 students. The dissertation must make a significant contribution to knowledge. Admissions are highly selective. At its final meeting, the guiding committee reviews all of the candidates' work and if this is wholly satisfactory, recommends award of the Ph.D. (Union Bulletin, 1984).

The Fielding Institute in Santa Barbara, California is another accredited graduate nontraditional degree program. It is accredited by the regional Western Association of Schools and Colleges. It offers both master and doctoral degrees. Both degree programs require research for a thesis or a dissertation. An internship is required. Training workshops are offered throughout the United States. Fielding does not give credit for prior course work, but requires students to demonstrate their current competence in each of Fielding's knowledge areas through assessments. When accepted, the student goes to a five-day Admissions Contract Workshop. These are scheduled in Santa Barbara three times each year. It is Fielding's only required residency and the fee is $250 plus room and board. The tuition is $1,485 per quarter. The

Ph.D., Ed.D., Psy. D., and D.H.S. degrees are offered at the doctoral level (The Fielding Institute Bulletin, 1985).

A recent development in nontraditional education is to give academic credit to students for life experiences and work experiences. The life experience and work experience has to be documented and related to the study plan. There are guidelines to measure these experiences. A very famous method of assessing these is the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning by Forrest (1977). The council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning has established some criteria for assession prior learning. The executive director is Dr. Morris Keeton. It is an educational association of 250 institutions of igher education. It was chartered by the Regents of the State of New York in september of 1976 for the purpose of fostering experiential learning and valid and reliable assessment of its outcomes. Houle (1977) is a member of the steering committee. An understanding of the ways colleges determine credit can help the adult returning to college to know what to expect, prepare for assessment, and select a school that offers the types of assessment he is seeking. Non-college learning must meet these criteria. It must be measurable, be college level, have both a theoretical and an applied component, must serve as a base for further learning, be relatively current, show some relationshp to the person's degree goal and be applicable outside the specific context in which it was learned (Forrest, 1977).

Some traditional colleges and universities are offering accredited graduate nontraditional degree programs. Besides those already mentioned, Texas Tech University offers a Doctor of Education degree in a higher education inservice program (Texas Tech University Bulletin, 1981).

Brigham Young University offers an Intern Doctoral Program (Brigham Young University Bulletin, 1984). The University of Northern Colorado has a nontraditional Master of Arts degree in elementary education and also in psychology and guidance (University of Northern Colorado Bulletin, 1984). The University of Nevada offers a fully accredited nontraditional Doctor of Education degree (University of Nevada Bulletin, 1977). While Harvard University does not have a graduate degree, it does have a Bachelor of Arts in Extension Studies which dips into nontraditional education. The National Directory of External Degree Programs by Munzert (1976) lists these degrees. Also, Hugo's (1982) Guide to Nontraditional College Degrees offers another list of such degrees. Nontraditional degrees are being offered through the United States because the needs of the full-time working person are not being met. In the main, nontraditional degrees are offered by private colleges and universities. State operated universities offering nontraditional degrees are rare, especially at the graduate level (Hugo, 1982).

When the six regional accrediting associations began to accredit these nontraditional degree programs, it added greatly to their acceptance by business and traditional colleges. However, students must still choose those degree programs that are accredited and recognized by State Departments of Education to receive full credit and salary advances. This is especially true for teachers. Also, students still have to avoid getting unacceptable degrees by choosing one of long standing with a good reputation (Bear, 1975).

The basic underlying difference between the two degree programs is that the traditional system is institution-oriented and the

nontraditional degree program is learner-oriented (Thorson, 1983). The time is gone when higher education is something that takes place just in the classroom (Milton, 1979).

The issues that confront designers, administrators, supporters, and users of nontraditional degrees were identified and discussed. An institution that chooses a nontraditional degree program opens itself to extra-ordinary scrutiny. It must ultimately be able to prove the worth of such a degree. Houle (1977), University of Chicago, had graduate students who went on to create programs of special degrees for adults at other colleges. He made a careful analysis of the factors of the nontraditional degree that have brought this degree to the foreground as a major way to fill a widespread need. Late in 1970, the nontraditional degree came suddenly and powerfully to the attention of the American academic community. Strong voices spoke out for it. Others questioned it. The talk has now somewhat subsided and solid programs are being shaped and put into effect. In the meantime, increased understanding is emerging for the degree. It may be a more prominent aspect of academic life in the future than it has in the past (Houle, 1977).

If one has an interest in an unusual or highly specialized area and would like to pursue research in that area, but finds there is no degree available for that area, one can probably find a nontraditional degree program that will design a special degree program for you. The progressive new nontraditional degree schools can tailor a program for individual circumstances and make it possible for anyone to obtain a desired degree (Bear, 1982). See Appendix B for an American time table.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of Chapter VI is threefold: (1) to present a general summary of the study; (2) to present the conclusions of the study; and (3) to present the recommendations based on the conclusions of the study and to suggest avenues of further research related to this topic.

Summary of the Study

This study was concerned with the historical background of the nontraditional degree in England and the United States. Prior to World War II the higher education systems of both England and the United States could be described accurately as elitist. In neither country did the majority of the appropriate age group (18 to 22) move directly from secondary school into either colleges or universities within two to four years. In England, Oxford and Cambridge dominated the education scene, while in the United States a larger number and wider variety of institutions shared the leadership role. However, circumstances after World War II resulted in a different situation. The necessity to satisfy civilian needs after years of deprivation due to rationing and national service, combined with a massive infusion of returning veterans and the demand of the economy for increasing numbers of highly educational personnel motivated the production of the Percy Report and the Truman Commission on Higher Education's

report. Both indicated the need for expanded higher education programs. Both called for the upgrading of existing institutions and for the development of new structures.

England and the United States have moved toward the use of nontraditional degree programs in an attempt to meet their needs for mass higher education. The activities and the procedures by which nontraditional degrees came into existence in the two countries varied greatly; yet the nontraditional degree programs, while reflecting differences in the geography, politics, and culture of the two countries, share many common characteristics.

Government-sponsored investigations pointed toward the need for increased training and certification while the most prestigious educational institutions (Oxford and Cambridge) refused to widen their instructional scope. The Percy Report emphasized an urgent need for continued educational growth in the fields of mechanical engineering, petrochemicals, and electronics. A major part of England's attempt to meet this need was the adoption and implementation of the nontraditional degree model which had been fully developed by the University of London in the mid-nineteenth century.

The United States witnessed a totally different set of conditions so the nontraditional degree programs, such as, and earlier innovations in the United States, therefore evolved by means of forces within academia, not by national policy. Educators, such as Nyquist (1970), Commissioner of Education of the State of New York, made personal commitments toward the development of the American nontraditional degree program. The financial commitment made by private foundations played a larger role in the development of the nontraditional degree

than did any government agency. Support from the Carnegie Corporation and the Ford Foundation, in concert with the Educational Testing Service and the College Entrance Examination Board gave the nontraditional degree much of the cash flow essential for initial implementation. In England by contrast, it was the Parliament that provided the necessary financial support.

The two nations also view the growth of their programs in different manners. As stated earlier, Parliament ultimately oversees all educational development in England. American higher education has no central government agency watching over its development. As a result, the American nontraditional degree has grown up controlled by any uniform policy. So the inferior programs thrive alongside those of superior standing.

In the final analysis, the major difference between the two nations' nontraditional degree programs is their separate examination models. Both utilize the credit system prevalent at the University of Edinburgh in Scotland, which makes possible the examination mode used by each. However, here the similarity ends. The English model evolved directly from that used at Oxford and Cambridge. Traditional American higher education holds each university responsible for testing, instruction, and certification. The examination model used in the United States' nontraditional degree program evolved outside of traditional academia. The Educational Testing Service, the College Entrance Examination Board, the College Level Examination Program, the State Education Department of New York, and the College Proficiency Examination Program made possible the examination model used by the majority of pioneer nontraditional degree programs in the United States. The tests thus

described are not validated for a specific body of knowledge as the English exams are, but instead test for a general level of competency.

Though these differences exist, they are insignificant in relation to the changes that are possible within higher education in both countries. Both systems open the door to individuals who might never attempt a conventional college degree. However, the American nontraditional degree program provides one element missing in the English system--a functional experimental model in the field for the testing out of all future innovative programs. The English system is too closely tied to politics for experimentation. This new mode, both in England and the United States, severely tests the assumption that a superior education is gained only through direct and constant participation with one's instructors and peers, rather than through personally gained or non-academic experiences.

Conclusions

The results of the present study seem to warrant the following conclusions based on the historical method of research and the analysis of this data from both primary and secondary sources by external and internal criticism. The collection of data, criticism, and interpretative writing characterize the technique of historical investigation.

From the first, the nontraditional degree came to be from a need to educate people who usually do not pursue a college degree. English settlers in America wanted to complete their education at the University of London but the distance made it impossible unless the degree could be completed by mail. In America, returned veterans, women, minority groups, full-time working people, and others needed a degree

that could be earned while they worked, took care of a family and home, and continued their main lifestyle.

The basic underlying difference between the two degree programs is that the traditional system is institution-oriented and the nontraditional degree program is individual-oriented to include life and work experiences. The time is gone when higher education is something that takes place just in the classroom.

From the beginning of the nontraditional degree to the present time, this new degree has been the cause of much discussion, some good and some bad. However, as the experiment goes on, much good has been realized and it does seem to be in the educational scene for the future to determine its value (Houle, 1977).

The writer believes the need for a nontraditional degree program is genuine and substantial. Its continuation in some form seems assured, if for no other reason than it has survived in England since the sixteenth century. The need for this degree may decrease if more learning centers like the University Center at Tulsa increases. Despite the projections offered in this study, and those of other authors, time will be the deciding factor in determining the success or failure of the nontraditional degree in America.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for consideration in future research.

1. A study of nontraditional degree holders to determine what they believed to be of value in having such a degree as a regular degree that might help determine the advantages of acquiring it.

2. A study to determine job success or failure on nontraditional degree holders as compared to traditional degree holders is recommended.

3. A study aimed at providing a more in-depth analysis of the graduate school experiences of nontraditional degree students is recommended.

4. A comparison study between graduates of traditional and non-traditional programs of each in meeting the graduate's educational needs.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TIME TABLE FOR THE NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE IN ENGLAND

A 1501 Discussion on the degree bagun

B 1534 Nontraditional degree originated

C 1725 Power to grant nontraditional degrees upheld by King

D 1820 Idea of a University of London originated

E 1826 Establishment of University of London financed

F 1828 University of London opened

G 1832 Reform Act reorganized Parliament

H 1835 University of London charter passed by Home Secretary

I 1840-1850 Arguments against University of London continued

J 1846 The Royal Commission Report (Oxford Report) opposed degree

K 1849 Supplemental charter--any British institution recognized

L 1858 Charter allowing nonresidence at University of London

M 1862 Elizabeth Garrett applied for admission

N 1868 Supplemental charter allowed exams for women

O 1870 University of London opened to women

P 1888 Royal Commission--University of London to teach and give exams

Q 1898 University of London gave exams for study elsewhere

R 1909 Royal Commission study of University of London Charter

S 1926 University of London Act granted it a constitution

T 1950 Examination of General Certification began

U 1961 Committee formed to study growth of University of London

V 1963 Committee Report for Higher Education began mass education in England

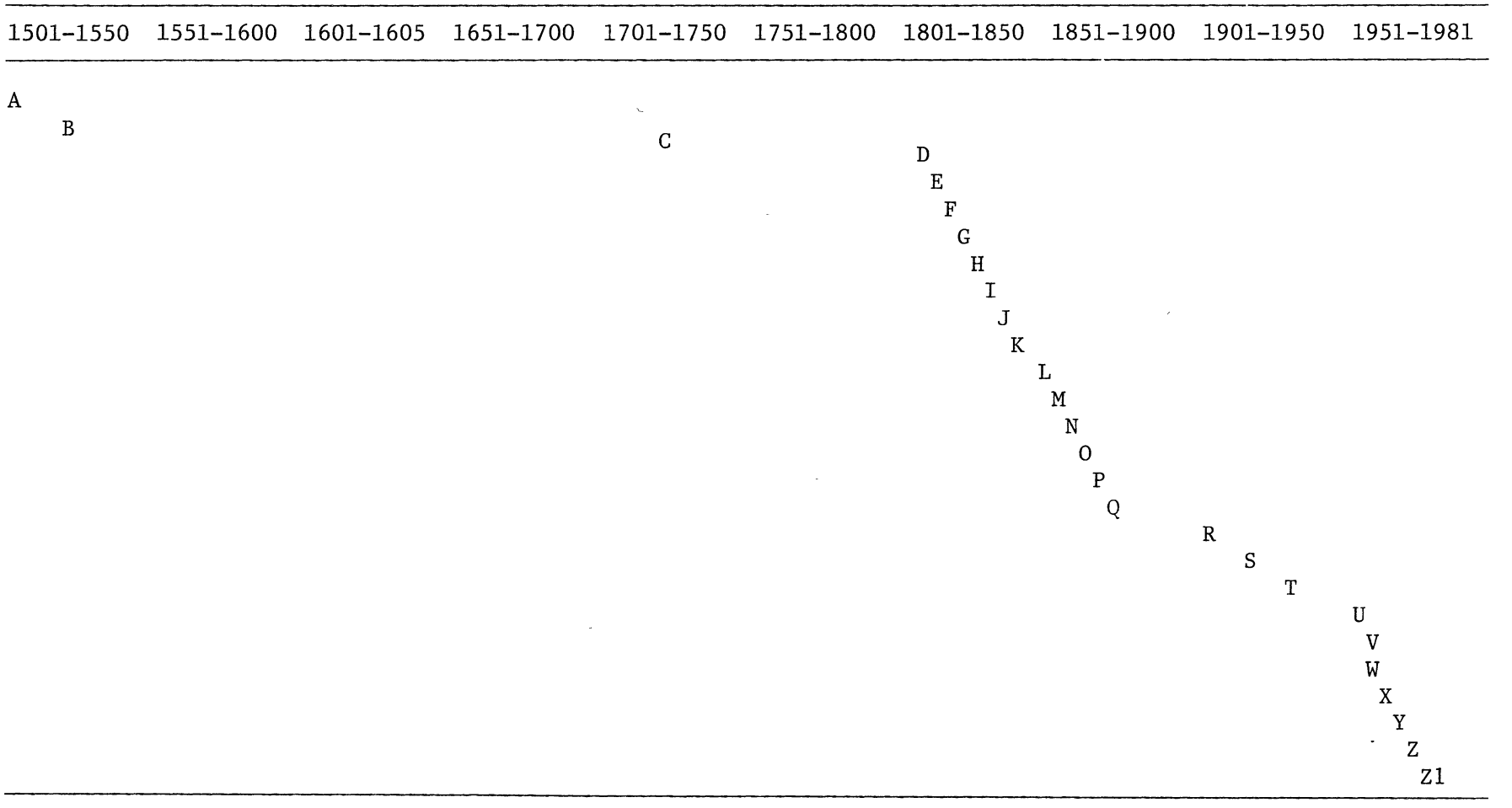
W 1963 Robbins Report--University space should be doubled in England

X 1964 Labour Party--Open University of the air idea began

Y 1967 Secretary of State appointed planning committee for Open University

Z 1969 Open University of the air charter granted

Z1 1978 CNAA replaced University of London nontraditional courses



Source: Wolff, Robert. Modern Civilization: A History of the Last Five Centuries. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1957.

Figure 1. Timeline of the Development of Nontraditional Degree Programs in England

APPENDIX B

TIMETABLE FOR THE NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE IN AMERICA

A 1892 Nontraditional degree began at University of Chicago

B 1947 Truman Commission on Higher Education began trend for mass education

C 1956 Advanced Placement Program

D 1963 College Proficiency Exam Program

E 1970 Nyquist proposed a more flexible program

F 1970 Regents External Degree Program

G 1971 Interim Report sets minimum standards

H 1971 Open University study began

I 1971 Minnesota Metro State College began

J 1971 Report on Higher Education began equivalency exams

K 1971 SUNY organized

L 1971 Study by Commission on Nontraditional Degree

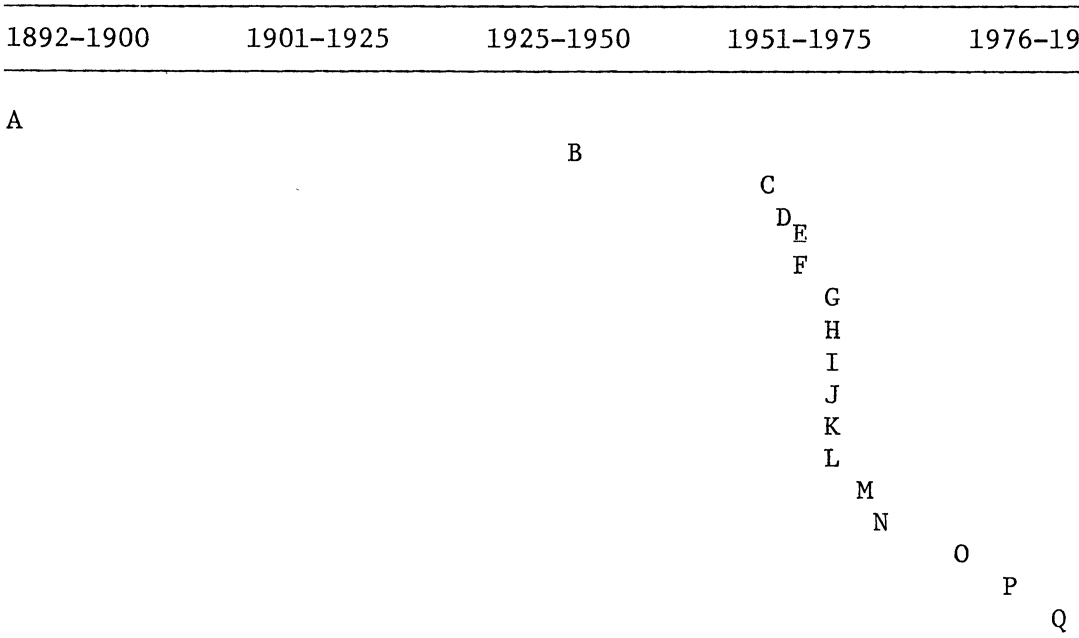
M 1972 New Jersey State Chancellor for Higher Education favors nontraditional degrees

N 1973 Office for new degree programs started

O 1976 CAEL began

P 1978 Regional accreditation increased for nontraditional degrees

Q 1980 Traditional schools offer nontraditional degrees in some places



Source: Wolff, Robert. Modern Civilizationa: A History of the Last Five Centuries. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1957.

Figure 2. Timeline of the Development of Nontraditional Degree Programs in America

VITA

Mary Ethel Whittenberg

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A HISTORY OF THE NONTRADITIONAL DEGREE IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

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Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Green County, Missouri, December 24, 1916, the daughter of Felix and May Belle Whittenberg.

Education: Graduated from Porter High School, Porter, Oklahoma, in 1934; received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Northeastern State University with a major in History in 1947; received the Master of Arts degree from Oklahoma State University with a major in History in July, 1949; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in Occupational and Adult Education at Oklahoma State University in May, 1986.

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Professional Experiences: Taught school for 38 years in Oklahoma and Colorado; Instructor at Rogers State College, Oklahoma Military Academy, secondary and elementary schools; taught history, English, and counseling.