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ORGANIZATION

The Society was founded December 10, 1970 in Washington, DC. Over 50 local, state, national, and international planners attended the first organizational meeting.

Since then its continued growth demonstrates the need for a professions organization with educational planning as its exclusive concern.

PURPOSE

The International Society for Educational Planning was established to foster the professional knowledge and interests of educational planners. Through conferences and publications, the society promotes the interchange of ideas within the planning community. The membership includes persons from the ranks of governmental agencies, school-based practitioners, and higher education.

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PREFACE

Virginia Roach

This edition of *Educational Planning* explores a range of planning issues across system levels, including, individuals (Kenayathulla), individual students within educational institutions (Oladejo), institutions (Koonce and Hanes), institutions within rural communities (Amcoff), and institutions across countries (Ibara). Across all the articles the symbiotic relationship between planning and policy is posited as well as the role research can play in informing policy and planning. Importantly, Kenayathulla, Oladejo, and Ibara, all three African authors, also make a strong argument for the role planning plays in ensuring equity in many contexts.

Kenayathulla, in her review of Bray's book, *Confronting the Shadow Education System: What Government Policies for What Private Tutoring?* (2009), highlights the inequality of private supplemental tutoring as practiced in many developing nations. Supplemental tutoring in this context is a way to push forward wealthier students who are already performing well in school, exacerbating educational inequality. In contrast, other countries practice a form of private tutoring designed, in part, to enhance minimal competency. This review argues for systematic policy and planning to ensure that private tutoring is handled in an equitable fashion globally. In this light, private tutoring emerges from an individual to worldwide issue.

Similarly, Oladejo argues in his article that online learning addresses important limitations of facility space and student time related to higher education access, which disproportionately impact certain factions of society. The online learner is more likely to be an adult, married, and employed. While success of a student in an online environment requires more self-regulation on the part of the learner, planning and policy can play a role in providing an equitable online educational experience.

Ibara continues the theme of extending the "educational franchise" by suggesting a framework for online education across countries of western Africa. Modeling this framework after an economic agreement already in place across the countries lends credibility to this approach and further reinforces the symbiotic relationship between education and economic development, policy and planning.

Amcoff reminds us of the importance of testing assumptions in his article related to rural school closures. While the common perception is that school closures foster out-migration from rural communities, in fact, his research suggests otherwise. Educational planners are wise to examine geographically detailed population data from a longitudinal perspective as they plan school closures and the location of future facilities due to population shifts. In Sweden, as in many countries that guarantee free, public education, it appears families also determine where to live based on the knowledge that school will be provided, regardless of family location. In this sense, there is a presumed equity built into the system that may not be present in developing countries.

Finally, Koonce and Hanes describe a program logic model they successfully utilized when seeking national accreditation for their educational leadership program. The use of a program logic model "bring[s] together planning, evaluation, and actions for improvement." A program logic model could be used to plan and describe university and country approaches to online learning and approaches to school district planning in rural areas. Hence, the article further develops our planning toolkit for dealing with a variety of educational developments and programs.

Planning and policy, economic development, equity and access, these are the themes threaded throughout this edition of the journal. Indeed, these are themes that define educational planning in the 21st century.

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Program Logic for a Teacher Education Accreditation Council Accredited
Program in Educational Leadership
Glenn L. Koonce and John C. Hanes

ABSTRACT

Utilizing a program logic model allowed us to plan and guide our successful Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) national accreditation for our educational leadership program. The model integrates the six principal Interstate School Leaders Licensing Consortium (ISLLC) standards with TEAC's Quality and Processing Principles and with the specific elements of the TEAC Inquiry Brief where evidence is emphasized and the accreditation process is focused. Faculty members' contributions enhanced the structure and operation of the model.

PROGRAM LOGIC FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION ACCREDITATION COUNCIL
ACCREDITED PROGRAM IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The boards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) voted on October 22, 2010 to consolidate teacher education accreditation under a new organization, the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). Under CAEP, universities will have four options for educational leadership program accreditation. Programs currently in their national accreditation process are grandfathered into that process. National accreditation involves a great deal of planning to assure that high quality standards and principles are met and maintained. This article addresses one of the four CAEP options, the TEAC Inquiry Brief.

Regent University in Virginia Beach, VA made the decision for national accreditation after initial inquiries and attendance at the January 2005 American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) meeting, a follow-up meeting with the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) in July, 2005, and additional comprehensive TEAC training in March 2006. During this time period, the faculty adopted the TEAC process for national accreditation of all School of Education state licensure programs including endorsement in Administration and Supervision PreK-12 (Virginia Department of Education, 2007). The educational leadership program, that housed Administration and Supervision PreK-12 endorsement, was required to complete a separate TEAC Inquiry Brief apart from the TEAC Inquiry Brief required for the combined teacher licensure programs. Prior to that time no separate educational leadership TEAC Inquiry Brief existed from any university. Regent University was one of the early programs in the nation pursuing TEAC accreditation. The faculty embarked on a new journey in planning for its educational leadership Inquiry Brief. As the program logic was being discussed and written, there was a need for a model within a single diagram that would provide direction for the faculty's planning and actions. The program logic model evolved and was developed as the faculty engaged in the TEAC Inquiry Brief process. To be successful, the faculty had to learn the TEAC process and plan accordingly while being engaged at the same time in that process.

Founded in 1997, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), has 200 members, including 185 institutions of higher education, "88 are already accredited and 83 are candidates for accreditation" (Teacher Education Accreditation Council, 2010, p. 1). TEAC membership also includes 13 affiliate institutions and 16 professional associations who support the TEAC process of accreditation. Recognized by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) and by the U.S. Department of Education (USDOE), TEAC's entire accreditation process is built around the program's case that it prepares competent, caring, and qualified professional educators. TEAC requires the program to have evidence to support its case, and the accreditation process examines and verifies the evidence. TEAC's membership represents education programs within a broad range of higher education institutions, from small liberal arts colleges to large research universities (TEAC, 2009).

Much of the decision for selecting TEAC rested with distinctive features found in the California State University Monterey Bay accreditation by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges. The accreditation "resembled design research, a process through which, with careful experimentation and

testing, a stronger more effective institutional model would emerge” (Driscoll & Noriega, 2006, p. 3). Regent University educational leadership faculty liked this model and used their own evidence and artifacts (e.g., measurements, documents, databases) along with third party assessment (e.g., School Leaders Licensure Assessment) to determine that they accurately and fairly described the program. Using TEAC’s standards and principles, outlined in the required TEAC Inquiry Brief, the faculty determined that the program had made a convincing case for national accreditation. The Inquiry Brief is a research monograph that “includes the claims a faculty makes for its graduates, a rationale for the assessment of those claims, a description of the psychometric properties of the evidence that is presented to support the claims, the findings related to the claims, and a discussion of what has been learned from the data” (TEAC, 2005, p. 149).

Program faculty was resistant to change in the beginning choosing stability over change. Instead of managed change, accreditation brought a new complex process that included a time constraint. With invincible political power Virginia passed new regulations in 2007 that required national accreditation for state educational leadership program approval. TEAC was an external force to the Regent University educational leadership program required to obtain both national accreditation and state program approval for its existence. Empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies of change focus on outside forces having the greatest impact on change (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Regent University’s educational leadership program faculty became the target of external forces for change when they chose to pursue accreditation. School of Education (SOE) leadership at Regent University agreed. With those in power consenting, the motivation to change traditional concepts and well established practices was heightened. These are constructivist frames of references that would be needed to make the changes (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006) necessary for TEAC accreditation to be successful. The faculty and SOE leadership believed they could achieve accreditation through TEAC and this paper helps explain planning as well as elements in the process.

TEAC requirements resulted in continuous planning from educational leadership faculty. They established their own claims for the program within the standards and constraints of TEAC quality principles and cross-cutting themes. The faculty looked at their data, interpreted that data, and provided evidence for the claims made. Accreditation for the Regent University faculty was a comprehensive exercise closely aligned with writing a combined quantitative and qualitative doctoral dissertation. TEAC awarded the program Initial accreditation on January 9, 2009. The faculty chose as its claims the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards partially due to faculty leadership who redesigned the program in all aspects by integrating the ISLLC standards in program curriculum and assessment. TEAC acknowledges and recommends adopting the ISLLC standards to organize the Inquiry Brief process (TEAC, 2005).

Educational leadership preparation programs use program logic and program logic models to bring together planning, evaluation, and actions for improvement. Program logic is based on a guiding philosophy and orientation of the program (TEAC, 2005). A program logic model is “a systematic, visual way to present a planned program with its underlying assumptions and theoretical framework” (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2000, p. 33). Although, a single diagram visual plan of why and how the faculty believed the program would work was not required by TEAC, a program logic model was designed and utilized by program faculty to understand TEAC’s Inquiry Brief accreditation mandate and to plan and implement the array of activities that were to follow.

PURPOSE

This paper illustrates the use of program logic and a program logic model designed with ISLLC standards to plan for and meet TEAC principles and standards for successful national accreditation of an educational leadership preparation program. A description of the program logic is discussed followed by an overview of the faculty’s accreditation journey, ISLLC standards, TEAC process, Inquiry Brief, assessment, and concludes with a description of the completed program logic model. The proceeding items must be reviewed to understand the program logic model.

PROGRAM LOGIC

The program logic begins with a brief introduction to a key program goal, the moral imperative of school leadership, PreK-12 student achievement (Fullan, 2003). A description of the faculty's planning and leadership role in the accreditation journey follows. Regent University is a Christian university and the program logic is an introduction to the planning process and provides an overview for the program logic model.

The Regent University Educational Leadership Program's Mission includes preparing the competencies, attributes, and performances for improving PreK-12 student achievement (Educational Administration Sub-committee, 2007 Section 1, p. 1). One goal is to utilize the ISLLC standards to teach and assess the program's learning outcomes and another goal is to integrate faith and learning.

Leadership is first and foremost a moral act (Burns, 1978) that creates a learning environment where educational leaders search for truth and explore the moral dimensions of their own learning (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006). Authors of the ISLLC standards state "effective school leaders are moral agents for the children and the communities they serve" (Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 1996, p. 5). Fullan (2003) declared that the moral imperative of school leadership is lowering the achievement gap between high and low performing students. Eliminating the achievement gap allows for successful learning environments. This type of learning environments requires effective leadership for improved student academic achievement (Reeves, 2006, p.1). These environments are a moral craft comprised of three distinct dimensions: the heart—one's beliefs and values; the head—one's theories of practice; and the hand—one's decisions and actions (Sergiovanni, 1992). All three are important in the academic preparation and effective actions of school leaders. Leadership preparation never ends and becomes a life-long journey. Lifelong learning should be present in all educational leadership preparation programs utilizing the ISLLC "standards to focus on key issues that form the heart and soul of effective leadership" (Ubben, Hughes, & Norris, 2006, p. xix).

THE FACULTY'S ACCREDITATION JOURNEY

The landscape of national accreditation in higher education can be daunting for a university program faculty particularly the first time being engaged in the planning and execution processes. Who will be taking the lead role? What does that role look like in the higher education culture? The answers to those questions become more complex upon learning there are two national accrediting bodies whose standards and processes are very different. This section presents key elements that challenged the educational leadership faculty on the journey to acquire national accreditation and provides experiences that support empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies of change.

Effective September 21, 2007, new higher education program approval regulations became effective in Virginia. These regulations state, "professional education programs shall obtain national accreditation from the National Council of the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), or a process approved by the Board of Education" (Code of Virginia, 2007). In Virginia, TEAC became the new kid on the block. The option for the university's national accreditation decision was between NCATE and TEAC. Both NCATE and TEAC are recognized by the U.S. Department of Education (DOE) and the Council of Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) for teacher and leadership preparation programs.

"Accreditation happens when an outside, non-profit organization studies the programs offered at a college or university and after finding the school meets prescribed educational standards, grants the school a quality stamp of approval" (GuideToOnlineSchools, n.d., p.1). Most, if not all, professionals and professional organizations (e.g. architecture, engineering, medicine, law, business, psychology, and human services) have built their reputations or their organization's reputation on being accredited. "Accreditation can be seen as a sort of educational insurance" (GuideToOnlineSchools, n.d., p.1). Most students earning degrees would not attend a school that is not accredited. Accreditation is a way of knowing the education provided has met standards set by both the government and experts in the field of post-secondary education (Alstete, 2004).

The new and or revised processes for accountability are directly connected with accreditation. The most important evidence for accountability is not found in attaining the degree or acquiring a school

leadership position. For graduates who have acquired a school leadership position, what evidence can be gathered from their success or lack of success in PreK-12 student achievement can be attributed to their leadership preparation at their university. As one who just completed attempts, both successful and unsuccessful, to gather this type of data, the author is keenly aware of the hurdles, from confidentiality to discernment. No matter what thoughts may come to mind, it is evident that the accountability placed on PreK-12 leaders in the field is also an accountability measure at the university level, to include those in the professorate who have been or are now preparing school leaders.

The leadership for Regent University's School of Education made the decision for national accreditation after initial inquiries and attendance at the January 2005 American Association of Teachers of College Educators (AATCE) meeting by a faculty member. The faculty met with TEAC at a July 2005 meeting in Charlottesville, Virginia and a larger TEAC training meeting March 2006 in Washington D.C. Much discussion and planning by faculty followed these meetings. During this process, the school of education faculty and dean adopted the TEAC process for national accreditation of all licensure programs: Educational Leadership, Elementary Education, Special Education, Career Switcher, and Teaching English to Students of Other Languages (TESOL). What resulted was a flurry of emotions; positive, negative, or somewhere between the two in the hallways, offices, and meeting rooms of the university. In the era of accountability, there was no doubt that the small group of faculty initially involved realized that gaining national accreditation was crucial to the viability of licensure programs in the School of Education. The faculty were also attuned to the fact that they were about to be studied, in a comprehensive manner, the way in which they were preparing the teachers and leaders for the nation's schools. Not only the fact that an outside agency was going to study programs, but the faculty themselves were about to embark on not only an accreditation journey, but a comprehensive planning and assessment journey. It was not clear where the lead role for the extensive planning process would evolve. Being selected, appointed, or by job title inherit the responsibility assigned for leading the accreditation effort, all faculty became involved in the process. The program chair and faculty planned and took action aligning curriculum, instruction, and assessment with the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards to design plans and implement the process of meeting TEAC Inquiry Brief requirements.

Driscoll & Noriega (2006) from the California State University Monterey Bay (CSUMB) accreditation stated, "one of the distinctive features of the entire evaluation was that it resembled design research, a process through which, with careful experimentation and testing, a stronger more effective institutional model would emerge" (p. xiii). What happened at CSUMB was that their accreditation process allowed them to work with their "own evidence and exhibits (e.g., documents, databases, and assessments) to determine if they accurately and fairly described the institution and then, using the commission's standards, to determine if the institution had made a convincing case in meeting the principles and standards required for accreditation" (p. xiii).

TEAC allowed for this type of accreditation/assessment process for the educational leadership faculty to establish its own claims within the standards and constraints of the TEAC Inquiry Brief process. The process was not so prescriptive, that faculty could not look at their data interpret that data and provide evidence for claims made regarding the program's graduates. It was a comprehensive planning and execution exercise.

The task of curriculum alignment and implementation was just slightly ahead of the TEAC accreditation process. The planning and its execution were continual. The faculty came to understand the processes for implementing both at relatively the same conjecture. The task was arduous. A caring and collaborative faculty was a plus, but change in any culture takes buy in from the constituents, it takes planning and implementation, and it takes a great deal of time. Empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies of change can come from the outside as well as the inside (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006). At times the SOE leadership or chair can provide some of the strategies, at other times the faculty themselves add impetus to the change.

For chairs and their faculty, there are five requirements for TEAC eligibility: the program is committed to TEAC's goal and quality principles; the program faculty understands that TEAC may disclose the member's accreditation status; the program faculty will provide any information that TEAC may require; the institution giving the program has regional accreditation or its equivalent; and the program's

graduates are eligible for the state's professional teaching license (TEAC, 2005). The most difficult for all is related to the first requirement. Specifically, TEAC's goal is to prepare caring, competent, and qualified educators, and the principles are; evidence of student learning, valid assessment of student learning, institutional learning, and capacity for program quality. Again, it is a change in the academic culture from the way things were done prior to engaging the TEAC process. With any change, it takes the conveyance of new information (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006), in this case, the TEAC goal, principles, and philosophy. Attitudes will be formulated that influenced positive attitudes through planning, collaboration, and shared decision-making. With positive outcomes, positive change to accomplish the TEAC mission will also come. If attitudes are negative or heading that way, change is unlikely and the process compromised. In implementation of both curriculum alignment and assessment strategies while building the case for the TEAC Inquiry Brief, faculty soon visualize, each at their own pace, the requirements needed to meet TEAC required deadlines.

Where does the TEAC process begin? Certainly it begins with having comprehensive planning skills and working knowledge of the TEAC process and being a practitioner of effective leadership strategies, including collaborative discussions and in-service with faculty regarding the process. The next step is to write Section 1: Program Overview of the Inquiry Brief and begin to collect data that would provide evidence for the claims the faculty would make about the program. The Inquiry Brief is built upon the claims the faculty make about the program based on the available evidence to support the claim for each of the Quality Principles and Crosscutting Themes. For a chair, it means taking the lead in planning for the development of claims and providing evidence for those claims. In assessing the measurements available certain types of evidence linked to Quality Principle 1 are outlined by TEAC. They include (non-inclusive): student grades, student scores on licensure assessments (e.g., School Leaders Licensure Assessment); student scores on admissions tests; third part ratings of program's students; ratings on field experiences; rates of program completion; graduates' job placement; graduates' advanced professional study; graduates' leadership roles; graduates' self-assessment of accomplishments; third party recognition of graduates; employer' evaluations of graduates; graduates' authoring of textbooks; curriculum materials; and case studies of the graduates' learning (TEAC, 2005).

The faculty then proceeded through the remaining planning and execution of TEAC Brief requirements, Section 2 through Section 5. Section 2 of the brief is developed, analyzing the claims made by the program faculty about the accomplishments of its students and graduates. Also in Section 2 is the rationale for the assessments, which is the credibility of each assessment the faculty uses in supporting each claim associated with TEAC (2005) Quality Principle 1, student learning. Basically, this is the faculty's "persuasive argument that shows how the program's assessment procedures measure the program's goal of preparing competent, caring, and qualified leaders and the program's claims about the accomplishments of graduates with regard to Quality Principle 1" (TEAC, 2005, p. 45).

Section 3, titled Methods of Assessment, are the "methods by which the faculty found the evidence that supported or failed to support, its claims of student learning and accomplishment" (TEAC, 2005 p. 25). Included in this section are the categories of evidence indicated earlier in the Section 1 overview and validity and reliability procedures. In Section 4, the faculty reports the results of their investigation, followed by Section 5, titled Discussion and Plan, where the faculty announces its conclusions about each of the claims, and what the results mean for program planning and improvements.

The faculty must have a good conceptual basis for implementing, monitoring, and assessing the ISLLC standards and the TEAC accreditation process. In addition, understanding the differences between the development, assessment, results, and discussion regarding the claims and conducting the internal audit of the quality control system, the faculty can take leadership roles and produce a quality Inquiry Brief for the TEAC audit visit and follow-up accreditation decision steps. Strong planning skills and experiences are crucial in accomplishing the completion of a TEAC auditable Inquiry Brief.

With guidance and faculty leadership, the faculty realizes that the evaluation and improvement of the program and the TEAC accreditation process is, and will continue to be an ongoing process. Evidence can become stronger as data taken to develop the current Inquiry Brief is enhanced and new methods of assessment designed, especially those that can capture data on graduates' performance in the field of practice in PreK-12 student achievement (Arroyo, Koonce, & Hanes, 2007).

To conclude, accreditation is about many things, it is about change and it is about purpose. Let us never lose the insight for the ultimate purpose that engenders the time and energies of those in academia. The ultimate purpose for attaining national accreditation, regional accreditation, or state program approval for an educational leadership preparation program is PreK-12 student achievement.

ISLLC STANDARDS OVERVIEW

The Regent Educational Leadership Program is designed to respond to Fullan's (2003) moral imperative by accomplishing its ultimate mission, radically improved PreK-12 student achievement, by developing leaders for the schools (Educational Administration Sub-committee, 2007). Leaders for the schools include all educational leadership positions from assistant principal to superintendents and personnel specialist to business managers and their equivalents (TEAC 2005). The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) agreed, noting that their six standards for school leaders not only apply to principals but for nearly all formal leadership positions in education (CCSSO, 1996). "The field of school leadership in the United States is coalescing around the ISLLC Standards" (e-Lead, n.d., p. 1). The reform movement in school leadership preparation program redesign can be linked to adoption of the ISLLC Standards (Hessel & Holloway, 2002). The impact "The efforts of ISLLC have moved standards to the next level to form a framework that provides an excellent base for the organization of school leader preparation programs" (Ubben, Hughes, & Norris, 2006, p. xix). Most states have adopted the ISLLC standards for their educational leadership preparation programs (Owens & Valesky, 2007 and McCloud, 2007). The Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty (2005) indicates that 40 states have ISLLC standards incorporated into policies for principal licensure. Murphy (2005) states that to regroup the profession was a key goal of the ISLLC standards. The National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) and other organizations have recommended their membership use the ISLLC Standards (e-Lead, n.d.). TEAC (2005) recommends the ISLLC standards be used as a means for addressing Quality Principle 1 and for developing the Inquiry Brief. At the same time faculty were engaged by empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies of change (Owens & Valesky, 2007) brought on by the TEAC process, they were also moved to change because of the integration of the ISLLC standards into curriculum and assessment.

Preparation programs for school leaders must provide more evidence oriented to outcomes (Murphy & Vriesenga, 2004). This evidence would logically be enhanced student achievement in PreK-12 schools across the nation. Assessment outcomes for the Regent University Educational Leadership Program will be identified later in the assessment overview and in the program logic model that follows.

The ISLLC produced six standards where the success of students is paramount. The ISLLC standards are a commendable achievement by its architects (Engler, 2004, p. x). They were revised as national standards adopted by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration in 2008 (CCSSO, 2007). These standards call for six areas of school leadership focus:

1. Setting a widely shared vision for learning;
2. Developing a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth;
3. Ensuring effective management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment;
4. Collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources;
5. Acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner; and
6. Understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, legal, and cultural context (p. 6)

"The new ISLLC standards are designed to serve as broad national policy standards for states that use them as a national model for developing their own standards" (Beyer, 2009, p 5). With 183 knowledge, disposition, and performance indicators under the broad categories, the standards are difficult for

new students to grasp. For the benefit of students, the faculty developed an acronym for learning these six important standards: VIMCEP (see Figure 2 under Outcomes - ISLLC). V, is for vision for learning; I, is for instructional program; M, is for management; C, is for community; I, is for integrity, and P, is for politics.

The ISLLC standards must be applied through problem-based learning in order to have any true meaning (Engler, 2004). The problems students must resolve are found in simulations, in-baskets, vignettes, scenarios, role-playing, and case studies. These problem-based learning techniques allow students to understand and seek appropriate solutions they will confront as school leaders, (Hessel & Holloway, 2003). The standards are not set up to be memorized but to be applied to principal knowledge and skills. University educational leadership preparation programs should be planned and designed utilizing problem-based learning outcomes for entry level positions as well as attaining a passing score on the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA). A passing score on the SLLA is required by many states for licensing school leaders (assistant principals, principals, superintendents).

The ISLLC standards are research-based with the knowledge, dispositions, and performances necessary for exemplary school leadership (Engler, 2004). When taken as a whole, they focus on four broad themes: a vision for success, a focus on teaching and learning, an involvement of all stakeholders, and a demonstration of ethical behavior (Hessel & Holloway, 2002). These themes do not work in isolation, but in concert, with successful school leaders. These four broad themes can be used for assessment purposes.

Incorporating ISLLC Standards into educational leadership preparation programs offers guidance and a shared vision of what school leaders should know and do (Ricken, 2007 and Hoy & Tarter, 2008). By the fall of 2004, policy makers in at least 40 states had incorporated the ISLLC standards into principal licensure policies (Waters & Grubb, 2004; Murphy, 2005; and Olsen, 2008); and Collaboration for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. Furthermore, many university programs are moving to a standards-driven program and away from being course-based (Green, 2005). A graduate program for preparing transformational leaders should be a program and not a series of disparate courses (Senge, 2000, p. 319). Using a standards-based program is the fairest way to assess human performance whether it is in the classroom, the executive suite, the performance stage, the boardroom, or the principal's office (Reeves, 2002).

The Pathwise Framework provided by ETS to link the ISLLC Standards to practice states that the "standards promise to occupy a central position in the fight to reshape the profession around learner-centered leadership" (Hessel & Holloway, 2002, p. 9). Through extensive planning, the ISLLC Standards became a part of the Regent University Educational Leadership program in 2003.

The Regent University Educational Leadership program utilized the ISLLC Standards to address each claim (the six ISLLC Standards) in the TEAC Inquiry Brief. Assessments are addressed as a collective body, using the same instruments for each claim to gather data and provide evidence. Strategic planning is crucial to incorporating the ISLLC standards as the program's learning outcomes. The faculty designed a Leadership and Learning matrix to align ISLLC standards and state competencies with course learning outcomes. This matrix became the centerpiece for the program's curriculum and curriculum assessment. This curriculum guide is a component of continuous planning for program improvement.

TEAC OVERVIEW

A nonprofit organization, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), was founded in 1997. Designed to improve academic degree programs for PreK-12, TEAC's main goal is to support the creation of caring, competent, and qualified educators. TEAC also conducts meetings and workshops for its members in order to improve program design and effectiveness.

Accreditation is awarded to the education program within the organization – not the entire organization. Members include higher education, research, and professional organizations. TEAC is recognized by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation and by the U.S. Department of Education. Additional information can be found at www.teac.org.

Eligibility requirements for accreditation are that the institution has regional accreditation or its

equivalent; that the program faculty understands that TEAC may disclose the member's accreditation status; the faculty are committed to TEAC's goals and quality principles and will provide any information that TEAC may require; and that the program's graduates are eligible for the state's professional teaching license. TEAC accreditation standards and principles are outlined in the Appendix: TEAC's Accreditation Standards and Principles.

INQUIRY BRIEF OVERVIEW

The Inquiry Brief is a 50 page research monograph which provides evidence that the educational program supports TEAC's three quality principals and standards for capacity. The Inquiry Brief also addresses the program's standards for capacity for quality.

The Inquiry Brief is based mostly on existing documents and should be produced and approved by all faculty members of the program. TEAC provides a guide to producing an Inquiry Brief so that the faculty members will develop a comprehensive document and be prepared for the audit process. Both include important planning functions (TEAC, 2005).

The Inquiry Brief includes:

1. Claims the faculty make about the knowledge and skills of the program's graduates
2. Rationale for assessments of the claims
3. Description of the psychometric properties of the evidence given in support of the claims
4. Discussion of the interpretation of the evidence
5. Efforts to evaluate the quality control system
6. Adequacy of program capacity

Required elements of the Inquiry Brief include:

1. Verifiable authorship and faculty endorsement
2. Brevity and linguistic precision (50 pages or less)
3. Seven required components:
 - a. Program Overview – this section includes overall logic in terms of philosophy, program areas, levels, options, history, and program demographics, which include numbers and types of students.
 - b. Claims and Rationale – The claims section includes a statement of the claims that are consistent with claims in the program's literature, arguments to support the links between the claims and the components of the first quality principle of evidence of student learning. This section also includes cross-cutting themes of learning to learn, multicultural perspectives and the technology. The rationale section includes justification that the assessments are linked to goals, claims, and program requirements.
 - c. Method – this section includes assessments used for the evidence, descriptions of those assessments, criteria for achievement or success, published information about the reliability and validity of the assessments, arguments for the content validity of the assessments and sampling procedure and procurement of evidence.
 - d. Results – this section includes results of the investigation into the reliability and validity of the assessments and the results of the assessments.
 - e. Discussion and Plan – this section includes a discussion of the meaning of the results and the steps to be taken to improve the program as well as new investigations based on the results and evidence of student learning.
 - f. References – this section includes any works cited.
 - g. Appendices – this section covers five areas – an internal audit report, capacity, qualification of the faculty, program requirements, and full disclosure of all relevant and available evidence (TEAC, 2005).

ASSESSMENT OVERVIEW

Assessment is the methods used by the faculty to support the evidence presented for program claims (TEAC, 2005). The faculty assessment procedure ensures that students are assessed continuously in their program and in multiple ways as required by TEAC in the Inquiry Brief (Arroyo, Koonce, & Hanes, 2007). Faculty members take part in the assessment at various points, and the evidence includes both quantitative and qualitative data. The faculty also acknowledges that program claims are interrelated and connected. A clear picture of how the program is preparing competent, caring, and qualified leaders is not possible without discussing assessment results as a whole. It is critically important to note that the ISLLC Standards are not taught in isolation but as a body of knowledge, dispositions, and performances that connect together for understanding of the complexities of school leadership. Where the assessments can be directed specifically at a particular standard (claim) it is presented in order to identify the program's uniqueness.

The faculty (Arroyo, Koonce, & Hanes, 2007) determined that the following measures would be used to assess the six program claims: (a) the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA), (b) Internship Mentor's Assessments, (c) alumni survey results, (d) case study from the Executive Leadership Cohort, including an interview using the alumni survey and employee ratings from the partnering school division, (e) student cumulative grade point averages (CGPA's), and (f) Course Power Objectives (CPO's). The following rationale will briefly describe these assessments. Each will be seen as a visual in the program logic model found in the next section.

The SLLA is derived from the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards. It is designed to measure whether entry-level principals and other school leaders have the relevant knowledge believed necessary for competent professional practice (Educational Testing Service, 2006).

The Internship Mentor Assessment is a 24 item Likert scale instrument. This assessment is derived from the framework of the ISSLC standards, (Hessel & Holloway, 2002).

Surveys were sent to alumni in the Educational Leadership program. The surveys included several items that addressed the alumni's perceived degree of success in meeting the ISSLC standards, the TEAC QP1 components, the program goal of being competent, caring and qualified teachers, and the TEAC crosscutting themes.

A case study of documenting the 2005 Executive Leadership cohort of students from a public school system demonstrated the degree to which these program graduates are competent, caring, and qualified leaders practicing in the field as full time assistant principals. In a similar vein, the employee survey was completed by supervising principals from this school division. The division's performance evaluation form is designed to assess the degree in which cohort graduates exhibit the six ISSLC standards, therefore directly addressing all of our claims.

Cumulative grade point averages (CGPA's) are a general indicator of how students have progressed in meeting the various course competencies. These competencies are linked to program claims, the VDOE requirements for endorsement, and the ISSLC standards.

Course power objectives (CPO's) are key objectives within the program that most indicate the level of competence every student is demonstrating in the various indicators found in the ISLLC Standards and link the six standards to professional knowledge, strategic decision making, and caring leadership. In general, the courses each have one power objective with a corresponding assessment piece.

Improving PreK-12 student achievement requires self-examination and a commitment to lead with character, becoming a servant leader "who has shaped the creed of the school and collaboratively developed clear priorities for learning" (Williams & Taylor, 2003, p. 51). Character is transforming values into action (Covey, 1988), which connects well with the moral mission of leadership for the schools (Smith & Piele, 1996) and to ISLLC learning outcomes and TEAC principles and standards in the Regent Educational Leadership Program. The faculty is committed to the program logic, to continuously plan for program improvement, and to graduate competent, caring, and qualified leaders for the schools.

PROGRAM LOGIC MODEL

To help guide the planning endeavor and to help our implementation and evaluation processes, we built a program logic model that attempted to address the various pieces of the accreditation puzzle in a concise manner. We intentionally constrained our expression of this model to a single 8½ by 11 sheet of paper. One of us had produced a General Program Evaluation Logic Model (Hanes, 1998) for the Center for the Study of Social Issues at the University of North Carolina-Greensboro, and Figure 1 shows this fairly traditional structure.

Initially, we outlined what we believed were the essential elements for the SOE's Educational Leadership program beginning with societal educational Needs that we interpreted in the broadest sense as radically improved K-12 education. Following the traditional structure model above, this led us to sources, inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and a feedback loop (Figure 2).

As a Christian institution, we placed Christ, as the foundation for all that we do, on the left hand side of the model. Although we have many sources that help to provide for our program inputs, we felt that Regent University, our local school systems, our faith, the TEAC organization, and our various partnerships within the community (including schools) were among the most important. To aid our planning for the accreditation task before us, we integrated the various sections and parts of the TEAC Inquiry Brief with the Logic Model. Note that Section 1 of the brief is an introduction to Regent University, and we placed this in abbreviated form directly under the Sources block labeled "Regent University."

For Inputs, we selected the seven TEAC Principle 4 Standards of Capacity for Program Quality: Curriculum; Faculty; Facilities, equipment, and supplies; fiscal and administrative strength; student support services; recruiting and admissions practices, academic calendars, catalogs, publications, grading, and advertising; and student feedback mechanisms. As shown in Figure 2, the Inquiry Brief devotes Appendix B to establishing parity for each of these seven standards between the Educational Leadership program and the university as a whole. Also, Appendix C and Appendix D address the program curriculum and faculty, respectively.

Between the Inputs (Capacities) and the Activities, we enter the Internal Audit Arena. Within this arena, the faculty develops both a narrative and a schematic picture of the program's quality control system. From overarching questions about the quality control system, the faculty then generates an audit plan that includes a focus and point of entry, such as a randomly selected student folder. Various faculty sub-committees utilize probes to investigate selected audit targets to check the integrity of the quality control system. These endeavors produce an audit trail and lead to the Internal Audit Report that is contained in Appendix A of the Inquiry Brief. This report links Quality Principle 3.2 to the Capacities or Inputs (Figure 2).

Our Activities components also focus on quality in three different ways. Per TEAC's Quality Principle 2, we must offer evidence that our assessments are reasonable, credible, reliable, and valid. We also must demonstrate that our planning is based upon solid evidence that the faculty as a whole has assessed and warranted (Quality Principle 3.1). Furthermore, the faculty must establish that the Quality Control System influences program decisions (Quality Principle 3.2). We note that Sections 3-5 of the Inquiry Brief address these principles and that Appendix F allows us to include any validity and reliability documentation for our locally developed assessment instruments.

As we prepare and equip our students to lead in schools and other educational venues, we move into the Service Arena where the program interfaces with the SOE students. For Internal Audit and future analysis purposes, we collect data on incoming students with a special interest in their entry assessments. Although unrelated, we also note at this point in our model that Section 6 of the Inquiry Brief contains all references in APA format, and we intended to use the university's server-based RefWorks bibliographic engine for this purpose.

The outputs for the program consist of credit hours completed by our students, our graduates, course quality ratings by our students, and surveyed student satisfaction with the program. After the Outputs, we introduce data related to both prior cohorts of Regent students and current cohorts at other institutions. We do this partially in planning mode because Quality Principle 3 suggests each program should always be asking the question, "Compared to what?" about all aspects of its data. This essential relates best to two of the three levels of program claims that TEAC emphasizes: value added and causal

claims. The third and lowest level is status claims, and this is what most of the TEAC programs utilize at the current time because of the difficulties in substantiating value-added or cause and effect.

For our Outcomes, we do propound status claims which constitute Section 2 of the Inquiry Brief. We claim that our graduates are competent practitioners utilizing the six main ISLLC standards which we package with the VIMCEP acronym. TEAC's Quality Principle 1 requires us to tie our ISLLC claims to their quality components of student learning in terms of professional knowledge, strategic decision-making and caring leadership skills. Three cross-cutting themes (technology, multicultural perspectives and understanding, and learning how to learn or life-long learning) complement the quality components. We make the connections via a crosswalk that links the ISLLC and TEAC elements of our Outcomes.

Note that we add a set of ultimate outcomes that may be difficult to substantiate initially, but they should hold our attention as we plan for the future. Because we seek to radically improve PreK-12 education, this goal should be ultimately reflected by increasing PreK-12 achievement, closing achievement gaps among various groups, and a faith based conceptual framework component for our graduates that involves seeking knowledge, seeking wisdom, serving others, and edifying others (hopefully their students and colleagues). We do note at this point in the model that we need to be constantly aware of any unsupported claims that may have been expressed on our website or in marketing materials distributed by the SOE. This reminds us to always plan for the unexpected occurrence of things that we may have to defend or retract.

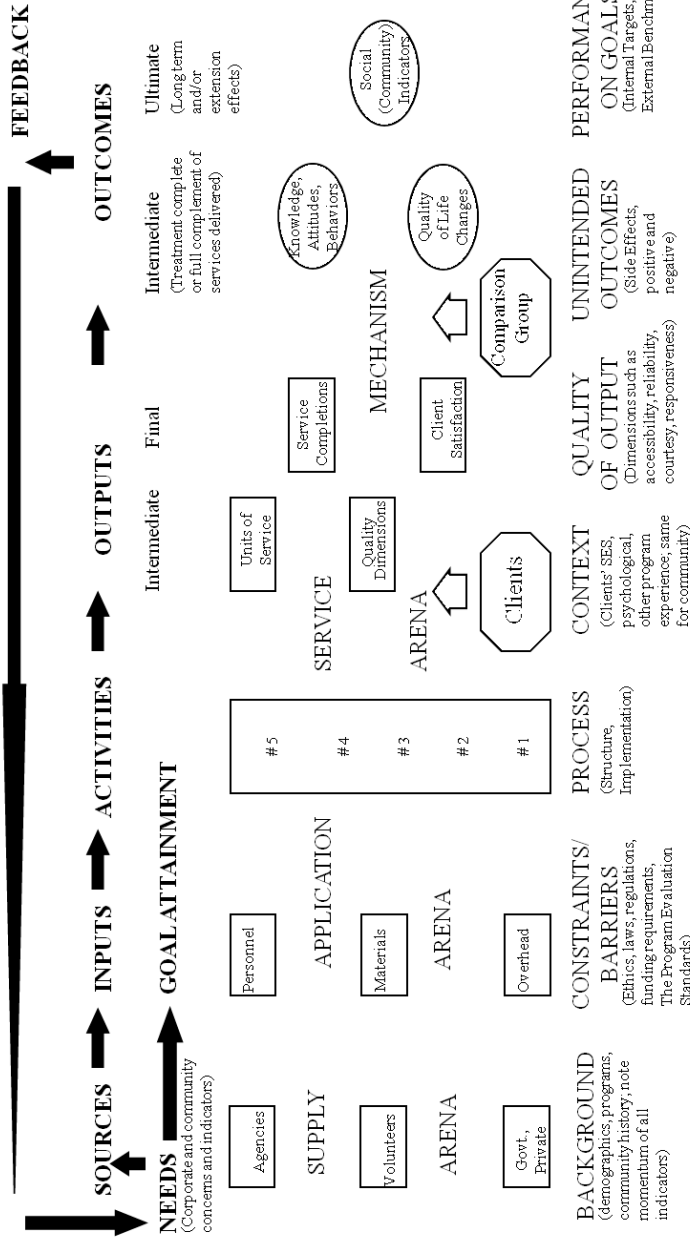
Each of the claims requires supporting evidence that depends on triangulation and replication for its integrity. TEAC presents a program with an inventory of twenty measures and indicators that comprise Appendix E of the brief (Figure 3). We re-grouped these pieces of evidence to apply to our graduates as they exit the program, after they are in the field, and as they contribute to the payoff that is represented by our ultimate outcomes. Within the payoff structure, we have included the possibility of futures evaluation, and this prompts our planning process.

Overall, at the bottom of the model, we seek to maintain consistency internally in terms of both approach and organization with the SOE's other Inquiry Brief for the general licensure programs and externally with multiple reporting agencies representing the state and the Educational Testing Service. When TEAC performs its on-site audit, they will have access to multiple reporting sources, and we need to assure consistency across the data.

We have tried to concisely and comprehensively unite TEAC's accreditation requirements with our own program specifications within a single diagram that can direct our planning and execution of a relatively complex process. We sense that there will be an evolution in our thinking as we move forward, but we do have an explicit map that can be readily adjusted as plans and events change.

Figure 1: General Program Evaluation Logic Model

General Program Evaluation Logic Model



Evaluation ■ Merit vs. worth; grading, ranking, scoring, apportioning; may include explanation, recommendations, comparison, generalization.

Over Time ■ Variables Change; Seek to Increase Program Merit, Worth, Empowerment, Proactivity, and Utilization.

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Figure 2: TEAC Logic Model Leadership Education

TEAC Logic Model Leadership Education

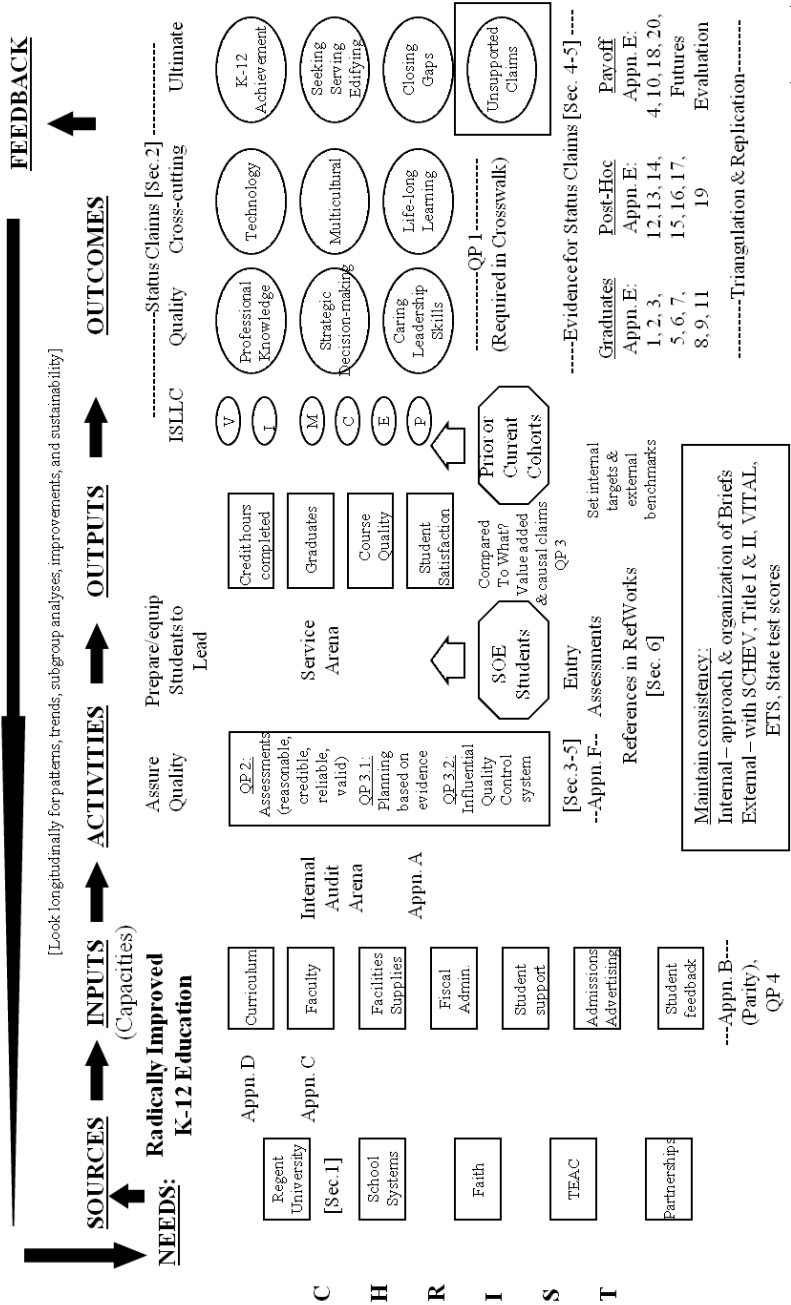


Figure 3: Twenty Measures and Indicators That Comprise Appendix E of the Inquiry Brief

1. Student grades and grade point average(s)
2. Student scores on standardized license or board examinations
3. Student scores on admission tests of subject matter knowledge for graduate study
4. Standardized scores and gains of the program graduates' own pupils
5. Ratings of portfolios of academic and clinical accomplishments
6. Third-party rating of programs' students
7. Ratings of in-service, clinical, and PDS teaching
8. Ratings, by mentoring administrators and university supervisor, of practice candidates' work samples
9. Rates of completion of courses and program
10. Graduates' career retention rates
11. Graduates' job placement rates
12. Rates of graduates' professional advanced study
13. Rates of graduates' leadership roles
14. Rates of graduates' professional service activities
15. Evaluation of graduates by their pupils
16. Alumni self-assessment of their accomplishments
17. Third-party professional recognition of graduates
18. Employers' evaluations of the program's graduates
19. Graduates' authoring textbooks, curriculum material, etc.
20. Case studies of graduates' learning and accomplishment

SUMMARY

This article has provided insights into the Teacher Accreditation Council Inquiry Brief process for national accreditation of an educational leadership preparation program. Program logic is a critical component of the planning process that includes resources, talents, and active participation by all faculty members in the program, particularly school and faculty leadership. Understanding the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards anchor the program and the claims the program makes about its graduates. Knowledge of ISLLC standards, leads to greater understanding of the Inquiry Brief process for educational leadership preparation programs. The program logic model and its one page charted layout details the entire process. This model can benefit new programs to TEAC and be an informative planning tool to implement the steps necessary to achieve national accreditation.

APPENDIX

TEAC'S ACCREDITATION STANDARDS AND PRINCIPLES (TEAC, 2005)

The purpose of the TEAC accreditation process is to test the claims that the faculty make in the Inquiry Brief about the quality of their teacher preparation program. The Inquiry Brief is the document that provides evidence to TEAC that the educational program produces graduates who are competent, caring and qualified educators. Two key factors in whether TEAC approves a program are the quality of the evidence and the system that produced the evidence. A great deal of planning goes into assuring this happens.

An academic audit to review the information presented in the Inquiry Brief is performed by a team of two to four trained auditors over a two to three day period. After a panel evaluates the evidence, a committee of TEAC's board of directors reviews the case and makes the accreditation decision.

TEAC's Philosophy of Accreditation: Four Process Principles

Four principles guide TEAC's accreditation process:

1. Improvement is a continuous process.
2. The accreditation process must be inquiry driven by the program faculty.
3. The accreditation process includes evidence from academic audits.
4. The process is not intended to burden the program with unnecessary activities or costs.

Process Principle 1: Continuous improvement to advance quality

This principle reflects an understanding that improvement is a process that leads to many different paths to excellence rather than a focus on a particular model or template for education programs. It includes creating constancy of purpose for improvement which is balanced with short and long-term results, knowledge and action. This principle includes linking program improvement to student learning and improving every system in the program to enhance the quality of teaching, learning, research, service activities, and outcomes. This principle also seeks to eliminate misleading and superficial numerical quotas and indicators.

Process Principle 2: Inquiry-driven accreditation

Since institutions of higher education take a scholarly approach to their work, the accreditation process is driven by the same quality of inquiry. The questions that drive the inquiry should reflect the mission of the program and the TEAC goal of creating caring, competent, and qualified educators.

Process Principle 3: Audits to ensure quality

An academic audit is an investigative review of how a program produces the three TEAC Quality Principles. This audit verifies the processes – not the quality of the program itself. When the institution and the program demonstrate accountability to the public for solid evidence of student learning, then this process principle has been accomplished.

Process Principle 4: Frugality

The accreditation process is designed to be efficient and use minimal resources necessary to make timely decisions. The process should be part of the normal quality control systems that the programs currently use. The Inquiry Brief is based on existing documents and is of reasonable size – 50 pages – about the size of a research monograph – and focuses on what the program faculty wants and needs to know about the program's performance.

TEAC's Quality Principles and Standards of Capacity

“TEAC's goal is to support the preparation of competent, caring and qualified professional educators” (2005, p.2). Accreditation is accomplished by the faculty of a program presenting the case for succeeding in this endeavor by describing, in the Inquiry Brief, how the program meets TEAC's three quality principles as well as standards of capacity.

The three quality principles represent the core outcome, the core value and the core activity of the accreditation process. They are evidence of student learning, valid assessment of student learning, and institutional learning. Additionally, TEAC uses a system of heuristics to determine whether a programs' “evidence of student learning and other matters is trustworthy and sufficient (2005, p. 2).

Quality Principle 1: Evidence of Student Learning

This principle represents the core outcome of the TEAC accreditation system, student learning. For educational leadership programs, this evidence includes the following components:

1. Professional knowledge – includes knowledge of organizational theory and development; human resource management; school finance and law; instructional supervision; educational policy and politics; and data analysis and interpretation. The graduates must be prepared to create or develop an ethical and productive school culture, an effective instructional program, comprehensive professional staff development plans, a safe and ef-

efficient learning environment, a profitable collaboration with families and other community members, the capacity to serve diverse community interests and needs and the ability to mobilize the community's resources in support of the school's goals.

2. Strategic decision making – educational leaders must learn how to make decisions fairly and collaboratively, informed by relevant research and evidence; to formulate strategy to achieve school goals; and to articulate and communicate an educational vision that is consistent with the school's mission and the nation's democratic ideals.
3. Caring leadership skills – educational leaders must demonstrate a caring and professional manner that is defined by unconditional acceptance of the staff and students, and an intention to address staff's and student's professional and education needs. Recognition by the student and staff that the leader cares also demonstrates caring leadership skills on behalf of the educational leader.
4. Cross-cutting themes – this category includes several components related to liberal arts in terms of being well-informed individuals, such as oral and written rhetorical skills, critical thinking, and the qualitative and quantitative reasoning skills that foster independent learning, as well as knowledge of other perspectives and cultures and the modern technological tools of scholarship and administration. The main concerns of the TEAC accreditation process for cross-cutting themes are: learning how to learn, multicultural perspectives and understanding, and technology.

Quality Principle 2: Valid Assessment of Leader Learning

This principle represents the core value of the TEAC accreditation system, valid assessment of student learning.

For educational leadership programs, faculty demonstrate this principle in both their rationale for the links made between assessments, the program goals, the claims made about student learning, and the program's reasonable and credible features as well as in presentation of evidence of valid assessment.

Quality Principle 3: Institutional Learning

This principle represents the core activity of the accreditation process, institutional learning.

TEAC'S Capacity for Quality

Besides the three quality principles, TEAC also requires that the faculty demonstrate that the program has the capacity to provide for the program's quality of instruction and student learning. Components of capacity include the curriculum, faculty, facilities, fiscal and administrative strength, student support services, recruiting and admissions practices, and student feedback mechanisms. These components constitute the focus of the internal audit.

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Institutional Framework for Developing Sustainable Quality Distance Education in West Africa: Guidelines, Engines, and Policy Options

Emmanuel C. Ibara

ABSTRACT

As a tool in an educational delivery system contributing to social and economic development, distance learning has become an accepted and indispensable aspect of the mainstream of educational systems in developed and developing countries. Indeed, the globalization of distance education provides several opportunities for developing countries, including the West African sub-region, for the realization of education system goals, especially the growing need for continuing skills upgrading and retraining. As countries in the West African sub-region become more aware of the potential of distance learning, it is important for their educational planning that the opportunities provided by new technologies prominent in distance learning be realistically harnessed within the framework of well-defined policies. In this regard, a policy framework is needed to ensure that quality education is provided for learners in new and long-established distance education institutions in the West African sub-region. Regardless of the diverse distance education practices in the West African sub-region, a regional policy framework is possible and imperative to regulate the organization and implementation of quality distance higher education programmes in West Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Distance education is not a new delivery method of learning in the West African sub-region. It has been acclaimed by many as an independent and complementary delivery approach to the provision of the formal educational system (Sait, 2000). Recently, it has become a viable educational training tool and many countries in the West African sub-region have turned to alternative educational means such as distance education to meet their human manpower needs. Research conducted on the effectiveness of distance education in many parts of the world has proven that it can be as effective as the conventional approach in producing trained human assets (Debebe, 2003).

Distance education opens the door for education for those who cannot attend regular higher education. For instance, the conventional educational system in Africa has not met the demand for higher education NOUN (2005). Koul (2005) observed that as a result of rapid population growth and economic stagnation, the gap between sub-Saharan African and the rest of the world appears to be widening. Distance education, no doubt, has a great potential in helping fill the gap. Similarly, Arger (1990) noted that distance education possess the comparative advantage in the areas of massification of higher education, democratization of education and cost effectiveness as well as efficiency over conventional education system.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The need to clarify common terms used to describe distance education becomes imperative in order to provide direction to the discussion. Several terms are used interchangeably to refer to distance education. These terms include, but are not limited to, distance learning, distance teaching, and independent study. The compound concept “distance education” subsumes the other terms as most of those terms merely address specific aspect of distance education (UNESCO, 2002). For instance, distance learning describes the student centeredness of distance education and deals with use of print media technologies to present individual lessons to learners at a distance (Keegan, 1996). Distance teaching refers to the didactic strategies of delivery of instruction to students, and is instructor centered (Yusuf, 2006). Independent study is used for a range of teaching-learning activities, which indicates students’ control over learning time, pace, and place (Koul, 2005). Distance education has within its purview elements of these terms. Thus, Holmberg (1990) defines distance education as:

the various forms of teaching and learning at all levels which are not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms or in the same premises but which nevertheless benefit from the planning , guidance and teaching of the staff

of the tutorial organization.

Arising from the above, distance education is the delivery of useful learning opportunities at a convenient place and time for learners, irrespective of the institution providing the learning opportunity. The concept of distance education represents an approach that focuses on opening access to education and training, freeing learners from the constraints of time and place of learning, and offering flexible learning opportunities to individual and groups (Ibara, 2008). Thus, it is an unconventional mode of educational delivery where the learner has choice as to the time and place learning can occur. It adopts more of open learning than the conventional institutions in which learners must be studying at a set time and place (Emenalo, 2007). Distance education not only shares the goals of conventional education, but it also aims at providing access to an historically under-served, place-bound, and highly motivated population (Keegan, 1996; Yusuf, 2006). Nevertheless, at the West African sub-regional level, and some national levels, distance education delivery remains largely uncoordinated as a result of the absence of regional or national policy on distance learning. Generally, national institutions operate in isolation, resulting in operational problems such as lack of collaboration and support for each and avoidable duplication of activities (Braithmoh & Lekoko, 2005). These developments require well-defined policy to enhance effective networking and collaboration. Collaborative effort can accelerate the provision of distance education activities that are responsive to the needs of the diverse interests in the West African sub-region. This paper, therefore, points to the need for a sub-regional policy framework to ensure sustainable quality distance education programmes in the West African sub-region.

THE NEED FOR SUB-REGIONAL POLICY

Dodds and Youngman (1994) observed that since the 1970's, distance education has been an important policy option for educational planners and policy makers in developing countries. Gellman-Danley and Fetzner (1997) noted that the presence of policies can provide a framework for operation. Conversely, the absence of policy compromises the quality of programme. Also, the increasing popularity and demand for distance education in the West African sub-region is signified by the rate at which several tertiary institutions are adopting a bi-modal educational delivery approach. A bi-modal delivery approach is the capacity of an institution to administer open distance learning education and face-to-face courses as combined programmes. Some institutions, however, are ill equipped to administer the bi-modal delivery approach. For instance, these institutions may not have adequate learner support services, such as libraries, skilled manpower, and appropriate technologies before adopting the bi-modal delivery approach. Consequently, students pay for poor quality and in some cases unaccredited programmes. The formulation of a policy framework can strengthen the already desirable effects of distance education, and also safeguard against such exploitative tendency.

Arising from the above, the increasing awareness of distance education as a tool for widening access to education at different levels has led many countries and sub-regional groups to contemplate policy frameworks. Braithmoh and Lekoko (2005) indicated that practitioners at the centre for Continuing Education, University of Botswana prepared a working paper on the development of open and distance learning (ODL) policy. The paper highlighted some critical areas that can be adopted for regional use. The areas include:

- To control and maintain quality of services provided;
- To protect the innocent distance education clientele from willful exploitation by profit seeking organizations through exorbitant fees for an unaccredited programme;
- To harmonize the use of physical, human and material resources through partnership and collaboration in order to achieve economics of scale and to operate an efficient distance education programme, while at the same time avoiding unnecessary duplication of activities;
- To forge linkages with international bodies to achieve exchange of expertise and facilitate staff training progress in ODL;
- To guarantee credit transfer to other institutions through national, regional and international accreditation process;

- To create an enabling learning environment through the provision of adequate learners support services, such as libraries, access to appropriate technologies, availability of skilled manpower;
- To ensure parity of products by mainstreaming ODL programmes with the conventional system for the purpose of recognition and respectability;
- To guarantee legal copyrights for authors;
- To ascertain the relevance of educational programmes to the needs of the country; and
- To improve the quality of programme through the supply of quality staff including the adequacy and appropriateness of infrastructures available before embarking on distance education programme.

The above goals can be addressed in a more appropriate and responsive manner through well-defined regional institutional policies. Stressing the importance of policy, Epper (2004) observed that some tertiary distance education institutions in developed and developing countries do not have a policy framework. Perhaps, some problems encountered regarding distance education in the West African sub-region might be attributed to a lack of a policy framework to guide the modus operandi of achieving higher quality in the programmes offered. Also, a policy document can guard against exploitative practices. Braimoh and Lekoko (2005) rightly noted that while the virtues of distance education as a potential mode for widening access to and providing flexibility of learning styles cannot be over-emphasized, there is the need to guard against the mushrooming of distance education institutions with doubtful academic performance records. In the West sub-region many institutions are engaged in providing distance higher education programmes, with increasing concern over what is now referred to as commodification and commercialization of education. This, therefore, underscores the need for regional policy that will focus on fundamental policy areas in distance education.

POLICY DEVELOPMENT AREAS

Policy connotes a plan of action in specific areas geared towards the development of distance-learning framework in the West African sub region. Berge (1998) proposed a model to assist decision makers look at the policy areas of distance education. The policy areas include, academic, administration, government/administration, legal, student support services, technical, and cultural. Given the peculiar circumstances in the West African sub-region, an additional policy area, exchange programme/partnership, is warranted as well as modification of two aspects suggested by Berge to yield a seven-item model aimed at providing the basic framework for policy development.

Table 1: Policy Development Areas

POLICY AREA	KEY ISSUES
Academic	Course development and integrity, transcripts, admission criteria, programme accreditation and evaluation policies.
Government/Administration	Policy practices, budgetary matters, staff hiring, goals, vision and mission.
Legal	Copyright ownership, intellectual property, institutional liability.
Students Support Services	Counseling, registration, library services, material delivery, financial aid.
Technical	Appropriate technology, access connectivity, expertise, system reliability, infrastructure, equipment and maintenance.
Cultural	Adoption of innovations, organizational values, acceptance, language and custom.
Exchange Programme/Partnership	Staff training and exchange, access to learner support system, research fellowship, financial aid, exchange of expertise.

Source: Adapted from Berge, Z.L. (1998) Barriers to online teaching in post secondary institutions: Can policy fix it? *On-line Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, p.3.

The above seven policy areas are not only critical to developing and managing distance education, but also consistent across many institutions and countries within the sub-region. The seven key policy areas as indicated suggest aspects in which an administrator can intervene in a distance education system. The seven-item model is briefly expounded upon below.

Academic

The key issues that fall under this category relate to evaluation of the learner and the tutor. There is no gainsaying the fact that programmes of study taken at a distance require periodic evaluation for successful continuous improvement of the curriculum and delivery. A programme, whether conventional or through distance learning, is likely to be more successful when developed on a foundation of strong needs assessment and programme review (Gellman-Danley & Fetzner, 1997). Also, an important academic issue is the overall integrity of the course, measured through accreditation guidelines, quality assurance, and assessment methods for learning outcomes (Valentine, 2002). These considerations add to the products of the institution being seen as credible and also guarantee recognition of students' results or credits in the case of transfer to another institution within the West African sub-region.

Government/Administration

The prominent issues of this category are institutional policy, goals, vision and mission as well as their actualization. Governance, no doubt, is a strong tool for institutions to achieve overall institutional goals and objectives, and acts as a key link between institutions and other agencies of interest. A policy framework is also needed to streamline university programmes, admission criteria, and staff recruitment, and programme offering.

Legal Issues

Many of the academic staff are naïve about the legal dimensions of distance learning. A variety of training programmes, workshops, and seminars that address the legal aspects of educational technology and learning at a distance are essential. The awareness programme will form the basis for the formulation of policy in areas such as: copyright, fair use, liability for improper electronic messages, and many other challenges in the light of emerging complex technological devices that disseminate knowledge across geographical boundaries.

Student Support Services

In expanding access to distance education one of the major issues has been that of finding appropriate student support services that will assist in minimizing issues of isolation and lack of motivation which are necessary in ensuring successful completion of programme (Holmberg, 1990; Keegan, 1993). Thus, student support is central to the success of any distance-learning programme. Hence, institutions need to develop distance-learning policies on student counseling, library services, instructional methods, and delivery of course materials. It is also important that current student support services be reviewed with the distance-learning student in mind. It may be useful to look into the steps that students must take to learn, enroll, participate and successfully complete a distance-learning course. Comprehensive policy development is a key component of a well-run distance-learning initiative.

Technical

The use of relevant technology is critical to the success of distance-learning programmes. In many countries in the West African sub-region, unlike the developed countries of Europe, the problem of epileptic power supply still persists. This implies that the adoption of information and communication technology (ICT) for educational delivery must take into consideration the issue of appropriate technology.

Culture

There are some fundamental innovations that are necessary in academic settings such as taking into

consideration linguistic and religious standpoints. The effective implementation of these innovations necessitates a paradigm shift in traditional beliefs, organizational values, and orientation. More over, many institutions are mounting new programmes that are market-driven to replace old ones. A policy can harmonize the diverse organizational cultures in the sub-region.

Exchange Programme/Partnership

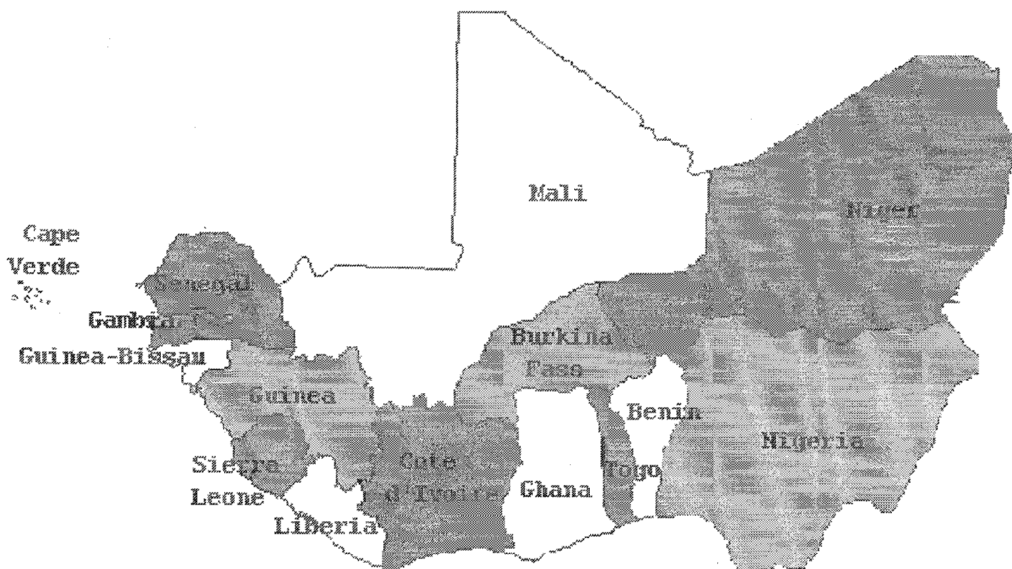
Distance education is a relatively new field with limited human and material resources. This underscores the need for institutions in the sub-region to seek ways for cooperation and collaboration at local, regional, and international levels. Institutional exchange programmes and collaboration involves a working partnership supported by institutional commitment based on formal agreements between two or more organizations which include the desire to make better or extensive use of resources available within one or more countries (Moran & Mugridge, 1993). Formulation of policy in this regard can provide a framework for operation, detailing set of rules that explain stakeholders' roles and responsibilities.

Challenges to the Development of Policy Framework

This section briefly examines diversities in economic profiles, population, linguistic and socio-political issues, that could pose challenge to sub-regional policy framework in distance education. West Africa is that part of Africa that is bounded in the West and South by the Atlantic Ocean, the Sahara desert on the North, and on the East by the eastern boundaries of present day Nigeria. Practically, it is that area of Africa that is:

encircled in the North by a line running from the Senegal River to Lake Chad, in the East by a line running from Lake Chad to the Cameroon Mountains, and in the south and west, by the Atlantic Ocean coastline. The southern and western borders remain clearly cut out by the sea, the eastern and western boundaries are largely unclear due to the near absence of natural geographical barriers demarcating it from the rest of Africa. (Onwubiko, 1973, p. 54)

Figure 1: Map of West Africa



Source: Adapted from *History of West Africa*, Onwubiko, K.B.C (1973), p.28. Copyright 1973 by Africana Educational Publishers.

The population of the countries of West Africa constitute about 32% of the African population,

although some West African States have small populations, together they constitute almost a third of the population of Africa (Economic Commission of Africa, 2007). A majority of the West African countries can be defined as Least Developed Countries or underdeveloped. According to United Nations Development Program (UNDP), ten of the fifteen states in the region have low levels of Human Development. A low ranking on UNDP's Human Development Index is explained by low values on the variables such as life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate and GDP per capita (United Nations, 2007). In most of the countries, a high proportion of the populations live in poverty. In some cases, like Benin, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Niger, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal and Sierra Leone, more the 70% of the population survives on 1 or 2 dollars a day (United Nations, 2007). The low level of welfare creates popular discontent. The industrialized states provide foreign aid to all of the West African countries. Official development assistance constitutes about 15-20% of GDP in many cases, but it has not had any decisive effect on living conditions.

Except for Cape Verde, Gambia and Guinea Bissau all of the countries of West African have a variety of natural resources. Gold, diamonds, oil, uranium, natural gas, copper, iron ore are some examples of what can be found in West Africa. Sierra Leone and Liberia have been "famous" for the quantity of diamonds that have been used to finance armed conflicts.

Nigeria is Africa's largest petroleum producer and an Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) member since 1971. It is a top ten petroleum producer globally, and the fifth largest oil-exporting country to the United States. Nigeria is also assumed to have large amounts of unexploited crude oil reserves. For many years, there have been disturbances in the oil rich southwestern Delta State of Nigeria. Overall, the Nigerian economy accounts for more than half of the economic activity of West African, and developments in the Nigerian economy are of importance for the whole region (Economic Commission of Africa, 2007).

Most of the countries of West African are mainly producers of primary commodities and export products like cotton, cocoa, coffee and nuts. The agriculture sector is of great importance and, in general, it dominates exports. In Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, Niger, and Cape Verde, primary commodities constituted 70% of the total export in 2003. Industrial production is of lesser importance, in most cases accounting for about 25% of GDP. Individual West African countries tend to produce the same types of products, which makes it difficult to promote significant within-region trade.

Contemporary armed conflicts tend to be internal and a majority of the armed conflicts worldwide occur in Africa. In most cases, ongoing conflicts have long, complex histories, and they share certain common characteristics. For example, they occur in states that have been defined by the United Nations as Least Developed Countries (Adebayo, 2009). These are characterised by extensive poverty, malnutrition, serious health problems, low levels of education, and weakly developed industry sectors. They are heavily indebted and highly dependent on agriculture production. The states are significantly vulnerable to changes in the global economy. Economic downturns and social disruption both cause and trigger armed conflicts. A majority of the countries classified as Least Developed have experienced armed conflicts in the last twenty years. Twelve of the fifteen West African States are defined as Least Developed Countries (World Bank, 2006).

Nevertheless, earlier efforts to co-ordinate economic cooperation on a sub-regional level in West Africa dates back to 1963, with a conference on industrial harmonization in the sub-region in Lagos, Nigeria and the Niamey conference on economic cooperation in 1966. Similarly, in 1967, another conference was held in Accra, Ghana where a tentative agreement on the Articles of Association of a proposed economic community in West Africa was signed (ECOWAS, 1975). In 1972 the process was revived by the Heads of State of Nigeria and Togo by mandating their officials to streamline a framework for community cooperation based on the following guiding principles.

The envisaged economic community:

- a) Should cut across linguistic and cultural differences.
- b) Should pursue limited realizable objectives.
- c) Should adopt an approach that is flexible and practical.
- d) Should create the necessary institutions to allow all countries to become members at their

convenience.

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) was therefore established in 1975 to coordinate and promote trade, cooperation, and sustainable development throughout West Africa. The signing of the ECOWAS Treaty of Lagos in May 28, 1975, was indeed a kind of radical response to the plague of poverty and underdevelopment bedeviling West Africa, and as a result, practically provided the much desired framework for the realization of rapid and sustainable socio-political and economic development throughout the sub-region, and has to date the following member states: Republic of Benin, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and the Republic of Togo.

Table 2: Schematic Representation of ECOWAS Countries

Countries	Land Area	Capital City	Estimated Population	Major Language(s)	Income per Capita [USD]	Economic Resources	Average Annual GDP [USD billions]
Benin Republic	113,000km ²	Cotonou	6,000,000	French, Fon, Yoruba, Bariba	886	Cotton, Oil, Mining, Limestone, etc.	2.35
Burkina Faso	274,122km ²	Ouagadougou	11,000,000	French, Moore,	898	Cotton, Peanuts,	2.6

		gou	0	Dioula, Peul		Sheanuts, Gold	
Cape Verde	4,033km ²	Praia	430,000	Portuguese, Crioulo	---	Services Oil, Gas, Coffee, Cocoa beans, and Palm Oil	10.46
Cote d'Ivoire	322,462km ²	Yamous-soukro	15,000,000	French, and 60 other native languages	1,546	Tourism, Services etc.	
Gambia	11,295km ²	Banjul	1,000,000	English, Wolof, Fulani, Mandinka, etc.	---	Gold, Diamonds, etc.	
Ghana	239,460km ²	Accra	19,000,000	English, and over 100 native languages	1,793	Coffee, Cotton, Fruits, Oil, Nuts etc.	7.4
Guinea	245,857km ²	Conakry	7,000,000	French, and other native languages	1,761	Rice, Maize, Plantains, Beans, Millet, etc.	3.7
Guinea Bissau	36,125km ²			Portuguese, Crioulo	---	Iron ore, Timber, Diamonds, etc.	
						Gold, Phosphate, etc.	

Liberia	111,369km ²	Bissau	1,100,000		---	Uranium, Cotton, etc.	2.6
Mali	1,249,192km ²	Monrovia	3,000,000	English, and other native languages	693	Oil, Gas, Limestone, Coal, and others	2.0
Niger	1,267,000km ²	Bamako	11,000,000	French, Bambara, etc.	727	Oil, Cotton, Peanuts, Rice, Livestock, etc.	37.9
Nigeria	923,768km ²	Niamey	10,000,000	French, and other local languages	744	Diamonds	
Senegal	196,192km ²	Abuja	126,635,000	English, Hausa, Ibo, Yoruba, and over 200 other native languages	1,341	Fishing, Agriculture, etc.	4.7
Sierra Leone	71,740km ²	Dakar	9,000,000	French, Wolof, and other native languages	414	Cotton, Coffee, Cocoa, Phosphate etc.	0.7
Togo	56,785km ²	Freetown	5,000,000	English, Krio, etc.	1,346		1.5
			5,000,000				

Source: *United Nations World Development Report: Attacking Poverty*, 2007, p.274.

All these countries differ considerably in their colonial history, natural resource endowments, institutional and administrative systems. At the one end of the scale is Nigeria, rich in human and natural resources, and at the other end is Burkina Faso with poor human and natural resources. These remarkable differences significantly and constantly shape their regional relations and their ability to participate meaningfully in regional economic and education integration programmes. Thus, diversity in major languages, income per capita, economic resources, average annual gross domestic product and low level human development index identified in the discussion could pose a challenge to the development of sub-regional policy framework on distance education.

STRATEGIES FOR ACHIEVING POLICY FRAMEWORK

From the preceding discussions there is a strong rationale for the development of policy framework to guide the operation of distance learning in the West African sub-region. The procedures for achieving the framework are highlighted below:

1. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), a regional group founded in May 28, 1975 with the signing of Treaty in Lagos, could serve as a veritable instrument to achieve an institutional policy framework for distance learning in the West African sub-region. The ECOWAS as a regional group of fifteen countries comprising Benin Republic, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Guinea and Togo can play a useful role in some policy areas as providing the platform for a staff exchange programme and partnership and other areas such as access to connectivity, expertise, appropriate technology and research fellowship in distance learning. In as much as ECOWAS has the mandate to promote economic and cultural integration, and that of a single large trading block, it is equally possible for the body through the heads of government to harmonize and provide a regional framework on distance education.
2. The heads of government can facilitate the process of integrating a policy framework on distance learning in the sub-region by creating an enabling environment that would enhance research efforts on overcoming the challenges posed by the digital divide. As Akubuilu and Ndubuizu (2003) rightly noted, many Nigerians are enmeshed in the challenges inherent in the digital divide, and the capacity to use such technology is also negligible compared with those of developed countries. Corroborating this view, Ojo and Olakulehin (2006) observed that the use of instructional technology and information communication technology remains rather sparse in the pedagogical practice of distance education in Nigeria. This shortcoming could be a reflection of the entire distance-learning programme in the West African sub region.
3. Attainment of a policy framework on distance learning in the West African sub-region is multidimensional, a multi-stakeholder approach is therefore needed for the development of distance-learning policies. Thus, public institutions, private sector, civil society, academic community, and ICT industries must be involved. A multi-stakeholder approach ensures such policies are grounded in reality.
4. Furthermore, a holistic approach that recognizes and resolves conflicts resulting from organizational values and customs is needed. This calls for close coordination and coherence among member countries.
5. Finally, it is absolutely critical that distance-learning policy in the sub-region is regarded as a priority and mainstreamed into national development programmes of respective countries in the sub-region. However, it should be based on precise goals and objectives that focus on priority needs.

CONCLUSION

The West African sub-region has witnessed a remarkable increase in the domain of distance higher education. A major problem persists on how to ensure that a quality-learning experience is provided. Thus, the need for a policy framework to regulate the planning and delivery of quality distance higher education programmes in the West African sub-region. In developing a policy framework, some basic issues should be considered within the historical and cultural contexts. Historically and culturally, the West African sub-region has many features in common, especially from the linguistic and religious standpoints. Also, in many respects countries in the sub-region are diverse in population, national income, and human resources. In spite of the diversity, a sub-regional policy framework on distance education is possible and, indeed, desirable.

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REVISITING SELF-REGULATION SKILLS AND DISTANCE LEARNERS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, NIGERIA: PLANNING IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE STUDY

By Maruff Akinwale Oladejo

ABSTRACT

Learning is more personal and the responsibility rests more squarely on the shoulders of students in distance learning systems. Also, many distance learners have several other equally important commitments such as home demands, social engagements, and religious obligations that compete with their academic work. Balancing these responsibilities with academic pursuit in such a way that one does not affect the other may become problematic for the students, especially those who are not self-regulated. This may subsequently impact student academic performance. In view of this scenario, it is expected that distance learners will have good self-regulation skills in order to perform better in their academic endeavours. This study sought to discern a causal explanation of distance learners' academic performance vis-à-vis their self-regulation skills. The study utilized a descriptive, 'ex-post facto' research design. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 1,500 participants while the University of Ibadan's Distance Learning Centre was purposively selected. Data were collected through a questionnaire during the 2009 contact session. Three hypotheses were formulated and tested at the 0.05 level of significance. Pearson correlation, regression analysis, and t-tests were employed for data analysis. Students' self-regulation skills and academic performance are positively and significantly correlated. ($R^2=016;P<0.5$). The study however, revealed no significant difference in students' self-regulations skills on a gender basis. The need for students to have good self-regulation skills and monitor their academic progress was recommended.

INTRODUCTION

Until recently, the primary mode of educational delivery of most African Universities has been the conventional system that is, residential or on-campus teaching. Unfortunately, due to limited financial, human, and physical resources, conventional methods of providing higher education have not been able to admit the large number of people seeking University education. The conventional system is hindered by two major constraints. One is spatial, whereby education takes place within classrooms. This constraint limits access to higher education due to inadequate physical facilities. The other constraint is temporal, in which education is confined to the earlier period of one's life, specifically from 6-25 years of age. This constraint precludes adults from attending school at a later stage in their lives.

Oladejo (2010) however remarked that in the modern era of continuing and lifelong education, there emerged a new class of learners, mostly adult workers who had previously missed out on conventional, formal education probably because they could not afford to enroll on a full-time basis due to their work schedule, family responsibilities, religious obligations, social activities, and business commitments. Many adult workers also have children to feed, clothe, and send to school (Dlamini, 1998). Working adult learners need to coordinate these different areas of their lives – family, jobs, spare time, and studies – which also influence one other. Nevertheless, education according to these working adults does not terminate at the end of formal schooling, but rather, it is a lifelong, and sometimes episodic process, which covers the entire life span of an individual.

Contemporary learners need a system that will not only help transcend the shortcomings of the formal, conventional education system but also satisfy the learners' immediate and long-term educational needs. Distance education, now globally known as Open and Distance Learning (ODL) by the International Conference on Distance Education (ICDE), provides an answer to the needs of working adult learners (Aderinoye, 2002; Ojokheta, 2000; Oladejo, 2010).

The need to overcome the seeming shortcomings of the conventional formal education system, especially in widening educational access to those who were not earlier served, paved the way for the emergence and acceptance of distance learning system in most parts of the world, including Nigeria. Aderinoye (2002) remarked that the emergence and acceptance of distance learning as a medium of

instruction marked a turning point in the provision of educational opportunities for millions of people that have been left out of the conventional system worldwide.

Distance learning, as an emerging mode of educational delivery and study, according to Perraton (2000), does not only widen educational opportunities, but also reduces inequality and cost, stimulates curriculum change, and helps to meet manpower needs. It has helped to extend the market for education to clientele who have not been previously served (Calvert, 1986), and also removed many of the traditional barriers to working adults' participation in educational programs (Ojokheta, 2000). Yet, the results achieved so far by this mode of study vis-à-vis distance learners' academic performance are not as successful and impressive as originally hoped (Brindley, 1987).

Table 1
Enrolment Figures at the Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan

Year of Admission	Enrolment Figures
1988/89	1,122
1989/90	625
1990/91	1,100
1991/92	732
1992/93	265
1993/94	182

Source: Admission Office, DLC, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

As depicted in Table 1, during the 1990-1991 academic session at the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan, Ibadan, a total of 1100 distance learners were admitted. Unfortunately, only 587 distance learners graduated in 1997/98 (see Table 2). This graduation figure is also made up of students who were two years behind schedule in graduating as the programme is a five-year course. In essence, among the distance learners that eventually graduated are those that were unable to graduate from previous sessions. This simply means that there were actually less than 587, that is, 51.98% distance learners that graduated from the 1990/91 set.

It can therefore be inferred that either a significant proportion of distance learners dropped out of programme between the years of their admission and graduation, or many of them could not graduate within seven years. It therefore appears that the academic performance of distance learners is not as successful and impressive as originally hoped, consistent with Brindley's (1987) observation. Table 2 below shows the academic performance of distance learners at the University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Table 2

Analysis of the Summary of Distance Learners' Graduation Results in Selected Years at the Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan

Grade	1 st Class	2 nd Class Upper	2 nd Class Lower	3 rd Class	Pass	Failed	Total
1997	-	98	470	5	-	14	587
1998	-	62	275	1	-	17	355
1999	-	37	204	2	-	13	256
2000	-	29	155	1	-	8	193
2004	1	73	327	12	15	10	438
2005	-	-	12	-	6	8	26
2006	-	201	562	16	19	15	813
Total	1	512	1993	43	34	85	2667
% Total	.03	19.82	77.18	1.66	1.31	3.18	

Source: Records Office, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Table 2 depicts a summary of distance learners' graduation results at the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria for selected years from 1997 through 2006. This period reflects the Centre's first graduation class in 1997 up through the first decade of their work. Data for the seven selected years revealed that 1.31% and 1.66% of the students achieved ordinary pass and third class honours, respectively, while the majority of the students (77.18%) earned second class lower honour. Those in the second class upper honour constitute 19.82. Furthermore, since the inception of the programme over twenty-five years ago, the centre has succeeded in producing only one first class honour student.

In contrast, the summary of regular students' graduation results during the same period indicated better achievement results (see Table 3).

Table 3

Analysis of the Summary of Regular Students' Graduation Results in Selected Years at the Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan

	2000	2004	2005	2006	Total	%Share
1 st Class Honour	01	03	02	02	08	0.4
2 nd Class Upper	95	80	80	65	320	19.08
2 nd Class Lower	356	397	287	150	1190	70.96
3 rd Class	04	55	48	22	129	07.69
Pass	-	03	14	13	30	1.78
Failed	03	05	14	10	32	1.87
Total	459	543	445	262	1709	

Source: Records Office, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

For instance, a total number of eight regular full time students graduated with first class honours. Three hundred and twenty students (19.08%) had second class upper division while 1190 students (almost 71%) fell within the second class lower division. Also, 7.69%, that is, 129 students were in third class list while 30 students, which constitute 1.78%, earned a pass. This performance is comparatively better than that of the distance learners.

Barker and Wendel (2000, as cited in Bolton, 2004) remarked that students perform better if they are matured, economically independent, and self-motivated. Several factors are responsible for this dismal academic performance, among which are the roles of motivational constructs, such as student support services like guidance and counseling, library services, feedback, and information dissemination (Ergul, 2004; Chan, Yum, Fan, Jegede, & Taplin, 1999; Murphy, 1989; Ojokheta, 2000; Sewart, Keegan, & Holmberg, 1993; Suciati, 1990). Sustained investigation of motivational constructs as predictors of distance learners' academic performance is needed until a lasting solution is found to ameliorate the distance learners' unimpressive academic performance (Oladejo, 2010). In fact, Schwittman (1982, as cited in Oladejo, 2010) considered motivation a critical predictor of success in distance learning.

Motivational variables impacting students' success identified by scholars include self-efficacy beliefs, locus of control, self esteem, goal achievement (Abdul-Raham, 1994; Lim, 2000; Oladejo, Ige, Fagunwa & Arewa, 2010; Pajares & Miller, 1994; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Sheets, 1995), goal satisfaction, self-worth, self acceptance, study habits (Sweet, 1986) self-concept, and self-regulation skills (Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1990; Lim 2000; Pajares & Kranzer, 1995; Wang & Newlin, 2002). In this study, self-regulation skills were investigated as a predictor of students' academic performance in distance learning programmes at the University of Ibadan, Nigeria because of the responsibility placed on the shoulders of the students in the distance learning system. Also, there are other equally important responsibilities that are competing for students' time. Given the personal and learning challenges faced by the distance learning students, attempts to regulate their activities so as to pave the way for effective study may appear as a challenge.

The need for distance learners to determine, control, and regulate their learning implies that effective self-regulation skills are also *sine qua non* to their academic performance. According to Miltidou (1999, as cited in Ojokheta, 2000) distance education requires students to monitor and regulate their own learning. They must control their own educational experience and pace. Some studies have established positive correlations between self-regulation and academic performance (Lynch & Dembo, 2004; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Rovai, 2003, and Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1990). In fact, Lynch and Dembo (2004) as well as Rovai (2003) argued that distance learners that persist and succeed in open and distance learning are by their nature, more independent and self-regulating. This is, however, contrary to the study conducted by Ergul (2004) who did not find a positive relationship between self-regulation skill and academic performance.

Gender differentials were also noted in self-regulation skill among distance learners. For instance, Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1988) as well as Joo, Bong & Choi (2000) reported that the self-regulation characteristic is significant for females. These Researchers argued that female distance learners used more self-regulation strategies than male distance learners. Although, several studies had been carried out on the relationships between self-regulation skills and distance learners' academic performance, it appears none had been done within the Nigerian context. This study is innovative and novel in Nigeria because, unlike other nations, distance learning is just gaining acceptance, especially in the University system. Also, there are differences in the learning environment in Nigeria as compared with that in Western world, where much of the research has been conducted. This study, therefore, serves as a bridge form the existing literature thus, extending the frontier of knowledge in developing nations.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

All over the world, educational quality is judged by students' academic performance. As self-regulation is related to performance (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1990) there is a need to explore the relationship between the self-regulation skills of the distance learners and their academic performance. Hence, this study sought to determine if there was a relationship between distance learners' academic performance and self-regulation skills. It therefore, provided a causal explanation of distance learners' academic performance vis-à-vis their self-regulations skills at the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The reviewed literature for the study influenced the study's design in the following areas: (a) the concept of open-distance learning, (b) the concept of academic performance, (c) self-regulation and academic performance, and (d) the history of distance learning at the University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

The Concept of Open-Distance Learning

Distance education, (now known globally as open-distance learning) is a discipline within education that has been associated with various definitions and terminologies. Many terms have been used to identify distance education, yet all are not synonymous with distance education. Such terms include correspondence education, open learning, independent study, non-traditional education, technology-based education, and online learning. Other terms like adult education and continuing education also bear some relationships to distance education. However, some of these terms are not necessarily related to distance, and distance education. There is a need therefore, to clarify terminology to ensure a proper conceptual base and guide to good practice of what actually constitutes open-distance learning.

The need for further clarification according to Ojokheta (2000) is contingent upon the fact that many non-traditional forms of education have been associated with distance learning. Keegan (1995) expressed this concern when he wrote in his book '*Foundations of Distance Education*' that:

distance education' is a generic term that includes the range of teaching and learning strategies referred to as correspondence education or correspondence study or as further education level in the United Kingdom: as home study, further education, and independent study at higher educational in the United States; as external studies in Australia; and as distance teaching or teaching at a distance in the United Kingdom by the Open University. In French it is referred to as *Teleenseignement*; *Fernstudim/Fernunterricht* in German, *education a distanica* in Spanish, and *teleducacao* in Portuguese. This description lists the major terms used by distance education institutions in the English-speaking world and gives parallel terms for the major European languages. Distance education subsumes a number of existing terms but not all are synonymous. (pp. 28-29)

Early in the field of distance education, Peters (1973) defined distance education as a method of imparting knowledge, skills, and attitudes, which are rationalized by the application of division of labour and organizational principles as well as by the extensive use of technical media, especially for the purpose of reproducing high quality teaching material which makes it possible to instruct great numbers of students in the same time wherever they live. It is an industrialized form of teaching and learning.

According to Dohmen (1977), distance education is a systematically organized form of self-study in which student counseling, presentation of learning materials, and securing and supervising of students' success are carried out by a team of teachers each of whom has responsibilities. It is made possible at a distance by means of media, which can cover long distances. Holmberg (1995) describes distance education as that kind of education which covers the various forms of study at all levels which are not under continuous and immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms on the same premises but, which nevertheless, benefits from the planning, guidance, and tuition of a tutorial organization.

Lane (1994, as cited in Keegan, 1995, p. 43) sees distance education as 'teaching and learning situations in which the instructor and the learner or learners are geographically separated and, therefore, rely on electronic devices and print materials for instructional delivery'.

Distance education includes distance teaching (the instructor's role in the process) and distance learning (the student's role in the process). In all these definitions, emphasis was placed on the separation of the learner and the teacher, which is fundamental because this distinguishes distance education from the traditional face-to-face teaching and learning. Holmberg as well as Moore and Kearsley (2005) also specified that there is planning involved. This implies the involvement of an educational institution and helps to distinguish it from private study at home. Moore and Kearsley's definition also implied that there was two-way communication between the instructor/institution and student(s) by electronic or other technology. This differentiates distance education from educational technology such as library

materials, do-it-yourself books, textbooks, television, and radio.

After reviewing definitions from other scholars, Keegan (1986) developed a synthesis of most of the definitions of distance education. He then came up with a list of basic characteristics essential for a definition of distance education namely:

- the quasi-permanent separation of teacher and learners throughout the length of the learning process (this distinguishes it from conventional face-to-face education);
- the influence of an educational organization both in the planning and preparation of learning materials and in the provision of student support services (this distinguishes it from private study and teach-yourself programmes);
- the use of technical media – print, audio, video or computer – to unite teacher and learner and carry the content of the course;
- the provision of two-way communication so that the student may benefit from, or even initiate dialogue (this distinguishes it from other use of technology in education); and
- the quasi-permanent absence of the learning group throughout the length of the learning process so that people are usually taught as individuals and not in groups, with the possibility of occasional meeting for both didactic and socialization purposes. (Keegan, 1991 cited in Holmberg, 1995, p. 2).

Despite Keegan's (1986; 1995) synthesized definition of distance education, Ojo, Ogidan and Olakulehin (2006) still observed that no definition has been found to be exhaustive in attempting to define distance learning, rather they claimed, there are several approaches to defining the term. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2002, as cited in Ojo, Ogidan & Olakulehin, 2006), described the term open and distance learning as representing approaches that focus on opening access to education and training provision, freeing learners from the constraints of time and place, and offering flexible learning opportunities to individuals and group of learners.

Ojo, Ogidan & Olakulehin (2006) then concluded that open learning is an organized educational activity, based on the use of teaching materials, in which the constraints on study are minimized in terms of access, entry, time and place, pace, method of study, or any combination of these. Thus, the concept of open and distance learning suggests an educational approach designed to reach learners in their home/offices/shops etc, provide learning resources for them to qualify without attending formal classes in person, or create opportunities for lifelong learning, no matter where or when they want to study.

For the purpose and within the context of the present study, open-distance learning refers to educational programme that is contingent on the utilization of various electronic devices and print materials as instructional delivery media due to physical and geographical separation between the learners and the tutor both in time and space.

The Concept of Academic Performance

Scholars have defined academic performance in a number of ways. For instance, it has been described as combined outcome of aptitude and interest, though the two variables are positively correlated, a high value of one necessarily means a high value of the other (Anastasia, 1976, cited in Osokoya, 1999). Academic performance is one of the most vital indicators in which policy makers and other stakeholders in education are interested. Adedeji (1998) stated that academic performance is very important because it appears to be one of the major criteria upon which the effectiveness and success of any educational institution can be judged. Corroborating Adedeji's (1998) assertion, Aremu (2001) further argued that academic performance is the fundamental criterion by which all teaching-learning activities are measured, using defined standards of excellence.

According to Aremu (2001), researchers who focus on the academic performance of students have continued to examine diverse phenomena that have been found to significantly predict scholastic performance. Aremu also contended that there have been a number of recent reviews of research that have critically examined many studies on the relationship between certain explanatory constructs and academic performance with diverse findings. Yet, the battery of variables used to predict the students' academic performance in formal face-to-face education situations, may not adequately serve as predictors of academic performance in distance learning situations (Kumar, 2002). This is due to differences in the

socio-demographic background of students in the two systems. For instance, the majority of distance learners are adults. They are also married and employed, while the reverse is the case for the traditional, face-to-face students.

Self-Regulation Skills and Academic Performance

Self-regulation skill is a fairly new construct of motivation. It has been found to be another very important student motivational characteristic (Ergul, 2004). This is due to the fact that in distance learning systems, learning is more personal and responsibility is more on the shoulders of the students when compared with the traditional face-to-face formal education system. Ergul therefore argued that for distance learners to be able to achieve, they need to control their learning and also regulate themselves.

In academic context, self-regulation refers to the processes that involve the activation and maintenance of cognition, behaviours and affects which are systematically oriented towards the attainment of goals (Schunk, 1989; Schunk, 1990; Zimmerman, 1994). According to Butler and Winne (1995), self-regulation is a learning style for students comprised of strong abilities like setting goals for developing knowledge and choosing balancing strategies against unwanted situations. Self-regulation has been studied in traditional classrooms in order to understand how students use their cognition, meta-cognition, and motivation so as to experience successful learning.

Cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies provide the building blocks for constructing knowledge within a learning environment. According to Kovach (2000), self-regulated learners set academic goals, select appropriate learning strategies to achieve these goals, and continually monitor goal progress. They are aware of their knowledge, their beliefs, motivation, and qualities of their cognitive processes. Self-regulated learners do not only need to possess cognition (knowledge to build upon), and meta-cognition (the knowledge and monitoring of learning strategies), but they must also be motivated to use their meta-cognitive strategies to build upon their understandings of instructional material (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

Zimmerman (1994) identified four attributes of self-regulated learning: (a) self-motivation, (b) self-monitoring, (c) manipulation of social and physical environment, and (d) self-confidence. Self-motivation refers to motivation that is derived from the students' self-efficacious perceptions and their use of self-regulatory learning processes such as setting goals. Self-monitoring refers to the students' awareness and self-checking during a learning process. Manipulation of the social and the physical environments refers to the students' ability to seek help from people who they know are capable, and also organize and restructure their skills in order to optimize learning.

A review of the literature on self-regulation uncovered numerous theoretical and empirical studies (Garcia, 1995; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994). Garcia (1995) proposed that students use their self-efficacy to fuel their motivational strategies. Pintrich and De Groot (1990) found out that increased levels of self-efficacy stimulate self-regulated learning. Meece (1994) suggested that self-regulated learners possess motivational attributes in their goal orientation that affect their learning experiences. For example, some students are intrinsically motivated to engage in academic activities, while others are extrinsically motivated to maintain their engagement.

Yet, few studies have explicitly linked the components of self-regulated learning to academic performance (Schunk, 1984; Pajares & Kranzler, 1995; Pajares & Miller, 1994; Pajares & Miller, 1995). Schunk (1984) conducted an experiment on 4th grade children and posited that students who adopt learning goal exhibit higher self-regulation skills and engage in activities they believe enhance learning. Research conducted by Blocher (1997) has shown that self-regulated students have a strong desire to learn. Yet, Ergul's (2004) finding established no significant relationship between self-regulation and academic performance in distance learning. He argued that his subjects probably did not develop strategies that supported their learning, thus their academic performance was not sufficient.

Furthermore, on gender differentials in self-regulation skills, studies of (Joo, Bong & Choi, 2000; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; and Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1988) established gender differentials in self-regulation as they reported that self-regulation characteristics were significant for females, but not for males. This contradicts the finding of Ergul (2004) who reported that males are more self-regulated than the females.

The evidence presented in the above studies point towards the importance of self-regulation as a predictor of academic performance especially in distance learning system.

Distance Learning at the University of Ibadan: Historical Perspective

Established in 1988, through the Department of Adult Education, The Centre for External Studies (CES) initially focus on training teachers, particularly the practicing ones who needed to upgrade qualifications, as well as guidance/counseling training and development of adult educators. This focus has however, been recently expanded to include two Arts Degrees (one in theatre and one in French), as well as an agricultural programme. There are approximately 7,350 students currently enrolled in programmes of the Centre.

The main thrust of delivery in the Centre's programmes is through printed materials. There is also a regular student newsletter. After registration, students take materials home to study and then return to the University for a six-week residential session. During this session, they write a final examination (which currently constitutes the only formal assessment within programmes). The Centre established six study centres to support students (where they are able to register, collect materials, and organize teaching practicals in the form of physical tutorial facilitation, but three of these centres have now been closed.

The Centre also used to run tutorials, but has had to discontinue these because of administrative problems (particularly due to lack of financing). The Centre is expected to be financially self-sufficient, which means that – in most cases – the cost to students of studying in this way is the same as face-to-face education. Course materials are written by University lecturers. Writing course materials is generally initiated through writing workshops, at which training is provided. Lecturers are accommodated in hotels for an intensive writing period during which they write as much of the course materials as possible. Lecturers are paid for this work as well as for time they spend conducting the face-to-face sessions. They also receive royalties on the sale of the course materials (although the copyright resides with the Centre). Editing of materials is undertaken by the Centre's staff, who has been sent to courses in the United States. Each course guide consists of approximately 15 lectures, meaning that there are approximately six guides for each full-year course. At the initial stage, guides cost about ₦100 to produce, and are sold to students for between ₦150-200. Materials are made available to all students on campus at the University bookshop. The Centre is interested in exploring use of multimedia resources – particularly audio cassettes –but finances currently make this impossible.

The University administration has recently become more interested in the work of the Centre, as it has demonstrated an ability to maintain educational standards and success rates, albeit not at the same level as the face-to-face programmes. The University is particularly interested in the Centre's ability to generate income, to provide education to working people, and to absorb students who cannot currently be accommodated in the traditional face-to-face programmes. A Committee has been established to review the structures and operations of the Centre, with a view to expanding its operations (for example, in areas such Accounting and Business Administration).

Summary of the Reviewed Literature

The review of literature in the present study dealt with some of the supposition by scholars and researchers of students' self-regulation skills and their academic performance in open-distance learning programmes. The literature reviewed framed the two major constructs underlying this study, that is, self-regulation skills and academic performance.

Several studies have established diverse findings on the prediction of academic performance by self-regulation skills. For instance, while a positive correlation was reported between self-regulation skills and academic performance by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) as well as Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons (1990), Ergul (2004) established contrary findings. He reported insignificant correlation between self-regulation skills and academic performance.

Researchers such as Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1988) and Joo, Bong & Choi, (2000) reported gender differentials with respect to self-regulation. Namely, females reported greater self-regulation characteristics at a statistically significant level. The researchers argued that female distance learners

reported more use of self-regulation strategies than males. The evidence presented in the above studies point towards the importance of self-regulation as a predictor of academic performance not only in traditional face-to-face classrooms, but also in distance learning systems.

As part of the current interest of the University of Ibadan's DLC, more faculties now offer courses to students. Courses like Agricultural Economics and Extension, Agronomy, Animal Science, Forestry/Forest Resources Management, Agric-Extension and Rural Sociology, Fisheries and Wildlife Management are now available in the faculty of Agriculture, while the faculty of Engineering now offers Agricultural Engineering, Civil Engineering, Petroleum Engineering, Electronics and Computer Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Food Technology, Industrial and Production Engineering, and Wood Production Engineering.

Furthermore, the faculty of Science offers Physics, Chemistry, Industrial Chemistry, Geological Sciences, Geography and Regional Planning, Geography, Statistics, Botany, Botany and Micro-Biology, Zoology, Mathematics, Micro-Biology, Archaeology, Computer Science, Anthropology, etc. Other available courses are Biochemistry, Human Nutrition, Physiology, Micro-Biology, Virology, Anatomy, Veterinary Medicine, and Pharmacy.

As a result of the persistent insistence by some stakeholders, the Centre has changed the term "Pre-Degree" programme to a new nomenclature called "Bridge-Link" because these stakeholders had an erroneous impression that Pre-Degree is a promise or commitment by the Centre to admit students automatically into full degree programmes of the parent University or as a "short cut" to a Nigerian University.

Hypotheses

On the basis of literature reviewed, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

- There is no correlation between self-regulation skills and distance learners' academic performance.
- Self-regulations skills will not significantly contribute to Distance learners' academic performance.
- Gender has significant difference in the self-regulation skills of distance learners.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design adopted for the study is descriptive, of the "*ex-post facto*" in nature.

Population and Sample

The target population for the study consisted of all undergraduate distance learners at the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria. This was approximately 7,350 during the 2009 academic session. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria, one of the Nigerian Universities approved by the National Universities Commission to operate a distance learning programme. One thousand and five hundred (1500) participants were however selected through simple random sampling technique during year 2009 contact session. This was 20.41% of the total population.

Instrumentation

A self-designed instrument titled Students' Self-Regulation Skills in Distance Learning Scale (SSRSDLS) was used for data collection. This instrument was developed to collect information on students' self-regulation skills. It consisted of 20 items drawn on a modified four-point Likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) and carried the weights of 4, 3, 2, 1 respectively. A pilot study was conducted on 300 part-time students who share almost the same characteristics with the participants of the study. For instance, these part-time students are mostly adult working class like the distance learners. They are also married. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability was computed for the instrument. The alpha value obtained was 0.86, which

makes the instrument considered reliable. The Researchers used another self-designed distance learners' bio-data master sheet (DLBMS) to collect students' records on results (Grade Point Average) from the Institution's records officers.

Method of Data Analysis

Regression analysis was used to determine the contribution of the self regulation skills (x_1) in predicting distance learners' academic performance (x_2). The criterion variable was therefore regressed on the explanatory variable. Also, a *t*-test was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in self-regulation skills of distance learners on gender basis.

DATA ANALYSIS

This section presents the analysis of the collected data, testing the posed research hypotheses in the study.

Hypothesis 1: There is no correlation between self-regulation skills and distance learners' academic performance.

Table 4
Pearson Correlation Between Self Regulation Skills and Academic Performance

N		GPA (Academic Performance)	Sig (1-tailed)
1500	Self-Regulation Skills	.055	.016

$p < 0.05$

Table 4 above shows the correlation between self-regulation skills and academic performance. There exists a significant relationship between the two constructs ($r = .016$; $P < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 2: Self-regulation skills will not contribute to Distance learners' academic performance.

Table 5
The Contribution of Self Regulations Skill to the Prediction of Students' Academic Performance

Factor	B	Std. Error	R ²	T	Sig.
(Constant)	2.921	.515		5.668	.000
Self Regulations Skills	-1.38E-02	.006	.062	-2.148	.032

$p < 0.05$

The Table above reveals that the beta (β) weights of the paths (path coefficients) give the estimates of the strengths of the correlation. It was revealed that self-regulation skills of distance learners at the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan contributed significantly to the prediction of students' academic performance ($R^2 = .062$; $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3: There is significant gender difference in the self-regulation skills of distance learners.

Table 6
Comparison of Self-Regulation Skills of Male/Female Distance Learners

Variable	N	Mean	SD	df	<i>t</i> value	Sig
Female	847	2.91	1.55	1498	.339	.734
Male	653	2.95	1.64			

$p > 0.05$

Table 6 above represents information on hypothesis 3, as measured by a *t*-test to determine whether the difference between male and female academic performance in the sample is statistically significant. The result shows a mean of 2.91 from female distance learners compared with a mean of 2.95 from male counterparts. This finding indicates that gender has no significant effect on distance learners' academic performance ($t = .339$, $df = 1498$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 3 is therefore rejected.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The findings revealed that students' self-regulation skills and academic performance are positively and significantly correlated ($R^2 = 0.16$; $p < 0.5$). Reason for this finding may be due to the fact that most of the subjects in this study are employed and self sponsored, and thus, focused on programme success. They had probably formed necessary self-regulatory strategies that could assist and enable them to perform well in the programme. This finding is consistent with the results of earlier studies like Pintrich and De Groot (1990) and Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons (1988) who reported positive correlations between self-regulation skills and academic performance. The finding of this study however, contradicted Ergul's (2004) finding that established no significant relationship between self-regulation skills and academic performance. Ergul argued that his subjects probably did not develop strategies that supported their learning, thus, their academic performance was not sufficient.

Furthermore, the hypothesis three which states that gender has significant difference in the self-regulation skills of distance learners is rejected. This is because finding indicated that there is no significant gender difference in the self-regulation skills of distance learners at the Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan, though male learners are more self-regulated than the females. This is in contrast to the findings of some earlier studies such as Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons (1988) as well as Joo, Bong & Choi, (2000) which reported gender differentials between male and female distance learners. These studies established that self-regulation characteristics are significant for females. The Researchers argued that female distance learners had reported more frequently than males, the use of self-regulation strategies. Age may have influenced the degree to which both male and female respondents in this study reported self-regulatory skills as most of the students in this study were more mature than the typical face-to-face college student in Nigeria. Findings from this study are in agreement with the study of Ajadi, (2001) as he reported no significant difference in self-regulation skills among students based on gender.

CONCLUSION

The selected students' motivational characteristic, that is, self-regulation skills did not only relate with, but also significantly determine the academic performance of distance learners at the Distance Learning Centre of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria. It therefore, becomes highly imperative for the concerned students to be wary of the importance of being self-regulated for them to succeed in the programme.

AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Findings from the present study indicate the need for further study. For instance, further studies can include other demographic variables like age, employment status, disability status and marital status. Also, one area of study concerning self-regulation that has not yet been completely examined in Nigeria is that of its effects on students' performance and satisfaction with online courses, as well as course completion. This can be left for other studies.

PLANNING IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE STUDY

The following are planning implications that self-regulation skill has for effective study towards improved students' academic performance:

- Students should endeavour to have a specific period of time to go through their course materials and always find time to search for information concerning their programme on the internet. This is because teaching-learning responsibilities lie more on the shoulders of the students. These practices can also lead to effective study habits.
- Students need to monitor their progress in goal achievement in distance learning programmes. The University authority should put in place effective feedback mechanisms on the academic progress of the students.
- Students should always create balancing strategies in case of unforeseen situations in their academic pursuit as well as setting goals towards knowledge development in distance learning programme.
- Students should reduce their social, business, and religious activities in favour of their academic work, especially during contact periods. They need to always carry out personal assessment and evaluation of the study objectives vis-à-vis course materials so as to be able to get effective feedback on their academic pursuits.

APPENDIX

DISTANCE LEARNERS' SELF-REGULATION SKILLS SCALE (DLSRSI)

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statements and rate accordingly. You are to tick (✓) your responses.

S/N	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
1	I always ask myself questions so as to make sure I understand the distance learning study materials I have been reading.				
2	I usually work on practice exercises and answer questions at the end of each chapter even though I do not have to do so.				
3	I work hard to receive good grades even though I do not like certain lesson of distance learning programme				
4	I have specific period of time to go through my distance learning course study materials even when the time may not be convenient.				

5	I do not usually set my goals towards knowledge development in my distance learning studies.				
6	I always endeavour to select appropriate learning strategies so as to achieve my academic goals				
7	I usually monitor my progress in goal achievement in distance learning programme.				
8	I always set balancing strategies in case of unwanted situation in my academic pursuit.				
9	I usually set goals towards knowledge development in distance learning programme.				
10	I always find time to search for information concerning my programme on the internet.				
11	I usually strive to get relevant course materials to read in the programme.				
12	I do not engage in other activities that will further promote my understanding of the study materials.				
13	I usually reduce my social activities to the advantage of my academic works during contact periods.				
14	I usually carry out personal assessment and evaluation of the study objectives.				
15	I maintain such systematic cognitions and behaviours necessary for me to attain my goals.				

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Do Rural Districts Die When Their Schools Close? Evidence from Sweden around 2000

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ABSTRACT

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the continued existence of many rural schools is being threatened. It has often been suggested that the closure of a rural school renders the area it serves less attractive, and can prejudice in-migration and encourage out-migration as the school is often expected to have more functions than the mere provision of basic education. In this paper, using, geographically detailed population data, no significant such effects on migration patterns can be demonstrated, either in the immediate surroundings of the school or in its wider catchment area. These results remain even if the migrants being considered are limited to families with children (a group expected to be particularly affected by school closures).

INTRODUCTION

At the turn of this century, the number of rural schools is decreasing in many countries. For politicians and other decision-makers, this is hardly an end in itself but rather the effect of these schools being squeezed between local societal demands and economic limitations. Thus, decisions to close rural schools are often disputed, and merely discussing the issue frequently triggers protests from the concerned population. However, apart from the fact that school closures are hardly welcomed anywhere, and that such a decision might make politicians responsible for it unpopular with their electorates, the effects of a school's closure depends on the school's functions. Technically, the concrete task of any elementary school is to educate children. However, a number of additional, *de facto* functions for schools have also been suggested and examined in the literature. Thus, given these insights, it would seem narrow-minded to confine school planning to just supplying children with basic education. One, but not the only, overriding argument against the closure of rural schools is that they have serious effects on local migration patterns, particularly among families with children. This is the argument to be examined here.

Consequences of migration on education have recently been discussed in this journal (Donmez 2009). Here the opposite relationship is focused and the attention is restricted to a rural setting. Our aim is to detect whether the closure of a rural school affects migration to and from its surrounding area. The study uses, geographically detailed Swedish full population data containing the geographical location of all built-up localities, schools and residential coordinates of the Swedish population for every year from 1990 to 2004. The first section presents the development of the Swedish school system from the nineteenth century to the present, primarily focusing on its rural localization. The second section consists of a literature review aimed at identifying the different functions of rural schools. The data and method is discussed in the third section, followed by the main results in the fourth section, and a short concluding section.

PRECONDITIONS FOR THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

In Retrospect

During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, most countries in the so-called developed regions of the world experienced a demographic transition. As a result, the large cohorts of children born 100 or so years ago have subsequently been replaced by smaller generations. Today, the fertility rate in most of these countries is below the 2.1 children per woman rate necessary for long-term population replacement (e.g., Lee, 2003). Consequently, the enrolment of pupils in elementary schools has been, and still is, diminishing. Although the dramatic changes in births (and deaths) have been balanced by immigration, most immigrants to these countries have urban destinations (e.g., Logan, 2007). Thus, the numbers of pupils in rural areas have often decreased faster than the average. The urbanization process that followed the demographic transition has contributed even more to this development. The typical

way of addressing the thinning rural pupil populations has been to close down the smallest schools and to bus the affected pupils to a neighbouring school.

In Sweden, every parish was required to organize schools in 1842, but this responsibility was soon transferred to the municipalities in 1862. Schooling became compulsory for children twenty years later. However, these local authorities and their (mostly) farming populations did not necessarily agree with the central authorities on the importance of schooling, and the preconditions for its organization varied significantly. As a result, the improvement of the school system took decades and varied considerably between different parts of the country. Nonetheless, the number of schools grew rapidly, and the demographic boom briefly mentioned above spurred this development even more. When birth rates subsequently fell and Sweden saw increasing urbanization around the turn of the twentieth century, the share of children (and soon, the absolute number of children) living in rural areas began to decrease. These changes in the rural population are reflected in statistics on the number of schools, which peaked in 1931 when the country had almost 15,000 schools (National Bureau of Statistics, 1950). During the middle of the twentieth century, many small schools were closed. In the early 1970s, the total number of remaining schools totalled fewer than 5,000 (National Bureau of Statistics, 1974).

However, the closing of small schools during the twentieth century cannot be explained solely by demography and urbanization; other factors can also be identified. In fact, there are reasons to believe that the processes of consolidating and rationalizing smaller schools were pursued irrespective of demographic developments. The common wisdom of this era was that small schools generated poor results and were inferior to larger schools (Bard *et al.*, 2005; Ribchester & Edwards, 1999; Meusburger, 2005). From the Swedish perspective at least, it has been suggested that this position might be explained in the context of urbanization and a period of urban dynamism, which meant, among other things, that resources for education were more plentiful in cities than in rural areas (Andrae-Thelin & Solstad, 2005). According to the works just referred to above, the economic argument was only added to the quality discussion later on. Moreover, developments in motorized transportation had made it possible to transport pupils on a daily basis from their homes to a school beyond walking distance. In a sparsely populated country such as Sweden, the possibility of arranging transportation to schools was already being considered in the first decade of the 1900s. In 1926, the government introduced subsidies to school carriages and buses. Since 1966, school transportation has been the responsibility of the local communities (Gummesson, 2003).

Another factor is of importance in the Swedish case: administrative reforms, driven by efforts to build a more rational and modern society, were typical for the time. The first of these was a uniform school system to replace the former patchwork of different school forms. Between 1949 and 1972, a nine-year compulsory 'comprehensive school' was phased in. This also meant that the central government strengthened its influence over the school system at the expense of local authorities. Second, the administrative subdivision of the country was reformed during the same period. The roughly 2,500 municipalities responsible for (among other things) supplying their young inhabitants with basic education were merged into nearly 300 large units with an average size of 1,600 km² (i.e. equal to about 40 x 40 km). In sparsely populated areas they might be more than 10 times larger. Of course, this meant that both political power and school planning was concentrated in the main locality in each area. As such, control over school localization was centralized in two ways during this period, and facilitated the consolidation of rural schools in Sweden.

By the early 1970s, the administrative reforms were completed and the urbanization rate slowed down and even went in the opposite direction in some areas during the following decades. Families with children made up the backbone of this "counter-urban" migration (Hjort & Malmberg, 2006). The number of schools remained almost unchanged at around 4,700 during the 1970s and 1980s. In 1993, municipalities assumed some public school responsibilities that had been held by the state until then, particularly the economic responsibilities. At the same time, the government allowed activists, teachers, parents or even private companies to receive public financing to run schools. The establishment of this 'free school' reform meant that while the municipalities were still required to offer education for every child, parents had the right to send their child and his/her public school allowance to an alternate school of their choice. As Sweden is a high-tax society, non-public schools had been very uncommon until then; as a consequence of these second reforms the number of schools increased, to about 5,000. However,

most of the new 'free schools' that were established appeared in cities (Statistics Sweden, 2007). The first reforms (transferring responsibilities to the municipalities) paved the way for a new wave of rural school closures. A separate account of the changing numbers of *rural* schools showed that the numbers decreased rapidly during the 1990s, but that the trend flattened out by the early 2000s (Glesbygdsverket, 2008).

The economic crisis of the 1990s (which also affected municipalities) is one explanation for the many rural school closures that took place during these years. Many municipalities adopted economic action programs and no exceptions were necessarily made for their educational commitments. It is possible that this development was further augmented by the free school reform, likely diverting some funds from public (i.e., municipal) to 'free' schools. In any case, these developments were aligned with the demographic changes taking place, as birth rates in Sweden fell dramatically during the 1990s, particularly in small towns and rural areas. At the same time, the urbanization process accelerated again, after two decades of rather balanced geographical population redistribution.

Small Rural Schools – Still under Threat

Today, arguments supporting the superiority of large schools have been disputed in a number of countries, and there are even studies indicating that the results of small schools might even be better (for an overview of British studies see Ribchester & Edwards, 1999; an overview of American studies with similar conclusions can be found in Bard *et al.*, 2005; a review of Scandinavian studies can be found in Thelin & Solstad, 2005). On the other hand, Leonard *et al.* (2002) argue that, based on Canadian studies, the success of small schools is a matter of potential rather than necessity (cf. also Lee *et al.*, 2000). Moreover, it has long been clear that the correlation between school size and economic efficiency is at least not a given, particularly not in rural areas where consolidation of schools often implies costly transportation (Bard *et al.*, 2005) and given higher construction costs in urban settings (Howley 2008). Irrespective of these conclusions, the final and remaining issue about how to choose between costs and quality is not an empirical one (see Andrews *et al.*, 2002 for an overview).

Areas with low birth rates and thus fewer children (e.g., rural areas) are in a situation where the pupil population is decreasing and their schools are often threatened with closure, irrespective of their potentially good results. Rural areas are also particularly exposed to the consequences of school closings, since this means pupils have to be transported to another village sometimes far away, rather than to the neighbouring township, as has been noticed in, for example, remote valleys of the Alps (Meusburger, 2005), parts of Eastern Europe (Budde, 2007; Kučerová and Kučera 2009), or the rural United States (Beeson & Strange, 2003). Cedering (2012) has studied consequences of rural school closures on the everyday life of affected families in Sweden and Talen (2001) has specifically drawn attention to the consequences of long distances to schools (and thus, long times spent on school buses) and the achievement of pupils (cf. also Trnková 2009). However, outcomes of school closures often tend to be evaluated at an aggregated level and, at least in Sweden, the depopulation of already sparsely populated areas means that although many rural schools are closed down every year, the share of pupils with distances to their nearest school of longer than ten kilometers is diminishing (Glesbygdsverket, 2008). Nevertheless, this is of course not much comfort to the individual families and pupils concerned.

The mere public consideration of closing a local school often triggers worries, protests and opposition from the people directly affected (parents of the pupils in the school), as well as from whole communities (Post & Stambach, 1999; Ward & Rink, 1992; Berger, 1983; and set in a wider and more theoretical context by Mormont, 1983). It has often been argued that defending a rural school that is under threat involves addressing many more issues than simply supplying children with the best possible education and quality of life. A number of additional functions have been suggested or identified.

THE WIDER FUNCTIONS OF A RURAL SCHOOL

According to Lyson (2002), his studies in New York State showed that compared to villages without a school, villages with a school tended to have better population development, higher house prices, fewer poor people, and a less polarized socio-economic profile. The differences were more apparent in the smallest villages studied. However, as pointed out by Dean as far back as 1983, identifying the casual connections in these kinds of studies is complicated—does, for example, the presence of a school lead to positive development or is it the other way around? He also drew attention to the fact that studies of this type tend to highlight cases rather than results that can be generalized.

Nonetheless, a number of previous studies have focused directly on consequences. Andrews (1983) reports various outcomes, in a number of respects, of three different strategies in school planning based on six cases. Voth & Danforth (1981) show co-variation between school closures and the prosperity of local business, but are unclear about the causal direction. Sederberg (1987) explicitly focuses on the secondary effects of rural schools—effects that are at stake if the school is closed. Sell *et al.* (1996) are not able to show that retail turnover diminishes as a consequence of a village school closure, but note how overall engagement in the community becomes weaker (cf. also Smithers *et al.*, 2004). According to Post & Stambach (1999, p. 106), the debates about school closings “reflect a struggle to maintain community—and to define “community”—more than a disagreement about the school’s technical ability to promote the success of individual students”. Meusberger (2005) points to the key role of school employees (cf. also Trnková 2009) in this process and argues that, from a wider perspective, the survival of a rural school might have consequences for such diverse issues as the sustainability of nature and the maintenance of minority cultures. Mormont (1983) pointed to the symbolic meaning of the village school, something also underlined in later studies (e.g. Magnusson & Berg, 2007; Thelin & Solstad, 2005; Kearns et al 2009; Witten et al 2003). Thus, based on these studies, school planning should not be reduced to merely a technical issue of providing education, since it also has many other implications.

However, a more concrete concern expressed by several authors is that the closing of a school will trigger out-migration and have a negative effect on potential in-migration (see, for example, Woods, 2005; Magnusson & Berg, 2007; Lyson 2002). As exemplified in Thelin & Solstad (2005), this is also a concern embraced by the rural population in villages whose schools are threatened. Thus, a school is seen as a necessary attribute for an attractive village. In the long run, this is a key issue that will have implications for all of the other abovementioned functions of rural schools. A vigorous community and prosperous businesses presumes decent population development at a minimum.

Obviously, if these worries can be proven correct, decisions to close rural schools have much more far-reaching consequences than just supplying pupils residing in rural areas with education in a more effective way. Thus, this is an issue of great importance to local governmental planning of education. The present study monitors the development of in- and out-migration to and from rural areas whose school has closed. The migration patterns in rural areas hosting a school continuously during the period studied (1990 to 2004) are monitored for comparative reasons. The results and conclusions are as general as allowed by a total investigation in an entire country over 15 years. The country studied is Sweden.

DATA AND METHOD

The idea of this study is basically to monitor in- and out-migration to and from the surroundings of a rural area which has had a school close during the period 1990 to 2004, and to compare migration after the closing year with migration before that year. If the migration patterns are affected by school closure, we would – *ceteris paribus* – expect to see a decrease in in-migration and/or an increase in out-migration in the years immediately following the closing year.

The Construction of Geographical Areas

As the 290 (large) municipalities in Sweden are ultimately responsible for basic education (although operating just a share of the roughly 5,000 schools in the country), and since parents can choose any school for their children, there are no straightforward subdivisions of the country into school districts or other geographical units suitable for analysis. Beside that, rural Sweden does not generally consist of cohesive villages, but rather quiet solitude farms and dwellings. Therefore, a set of approximate

catchment areas has been constructed around each and every school¹ by employing Voronoi polygons. The construction of Voronoi polygons means that every single geographical coordinate in the country is attached to its nearest school.

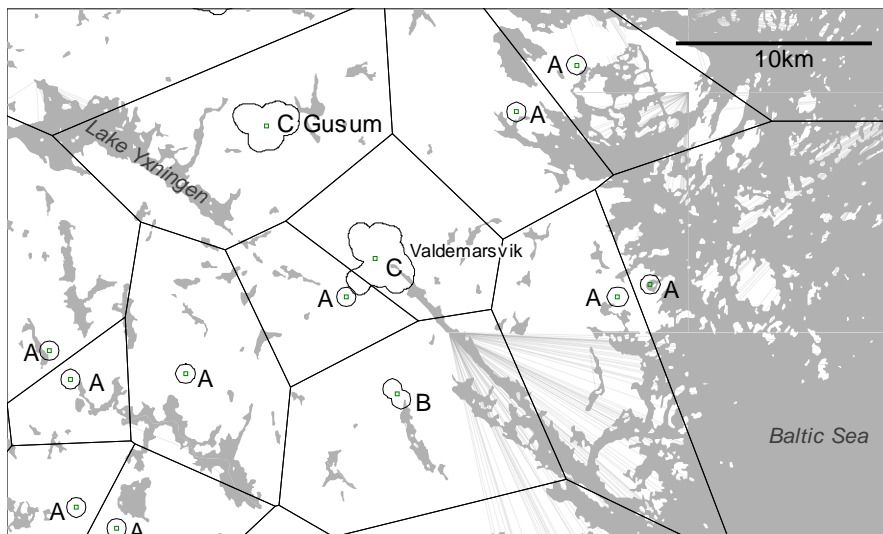
Nonetheless, the nearest school might be many kilometers away and many pupils have to ride a bus to get there while others are within walking or biking distance. To recognize this difference, the Voronoi polygons have been complemented with a second set of polygons that are buffers of 500 meters radius around each and every school (occasionally merged)¹. These buffers are intended to approximately represent areas within walking distance of the schools.² GIS support has been essential in the construction of the two sets of polygons.

While the variation of size between the buffers is rather modest, the size of the Voronoi polygons varies considerably. The smallest are just a few square kilometers, while the largest ones, situated in the very sparsely populated northern parts of Sweden, might be 10,000 to 12,000 km² each. Figure 1 illustrates what the divisions in the southeastern part of Östergötland on the Swedish east coast looks like. The small squares represent the centroids of the polygons (usually equal to locations of schools). The rounded areas represent different kinds of buffer polygons centred on them. Finally, the borderlines of the Voronoi polygons are indicated by straight lines. The shaded areas represent water.

¹ Primary schools have been identified in the business registry of Statistics Sweden through their ISIC code and then supplied with geographical coordinates from the Swedish registry on real estate. Schools within one kilometer of each other and schools within built-up urban localities (as defined by Statistics Sweden 2002) are treated as one when the polygons are constructed. The reason for these measures are that the effects of a school closing where an alternative is available or established just a few hundred meters away cannot be expected to have the same consequences as in areas long distances between the schools.

² According to the Swedish school act, municipalities are obligated to arrange school buses for pupils who need it for some (not further specified) reason. Based on questionnaire-based studies, the most common interpretation of this paragraph means that among the youngest pupils those with more than two kilometers to their school or with severe danger traffic along the way are entitled to a school bus (Wallberg & Peterson 2006). The stipulated distances for older pupils tend to be longer. Nonetheless, as the application of the law varies between municipalities, no universal distance can be established. However, 500 meters should be short enough to exclude most of the pupils who ride school buses. According to another survey study, which was focused on parents of school children, less than five percent of pupils who ride a school bus have a shorter distance than one kilometer to their school (Sörensen *et al.*, 2002).

Figure 1: Buffers, Voronois and their centroids (indicating the presence of at least one school active for at least one year during the period 1990 to 2004) in the southeastern part of Östergötland, Sweden



Key: “A” indicates “ordinary” 500-meter radius buffers; “B” merged buffers; and “C” urban localities.

As the map illustrates, these areas cannot be expected to fully represent exact catchment areas. Of course, the use of Voronoi polygons does not account for either natural obstacles (e.g., lakes) or built infrastructure (e.g., roads). Thus, the message of Figure 1 is that the polygons and, thereby, the results of this study should be seen as approximations of reality.

Analyzing the Data

Finally, the migration to and from rural polygons which have lost their school have been compared to rural polygons with a continuously open school. This meant that yearly (anonymized) data on the residence coordinates of every single inhabitant in Sweden was examined. Thus, people changing their buffer and/or Voronoi polygon of residence between two years (i.e., migrants) can be identified. These individual data also include information on whether a migrant belongs to a family with or without children. For descriptive purposes, the resulting data have been arranged to highlight the year of school closures (whichever it is).

A few pooled regression models (where cross-sectional and time series data were combined) were then run to statistically estimate any effects of the school closures on migration patterns in the area concerned. The yearly migration in and out of the polygons (representing the area within walking distance and catchment area of each school, respectively,) act as dependent variables in the models. As the most probable point in time to close a school is between two school years (i.e., during the summer) we would expect the effects of a closure to appear during the same year. However, moving is a major event for most families and involves more factors than just schooling. As such, it can be assumed that the effect of a school closure might be lagged in time. Therefore the closing year and the two following years appear as an independent variable in the models (CLOSE+2Y). In these models it is also possible to consider some factors other than school closures that might influence the migration patterns. Those factors include the distance to the nearest bigger city³ (DIST REGC) (as most of the rural population in Sweden commutes to a city for jobs or services), the population size of the area concerned (POP97). More variables (such as changes in unemployment rate or housing stock) might have been added, but

³ A bigger city is operationalized as the dominating city in an e-zone categorized as a regional centre in the semi-official taxonomy presented in English by Carlsson *et al.*, 1996.

unfortunately these are not available for the tailored regions employed in this study. However, dummy variables for each year of the study period (DUMMY XXXX) have been included in the models. These are intended to capture any time-specific effects (including the ones just mentioned). The independent variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Independent variables

Variable	Definition	Polygons with closed school		Polygons with continuously open school	
		Mean value	Std dev.	Mean value	Std dev.
DIST REGC	Distance in km to nearest regional centre	65	54	52	46
POP97	Number of inhabitants in the catchment area (Voronoi) 1997	603	434	1238	771
DUMMY XXXX	Dummies for each year in the analysis, 1991 is base Dummy, 1 for areas whose school closed the last 3 years				

Source: Data computed from Statistics Sweden

RESULTS

Resulting Geography

The generation of polygons resulted in 2,780 buffers, usually 500 meters in radius, and an equal number of larger Voronoi polygons. However, most of them are of less interest for the aims of this study as they consist of larger urban areas⁴ (which usually provide many alternatives to a closed school), or are centred on a school open for several short parts of the study period (and thus missing one defined, unambiguous closing year). The kinds of Voronoi and buffer polygons of interest are primarily 236 rural areas that initially hosted a school in 1990, but lost it at one particular point in time between 1990 and 2004—thus defining areas with an unmistakable period before the school closing and another after it. For comparative reasons, 567 rural areas continuously hosting a school during this period are also considered. The median and average population sizes between 1990 and 2004 in these two types of areas is accounted for in Table 2.

Table 2: Median and average population sizes in rural Voronoi and buffer polygons with a closed (at a certain year)

		Median		Average		Difference
		1990	2004	1990	2004	
School closed (at a certain point in time)	Voronoi	514	451	610	591	-3,0%
	thereof in 500m buffer	41	38	169	160	-5,6%
School continuously open 1990-2004	Voronoi	1 047	1 011	1 240	1 214	-2,1%
	thereof in 500m buffer	430	404	632	606	-4,1%

Source: Data computed from Statistics Sweden

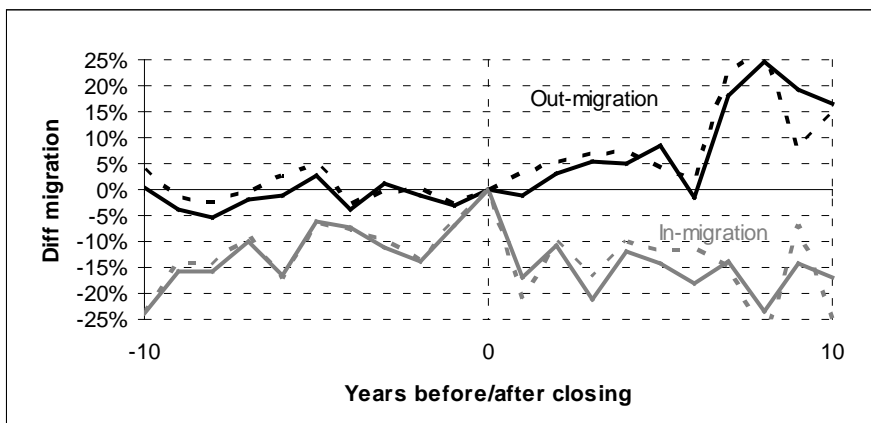
⁴ Basically, the definitions used by Statistics Sweden (2002) are also employed here, but as their criteria are very generous (e.g., they consider villages as small as 200 inhabitants as “urban”) a further criteria has been added: only localities hosting more than one shop in 2004 are considered urban here.

First, it is immediately clear from Table 1 that population is diminishing faster in rural areas that have lost their schools, although it is also decreasing in areas with continuously opened schools. Nevertheless, what remains in question is the contribution of migration to these numbers, and separating the time before the closure from the period that follows. Second, the population base in the Voronoi polygons (i.e., the approximate catchment areas) whose school has been closed is, on average, just half the size of its equivalent with a continuously open school for the period 1990 to 2004. As far as the buffers (i.e., the immediate surroundings of the school) are concerned, the difference is even larger. Thus, the closed schools have a smaller base of pupils than the surviving ones. Third, the median populations indicate that many polygons have very small populations. In fact, the least populated ones have well below 100 inhabitants. However, this is in line with the facts that the rural population is sparse and that the smallest schools in the country (e.g. at tiny islands in the archipelago or in the remote parts of the north) enrol just a handful of pupils each. The most populated rural Voronoi polygon with a surviving school had 6 700 inhabitants in 2004 and the most populated one which has lost its school had 2 800 inhabitants at that point in time (not accounted for in the table).

Descriptive Results

As should be clear from section 3 above, it has been argued that rural schools fulfil a number of functions in addition to their formal task of educating their pupils. By extension, this argument means that a school might be expected to influence the general migration patterns to and from the community it serves. However, it can still be argued that a principal group affected by the closure of a school should consist of families with school-age children. This sub-group accounts for about half of the migration to and from the 236 areas presented above. As the data also account for families with children separately, their in- and out-migration is represented by the dashed lines in the following figures. The unbroken lines represent the total number of migrations (including families). Figure 2 illustrates the in- and out-migration ten years before and after school closure in the 236 rural areas of 500 meter radius which definitively lost their school during the study period; the share of migrants shown in the figure has been calculated as a percentage of the number of migrants in the closing year. An effect of the school closing on migration should appear as a break in the lines at year 0 (closing year) or immediately after it.

Figure 2: In- and out-migration in buffer polygons around rural schools definitively closed during a certain year between 1990 and 2004, as a percentage of their in- and out-migration during the closing year



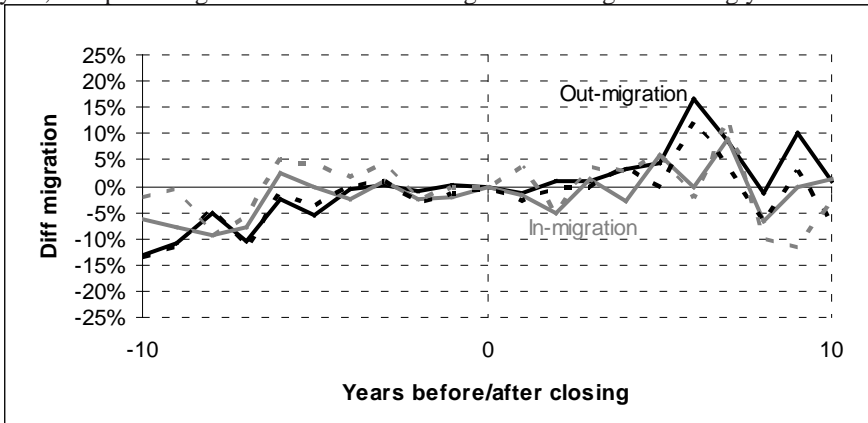
Note: Dashed lines represent families with children, unbroken lines represent total migration.
 Source: Data computed from Statistics Sweden

First, it can be seen that the migration tendencies of families with children is very similar to the general tendencies. Second, the figure informs us that out-migration from a 500-meter buffer is

increasing over the years following the closure of its school. While it is rather stable during the ten years preceding the closure, it is considerably higher in the years after it. Third, in-migration shows a tendency to increase during the period of time preceding the closure, but then shows the opposite tendency afterwards. Thus, based on the association between the variables presented so far, a closing of a rural school might perhaps affect the migration patterns in its immediate surroundings in an injurious way. However, the dramatic increase in out-migration does not happen until seven to eight years after the closing, making its relationship to the closure questionable. Moreover, in-migration peaks in the closing year (this single observation might, of course, be a coincidence) and none of all other factors usually thought to affect migration patterns have been considered so far. Therefore, there are reasons to elaborate the hints revealed in the figure.

However, first attention should be drawn to the migration patterns in the outer parts of the Voronoi polygons — that is, on areas intended to represent locations in the wider catchment area of the closed schools, but not within walking distance from them. It can be assumed that these areas are served by school buses. Again, the dashed lines represent families with children while the unbroken lines symbolize total migration. It is worth noticing that the base of data is diminishing with the distance from year 0 in the diagram.

Figure 3: In- and out-migration in rural Voronoi (buffer polygons excluded) that lost their school a certain year, as a percentage of their in- and out-migration during the closing year



Note: Dashed lines represent families with children, unbroken lines represent total migration.
Source: Data computed from Statistics Sweden

Once again, it is clear that families with children show migration patterns similar to the general population. However, the message from Figure 3 deviates from Figure 2 in some respects. As far as out-migration is concerned, it definitely increases in the years following the closure of the school. On the other hand, once again, the dramatic increase does not occur until six to seven years after the closure. It should also be noted that the tendency toward increased out-migration was already established ten years before the closure. In-migration to these parts of the Voronoi polygons is rather stable. At the very least, there are no clear signs of decreasing in-migration in the years following the closure. The conclusion that Figure 3 suggests is that beyond walking distance from the school, migration is not affected by its closure in any considerable way.

Results of Statistical Modelling

The results of the regression models are compiled in Values below 0 means that the variable in question reduces the propensity to migrate and vice versa. Stars are used conventionally to indicate results that are significant. Table 3. In- and out-migration are accounted for separately, as are the two different kinds of polygons.

Table 3: Regression results (all migrants)

e	Variabl	In-migration to Voronoi		In-migration to Buffer		Out-migration fr Voronoi		Out-migration fr Buffer	
		B	t	B	t	B	t	B	t
	DIST	-	-	0	4	-	-	0,	4,03
REGC		0,06***	7,40	,04***	,52	0,06***	9,750	03***	
	POP97	0,	05***	05,65	,04***	2,23	,05***	30,204	04***
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 1992		12,10***	14,43	6,69***	9,39	6,89***	9,855	4,30***	-7,74
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 1993		13,41***	12,96	7,49***	8,24	6,38***	7,426	4,05***	-5,53
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-
Y 1994		12,53***	11,16	6,55***	6,48	,35	,458	0,81	-0,96
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 1995		11,75***	10,08	5,64***	5,28	1,86	1,932	1,78**	-1,97
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	0	0,	0,19
Y 1996		9,13***	7,69	4,78***	4,35	,92	,938	19	0,
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	1	1	0,	0,30
Y 1997		7,16***	5,98	3,49***	3,12	,94*	,975	29	1,
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	5	5	0,	1,02
Y 1998		4,43***	3,70	2,59**	2,31	,23***	,295	00	0,
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	3	3	54	0,56
Y 1999		6,05***	5,06	2,776**	2,48	,63***	,685	2	-
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	2	2	0,61	-0,64
Y 2000		7,03***	5,91	3,25***	2,95	,56***	,611	1	-
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	1	1	1,10*	-1,21
Y 2001		6,65***	5,69	3,20***	2,99	,16	,203	0	-
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	0	1,58*	-1,87
Y 2002		6,57***	5,81	3,26***	3,21	,20	,212	2	-
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	2	2	0,82	-1,12
Y 2003		4,10***	3,94	1,74*	1,91	,36***	,730	4	-
	DUMM	-	-	-	-	3	4	0,34	-0,61
Y 2004		2,90***	3,44	0,73	1,02	,04***	,309	0,	1,00
	CLOSE	1,	1,	0	0	1	1	76	
+2Y		64	53	,79	,83	,25	,394		
	Consta	1	-	-	-	6	-	-	-
nt		1,75		14,10		,65		14,32	
	R ²	0,		0		0		0,	
	Adj. R ²	53		,39		,63		38	
		0,		0		0		0,	
		53		,39		,63		38	

Key: * $p < 0,1$; ** $p < 0,05$; *** $p < 0,01$

All four migration streams analyzed increases (by definition) with population size. The migration to and from Voronoi (but not the smaller buffer regions) decreases with the distance to the nearest bigger city. This is in line with the fact that the Swedish population (and house stock) is more geographically concentrated in remote areas. In 1992 and 1993 Sweden was hardly hit by a deep economic recession and the general internal migration in the country dipped as a consequence. As is clear from Table 3, the rural areas scrutinized here do not make any exceptions. It is also clear that the in-migration to the rural areas studied here has not recovered from that hit while the out-migration from them has (cf. Amcoff 2006 on general rural population decrease in Sweden during the 1990s). However, the variable of primary interest to this study is the one indicating school closure (CLOSE+2Y). It indicates that both in- and out-migration increase as the school closes down, but is not significant in any of the four cases. Thus, there

are no signs of a significant effect of a rural school closure on the migration patterns in its catchment area or immediate surroundings. This conclusion is not affected by a limitation of the analysis to the proper closing year only (not accounted for in the Table). Table 4 is equivalent to Table 3, but considers only families with children.

Table 4: Regression results (migrants in families with children only)

Variable	In-migration to Voronoi		In-migration to Buffer		Out-migration fr Voronoi		Out-migration fr Buffer	
	B	t	B	t	B	t	B	t
DIST	-	-	0	1	-	-	0	1
REGC	0,02***	8,66	,01***	,39	0,03***	11,53	01**	,99
POP97	,19***	3,80	,02***	8,08	,03***	37,6	21***	1,90
DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 1992	5,28***	13,87	2,72***	9,07	4,02***	11,06	2,60***	9,17
DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 1993	5,73***	12,54	2,92***	7,82	3,68***	8,46	2,47***	6,65
DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-
Y 1994	5,49***	11,30	2,57***	6,31	,25	,54	0,61	1,45
DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 1995	5,28***	10,61	2,32***	5,47	0,89	1,88	0,87*	1,92
DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-
Y 1996	4,25***	8,45	1,88***	4,34	,32	,66	0,12	0,26
DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-
Y 1997	3,64***	7,21	1,41***	3,22	,23*	,48	0,27	0,56
DUMM	-	-	-	-	2	4	0,	0
Y 1998	2,62***	5,19	1,18***	2,70	,30***	,78	31	,645
DUMM	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-
Y 1999	3,61***	7,15	1,38***	3,16	,13***	,36	0,19	0,39
DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	1	-	-
Y 2000	4,03***	8,00	1,52***	3,51	,73***	,53	0,70	1,48
DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 2001	4,09***	8,19	1,68***	3,95	0,45	0,95	1,17***	2,59
DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 2002	3,69***	7,53	1,58***	3,85	0,66	1,42	1,49***	3,52
DUMM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Y 2003	2,44***	5,33	0,99***	2,64	0,48***	1,11	1,29***	3,47
DUMM	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-
Y 2004	1,86***	4,86	0,47	1,64	,25***	,69	1,06***	3,69
CLOSE	0	1	0	0	0	1	0,	1
+2Y	,55	,19	,33	,85	,69	,55	45	,17
Constan	5	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
t	,19	4,36	0	0	,97	6,52	0,	0,
R ²	,48	,37	0	0	,66	39	0,	0,
Adj. R ²	,48	,37	0	0	,66	39	0,	0,

Key: *p<0,1; **p<0,05; ***p<0,01

Overall, the results shown in Table 4 are quite similar to those in Table 3. Of particular importance to this study is the fact that any significant effects of a school closure (CLOSE+2Y) are still missing. Although only a group of migrants expected to be among the most affected are considered here, there are still no signs of effects on the migration patterns, either in the immediate surroundings of the school or in its larger catchment area. Once again, it could be added that the main results do not change if the estimated effects are limited to just the closing year.

CONCLUSIONS

Although the descriptive results suggest that there might be some harmful effects on migration patterns in the immediate surroundings of a rural school that is closed, these effects cannot be confirmed in the statistical analysis where a few background variables are controlled for. As far as the wider catchment areas are concerned, effects are not even hinted at in the descriptive analysis. The results do not change in any way worth mentioning when only families with children (who can be expected to be among those primary affected) are considered.

An obvious way of explaining the lack of effects is that the presence of a school is just one among many factors migrants to or from rural areas has to consider. It is clear from studies that people who move into the countryside do not expect many services anyway (e.g., Stenbacka, 2001). In addition, the children do not simply lose their right to education; they will be transported to schools by bus, which is very common in rural areas and in the catchment areas of the closed schools.

Thus, the general conclusion of this study is that no statistically significant effects of the closing of rural schools can be established on the migration patterns in the schools' surroundings. Based on this study, the rural districts whose schools are closed will, at the very least, not die due to a sub-sequent net out-migration of people. This is well in line with previous qualitative (Egelund and Laustsen 2006) and case (Johnson 1978) studies of the issue. As these results oppose a common way to argue against rural school closures, they might be of use to local governments considering closures of rural schools. On the other hand, the results cannot be taken as a justification for concluding that nothing in particular will happen to the local society when it loses its school. As should be clear from the review above, a number of other important functions of rural schools have been identified and established in the literature.

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BOOK REVIEW
Learning from and Adapting to Shadow Education?
Husaina Banu Kenayathulla

Confronting the Shadow Education System: What Government Policies for What Private Tutoring?
Mark Bray (2009).

In this book Mark Bray shows that private tutoring is a phenomenon that educational planners cannot ignore. Worldwide, it has grown significantly in scale; and it has far-reaching implications. The book uses the metaphor of the shadow since it focuses on supplementary tutoring in subjects that are already taught in schools. As the size and content of school systems change, Bray points out, so does supplementary tutoring in the shadow.

Private tutoring has both positive and negative aspects. It provides remedial lessons for those who are academically weak, and generates additional income for tutors, including those who are also public school teachers. On the other hand, private tutoring exacerbates inequalities, and can create excessive pressure on students. It can also increase corruption in education systems, especially when teachers provide extra lessons for students for whom they are already responsible, and feel tempted to reduce the quality of their mainstream lessons in order to increase the demand for private tutoring.

Bray argues that it is important to understand the nature of tutoring and the context in which it occurs. Based on cross-national indicators, Bray finds that tutoring is significant in scale both in low-income countries such as Cambodia and Kenya and in high-income countries such as Canada and Japan. Bray argues that countries can be grouped based “on historical data on the emergence of tutoring as a significant activity, on cultural factors which promote or limit tutoring, and on the links between the shadow system and government education policies” (p. 24). For instance, supplementary tutoring is widespread in East Asian societies, especially those influenced by Confucian traditions. In these societies, tutoring is usually taken by high achievers. Conversely, some governments (for example in Australia and the US) have encouraged tutoring to help students who are academically weak. Thus, policy needs might vary based on each country’s context.

Bray also addresses the various modes of tutoring. Most tutoring is delivered in person, with the format of the tutoring depending on the parents’ ability to pay. Students from wealthy families are more likely to receive one-to-one and small-group tutoring compared to students from lower-income backgrounds. Other modes of tutoring, such as tutoring by phone, television, and internet are also becoming increasingly important. Advances in technology now allow tutoring across national borders.

Bray stresses that tutoring has economic, social, and educational implications. For instance, in Korea household expenditures on tutoring represent 2.8% of Gross Domestic Product. Additionally, private tutoring exacerbates social inequalities as high-income households are able to afford better-quality tutoring; and gender bias exists in cultures where parents are less willing to invest in girls. Government-sponsored tutoring schemes help in providing remedial lessons to those students who are academically weak. Yet Bray underscores the lack of data to determine the success of these schemes.

One of the most interesting parts of the book is the presentation of three case studies. The first case study is of Korea, which is well-known for large-scale private tutoring. The high demand for tutoring arises due to competitive school entrance examinations used to ensure a highly skilled workforce. This system has been criticized because it exacerbates social inequalities, creates stress for students, and burdens the parents financially. As a consequence, the Korean government banned all tutoring in 1980. The ban was not effective, however, and policies gradually shifted. In 2000, the courts declared that the prohibition was unconstitutional and an infringement of human rights. Finally, in 2004 the Korean government launched various initiatives to improve the public education system in order to reduce the need for supplementary tutoring.

The other case studies focus on Mauritius and France. Mauritius has a long history of initiatives to deal with the negative dimensions of private tutoring. These initiatives included the prohibition of tutoring up to standard III and the restriction on the number of weekly hours and class size for tutoring. Bray

notes that planners in each decade found that tutoring had become part of the culture, and that the negative dimensions, such as too much dependence on private tutoring to improve their children's academic performance, were difficult to eliminate. In France, unlike Korea and Mauritius, private tutoring has been shaped not only by social and economic forces but also by government initiatives. French families are allowed to claim reductions in income tax for costs incurred for tutoring. Through such initiatives, the government has encouraged improvements in educational achievement while sharing the financial burden.

In addition to the detailed case studies, Bray notes policy responses and evaluation mechanisms. The section on policy responses focuses on the necessity for a multifaceted perspective, including the extent to which private tutoring can be an asset or a detriment to a society, country, or culture. Policy responses aim to control the demand for tutoring, address the supply side, and/or harness the market to promote synergies. For example, the Taiwanese government encourages tutors to monitor and self-regulate their activities through an association of tutoring providers. This book also provides an excellent summary of techniques that might be used to evaluate the nature and extent of tutoring.

Bray lays out a coherent and logically-sequenced argument that tutoring is an increasingly relevant global issue. He shows that educational planners need to learn from and adapt to shadow education rather than just seeing it as an activity to control. The book will help planners to identify appropriate measures for their own contexts. This book is an excellent guide from which educational planners can gain a broad global perspective and insights for their own specific contexts.

Mark Bray (2009). *Confronting the Shadow Education System: What Government Policies for What Private Tutoring?* Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP). xi + 132 pp., ISBN 978-92-803-1333-8. US\$25 (pbk) or can be downloaded free of charge from www.iiep.unesco.org.

INVITATION TO SUBMIT MANUSCRIPTS

The editor of *Educational Planning*, a refereed journal of educational planning issues, invites the submission of original manuscripts for publication consideration. *Educational Planning* is the official journal of the International Society for Educational Planning. The audience of the journal includes national and provincial/state planners, university faculty, school district administrators and planners, and other practitioners associated with educational planning.

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The Society was founded December 10, 1970 in Washington, DC. Over 50 local, state, national, and international planners attended the first organizational meeting.

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The International Society for Educational Planning was established to foster the professional knowledge and interests of educational planners. Through conferences and publications, the society promotes the interchange of ideas within the planning community. The membership includes persons from the ranks of governmental agencies, school-based practitioners, and higher education.

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