UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DISTANCE EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA: CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

BY

DAVID AKROFI

Thesis Submitted to the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational Administration

MAY 2010

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: David Akrofi

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: Mr. S. K. Atakpa

Co-Supervisor's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: Dr. (Mrs.) Rosemary S. Bosu

ABSTRACT

The study examined the challenges and prospects of the UEW distance education programme. The design for the study was a descriptive survey whereby data were collected to answer the research questions. The sample for the study was 381 comprising 168 diploma students, 201 post-diploma students, 9 tutors/lecturers and 3 study centre coordinators. The stratified random sampling techniques were used in selecting the sample.

Questionnaire was the main instrument used for the collection of data. The questionnaire was pilot-tested before the main data were collected. The Cronbach Alpha Reliability Co-efficient for the three research questions stood as .758, .681 and .788 respectively. The study identified inadequate feedback from tutors, inadequate modules, inadequate support system, delayed modules and inadequate motivation of tutors as the major challenges facing the University of Education (UEW) distance education programme. Despite these challenges, the UEW distance programme was described as good due to the quality of the programme and course structure. The face-to-face tutorial was also found to be effective. The prospects of the UEW distance education programme according to the study include access to university education, opportunity for higher professional training, teacher efficiency and the potential to attract more teachers to enroll in future.

Based on the findings the following recommendations were made: that feedback should be given to students. It was also recommended that adequate modules be provided to the students and on time. In addition it was recommended that adequate support should be provided to students to facilitate teaching and learning.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to my supervisors, Mr. S.K. Atakpa and Dr. Rosemary S. Bosu both of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) for their invaluable ideas, contributions, criticisms and encouragement in making this work a success.

My appreciation also goes to the entire staff of IEPA for the assistance offered in the course of the write- up. My gratitude is extended to Mr. Derick N. Sackey and Mr. Wisdom Agbevenu for their insightful counsel and directions. My gratitude is also extended to Mr. Albert Bekoe Mensah who did the initial editing of the work.

My final appreciation goes to my family especially, Mr. E.K. Larbi, Mr. George Awuku, Mr. David Otibo and Mr. Solomon Siaw-Baah for their encouragement.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife, Vida K. Akrofi.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
DECLARATION		ii
ABSTRACT		iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS		iv
DEDICATION		v
LIST OF TABLES		ix
CHAPTER		
ONE	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background to the Study	1
	Statement of the Problem	6
	Purpose of the Study	6
	Research Questions	7
	Significance of the Study	7
	Delimitations of the Study	8
	Limitations of the Study	8
	Definition of Terms	9
	Organization of the Study	10
TWO	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	12
	Meaning and Features of Distance Education	12
	Theories and Philosophies of Distance Education	17
	Challenges of Distance Education	19
	Support Services in Distance Education	34
	Prospects of Distance Education	46

	Models of Distance Education	55
	Media used in Distance Education	60
	Organization and Management of Distance Education	67
	Policy Making and Control	68
	Summary of Literature	76
THREE	METHODOLOGY	78
	Research Design	78
	Population	79
	Sample	80
	Sampling Procedure	81
	Data collection instrument	81
	Pilot-testing of instrument	82
	Data collection procedure	85
	Data Analysis plan	87
FOUR	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	89
	Findings of the Study	89
	Major Challenges facing the UEW Distance Education	90
	Factors that make the UEW Distance Acceptable	95
	Prospects of the UEW Distance Education	100
FIVE	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	106
	Summary	106

Summary of findings 107

Conclusions 111

Recommendations 112

Suggested areas for further research 114

REFERENCES 115

APPENDICES 125

A Questionnaire for Respondents 125

B Letter of Introduction to Centre Coordinators 130

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Population of the Study	80
2	Sample size for the Study	80
3	Respondents used for Pilot-test	85
4	Major Challenges facing the UEW Distance Education	90
5	Factors that make UEW Distance Education Acceptable	95
6	Prospects of UEW Distance Education	100

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

As a result of widespread belief in the potency of education to enhance people's lifestyle, prosperity and happiness, every nation believes in or at least pay lip-service to the need to provide education to its people. Much attention has been focused not only on the need to ensure that a greater number of the people have unhampered access to education but also that the right quality and relevant education is provided by means of a nation's school system (Adentwi, 2002).In fact, due to the myriad of benefits derived from education, it has become imperative for democratic societies to provide their citizens with the education they need throughout their lives. Consequently, education has become a top priority on the agenda of most developing countries including Ghana.

A post-independence phenomenon in many Sub-Saharan African countries has been an ever-rising school-going population. This scenario is partly the result of the fact that most governments of newly independent African countries made it a policy to use education as an important tool for social change and national development (Adentwi, 2002). Policies pursued by post-colonial regimes on the educational front such as the Universal Primary Education (UPE) now Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE),

expansion of secondary school education, the establishment of colleges, polytechnics and universities have resulted in large school intake without a corresponding capacity to turn out qualified teachers into the schools. In the circumstances, less qualified and untrained teachers (pupil teachers) were hired to supplement the few qualified ones available (Adentwi, 2002). The inevitable consequence of this is the low achievement levels of school graduates and low standards of education at all levels.

Koomson (1998) argues that one of the major constraints that account for the seemingly low standard of education in developing countries is inadequacy of quantity and quality of qualified teachers. Professional teachers produced in most of these countries are far below the levels expected because the demand for teachers has always outstripped the supply. Beeby cited in Adentwi (2002) once remarked in his classical analysis of educational quality in developing countries that the educational background of especially primary school teachers is a major constraint on the quality of education they offer. In the case of Ghana, statistics at the time of launching her education reform programme of 1987 is an ample attestation of this crisis (Ghana, 1989). For example, 10,419 teachers, representing 32% of the 32,615 teachers of the Middle School/Junior Secondary Schools level where the reform started were untrained (Ghana, 1989). To embark on the implementation of a reform programme with this challenge is worrying.

It is clear that the teacher is a crucial element as far as the provision of any meaningful education is concerned. More teachers need to be trained to fill the schools. There is the need to expand teacher training facilities in order to

quickly balance the teacher demand and supply situation. Unfortunately, it has not been easy to produce the requisite quantity and quality of teachers because of financial constraints on the part of government. Indeed, there is the painful reality of a large backlog of qualified candidates who cannot gain admission into the teacher training colleges and universities due to limited resources. For instance, statistics on admission to the University of Cape Coast (UCC) confirm limited places for prospective applicants most of whom are teachers .Less than 50% of qualified applicants are admitted every year (Bampo, 2008). Meanwhile many schools are deprived of qualified teachers (Koomson, 1998).

To compound this already bad state of affairs, there is also the paradox of the few qualified teachers leaving the classroom in pursuit of higher education because of the requirements for higher levels of training to secure their jobs and to remain competitive (Oduro, 2008). In Ghana, about 15,000 certificated teachers leave the classroom every year to upgrade themselves in tertiary institutions thereby creating vacancies too difficult for the government to fill (Asabre-Ameyaw, 2008). What is more worrying is the cost involved in the training of these teachers. In 2007 alone, the government spent about GH¢ 40, 2000 on teachers on study leave with pay (Oduro, 2008). Sadly, most teachers on study leave do not return to the classroom. Teacher attrition especially after study leave is a global phenomenon and not peculiar to Ghana. In America, it is estimated that between 40%-50% of teachers leave the profession before their fifth year (Oduro, 2008). It is against this background that distance education has been used in many developing countries including Ghana as probably the most viable alternative to conventional residential

teacher education.

A report of the visit of Dr. Alex Kwapong in 1993 to the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) reveals an explosion of open universities with many thousands of students at the Alama Akbar University of Pakistan, Indira Ghandi Open University in India and others in Malaysia and Hong Kong (Musa, 2002). In Africa, distance education is popular in countries like South Africa, Sierra-Leone, Kenya, Tanzania, Nigeria and Ghana. Distance education has been used by these countries to develop professional teachers for their basic schools. For instance, the government of Tanzania aiming to achieve Universal Basic Education by increasing the number of children at the basic school level decided to train more teachers by distance (Malek &Temu cited in Oduro, 2008). This strengthens the importance of distance education to complement formal education in Africa. Hall (1996) is of the view that industrialized and developing countries require education systems that are flexible, accessible and cost-effective and give life-long access. Distance education presents this opportunity.

With distance education, most universities in Ghana may be able to manage fairly the problem of access to university education. The programme offers an economic use of educational resources to provide large numbers of students with chances to continue their education. Its attraction is that, teachers are not taken away from the classroom while they study. In Ghana, the University of Cape Coast (UCC) and the University of Education (UEW) offer distance education programmes. Their programmes aim at upgrading the academic and professional competence of basic school teachers. Apart from the

UCC and UEW programmes, there are other distance education programmes run by the University of Ghana (UG) and the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST).These are, however, not specifically related to teacher education.

UEW is a pioneer of the distance education programme in Ghana. As a result of the need to train many teachers to manage our schools, UEW through the Institute for Educational Development and Extension (IEDE) has developed a distance education programme to increase higher educational opportunities to teachers. Thus distance education is extending the boundaries of UEW by providing an alternative to Ghanaian teachers to have the chance to further their education while they remain on their job. The programme is in line with the university's mission to equip teachers with the requisite academic proficiency and professional competency for teaching at the pre-tertiary level (Mensah & Owusu-Mensah, 2002).

Distance education is making significant impact in teacher education. Koomsom (1998) argues that there is no difference in professional competence between teachers trained by distance and those trained by the conventional system.UEW must therefore show commitment towards the programme in order to sustain it. For distance education to work well at UEW, there is the need for proper planning and execution of programmes taking cognizance of the key problems that confront it and the prospects that it holds for teachers.

Statement of the Problem

Teacher education is very important in the quest for quality education in Ghana. Due to this, most Teacher Education Institutions spend more resources on teacher education. One of such institutions is the University of Education, Winneba (UEW).

UEW uses distance education as a strategy to train teachers to complement its conventional system. The programme is in line with the University's strategy to improve the quality of basic education in Ghana by upgrading teachers and other educational personnel (IEDE, 2007).

It is generally believed that teachers pursuing distance at UEW accept the programme due to the prospects it holds for them. However, there are few challenges facing the programme (Adentwi, 2002). What then are these challenges and prospects? The study is intended to find answers to the major challenges and prospects of the UEW distance education programme.

Purpose of the Study

The study was a descriptive survey which was intended to identify the major challenges and prospects of distance education at UEW. The specific research objectives were to:

1. Identify the major challenges of the UEW distance education programme.
2. Find out the factors that make the UEW programme acceptable to the students, tutors and coordinators of the programme.
3. Identify the prospects of the UEW distance education programme.

Research Questions

To direct the study, the following questions have been put in place:

1. What are the major challenges of the UEW distance education programme?
2. What factors make the UEW distance education programme acceptable to the students, tutors and coordinators of the programme?
3. What are the prospects of the UEW distance education programme?

Significance of the Study

The outcome of the study will help UEW to improve on its distance education practices. Specifically, it will help UEW to examine the major challenges associated with its programme and for it to employ strategies to address them to make it more effective.

It will also help UEW to look at the factors that make the students, tutors and coordinators accept its programme so that such standards are maintained or improved upon. One importance of this study lies in the fact that it will help UEW to identify the prospects of its programme to be able to make certain informed decisions in the area of policy directions in order to succeed as a pioneer in the provision of distance education in Ghana. In this advent of competition from other universities in running distance education programmes, the findings will help the university to re-examine its operations to attract more or maintain its clients to be able to remain competitive. Finally, there is an urgent need for research into the challenges and prospects of providing distance education for professional teachers by distance at UEW. The study will

therefore provide adequate information on this.

Delimitations of the Study

The University of Education offers distance education programme at the diploma and post-diploma levels. It has twelve study centres across the country. However, this study is delimited to teachers taking distance education at the Koforidua study centre. The researcher selected the Koforidua centre because it is one of the early created centres. It has a large student population. It also serves as a model to other centres due to the effective organization of the programme. Since teachers share commonalities in terms of needs and aspirations, it is believed that generalization of findings could be made from a representative sample of teachers (students) drawn from this study centre.

Only tutors/lecturers from the centre were used. Also, only three coordinators were used for the study. These coordinators have been working in such capacity for at least six years and as such have rich experience to share on the topic. Distance education at UEW presents several issues of concern that need investigation but this study restricts itself to the major challenges and prospects of the UEW distance education programme.

Limitations of the Study

The study could have been affected by bias from respondents because some of them failed to be objective in response to the questions. Some of the students felt they might be victimised if they genuinely expressed their opinions. However, they were encouraged to be objective as they were assured

of confidentiality. Also, because the researcher is a tutor on the programme his personal bias in analysing the issues could have affected the results. Bearing this in mind, the researcher tried to remain neutral as much as possible.

In addition to this, information gathered from the study could have been comprehensive if the researcher had the opportunity of using students' and tutors/lecturers' sampled from all the study centres but for some constraints such as getting access to the students who have limited tutorial meetings and tutors/lecturers most of whom are part-timers who only go to the study centres during tutorial sessions, the study was restricted to the Koforidua study centre in relation to students and tutors/lecturers. However, all coordinators were sampled and three of them were used for the study.

Definition of Terms

Definitions of key terms that apply to this thesis are provided below:

Consortium: A distance education model where two or more institutions, often plus a publishing house, come together to offer distance education (QAA, 1999).

Distance education media: Methods of transmitting knowledge to the students that include print, audio, video and computers (QAA, 1999).

Distance education generations: This refers to the evolutionary and revolutionary patterns of change of the different delivery modes as they appear on the scene (Garrison, 1993).

Dual mode: A distance education model where an established institution may in addition to its own traditional courses operate distance education

programme (Oaks, 1996).

Models of distance education: This refers to organisational pattern and operational practices of distance education. This is based on the educational philosophy of the institution in question (Verdiun & Clark, 1991).

Open University (OU): An open university is a university established for the sole purpose of carrying out distance education. It is autonomous and may conduct its own examinations and award its own degrees. Open universities are usually large-scale distance education system (Rumble, 1992).

Single mode: A type of organization of distance education where an institution is established purposively for running distance education programmes only. Single mode institutions may also be known as unimodal and are usually open universities (Rowntree, 1992).

Organisation of the Study

This study was structured into five main chapters. Chapter one is the introduction of the study. It describes the background to the study, statement of the problem and purpose of the study. It also sets out three research questions the study is expected to answer, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and limitations of the study. It further explains terms as used in the study which readers might find difficult to understand, as well as organization of the study.

Chapter two contains an in-depth review of related literature on the topic. These include the concept of distance education, theories and philosophies of distance education, the challenges of distance education,

support services in distance learning, prospects of distance education, models of distance education, media used in distance education and organization and management and policy making and control. The chapter ends with a summary of the literature.

Chapter three describes the method used in conducting this research. It comprises the research design, population of the study, sample size, sampling procedure, data collection instrument, pilot-testing, administration of instrument and data analysis plan.

The analyses of results and findings from the study are discussed in chapter four. These include major challenges of the UEW programme, factors that make the UEW programme acceptable and the prospects of the programme. Chapter five contains summary, summary of the main findings, conclusions drawn from the findings, recommendations of the study and suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses the opinions expressed by various authors on the subject. It reviews work on the concept of distance education, theories and philosophies of distance education, challenges of distance education, support services in distance learning and the prospects of distance education. This section also delves into models of distance education, media used in distance education, organization and management and policy making and control. The chapter ends with a summary of the review.

Meaning and Features of Distance Education

"Distance education is beset with a remarkable paradox. It has asserted its existence but cannot define itself" (Shale, 1990:25). How distance education is best defined or differentiated from other educational approaches has been the subject of much debate (Perraton, 2000). The United Kingdom's Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) (1999) defines distance education as a way of providing higher education that involves the transfer to the students' location the materials that form the main basis of study, rather than the student moving to the location of the resource provider. Also the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) (2004) explains distance education as the delivery of learning or training for those who are separated mostly by time and space from those who are

teaching or training them. Thus, distance education has its fundamental concept, the separation of students and teachers by distance and sometimes by time which necessitates the introduction of an artificial communication medium that will deliver information and also provide a channel for interaction between the teacher and the students (Moore & Kearsley, 1996). Hall (1996) also maintains that a key feature of distance education is that distance and time separate the teacher from the student. UNESCO (2002) looks at the phenomenon as an educational process in which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and or time from the learners. With distance education, students are usually not in direct physical contact with their tutors. Students are sent packages of programme, occasional tutorial sessions are arranged in which the tutors and learners take part (IEDE, 2007). Holmberg (1990) describes 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 planning, guidance and tuition (ie tutoring, teaching of staff of the tutorial organization. Its main characteristic is that it relies on non-contiguous, ie mediated communication (p.1).*

From the perspective of many educational technologists, distance education is inexorably linked to technology. According to Garrison and Shale (1996) distance education involves non-contiguous communication between students and teachers mediated by print or some form of technology. Recent

developments in technology are believed to be removing some of the disadvantages associated with distance education. Bates (2005) suggests that new technologies promise a wider range of teaching functions and a higher quality of learning, lower costs, greater student control, more interaction and feedback for students.

It is important to clarify what distance education is not. This becomes necessary as the term is used interchangeably with what it is not. For instance, Holmberg (1993) explains that there has existed for a long time opposing views of interchanging the word distance education with that of Open University. Even though Holmberg and others try to explain these concepts, the confusion still persists. For Holmberg (2001), distance education is not open learning because the latter implies forms of study which refrain from all avoidable restrictions as to access, study time and methods. Supporting this view, Rowntree (1992) explains that even though all open learning (even on site) involves some degree of distance learning, not all distance learning involves much openness.

Also, UNESCO (2001), in an attempt to differentiate between the two, states that distance education is an educational process in which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and time from the learner while open learning is an organized educational activity, based on the use of teaching materials, in which constraints on study are minimized in terms either of access, or of time and place, method of study or any combination of these. In addition to this, the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) (2004) explains that open learning policies should not be part of distance education

programmes but are complementary to it. It is of interest to note that scholars in this particular field use various terms for the concept distance education. According to the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) (1999), there is considerable debate globally about the appropriate terminology and a number of different terms are commonly used which refer to the same or similar sort of activity.

Rowntree (1992) uses the term distance learning because he believes that it covers all distance learning, as such learning extends to both industrial and professional training. On the other hand, Keegan (1990) prefers using the term distance education because it includes both distance teaching and distance learning. Holmberg (1995), shedding further light suggests that the term distance study should be limited to denoting the activity of the students while distance teaching denotes that of the supporting organization, particularly its writers, editors and tutors.

In the midst of this confusion, however, Keegan (1990) provides a comprehensive description of distance education. He perceives distance education to have the following characteristics:

1. Quasi-permanent separation of teacher and learner throughout the length of the learning process. This distinguishes it from conventional face-to-face education.
2. Influence of an educational organization both in planning and preparation on learning materials and in the provision of student support services. This distinguishes it from private and “teach yourself programmes”.

3. Use of technical media-print, audio, video and computer as means of content delivery.
4. Provision of two-way communication so that the student may benefit from or even initiate a dialogue. This distinguishes it from other uses of technology in education.
5. Quasi–permanent absence of 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 meetings for teaching and socialization purposes.

Another distinctive feature of distance education is the profile of students involved. According to Peters (1998), students differ primarily in the following ways: Students will usually have a greater experience of life; most of them bring considerable experience of working to academic courses and this also has an effect on the ways in which they study in particular when the studies and the professional experience cover the same field; there are distance education students who want to reach a higher socio-economic status as a result of their experience at work; studying at a relatively large age has in general a completely different function than with 19-25 year old students because it fits into plans for life-cycles in a different way.

From the above, distance education in this study is defined as the mode of delivery in which the teacher is separated from the learners, thereby necessitating the use of artificial communication that encourages interaction among teacher/learners and learners/learners. Distance education enables individuals yearning for education to stay in the comfort of their homes, work

place and almost everywhere to take part in tertiary education to obtain diplomas and degrees.

Theories and Philosophies of Distance Education

The theoretical basis on which instructional models is based affects not only the way in which information is communicated to the student, but also the way in which the student makes sense and constructs new knowledge from the information which is presented. Two opposing views which impact instructional design are symbol-processing and situated cognition (Bredo, 1994).

Until recently, the dominant view has been the traditional information processing- approach, based on the concept of a computer performing formal operations on symbols (Seamans, 1990). The key concept is that the teacher can transmit a fixed body of information to students through an external representation. He represents an abstract idea as a concrete image and then presents the image to the learner through a medium. The learner, in turn, perceives, decodes and stores it. Horton (1994) modifies this approach by adding two additional factors: the student's context (environment, current situation, and other sensory impact) and mind (memories, associations, emotions, inference and reasoning, curiosity and interest). The learner then develops his own image and uses it to construct new knowledge in context, based on his own prior knowledge and abilities.

The alternative approach is based on constructivist principles, in which a learner actively constructs an internal representation of knowledge by

interacting with the material to be learned (Keegan, 1990).This is the basis for both situated cognition and problem-based learning. According to this viewpoint both social and physical interactions enter into both the definition of a problem and the construction of its solution. Neither the information to be learned, nor its symbolic description, is specified outside the process of inquiry and the conclusions that emerge from that process. Prawat and Floden (1994) stated that, to implement constructiveness in a lesson, one must shift one's focus away from the traditional model to one which is much more complex, interactive and evolving.

Though these two theories are totally different in nature, effective designers usually start with empirical knowledge: objective events and practices which mirror the everyday environment of their designated learners. Then, with a firm theoretical grounding, they develop a presentation which enables learners to construct appropriate new knowledge by interacting with the instruction.

Schlosser and Anderson (1993) refer to Keegan's theory of distance education in which the distance learning system must artificially recreate the teaching-learning interaction and reintegrate it back into the instructional process. This is the basis of their Iowa Model: which is to offer to the distance learner an experience as much like traditional face-to-face instruction, through intact classrooms and live two-way-audio-visual interaction. In contrast, the Norwegian Model has a long tradition of combining mediated distance teaching with local face-to-face teaching (Rekkedal, 1994).

Perraton (1998) defines the role of the distance teacher. When, through

the most effective choice of media he meets the distance students face-to-face, he now becomes a facilitator of learning, rather than a communicator of a fixed body of information. The learning process proceeds as knowledge building among teacher and students (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1994).

Distance education systems now involve a high degree of interactivity between teacher and student even in rural and isolated communities (Wolfe, 1994). The office of Technology Assessment stresses the importance of interactivity: distance learning allows students to hear and perhaps see teachers, as well as allow teachers to react to their students' comments and questions (U.S. Congress, 1998). Moreover, virtual learning communities can be formed, in which students and researchers throughout the world who are part of the same class or study group can contact one another at any time to share observations information and expertise with one another (Vanderven, 1994).

Challenges of Distance Education

Distance education changes the learning relationship from the common centralized school model to a more decentralized, flexible model. It also reverses social dynamics by bringing school to students rather than students to school. However, the programme is plagued with many drawbacks. The major challenges to distance education according to Galusha (1997) are student-related challenges, faculty-related challenges, organizational-related challenges and course-related challenges.

Challenges encountered by the students fall into several distinct categories such as costs and motivators, feedback and teacher contact, student support

services, alienation and isolation, lack of experience and training (Keegan, 1990). Most distance education students are faced with the problem of meeting the financial obligation of the programme (Koomson, 1998). Teachers in developing countries are among the least-paid workers (Galusha, 1997). Since the cost of distance education in most developing countries is borne by students themselves most of whom have huge financial commitment towards their families, it brings stress on students and subsequently the lack of interest in the programme. Distance education will be patronized by students when the cost is low; in fact when the cost is far lower than the conventional system (Koomson, 1998).

Another area of concern for the distance students is the perceived lack of feedback or contact with the teacher. Because there are no regular face to face contact with teachers, students may have trouble in self-evaluation. Keegan (1990) believes that the separation of student and teacher imposed by distance removes a “vital link” of communication between these two parties. The link must be restored through overt instructional efforts so that the teaching-learning transaction may be reintegrated (Keegan, 1990). Keegan in a study in Mongolia indicated that students do not receive adequate reintegration measures such as electronic or telephone communication and feedback from instructors. Such students are unlikely to experience complete academic and social integration into institutional life. Consequently, such students would be more likely to drop out (Keegan, 1990). In a study on the value of interaction in distance education, Burge and Howard cited in Bampo (2008) reveals that the utilization of on-site facilities tend to increase students rapport with lecturers/tutors. This may lead to

greater satisfaction of students. In a similar research conducted at Athabsca University (AU) by Coldeway, MacRury and Spencer (1980) indicate that distance learners were found to be motivated when they had frequent contact with their instructors.

One critical area of concern for distance students is the lack of support services such as providing tutors, academic planners, schedulers and technical assistance. The isolation that results from the distance learning process can complicate the learning process for adult students (Saint, 1999). According to Wood (1996), support for distance learners should not be overlooked when planning distance programmes. Students need tutors and academic planners to help them to complete courses on time and to act as a support system when stress becomes a problem. Planners from washing State University (WSU) note that student services are a significant part of the budgeted cost of the programme. They also hold the view that success in attracting and retaining students will depend on excellent student support services than on any technology issues (Oaks, 1996).

Feeling of alienation and isolation is another challenge facing distance students. Students of all kinds want to be part of a larger community. For many traditional students, this is an important part of their social lives. The distance education programme takes away such social interactions that would be present in traditional learning environments. This challenge must be mitigated by institutions providing a sense of personal involvement between the student and the institution. One way of addressing this challenge is through the use of tutors that communicate with students electronically on phone (Tait, 1995).

Geographical isolation has been identified as one of the major problems for distance students (Oaks, 1996). In addition to the practical challenges of contacting academic and administrative staff, obtaining study materials and borrowing library books, distance students suffer from the disadvantage of being unable to interact with other students and are often denied the perception that they belong to a scholarly community. This may lead to feelings of inadequacy and insecurity and lack of confidence in their own.

Most distance learners have little skills in technical issues. Many adult students are not well versed in the use of technology such as computers and the internet. Using electronic medium in distance learning can exclude students who lack computer or writing skills. These skills are needed if computer technology is used. Students will typically be offered volumes of electronic-based information. Using this information will be a problem for some non-technical students (Rowntree, 1992). According to Rowntree, adult learners must be taught how to manage not only their study time but also the materials presented as well. Wood (1996) suggests that if students are undertaking distance learning courses that require knowledge of computers, then the students must be taught at a minimum, the fundamentals of operating the system of choice of the distance-taught courses. If distance education is to be successful, technology based barriers must be made a non-issue.

Faculty experience challenges such as: lack of staff training in course development and technology, lack of support for distance learning in general, and inadequate faculty selection for distance learning courses. Sometimes the coursework for traditional and distance students is the same. Often it is not.

There can be a lot of up front effort in designing distance learning material. This can impose a burden on teachers who already have material for traditional classrooms. Computers, video equipment, communications software, and the like present challenges and frustrations. Faculty must know how to use these technologies if they are to teach distance courses. Training students and staff, particularly in troubleshooting problems is imperative to success in distance learning (Chou, 1994).

Perhaps the biggest challenge for distance programmes is the lack of support by the faculty (Oaks, 1996). The endorsement by department faculty is viewed as a critical instructional element in any distance education programme (Holmberg, 2002). More than any other participant, faculty roles must change the most in administering distance learning programmes. This can be difficult adjustment for some teachers. They must change teaching styles to that of a mentor, tutor, and facilitator (Rumble, 1992). They must meet the needs of distance students without face-to-face contact. Since the majority of distance learners are adults, teachers may need to change their teaching style. This may be challenging for teachers who are used to teaching with 18-22year-olds. Faculty is responsible for change in their course content to accommodate diverse student needs and expectations. So long as college faculty feels there is a burden associated with the distance education programmes currently in place, there will be little support for expanding distance education opportunities (Galusha, 1997).

Another challenge perceived by faculty is the threat to tenure and human resource staffing. Depending on the school and the academic department,

courses taught as part of a distance programme may not always count toward tenure considerations, thus causing a disincentive for participation by some non-tenured faculty (Oaks, 1996). Additionally, if one professor can serve thousands of students there will obviously be fewer professors and fewer departments and faculties. Schools must not underestimate this resistance and should be very aware of the possibility of overburdening faculty and staff. Teachers also have problems respecting the academics of distance courses. One way of enhancing commitment is by forcing distance courses through the same approval process as on-campus courses. In 1994, Chou wrote, “By going through the same stringent approval process as on-campus courses, the acceptance …among college faculty is enhanced.” (p. 25).

Another challenge is the teacher’s acceptance of distance learning programmes. Teachers with enthusiasm for this non-traditional coursework are best suited to teach them. One way to mitigate these potentially serious challenges is by selecting teachers who are relatively senior people, effective teachers who like the idea of distance learning and want to participate in it. Interest and motivation are not success factors reserved only for the student. Faculties who want to teach distance courses are certainly more likely to be successful than faculty that are forced to teach these courses (Chou, 1994).

Student and teacher concerns represent the human aspects of distance programmes. Organizational problem, especially infrastructure and technology problems, also present challenges. Faculties who teach distance education courses need organizational and administrative unit that is to be responsible for managing the programmes. Institutional leaders must be committed to distance

programmes. Marrs (1995) admits that without this support, distance education is at risk of becoming a peripheral activity, without commitment from the institution. Technology considerations are self-evident but are the most easily solved. Technology challenges include; facing new technology, telecommunications, hardware issues, course production and technology and internet (Perraton, 1991).

A primary concern for both learning institutions and students is availability of funds. When technology is used, the costs increase substantially for both the student and the institution. Universities must consider the initial costs as well as the continuing costs of installing, maintaining, using and upgrading technology to support distance services. Telecommunications and connectivity costs such as those needed to use the Internet, are ongoing costs. Washington State University (WSU) did not anticipate connectivity costs and subsequent problems in planning their distance programmes. This led to additional investments in toll-free lines and computers (Oaks, 1996). Institutions must also plan to have competent computer staff to support Internet use. These staff must then be kept up-to-date on the newest, fastest, cheapest technology available; therefore, ongoing staff training costs must be considered.

The student must also incur technology costs. If the Internet is used, then the student must have access to a computer and a modem. However, for many institutions technology pays for itself in terms of allowing more students to participate, thus increasing tuition funding. This sounds good on paper but technology must not be abused to save money. Regardless of cost issues,

distance education should be instituted to advance the cause of education for the institution, not as a sole effort to save money (Kinnaman, 1995).

In addition to cost considerations, there is the challenge of inadequate telecommunications facilities. Harry (1992) observes that existing telecommunications systems are inefficient and/or expensive to use, so that educational institutions are unlikely to place too much reliance on them for teaching, support, or information searching. That is the reason why some developing countries still use print, cassettes, and radio delivery methods. Such circumstances prevent some instructors from producing or using advanced media and providing higher quality material for students.

Distance education through simultaneous two-way audio-visual interaction systems such as video teleconferencing, brings an additional set of issues to be considered by the instructor, and effective models for this delivery system need to be identified (Sweet, 1996). Wood argues that some students, particularly those without home computers with modems could have difficulty communicating with the university or teacher. Lack of adequate hardware and the subsequent cost problems of obtaining equipment could place undue hardship on some remote students. However, implementing other communications systems (phone, mail, etc) could help overcome this problem.

Learning institutions must develop distance learning course material or pay a hefty price to order materials from distributors. Most distance learning institutions in Africa struggle with adequate provision of learning materials. A UNESCO (2002) report indicates that not only do distance learners in Africa receive distance materials late but also there are concerns about inadequate

distance materials. In a survey on support services in Tanzania, Joshi (1999) revealed that majority of the students (87%) were of the view that distance education materials were inadequate. This affects their learning. However, Owusu-Mensah (1998) reports that the University of Namibia is able to provide adequate learning materials for its distance learners.

Delay in the supply of distance material is another challenge facing distance students. The delay in the supply of course materials appear to stem from difficulties in printing and supplying distance module on schedule (Bampo, 2008). Bampo attributed the delay to the dual roles played by distance lecturers who teach both regular and distance students. Adentwi (2002) however, traced the delay to the fact that most distance institutions sublet the production of distance materials to private companies most of whom do not have the capacity to produce materials on a large scale. According to Moore and Thompson such delays are likely to affect students' success and completion rates. Though distance education is at the infant stage in Ghana, print materials that have been produced so far have been acclaimed to be of high quality. At UEW, two evaluation studies have been conducted to find the quality of the distance materials. The results show that the study materials were highly commended by distance learners most of whom described the materials as simple and very interactive (Adentwi, 2002).

The Internet is proving to be an effective delivery medium that enables communication of knowledge at the student's convenience. It has the potential, in fact, to change the nature of distance learning (Wright, 1991). But it is not without problems. Some fear the existing worldwide telecommunications

network is ill equipped to handle the rapid expansion of the Internet. Carter (2001) says relying solely on the Internet for courseware and communications transmission is risky. Carter further explained that using the internet can degrade the quality of interactions between and among staff and students. Due to the perceived anonymity provided by the Internet, abusive behaviour could become a problem. However, these problems can be mediated with proper care and regulation (Oaks, 1996).

The newest of the technological challenges lies in complying with government regulations. Course content may need to be limited based on the requirements in the decency section of the 1996 Telecommunications Act (Oaks, 1996). This section describes materials deemed suitable for the Internet. Some courses, such as Anthropology or Human Sexuality, may not be appropriate for the Internet. Distance learning institutions must be aware of, and plan for, regulatory issues if the Internet is used for conveying course content.

The last area of concern lies in the distance courses themselves. Institutions must consider course standards, curriculum development and support, course content, and course pacing in developing distance learning programmes (Rowntree, 1992). Many believe distance courses are inferior to traditional courses (Perraton, 1991). Perraton advises distance learning institutions to pay attention to the quality of the material presented in distance courses. He suggests further that curriculum and assessment materials must be developed to equal that of the traditional classroom if distance courses are to receive the respect they deserve. Distance learning institutions must maintain the same course content, learning objectives, standards, and credits for all

section, regardless of method of delivery (Galusha, 1997). An evaluation of study material at UEW indicates that study materials were highly commended by distance learners (Adentwi, 2002).

Assessing of student performance is another challenge in distance learning. It is a commonly held belief that distance students perform more poorly in assessment than do regular students because of the additional pressures and burdens of distance study (Keegan, 1991). However, a study of the result of 67 Science subjects at California State University (CSU) over a six year period showed conclusively that there was no difference between distance and internal students in the proportions of students in each grade category (Harden, 1994). However, objective testing does not reward soon enough for adequate reinforcement. Since one key to a successful learning campaign is positive reinforcement, testing methods must be developed to interactively test distance students.

More research into instructional methods and models is needed to identify those that work well in distance learning (Jackman, 1994). Participatory and active leaning models are preferred by distance learning students. In a study of 93 Interactive Video Network (IVN) graduate students at North Dakota State University 1993 and 1994 found that IVN students placed high importance on active learning models (Jackman, 1994). However, IVN teachers need to know the variety of teaching models available for use in the classroom so they can make educated choices in designing their coursework. The course consideration is the use of pacing techniques.

Pacing material presented to students appears to have a positive effect

on course completion rates. 1986 completion rate study found that universities which used pacing techniques had completion rates that were more than double those institutions in which the courses were open-ended (Jackman, 1994). Although the coursework and delivery methods were the same, those institutions that paced student work were more successful at retaining distance learning students.

Although distance learning is not new, it has not received respect in the academic community because of the number and seriousness of challenges presented here. The dramatic growth of the adult learner population is making distance learning an increasingly popular choice of leaning techniques. Further study of student demographics and motivators will help target the adult learner population and will help institutions develop course materials and techniques appropriately. Close scrutiny of the intrinsic challenges in distance education will help overcome the challenges encountered by students and faculty (Garrison, 1994).

Still on the challenges, Pallof and Pratt (2000) indicated quality of instruction, hidden cost, misuse of technology, attitudes of instructors, students and administrators. Each of these has an effect on the quality of distance learning as a product. Much of the quality of instruction depends on the attitudes of the administration and the instructor. Data collected from Elliot and Kervin (1999) showed that instructors had conflicting attitudes about teaching distance education. They report that after teaching one course, the majority of the instructors were willing to teach another; by that they rated the quality of the course as only equal or lower quality than other classes taught on campus.

Many times, it seems that the administration believes that technology will improve the quality of the class.

However, Palloff and Pratt (2000) remind us that technology does not teach students, rather effective teachers do. The effectiveness of distance education is based on teacher preparation and understanding of the needs of students (Omoregie, 1997). Greenberg (1998) in a survey of higher administrators reports that many of the decision-makers including lecturers view distance education as second rate, a necessary but a deficient form of education. There are also cost issues associated with distance education. Are they actually cost-effective? A study by Phelps (1999) found that the potential cost- effectiveness of using on-line technologies in distance education is still uncertain.

Besides the cost of technology, there is still the possibility of not utilizing all its potential. Some of the challenges arise from lack of training, instructor's attitudes about using the technology and hardware problems. It is evident that instructors need to be trained to use distance learning technology but often they are not. Once again, it appears administrators think that technology itself will improve the course. This is certainly not the case. The best distance education practices depend on creative and well-informed instructors (Greenberg, 1998).

Another common challenge is attitudes of instructors towards distance education. As in any instructional situation, the instructor can set the tone for learning in the educational environment. The instructor must be trained and motivated to be effective (Carter, 2001).Weber (1996) suggests that an

instructor must have technological skills and confidence to use the various electronic devices in order to be effective in an electronic classroom. Instructors must also change the manner in which information is delivered. While this does not work well, multimedia presentations are successful. Carter (2001) found in a study of adult distance learning that to bridge the gaps between classroom and distance teaching, faculty need to look at distance teaching from the students' point of view. Faculty must be aware of getting instructional materials to study centres.

There are students concerns with distance learning classes. Not all students are suited to this type of learning and not all are taught via this medium. More mature students are the most likely to find success with distance learning. The successful student needs to have a number of characteristics such as tolerance, a need for autonomy and ability to be flexible (Threkeld & Brzoska, 1994). Bates (1995) found that compared to face-to-face learning environments, distance learning requires students to be more focused, better time managers and to be able to work independently and with group members. Many distance learners are different from traditional undergraduates in that they are already in professions. They have well defined goals and are more motivated to learn (Dibiase, 2001).

Distance education has been used extensively and continues to be used for teacher preparation in most African countries like Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Nigeria and Ghana. Though this mode of delivering formal education is suitable educational training, its applicability to the training of teachers is faced with a number of problems. Koomson (1998) presents the following

problems of distance education in teacher education:

Organizing teacher training programme on distance in a dual institution creates additional responsibilities on academic staff. Though the practice is cost-effective, it creates serious burden on the existing staff who are expected to teach the regular students as well. There is therefore, the tendency for one programme to suffer at the expense at of the other (Koomson, 1998).

Another challenge of distance education in teacher preparation according to Koomson is the huge financial commitment in order to get the needed technology devices to run the programme. Most distance institutions in Africa struggle with securing the needed technology devices such as audio, visual and audio-visual equipment due to insufficient funds (Phelps, 1991).

Supervision is important in distance education. Both tutors and students need to be monitored to ensure that effective teaching and learning take place always. Unfortunately most distance institutions are not doing well in this area. Where there is no supervision productivity is likely to be affected (Sheets, 1992). An observation made by the researcher who is a tutor on the UEW confirms the fact that supervision of the programme was not frequently done. However, the centre coordinator is engaged in some kind of supervision. There is also the problem of support services. Distance learners need regular services such as library, counselling and student-tutor interaction to be able to cope with their studies. In most cases these services are not adequately provided. Lack of support services account for high attrition in distance learning programmes (Bates, 1995).

Low income of teachers is another challenge. Teachers in developing

countries are low income earners. They find it difficult to pay their fees and also meet family responsibilities (Adentwi, 2002). Teachers need support from the government to enable them pursue the programme. Fortunately the Government of Ghana acknowledges the importance of education and as such is committed to offer assistance to distance learners (Ghana, 2004).

The organization of distance education is faced with a lot of challenges. The challenges are mainly student-related challenges, faculty-related challenges, organizational-related challenges and course-related challenges.

Support Services in Distance Education

Support services are the services distance institutions provide for learners and staff in order to carry out the learning processes (Garrison, 1997). Garrison (1997) explains that in distance education support is concerned with a wide range of human and non-human resources to guide and facilitate the educational process. Student support services means the range of activities which complement the mass produced materials which make up the most well known element in distance learning (Tait, 1995).

The idea of student support service is premised on the belief that pilling up packages of study materials on students will not necessarily ensure effective learning on their part unless there are support system in place (Lucia, 2005).As a matter of fact, where distance learners are denied such support services, they are likely to delay the completion of their programmes or drop out all together (Rowntree, 1999).This is supported by Keegan (1996) who argues that the most important characteristic of distance education is the provision of adequate

student support system at study centres.

To Wright (1991), support services is the “requisite students’ services essential to ensure successful learning at a distance” (p.59).The most important student support services which must be provided at a distance study centre according to Rumble (1992) include: provision of library services, motivation of students to continue their education, evaluation of assignments, provision of feedback to students , provision of counselling services to learners and the provision of quality learning materials.

The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA, 1999) for higher education also identifies material-based learning which implies that all learning materials should be made available to distance learners on time. These range from printed, audio or audio visual material and experiment equipment. Learning must be supported locally. This involves employing persons specifically to undertake certain defined support for the local support of students following the study programme.

Distance students may need help before, during and after the learning programme (Rumble, 1992).At the pre-entry stage students need information about programmes, courses, entry requirements, application procedures, rules and regulations. They may need advice for selecting a particular programme or course for their career advancement. Additionally, they may need counselling for decide what kind of individual support they might need and the best way of achieving their goals and objectives (Rumble, 1992). At the beginning of the programme, when learners have already gotten their packages (study materials programme guides and assignments), they may need some guidance. During the

middle stage of the programme, the learners may want to discuss their progress, assignment grades, study visits, projects, seminars, study skills, learning from the media and overcoming personal problems (Simpson, 2000). In a study conducted by Lucia (2005) on student support services in the University of Namibia, the researcher indicated that the students of the university placed much emphasis on student support services such as orientation, contact and communication with tutors and fellow students as well as face-to -face tutorials.

The provision of adequate learning support services to students is a requirement every distance institution must meet (Keegan, 1990). Keegan provides what he calls "a rich structure of students' support services" developed by the Open University of the United Kingdom. These include: tutor or counsellor-one who follows the students throughout the programme; tutor available for consultation on courses; tuition and counselling services for students; a study centre with travelling distance where a student can meet other students and use facilities ; student associations with regional branches (pp70&77). Rumble (1992) supports this and writes:

> *Student support services exist to ensure that students are admitted to the institution and enrolled on courses, allocated to tutors and where appropriate, counsellors, told what is expected of them in terms of their formal commitment to the institutions, told where and when to appear to sit any examination and generally provided with help to get them through the system.*(p.6).

It is mainly through the provision of student support services that a

two-way communication is established between students and institutions. The provision of student support services, therefore, distinguishes distance education from other forms of education (Keegan, 1991). Still on student support services, Davies cited in Bampo (2008) maintains that student support services involve a range of services which can be grouped as follows:

1. Information: the giving of clear, accurate unbiased and relevant information to the individual learners in a form and pace that is relevant to them.
2. Advising: that act of making suggestions to the students based on the helpers own knowledge and expertise.
3. Counselling: the offering of the individual a relationship based on trust and acceptance with which the learner can explore issues relevant to the students' development and how to carry decision through.
4. Coaching: creating or structuring a learning experience so that the learners can practise and gain knowledge, skills and perceptions.
5. Advocacy: taking action on behalf of and with the agreement of students.
6. Feedback system: providing information to organizations on the experiences or problems of students that require changes in the system.

The South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) (1996) identifies the following as components of a well-functioning distance education system: quality course design and development; counselling and support; quality assurance and effective management. Strengthening the above, the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (2007) after a survey, recommends the

following standards for good practice of distance education: Faculty must retain academic control; faculty must be prepared to meet the special requirements of teaching at distance; close personal interaction must be maintained; course should cover all material; equivalent research opportunities and evaluation of distance coursework must be provided at all levels.

It is undoubtedly clear that the provision of student support services is crucial towards the success of distance education programmes. The essence of student support services to facilitate learning is indicated by the following experience from the University of South Africa as Saint (1999) describes:

> *When the University of South Africa discovered in 1996 that the pass rates for its Physics courses were only 20%,it responded by strengthening student support services. As a result of adaptations such as second-chance assignment and a decrease in the ratio of students per staff member from 2001 the pass rate doubled to 40%* (p.24).

Generally, almost all institutions pursuing distance education appreciate the crucial role that learner support plays in distance education programmes. A survey conducted by Mireku-Gyimah (1998) during the pre-implementation stage of distance education for teachers in UEW and UCC, revealed that the provision of support services could encourage students acceptance of a distance education programme at the tertiary level. The study which also captured the views of educational administrators, parents and the general public revealed among others that equipped regional and district libraries, well stocked study centres and occasional contact constitute support services necessary for a

distance education programme. Rumble (1992) considers the provision of student support services as vital to the success of distance education programmes. Perraton (1991) observes that distance learners enjoy their programmes when certain key support services exist. Some of the key services students look out for in distance learning according to Holmberg (2004) include:

1. The provision of effective library services.
2. Effective counselling system.
3. Face-to-face tutorials.
4. Opportunity for student-tutor interaction.
5. Giving feedback to students.
6. Adequate provision of quality learning materials.
7. Training programmes for tutors and coordinators.

The provision of library services is essential in distance education. Regional libraries constitute support service necessary for a distance education programme (Quaigrain, 2001). At Lawrentia University, Owusu-Mensah (1998) noted an efficient library service with on-line computer access to the university library. Off-campus library services were extended to students living far away. Additionally, photocopies of articles from magazines and news papers were made available to students on request. Bibliographic search was done for students if they specified the nature and scope of the work for which they needed information. It is, however, sad to note that most developing countries pay little attention to this. Again, in a comparative study conducted by Owusu-Mensah (1998), he observed that Makerere external students did not

have the best of library services because most of the university's study centres in the rural communities did not have libraries and the few which had did not have current books. However, the library and text books situation for distance students in Namibia looked better than that of Makerere University. A similar study by Singer as cited in Bampo (2008) at the Kota University also indicates a massive library support for distance learners. The university has the main library and six branches well equipped to meet students' needs. The University of South Africa operate branch libraries in regional offices apart from the university's main library (Brehen & Grobler, 1997). Effective library services for distance learners include the provision of books in the university's central library and the regional centres.

One way of facilitating learner support is the provision of counselling services for students. Counselling services provided by Open and Distance Learning Institutions take various forms (Owusu-Mensah, 1998). In a comparative study, Owusu-Mensah (1998) observed that the University of Namibia, Makerere University and Lawrentian University, have some form of counselling for distance learners. However, differences existed in terms of the importance attached to the various levels of counselling. He observed that the University of Namibia and Makerere University did not emphasise pre-admission counselling as in the case of Lawrentian where psychological preparation of potential students was done through the use of manual called "first step kit". However, post-entry counselling in the three institutions took a similar form with students assigned to lecturers.

Face-to-face interaction is an important component in distance

education. The nature of face-to-face residential sessions and their purposes in distance learning are revealed by various studies. For instance, Quaigrain (2001) in his study on face-face-tutorials at the Open University of Hong Kong observed that attendance was relatively high with 95% of new students and over 70% of continuing students attending 75% or more the sessions. Some of the reasons given by the students for participating actively in face-to-face tutorials according to Quaigrain (2001) include:

1. Listening to the tutor for the explanation of course material.
2. Receiving guidance on assignments and examinations from tutors.
3. Receiving guidance from tutors on study skills.
4. Exchanging view points with tutors and other students.

In a similar study conducted in Athabasca University, Coldeway, MacRury and Spenser (2003) point out that distance learners were found to be motivated when they had frequent interaction with their tutors. Confirming this, Bampo (2008) points out in a study carried out at the University of Cape Coast on student support services that all the respondents placed high premium on face-to-face tutorial sessions as it creates opportunity for student-student and also student-tutor interaction and as such serves as a means of getting feedback from students.

The findings are similar to the relatively high satisfaction and high patronage of face-to-face tutorials observed by Allport (1995) at the Open University of Hong Kong. The University of Namibia also provides face-to-face tutorials at its study or teaching or administrative centres using

local tutors who are trained to provide tutorials. In addition, they conduct two residential meetings a year with each lasting a week at two main centres (Owusu-Mensah, 1998). Owusu-Mensah further noted from a study carried out at the Makerere University that face-to-face was centralized at the main university campus and scheduled three times a year with each session lasting two weeks.

According to Aguti (1995) face-to face sessions help Makerere University students in the following ways:

1. Motivated students to learn.
2. Gave students the opportunity to concentrate on their work.
3. Gave students the opportunity to interact with their friends.
4. Gave students a sense of belonging to the university.

Face-to-face at UEW is dencentralized at twelve study centres. Monthly tutorials are organized for students. Students are supposed to attend at least five tutorials every semester. In addition to this, a one- week residential programme is organized for the students which they are obliged to attend (IEDE, 2007).

Face-to-face tutorials is crucial in distance learning and as such distance learning institutions must provide the necessary conditions needed for an effective face-to-face sessions. In support of this, Lewis (2002) advises distance education providers to take their face-to-face tutorials seriously.

Student-tutor interaction is important in distance education. Frequent tutor-student interaction enables tutors to get to know the students better. Students too, need guidance in putting information together, reaching their tutors, completing and submitting assignments and charting their progress

(Porter, 1994). In distance learning, students and teachers will find themselves playing different roles than is the norm in traditional education (Sheets, 1992). The teacher is no longer the sole source of knowledge but instead becomes a facilitator to support student learning, while the student actively participates in what and how knowledge is imparted. More than any other teaching method, distance learning requires a collaborative effort between the teacher and the student, unbounded by the traditional limits of time, space and single-instructor effort (Wood, 1996). A survey by Bampo (2008) reveals the significance of student-tutor interaction in the University of Cape Coast's distance education programme. Results from the study indicated that (86%) of students enjoy helpful tutor-student interaction during face-to-face.

Students need feedback on their programme. Feedback to students will help them assess the progress they are making. At the institutional level feedback to students will help the authorities to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the programme. Willis (1993) describes the strategies which are effective in distance learning: namely, developing appropriate methods of feedback and reinforcement, optimizing content and pace and adapting to different learning styles. In a study conducted by Lucia (2005) on student support services in Namibia, the researcher indicated that distance education students in Namibia placed the greatest importance on support services such as orientation, contact and communication and feedback. A similar study by Bampo (2008) confirmed that distance students of the University of Cape Coast have a strong desire for feedback services.

Adequate study materials must be provided distance learners. Study

materials must take into account the significant proportion of students who enrol with little or no experience of distance study. These students are at risk of dropping out unless they develop study survival skills as rapidly as possible (Wood, 1996). Murphy (1991) notes in her study on study materials in Turkey that first year distance learners generally described study materials as the most useful aspect of the distance education programme.

Distance education tutors also need support in a form of training and mentorship in order to be effective. Currently, few teachers have had sufficient training or field experience to enable them either to be effective distant teachers or to use technology successfully in their classrooms (US Congress, 1989). Proper training will help distance teachers to change their method of teaching and give more attention to advanced preparation, student interaction, visual materials, activities for independent study and follow-up activities (Talab & Newhouse, 1993).

The training of tutors is the responsibility of distance education institutions (Porter, 1994). For example, the University of South Florida has set up a mentoring system and on-line discussions for participants in telecommunications course. Athabasca University assigns ten tutors to one mentor in the Master of Distance Education programme. The University of Wisconsin also uses audio-conference seminars to link instructors together (Porter, 1994). Also, a survey by Mensah and Owusu-Mensah (2002) revealed that even though distance education is at its infant stage in Ghana, some of the staff in the four dual-mode universities namely the University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, the University of

Cape Coast and the University of Education have received some amount of training in the delivery of distance education. Some of the areas of training include the writing of distance education materials, editing of distance education materials, administration of distance education and managing distance education. Some of the staff have benefited from overseas training at such places as the International Extension College of the United Kingdom and Simon Frazer University College of Canada (Mensah & Owusu-Mensah, 2002).

On their part, Schlosser and Anderson (1993) identify skills which teachers must learn as they assume the role of distance educators as follows:

1. Understanding the nature and philosophy of distance education.
2. Identifying learner characteristics at distant sites.
3. Adapting teaching strategies to deliver instruction at a distance.
4. Training and practice in the use of telecommunications systems.
5. Becoming involved in organization, collaborative planning and decision-making.

Distance education coordinators or site facilitators need training to enable them perform their functions well since their activities are closely related to those of teachers (Bredo, 1994). The coordinators are responsible for the organization of distance learning at the study centres. They are responsible for smooth running of equipment, helping students with interaction and answering questions when necessary (Garrison, 1990).

Student support services are provided by UEW for its distance learners. These include regional study centres fully equipped with library books, audio and video communication facilities and computers to provide access to

information for distance learners. Such centres are also supposed to be used to provide face-to-face contact programmes which permit some measure of feedback between course instructors and students. Counselling services are also provided students. Tutor-counsellors are assigned the role of general guidance to students on effective self-study skills. The study centres are supervised by coordinators who are qualified academic staff of lecturership status (Adentwi, 2002). The coordinators are supposed to perform the following functions: coordinate the activities of tutors and students, supply distant learners with the needed study materials, over-see the continuous assessment records of learners for onward submission to the IEDE and the provision of counselling to students (Adentwi, 2002).

Support services are vital in the provision of distance education. They help in the smooth running of distance programmes. Support services for distance learning include library services, counselling, face-to-face tutorials, tutor-student interaction, feedback to students and training programmes for tutors and coordinators.

Prospects of Distance Education

Distance education breaks the association of learning with classroom; thus, preparing students with skills for the self-directed continuing and recurrent education which will be essential for their continuing professional development in a world of rapidly changing information and ideas (Johnston, 1997). Distance education provides opportunity for the large number of people to acquire formal education which otherwise would have been difficult (Bishop

cited in Adentwi, 2002). Hellman (2003) identifies the following as some of the potential prospects of distance education: increase of access, flexibility, financial economy (great savings in the construction of universities and teachers' salaries). For instance on access, a great number of potential students are refused admission into teriary education. Diamini explains that about 20% of qualified students are denied access to university education in Swaziland for lack of space on the conventional campus. However, with the advent of distance education, Magagula and Ngwenya (2004) explain that distance education has enabled the anomaly in Swaziland to be corrected greatly. Tait (1995) mentions that perhaps the most obvious role of distance education is access to tertiary education to the majority of potential students who otherwise would have been neglected. In support of this, Paul (1990) believes that distance education can be, and is often a form of mass communication and opens up conventional education which has various barriers such as entry requirements, time constraints financial demands and geographical problems. In discussing the benefits of distance education, Bishop (1986) refers to Coomb's assertion that life-long education is essential in a rapidly progressing and changing society. He cites three reasons:

1. To keep the already well trained abreast of time.
2. To improve the quality of satisfaction of individuals.
3. To enrich the leisure time of individuals.

Distance education offers opportunity to a large audience, meeting the needs of students who are unable to attend on campus classes and involving speakers who would otherwise be unavailable (Moore & Thompson 1999).

Dodd (1991) asserts that distance education is a great educational opportunity and provides large numbers with the chance to continue their education.

Rose (1995) has also observed that, in various forms, distance education has proven that it has the capability of educating groups of people who would not probably attain higher education otherwise. Some cases in Mongolia showed that distance education was able to reach more teachers more quickly than traditional alternatives. It reached over half of the country's primary school teachers and impacted well on the beliefs and practices of teachers and headteachers (Moore & Thompson, 1999). Oliveria (1998) observes that distance has gained much popularity over the last decade. Distance education is used in places such as Beijing, Jarkata, Brazil and Argentina and America as technique to reach those that would by other means is unreachable (Bollag & Overland, 2001).

Distance education has the potential to attract many applicants to enrol due to factors such as cost, flexibility of programme and easy access to university education (Keegan, 1995). According to the American Council on Education, the number of students in distance doubled from 1995 to 1998 totalling 1.6 million (Devarics, 2001). Another market forecast says that by the year 2002, there will be 2.2 million students on distance education programmes in American colleges and universities (Dibiase, 2001).

Distance education is cost effective. Bishop (1986) indicates that distance education is the economic method of teacher education in modern times. He explains that since the learner is at a distant, certain infrastructural cost such as the provision of lecture rooms are avoided. Also the few available

tutors and administrators can take charge of many more students than those who could possibly be housed in a school. In support of this, Bollag and Overland (2001) maintain that many of the promises of distance education are financial in nature. Universities hope to save money by delivering education to students that are unable to attend classes because of time and distance.

Distance education brings about efficiency of work in the sense that it makes it possible for these students most of whom are workers to apply whatever theories, techniques and skills they will acquire from their work thereby making them improve upon their job performance. To this end, most African countries such as Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Zimbabwe and South Africa use distance education programmes to develop more professional teachers (Chivore, 1993). For instance, the Tanzania government in its quest to achieve Universal Primary Education relied on distance education as a strategy to achieve this objective. Consequently distance teacher development programme was launched and within five years a total number of 37,998 primary school teachers were trained. This made a great impact in Tanzania primary education (Oduro, 2008). Also a survey by Musa (2002) revealed that professional teachers in the Wa district show greater interest in distance education because they see it as a means by which they can upgrade themselves and to be competent.

Distance education also enhances promotion. A study by Owusu-Boateng, Essel and Mensah (2001) revealed that distance education enhances prospects for promotion. Majority of teachers (88%) agreed that distance education will increase their chances of being promoted. A similar

study by Owusu-Boateng and Essel (2001) on the same issue revealed that majority of the students (81.1%) hold the view that distance education enhances prospects for promotion. In the Ghana Education Service (GES), without a qualification in first degree, one cannot be promoted above the rank of Assistant Director of Education. Majority of teachers enrolled on distance programmes are motivated by the desire for professional development and the enhancement of their career opportunity.

Wood (1996) also outlines some of the potential benefits of distance education in both developed and developing countries as greater access to education, flexibility of scheduling, the possibility of proceeding at one's pace and the opportunity to study without having to travel. Generally, most distance learners have positive perception towards distance education because of its prospects (Oduro, 2008). A study of students of Pennsylvannia by Ferguson and Wijekuman (2000) on whether they were satisfied with the distance education programme revealed that (75%) of the students were satisfied with the programme. Also a study conducted by Mireku-Gyimah (1998) on students' interest in distance education points out that most students (88%) saw the need for distance education at the tertiary level. They cited reasons such as accessibility, flexibility and an opportunity for career development as the key motivating factors that influenced them to opt for distance learning.

The convenience of time and space is a big promise made by distance learning. According to Ravhudzuho (2000), distance education enables one to study at one's pace, as there is no time limit for one to study. Thus, in distance learning, students do not have to physically be with the instructor in space and

depending on the method used, they do not have to be together in time as well. This is a great advantage for non-traditional students who cannot attend regular classes. Satellite campuses such as Arkansas State University recently opened are drawing out a lot of adult learners in and from small towns and cities (Savoye, 2002).

Distance education is also used to promote higher education for women. Writing from the Canadian perspective, Przymus (2004) remarks that women are enjoying distance education programmes amid their hectic life style. The programme allows them to learn at any time or any place. In a study by Reuss cited by Kwapong (2007) indicates an overwhelming response of women in Athabasca University (AU) to distance education. The study revealed that approximately (67%) of the AU's students are women, majority of whom may have had some post-secondary education but may not have had the opportunity to complete their university studies. In a related development, Kyei- Baffour cited in Adentwi (2002) argues that distance education may be the answer to the problem of gender imbalance at the tertiary education level. Using statistics from the second batch of students enrolled on the UEW distance education programme, he points out that for the first time ever in the university's history, female students out-numbered that of male students. He indicated that out of the 86 students inducted into the programme, 46 were women while only 40 were male. Distance education thus, provides a convenient way by which many women can combine their desire for higher education with their matrimonial responsibilities.

Distance education has made significant impact in teacher education in

Africa. Adekanmbi (2004) observes a wide application of distance education in teacher education in Africa. Echoing this, UNESCO (2001) notes that distance education has been used by many countries in Africa for the training of both new entrants and those who are already on the job. The programme helps to raise the skills, deepen the understanding and extend the knowledge of teachers. For instance, in Nigeria, a UNESCO report (2002) talks about an acute shortage of qualified primary teachers. That led to the establishment in 1976 of the National Teachers Institute (NTI), a distance education college for teachers with the aim of training more teachers. It has made significant impact to teacher supply in Nigeria, producing 48,204 graduates from 1990 to 1999.

Distance education is used in Ghana as a strategy for training basic school teachers because of the benefits associated with it (Adendtwi, 2002). The following are worth considering:

Distance education allows Ghanaian basic school teachers to have access to university education. This saves them from the stress they go through in their quest for tertiary education (Adentwi, 2002). Distance education is offered by most Ghanaian teachers because of its flexibility. The programme allows teachers to learn in their homes at their own time while they continue to work. Most teachers get attracted to the programme as a result of how flexible the programme is.Study by Adukpo (2007) on the reasons why Ghanaian teachers show interest in distance learning revealed that majority of the teachers (87%) have interest in distance education because it is flexible.

Distance education allows professional teachers to upgrade themselves to enhance their career advancement (Musa, 2002). Most teachers are motivated

by the fact that distance learning will grant them the opportunity to acquire higher education and to enrich their knowledge. In a study carried out by Owusu-Boateng, Essel and Mensah (2001) on whether distance learners believe that the programme can help them upgrade themselves, almost all the respondents (95%) accepted the fact that distance education gives the opportunity for one to upgrade oneself. In a similar study, Sam-Tagoe (2000) reports that most teachers (96.6%) believe that distance learning will help them to achieve their ambition for higher academic laurels.

The quality of distance education programme is another factor that has lured many teachers to enrol on such programmes. Koomson (1998) indicates that there is no significant difference in professional competence between teachers trained by distance and those trained by conventional system. This means that if training teachers by distance is managed well, the prospects that could be derived from the programme would outweigh the problems. Most Ghanaian teachers perceive distance education to be a good programme due to the quality of course structure and the effective organization of tutorial sessions (Bampo, 2008). Again a survey by Sam-Tagoe (2000) to find out whether distance education is a good programme or not revealed that majority of the respondents (97.5%) held the view that distance education is a good programme. These factors go to support the fact that distance education has the potental to attract more teachers to enrol in future. In a survey by Mireku-Gyimah (1998) the researcher gave certain conditions under which students would accept a distance education system. These are:

1. If the programme would be recognized and respected as the

conventional one both locally and internationally.

2. If the same entry requirements, lecturers, syllabus, course content, examinations, grading, certification used in the conventional system would also be used in distance education.
3. If there would be regular opportunities for distance learners to meet and interact with their tutors and colleagues.
4. If distance education students would have access to support services.
5. If distance education would be affordable.

Distance education institutions in Ghana have certain ambitions for mounting such programmes. Study conducted by Mensah and Owusu-Mensah (2002) about interest in distance education in four public universities: the University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, the University of Cape Coast and the University of Education, the researchers noted the following as the reasons why these institutions favour distance education programme:

1. Distance education will help them to expand access to many applicants who are refused admission every year.
2. Distance education will make education available to the large number of the working population who are unable to study full-time.
3. Distance education programme will be useful to workers in the private sector and other organizations which by their collective agreement policy, do not grant study leave with pay to their

workers.

4. The introduction of distance education programme is a way of generating income to supplement the inadequate funding they receive from the government.

Many people use education to enhance their prospects for promotion and self-actualization. Teachers are a group of people who always seek to upgrade themselves through education. However, access to university education is a barrier. Since access to conventional education is becoming increasingly competitive and expensive, distance education presents the best option to conventional education. Distance education should therefore be managed well by distance learning institutions to enhance the prospects it holds for students.

Models of Distance Education

The organizational pattern and operating practices of distance education are generally based on the educational philosophy of that institution as well as economic and political restrictions (Verduin & Clark, 1991). Most educators would prefer a more student-centred model while politics and economics might dictate a more institution-centred approach with greater control and a larger number of students.

In an unpublished paper presented in a Distance Education Awareness Creation at University of Cape Coast, Aggor cited in Adentwi (2002) identified three different organizational models in distance education as follows:

Single mode institutions, Dual or mixed mode institutions and Consortium.

Single Model Institutions

Single mode institutions also called purpose-build institutions are institutions which are created solely for the purpose of providing education by distance learning. Such institutions prepare their own detailed instructional packages for the use of their students in the pursuit of specific academic or professional programmes. Usually, such bodies have accreditation and they are made to prescribe their own syllabuses, conduct their own examination and award their own certificates and diplomas. The single mode institutions have considerable recognition and reputation among employers in industry, commerce and government organizations (Moore & Kearsley, 1996). This makes it possible for graduates of such institutions to find suitable and well-paid jobs after graduation. The University of Great Britain is the most widely known single mode institution that provides distance education.

Several factors account for the popularity of single model distance education establishments. Holmberg (2001) cites the following:

Distance learners are best served in single model institutions whose programmes are purpose-built to serve them. In other words instructors in such institutions are specifically trained to meet the special needs of distance learners to whom they own their first loyalty. Hence other distractions which may serve to dilute their services are removed. Single mode distance education programmes are flexible enough to accommodate desirable changes which distance learners may require. It is easier for courses to meet the changing needs of their clients than it is to do so in the conventional residential institutions. Single mode distance education programmes also tend to be more suitable to

their more mature and employed students who prefer adult teaching and learning methods which permit them to learn on their jobs and at their own pace.

Perry and Rumble cited in Adentwi (2002) explain that the main shortcoming associated with the single model is that it is expensive to operate. It requires setting up an organization having its own plant in the form of buildings, machinery, tools and equipment for planning, designing and producing instructional materials. It also requires highly qualified staff to handle the business of providing education at a distance. For such an organization to enjoy the economics of scale, it must be very large. The result of all these is a very huge initial financial outlay.

Dual or Mixed Model Institutions

According to Aggor cited in Adentwi (2002), dual or mixed mode distance education institutions provide both on-campus conventional residential educational and off-campus courses by distance via correspondence and other electronic media. Some of such institutions such as the Deakin University in Australia were originally established with both purposes in mind (Peters, 1998). However, many other dual mode institutions such as the Simon Fraser University of Canada, University of Lagos in Nigeria and the University of Zambia were originally conventional residential universities which added the distance education component to meet pressing needs (Mark, 1991). The distance education initiatives at University of Education and University of Cape Coast fall under the dual mode distance education.

A cardinal feature of the dual mode system is that the existing

conventional universities provide the traditional courses as before and also mount such programmes concurrently for distance learners who study in the comfort of their homes (Rowntree, 1992).That is to say that such institutions have their traditional campus-based courses run for non-residential students simultaneously. This arrangement has both advantages and disadvantages associated with it. The advantages include the following:

Dual mode institutions ensure that comparable standards are met across both of their programmes, that is, residential and non-residential alike. This uniformity of standards is ensured by subjecting students on both programmes to a common curriculum and common assessment. Also graduates of both programmes are awarded identical certificates.

It has been observed that when residential programmes are given the opportunity to participate in distance education, they become more careful and meticulous with the type of content they present and their presentation skills. It has been observed that when universities offering distance education make it a policy to recognize distance education materials for academic credits that count towards promotion and also pay good money to writers of distance education materials, it results in a lot of publications and this serves to enhance the "publication culture" of the universities (Holmberg, 2001). Ultimately, teaching and learning in the universities improve because some residential students can also have access to distance education materials. Additionally, the dual mode model has the tendency of drawing upon the resources of the resident faculty and services.

The dual mode system also helps to give credibility to certificates

obtained by distance learning. This is because the public tends to give recognition to certificates based upon the institutions awarding them. They tend to reason that if the distance education courses were offered by the already established universities, the graduates of the distance education programme might have been subjected to the right kind of learning experiences.

There are problems associated with the dual mode approach. Some of them are: With this approach, lecturers who teach the regular residential courses also take up additional responsibility as distance education instructors, they may be overloaded with work. In the circumstances they may ignore their duties in respect of distance education or approach them in a haphazard manner (Rumble, 1986). Furthermore, where distance education in such dual mode institutions is handled by a separate staff, they tend to be looked down upon by their colleagues in the conventional programmes. Some faculty and administrators may consider distance education to be less effective and less important than campus-based instruction (Rumble, 1986). Most lecturers tend to pay more attention to campus-based instruction than the distance one.

Consortium

Consortium refers to a group of institutions or distance education programmes devoted to distance education as a means of broadening or sharing distance education programming. Students may register with their own institution and use centrally-developed learning materials with credits being easily transferable (Verdiun & Clark, 1991).

Distance education institutions operate under any of these models. It is

important to note, however, that there is no one distance education model that is suited to all kinds of situations. Rumble (1992) explains that the most appropriate model is the one that suits the circumstances under which it is operated.

Media used in Distance Education

According to Bates (1993), media refers to the generic forms of communication associated with particular ways of representing knowledge. In distance education, the most important four media are: text, audio, television and computing. The modes of delivery have led to the term generation which has been used to denote their historical occurrence (Garrison, 1993). Peters (1998) identified five generations as follows: Generations one, two, three, four and five.

Generation One

The generation one refers to both the One-Way-ancillary media-and the Two-Way communication-which Garrison (1993) depicts as correspondence which includes: print (delivered through the mail); audio and video cassettes, audio-graphics (which may also support two-way communication) examples of which are facsimile, slow-scan television, compressed tele-writing and video text; laser video disc and broadcast (which includes radio and television). However, in view of improvement in communication this definition has been updated to: slow asynchronous (Generation 1) with individual instruction as its learning mode, delivered through the postal system, and its message types

(two-way communication) include originally written language and still images; spoken language and moving images that are added by mailing of audio cassettes.

According to Rowntree (1992) and Moore and Kearsley (1996), print is the most common medium of presentation in distance education. In the words of Rowntree (1992), print has been the basis of distance learning, ever since Johann Gutenberg invented movable type in the 15th century. Also, Bates (1993) explains that in spite of the fact that more influential institutions made use of other media, such as the television and audio, at the end of 1980's, the vast majority of distance education throughout the world was still primarily print-based. The Generation One was, until very recently, the best-known form of distance education.

According to Moore and Kearsley (1996), print materials are relatively inexpensive to develop and can be distributed easily via the public mail or private delivery services.Supporting this view, Adekanmbi (2004) writes that, the continued use of print in Africa (and many developed countries) has been due to its cheapness and easy adaptability. It has as its characteristics the permission of great economies of scale through industrialized methods of producing standard course packages and the individualization of learning. However, Moore and Kearsley (1996) are of the opinion that this mode is passive. Irrespective of its shortcomings, Adekanmbi (2004) explains that there is a continued general acceptance of print and the transformation in its context is now made better in terms of better prepared texts, high quality material development processes and enhanced desktop development practice.

Buttressing this, UNESCO (2001) states that, printed materials continue to be a major mode of distance learning provision, even for programmes like the United Kingdom Open University Learning programme which has a major ICT element. Print plays a variety of roles, either as a leading or supporting medium, and is valued for its durability, convenience, low cost, familiarity and suitability for combining with a variety of other media.

Furthermore, Paul (1990) is of the opinion that this mode of delivery helps democratization of education. This, the Open Polytechnic of New Zealand (2003) describes as education being made available, regardless of the constraints of time and place, to many adult learners who could not afford the time or expense of studying full-time, to many who have had to carry on working, and to many who could not travel to classes or who could not access technology or technological support services to learning.

Generation two

Next is the Synchronous generation,-which is termed Generation 2-with individualized or group learning. Its delivery mechanism is the telecommunication system (both wired and wireless) and its message types (two-way communication) can be: spoken language only; still images (supplemented by audio-graphics) and moving images (supplemented by video-conferencing); and various modes (some involving a student group using computer conferencing). The synchronous generation is delivered through telecommunications systems combined with networked computers (usually) or fax machines. For its Message Types (two-way communication), it uses

originally written language (originally through networked computers); still images (supplemented by graphics, files and facsimile); spoken language (supplemented as audio files) and moving images (supplemented as video files). These establish the prediction by Bates (1993) over a decade ago that by the year 2010, this will have changed in most developed countries.

The Generation Two improves on the first by overcoming the tyranny of distance because according to Taylor (2001), it involves the use of highly-developed and refined teaching-learning resources including printed study guides, selected readings, videotapes, audiotapes and computer-based courseware, including computer managed learning (CML), computer assisted learning (CAL), and interactive video (disk and tape).

Also, Holmberg (1995) explains that recordings on audio and video cassettes have become a second very common medium because students often feel that they provide some closeness to reality and have something of an active character. Commenting on this, Moore and Kearsley (1996) state that they have become very convenient and cost-effective ways to disseminate instructional materials. However, writing on the use of radio and television, Holmberg (1995) cautions that expectations of these media are often exaggerated as they do have their drawbacks, which include: the inability of students to reflect on what is being listened to without really losing track of the programme, their costs, and their use in areas that lack electricity. All these become issues especially in the developing countries, as the majority of the recipients of distance education are from the rural areas.

Generation three

Interestingly, the generation three is described as being so attractive that it has posed a challenge to conventional (face-to-face) education, as it combines the strengths of both first and second generations and compensate for the short-comings of the first two by encouraging better group learning through recent developments in software (Bates, 1993). According to Moore and Kearsley (1996), these include teleconferencing, audio-conferencing, audio-graphics, two-way videoconferencing, computer conferencing and computer-based instruction. A good example of audio-conferencing is the University of Wisconsin-Madison Extension's creation of the Education Telephone Network (ETN) in order to extend the campus to the entire state (Moore & Kearsley, 1996).

Generations four and five

It is worth nothing that Taylor (2001) brings a divergent view to this concept by separating the technologies and tagging them generation four, which is based on on-line delivery over the internet and promises to combine the benefits of higher quality CD-ROM based on Interactive Multimedia (IMM), and the emerging generation five which involves the use of automated response systems and intelligent object database, a derivation of the fourth generation, based on the further exploitation of new technologies. In other words, this aims to capitalize on the features of the internet and the Web (E-learning) (Taylor, 2002). According to Taylor, e-learning is a term that covers a wide set of applications and processes, such as Web-based learning and virtual classrooms

among others, and is becoming irresistible to students, politicians and the business community (Taylor, 2002). Simultaneously, it has been predicted that this would reduce the tuition costs and thereby engender economies of scale capable of increasing access to education and training activities on a global scale (Taylor, 2001). A foreseen additional advantage is the improvement in the quality of service to students.

But, generation four and five drawbacks are not totally different from the second-generation two delivery mode, as they are too sophisticated to be used in developing countries of the world. According to Adekanmbi (2004), challenges facing the use of new media include the cost; inadequate personnel to monitor them; and the seeming inability to replace damaged equipment.

Interestingly, Ljosa (1993) does not agree with the popular notion that tends to look at the development of distance education as a succession of generations of technologies and forms because the term implies that other forms (generations) of distance education are obsolete and the structures associated with them vanish. Ljosa, believes that not all can become obsolete in the nearest future. Hence, it has been contended that the most common form of distance education at present and in the future is and will be a mix of ingredients from all generations. In other words, each generation does not fade out, but all are and will be interwoven.

Deductively, one cannot but agree with authors who stress that changes in the modes of delivery in distance education has greatly influenced the mode of delivery of conventional education-with positive effect. For instance, in many dual-mode universities, materials used for distance education are also

being used for conventional education. This shows that institutions have the choice of media and Holmberg (1995) is of the opinion that in distance education the selection possibilities are often limited for financial and other reasons.

However, in further considering the learning environment, Lewis (2002) advises higher education institutions to analyse their markets (both present and future), to consider the kind of learning environment needed to meet these needs cost-effectively thereby not just focusing on only technology, but also on all other aspects of the learning environment, including: Curricular (defined not just in terms of content but also the methods by which students learn); Role of teachers and other staff (new roles and skills will be needed, new posts created and the barriers between existing roles will be blurred as team-working is increasingly used). Physical and virtual learning environments (universities estates will need adapting, with more open access learning or resources centres, more flexible spaces for learning and arrangements for supporting students whose contact with campus are solely electronic); and Learning material in a range of media, serving a variety of student needs and going beyond mere transmission of information, with special consideration of the role of electronically transmitted material.

According to Lewis (2002), there is the need to involve students more in their learning as the emphasis on curriculum content in higher education moves students into a passive role: absorbing information (the basis of the traditional lecture).

Organization and Management of Distance Education

Management has been defined as the process of planning, organizing, leading, controlling efforts of organizational resources to achieve stated organizational goals (Boachie-Mensah, 2000). Organization, which is the end results of organizing, is only one of the many functions of management and has to do with the process of creating a viable structure for the successful accomplishment of work. To describe it in a more comprehensive manner, organizing basically consist in the process of dividing work into convenient tasks or duties or grouping such duties in the form of posts, of appointing qualified staff and of establishing a network of authority, responsibility and accountability relationships to ensure that the work is carried out as planned (Mullins, 2007).

Organization and management ultimately aim at getting specified work /tasks accomplished through the utilization of human and material resources in an efficient and effective manner (Rumble, 1992). In conventional residential educational institutions many activities, processes and materials have to be managed on a day- to-day basis which make the management of such institutions a very complicated and demanding business. Where such an institution combines residential education with distance education additional responsibilities are added on which make the organization and management of such an institution even more complex (Bates, 1995).

Bates (1995) maintains that even when an institution is in the sole business of providing distance education, the organization and management task can be enormous since the processes involved in creating and

disseminating educational materials to widely dispersed learners can generate its own heavy administrative demands. For this reason any institution involved in distance education needs to work out how to provide the services which its students need by identifying the many elements that need to be organized and managed and act toward them appropriately (Carter, 2001).

Policy making and Control

Perraton (1991) suggests that effective organization and management of distance education needs to start with policy making and control. This is to do with creating the necessary administrative structures through which policies governing distance education may be formulated. Again it involves entrusting some people, holding certain positions with authority to direct affairs and to establish the necessary control mechanisms for the work of the institution to proceed according to plans (Bates, 1995). Some policy issues in the management of distance education according to Perraton (1991) include:

1. Material development.
2. Production of materials.
3. Record keeping.
4. Student support services.
5. Monitoring and evaluation.
6. Financing distance education.

Material Development

A distance education institution must usually find people with the requisite knowledge background and train them to write distance education

materials (Adentwi, 2002). It may also have to find people to develop modules, units and lessons using other audio-visual equipment like television, video and computers. Most distance education institutions usually use distance materials that are centrally developed and disseminated to distance learners on one-to-one basis to be studied in the comfort of their homes. Such materials must be carefully developed so that they are both easy to read and understand. Distance education materials are prepared to ensure active learning. There are materials clearly stated objectives and advice on the use of such materials.

Distance education materials are usually presented in a dialogue form to enable the learner relax anytime he is studying the material. The materials are structured with content divided into small sections or units with appropriate headings. Again distance education materials must be illustrated with diagrams; space must be provided for notes making and responses (Dibiase, 2001). Distance education materials must also be tailored to suit the level of students (Adentwi, 2002).

Distance education materials must measure up to standard. The right calibre of people should be engaged to produce the right materials needed. To ensure quality of materials, Adentwi (2002) provides the following suggestions: Distance education institutions could adapt the course materials that have been previously produced for an existing institution to the needs of its learners. For example, Athabasca University Canada has successfully used a wide range of courses and course materials that were originally developed by other institutions. Similarly the Botswana Extension College also made use of course materials developed in Zambia to widen its own range of courses.

Also, a distance education institution can get its course materials developed by arranging for the writers of other institutions to be seconded to them on short-term basis to help with the development of such materials. For instance, in Ghana, staff of Teacher Training Colleges and others were pooled together by the Institute for Educational Development and Extension (IEDE) at Koforidua to develop distance education materials for the OUT component of the IN-IN-OUT programme (Adentwi, 2002).

The next strategy for developing distance education materials is to engage the academic staff of a dual-mode institution to develop distance education materials after they have received special training for this purpose. Both the institute for Educational Development and Extension (IEDE) of UEW and the Centre for Continuing Education (CCE) of the University of Cape Coast have used this method in developing course materials for their diploma and post-diploma programmes by distance education (Adentwi, 2002). Distance education material developers are often guided by a team of experts who ensure that the right material is produced (Allport, 1995).

Production of Materials

How to mass-produce distance education materials for dissemination to learners widely dispersed from the distance education institution is the next organizational and management task. Effective material production is a complex task. It requires careful planning and execution for optimum results. Various jobs have to be undertaken to ensure that the materials that are produced are of good quality and that they reach the students in good time

(Omoregie, 1997). In terms of management, this entails constant monitoring and follow-up actions to keep track of the work of every author, producer, designer, editor and warehouse packer on each item of material (Adentwi, 2002).

There are two options with regard to the production of distance learning materials (Adentwi, 2002). That is, it may sublet the production of distance learning materials to a local printing firm, or it may acquire its own printing machines to produce the materials by itself .Local printing firms may be more competent to handle the production of materials because they may possess the requisite staff, equipment and experience to handle such production processes at a reduced cost. The problem, however, is the fact that subletting the production of distance education materials to private organizations may lead to little control over the production process. It may result in delays in the supply of distance education materials to distant students for use as indicated earlier in the literature.

On the contrary, where a distance education institution decides to take up the production process itself, it may be doing so at a cost because of a huge capital outlay in setting up its own production unit. Also, such a decision also implies that more of the time of the executives may be needed to supervise or monitor the production process to ensure quality of work and to meet expected schedules for delivery of materials to students for study. This implies that little time is given the executives to engage in important decision-making that requires their personal attention (Adentwi, 2002).Whichever method of production that is used for the production of the course material that requires

careful planning and execution to ensure that materials are printed only after they have been properly proof-read and that they are made ready for quick distribution to avoid delays. Advance planning and good progress control, tempered with some measure of pessimism about working out as expected appears to be what it takes to ensure that quality materials are produced and distributed to distant learners in good time (Perraton, 1992).

Record Keeping

Perraton (1992) identifies record keeping as another vital aspect of the management of distance education. He explains that a distance education institution will need record on its students, its tutors and its courses among other things. Records on students are supposed to cover their background and enrolment, progress on the course, payments, problems, attendance at course and examinations. A record on tutors has to do with their background and address quantity and quality of work, arrangements for their remuneration, absence on leave and problems .On the course, records cover production stages of materials, stock control, dispatch to students and student's reaction. Such records help to ensure early delivery of quality distance packages for use by distance education students (Adentwi, 2002).

Student support services

The provision of student support services is essential in distance education delivery. Holmberg (2002) explains that though most developing countries are unable to provide adequate support for their students, support for

students remains their priority. Most distance learning institutions in Africa allocate a large portion of their budgets towards meeting students support (Tait, 1995). Support services provided by distance institutions to facilitate teaching and learning include tutoring, counselling, library services, feedback, provision of modules and face-to-face tutorials (Rowntree, 1992).

To strengthen the support services and enhance effectiveness, Quaigrain (1994) suggests that materials should reach distance learners in time. Also assessment should provide adequate feedback to inform students and to give directions. In addition, a credit system should be used to ensure flexibility and acceptability of programmes.

Monitoring and Evaluation

In several respects assessment of students on a distance education programme is similar to assessment in a residential institution (Adentwi, 2002). Evaluation in the context of distance education may take three main forms (Adentwi, 2002). In the first place it may refer to evaluating the performance of individuals to determine whether they have passed or failed part or all of their courses. Second, it may take the form of programme evaluation whereby the success or otherwise of the programme is checked with the view to improving it where necessary. Thirdly, evaluation in distance education may be summative. Here, evaluation in done at the end of the programme in order to answer broad questions about success and failure.

According to Adentwi (2002) evaluation in distance education is often concerned with students knowledge in their subject matter and also about their

performance as students. Both evaluations are conducted in much the same way as in residential face-to-face education. Adentwi notes that an important issue connected with the evaluation system under distance education is the type of certificate they take home. Adentwi advises that standards are maintained in the examination system for distance education as for residential education. In many distance education, students take examinations under close supervision. The papers distance learners write must also be of the same standard as that of residential education to add credibility to the certificates they take home at the end of the course.

Financing Distance Education

Research indicates that distance education can be cost effective if properly organised. The cost of training students by distance can be far less than the conventional system (Quaigrain, 1994). The major items that add cost to the providing institution have been identified as relating to four main aspects of their work; namely: production systems, instruction systems, evaluation systems and administration (Adentwi, 2002).

Distance education students also incur cost as regards expenses for tuition, fees, study materials and travel expenses for attendance of tutorial sessions. The opportunity cost borne by distance learners is supposed to be minimal for the reason that unlike residential students who usually have their courses full-time, distance students work whiles pursuing their programme (Perraton, 1991).

Distance education institutions usually require a large amount of initial

capital for putting up structures and for providing needed equipment for the production and distribution of study materials (Adentwi, 2002). Adentwi further explains that such money is recouped through students' fees over the years. Usually distance education institutions are better able to recoup invested capital with large intake of learners, though it is advisable to compute break-even points in order to determine the optimum number of students to enrol (Bates, 2005).

Distance education institutions may enjoy economies of scale if they are able to attract more students on their programme. Large intake of distance learners makes for cost-efficiency because of economies of scale (Peters, 1998). With large intake, the relatively high fixed cost of distance education can be spread over large students thereby reducing cost per student to the institution.

Perraton (1991) identifies three main sources of funding distance education institutions. These are:

1. Regular grants from government or university to cover the main running cost of distance education on yearly basis.
2. Separate building or equipment grant to meet initial capital cost of setting up a distance education project. Such monies are usually provided by international agencies like the UNESCO, UNICEF or other Non-governmental Organizations (NGO's).
3. Fees paid by students.

It is pertinent to note that the cost structure for distance education differs from that of the conventional residential education institution. In many residential teacher education institutions, staffing cost generally dominate the

educational budget. On the other hand, the cost of production of distance education material and for the purchase of plant and equipment form the larger proportion of the cost of distance education (Perraton, 1991).

Comparatively, distance education is generally believed to be much cheaper than programmes offered in conventional residential teacher education institutions. This point is amply attested to by records of many institutions including the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) and the Open University of the United Kingdom (Perraton, 1991).

Summary of Literature

An attempt has been made to explore the relevant and related literature that would help the researcher have a broad idea on the topic. The review took into account the concept of distance education, theories and philosophies of distance education, challenges of distance education, support services in distance education, the prospects of distance education, models used in distance education, media used in distance education and organization, management and policy making and control.

Distance education is a term difficult to define. However, discussions by several authors reveal one key thing. That is distance education is a system of education in which education is imparted to students at a distance. There are theories and philosophies of distance education. These explain the intentions of the institution providing distance learning and the method used to achieve such objectives. One interesting thing established in the literature is the significant growth and acceptance of distance education all over the world. Distance

education is used by both developing and developed countries as alternative to conventional education. To this end, efforts are being made by most countries to make this phenomenon workable. Notwithstanding this, there are several challenges facing distance education. The major challenges found in the literature were student-related challenges, faculty-related challenges, organization-related challenges and course-related challenges.

Addressing these challenges require the provision of adequate support service for distance learners and staff. The review indicated that students place high premium on support system. The essential support services provided by distance education institutions include library services, counselling services, face-to-face tutorials, provision of quality learning materials and training programmes for tutors and coordinators. Distance education presents some prospects to learners and distance institutions. Some of the potential benefits are greater access to tertiary education especially teacher education and the upgrading of professionals which in all help to address the perennial admission problems tertiary institutions face.

Literature was also reviewed on the models of distance education. Three identified models are the single mode, dual mode and consortium. The literature further touched on the various media used in distance education. They include generations one, two, three, four and five. Finally, organization and management and policy issues that will ensure the effective delivery of distance education were discussed. Issues that were discussed include material development, production of materials, record keeping, monitoring and evaluation and distance education financing.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The chapter describes the procedure adopted in conducting the study. It embraces the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure. It further describes the research instrument used for the study, pilot-testing, administration of instrument and data analysis plan.

Research Design

The study was based on a descriptive survey which was intended to identify the major challenges and prospects of the UEW distance programme. Gay (1992) holds the view that descriptive survey is very useful when investigating educational problems. Osuala (1991) also points out that descriptive surveys are practical to the researcher and identify present conditions and at the same time point to the present needs. He believes that descriptive survey is regarded by social scientists as the best especially where large populations are involved. Osuala also notes that descriptive survey is widely used in educational research since data gathered through descriptive survey present field conditions. According to Best and Khan cited in Amedahe (2002), descriptive research concerns itself with conditions or relations that exist. These include practices, attitudes and opinions that are held. Amedahe (2002) argued that in descriptive research, there is accurate description of

activities and this goes beyond mere fact-finding.

This design was chosen because it has the merit of gathering various responses from a wide range of people. It also enables one to have a clear picture of events and people's behaviour on the basis of data collected for a particular period of time. In addition, in-depth follow-up questions can be asked and items that were not clear could be explained using descriptive survey design. Furthermore, descriptive survey helps to present the true state of affairs of a given situation after data have been collected from a number of people who respond to the same set of questions about a given situation (Gay, 1992).

However, the use of this method can create problems if questions to respondents are misleading. It could also produce unreliable results since inquiries into private matters may make respondents feel reluctant to co-operate (Gay, 1992). Despite these limitations, the researcher believes that the research design is the most appropriate one which he hopes could help him to draw useful and meaningful conclusions from the study.

Population

The total population was 1900. This consisted of 840 diploma students, 1003 post-diploma students (making a total 1843 students), 45 tutors/lecturers and 12 study centre coordinators. Table 1 describes the population of the study.

Table 1

Population of the study

Category of respondents	Number selected
Diploma students	840
Post-diploma students	1003
Tutors/Lecturers	45
Coordinators	12
Total	1900

Sample

The total sample size was 381. This comprised 369 students (ie 168 diploma students and 201 post-diploma students), 9 tutors/lecturers and 3 coordinators. Table 2 describes the sample of the study.

Table 2

Sample size of the study

Category of Respondents	Number Selected
Diploma Students	168
Post-diploma Students	201
Tutors/Lecturers	9
Coordinators	3
Total	381

Sampling Procedure

The stratified sampling technique was used to put the respondents into strata; that is, students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators. Stratified sampling is used when the researcher is not sure that the individuals in the population will be adequately represented if selection is done by the simple random sampling (Nsowah-Nuamah, 2005). There were 20% of the respondents selected randomly from each stratum. By this, 20% of 840 diploma students is 168, 20% of 1003 post-diploma students is 201, 20% of 45 tutors/lecturers is 9 and 20% of 12 coordinators is 3. The sampling technique became necessary because the views of each of the strata were necessary to make the outcome well informed and very much authentic. This selection was made with guidelines from Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005).

Data collection instrument

Questionnaire was used by the researcher as a means for collecting data. Questionnaire is a useful and widely used instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured and often numerical data. Also, it is useful for the collection of data without the presence of the researcher, and it is often comparatively straight forward to analyse (Cohen et al, 2005). Questionnaire is a very effective instrument for securing factual information about practices and conditions of which the respondents are presumed to have knowledge and enquiring into the opinions and attitudes of the subject. Further, questionnaire is deemed appropriate for this study because the respondents are literate.

The questionnaire consisted of only closed-ended questions.

Closed-ended questions restrict the respondents to options given. Coding is made easier with the use of closed-ended questions. The merits of the close -ended questions explain why they were used.

The questionnaire was developed with guidelines from my supervisors and related studies on distance education by Bampo (2008), Adukpo (2007), Musa (2002), Sam-Tagoe (2000) and Mireku-Gyimah (1998). Relevant information from the literature reviewed also aided in the design of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into four sections.

The first section of the questionnaire centred on the demographic information about the respondents. The second section focused on the problems facing UEW distance education programme. The third section tried to elicit respondents' views on the factors that make the UEW distance education programme acceptable to them. The fourth section sought to solicit data on the prospects of the UEW distance education programme (See Appendix A).

Pilot-Testing of Instrument

Pilot-testing was carried out by the researcher before the main data were collected. A pilot-test is a small-scale replica and a rehearsal of the main study (Sarantakos, 2005). Pilot-testing helps to test the effectiveness of the study organization. It also helps to test the suitability of the research methods and design. Through pilot-testing, the researcher familiarizes with the research environment. A successful pilot-testing will enable the researcher to discover possible weakness, inadequacies and ambiguities in the research instruments so that they can be corrected before the actual data collection takes place (Baker,

1994). Pilot-testing though an essential element of a good study design does not guarantee success in the main study since some problems may not become obvious until the larger scale study is conducted. It does, however, increase the likelihood of success (Baker, 1994).

The pilot-testing for the study was carried out at the Accra study centre on the 28th of October, 2009. The Accra study centre shares some commonalities with Koforidua study centre in terms of students' population and effective organization of the programme, hence the selection of that centre for the pilot-testing. The pilot- testing had 20 respondents consisting of 6 diploma and 6 post-diploma students (12 students in all), 7 tutors/lecturers and 1 coordinator. Only 1 coordinator was used because there is only one coordinator for each centre. Since the pilot-test was carried out at the Accra study centre, the coordinator there was used. This exercise was carried out for two days. The first day was used to administer the questionnaire and the second for the analysis of the responses.

All questionnaires to the respondents were retrieved indicating 100% return rate. The success was due to the fact that the essence of the exercise was explained to the respondents after which they were given 30 minutes to complete. The questionnaires were collected after 30 minutes had elapsed. One key factor that contributed to the success of the exercise was the interest shown by the respondents because they felt they were part of the study.

Analysis of the responses was carried out to check reliability of the instrument. Results of the internal consistency of the responses had three main themes as: The major problems facing the UEW distance education programme,

factors that make the UEW programme acceptable and the prospects of the UEW programme. The Cronbach Alpha Reliability Co-efficient stood as .758, .681 and .788 respectively for the three themes.

The feedback from the pilot-test identified two vaguely worded questions which the researcher reworded. It was important that the questions be well formulated and structured as the questionnaire was the main tool for sourcing my research data. Consequently, question 22 which was written as "The UEW distance education programme is reliable" was changed to read "The UEW distance education is good". Also question 23 which was written as "The quality of the UEW distance programme is the same as its conventional system of tertiary education" was changed to "The quality of the UEW distance education programme is the same as the regular (campus) system of tertiary education". Work on the pilot-test was shown to my supervisor for advice and approval. Results of the pilot-test were approved on the 30th of October, 2009 and this paved the way for data collection. Table 3 shows the respondents used for the pilot-test.

Table 3

Respondents used for Pilot-Testing

Category of Respondents	Number Selected
Diploma Students	6
Post-diploma Students	6
Tutors/Lecturers	7
Coordinator(s)	1
Total	20

Data collection procedure

The questionnaire was administered personally by the researcher to the respondents. To maximize response level, the researcher followed-up to emphasize the importance of the study. Ethical issues were considered in the process. Ethical issues are highly relevant and require due consideration in any research (Sarantakos, 2005). The researcher has an obligation to respect the rights, values and desires of the respondents. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) suggest that a responsible researcher should be considerate, should not injure or harm the participants of the research, keep data collected from respondents confidentially and record information accurately, among others.

Based on these ethical issues, the researcher went through the following steps to reach the respondents thereby protecting their rights. The administration of the questionnaire was preceded by a letter of introduction from the Director of the Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) to the Director of the Institute for Educational Development and

Extension (IEDE) and the study centre coordinators selected for the study (See Appendix B). The consent of the respondents was obtained so that they could fully and voluntarily participate in the study. The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents in the covering letter attached to the questionnaire. Confidentiality was ensured since questionnaire to respondents did not require them to write their names and addresses.

Data collection for the study started on the 7th of November, 2009 and ended on the 20th of February, 2010. Data collection for the study was done in two parts. The respondents were students (Diploma and Post-diploma), tutors/lecturers and centre coordinators. The first part which involved data collection from the diploma students and the tutors/lecturers started from the 7th of November , 2009 and ended on the 21st of November, 2009.The exercise was suspended temporarily due to the students' end of term examination which took place from the 6th of December, 2009 and ended on the 20th of December, 2009.

The second part of the data collection exercise commenced on the 6th of February, 2010 and ended on the 20th of February, 2010.This comprised data from the post-diploma students and the coordinators. The researcher was able to get access to the coordinators at the marking centre at Ajumako in the Central Region. All 381 questionnaires representing the sample size distributed to the respondents were retrieved. This represents 100% return rate. The success of the exercise was made possible as a result of the cooperation of the respondents who were eager to answer the questions which is probably because they have been made a part of a study which directly affects them. The researcher's status

as a tutor at the Koforidua study centre also contributed to the success. Also some tutors at the centre assisted me in the administration of the questionnaires.

Data Analysis plan

The responses to the questions were coded and entered into the SPSS computer software for analysis and interpretation. Coding is used where observation categories have been developed and the items of observation are clear, specific and known in advance. Codes serve as symbols, a shorthand recording, where actions and behaviours are replaced by numerals or keywords (Sarantakos, 2005).

Percentages and frequencies were used for the analysis and interpretations. A five point Likert-type scale was the major scale of measurement for part two, part three and part four of the questionnaire. The items were scored as ordinal level data. The Likert-type scale items for the various parts of the questionnaire were weighted as follows: Strongly agree (4), agree (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1) and not sure (0). For the purposes of analysis, strongly agree and agree responses were merged as agree whiles strongly disagree and disagree were merged as disagree while the “not sure” responses were left to stand alone.

Analysis of the responses was done in the order of the research questions. Responses from the various categories of respondents were discussed systematically in line with the research questions. Tables were created for the items as follows: Table 4, contained responses to research question 1. Table 5 consisted of responses to research question 2. Finally, table 6 comprised

responses to research question 3 (See Appendix A). Discussions of findings were done orderly starting from research question 1 and ending at 3.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study gathered data on the major challenges and prospects of the distance education programme at UEW. Questionnaires were administered to three categories of respondents. That is students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators. The results of the study are presented and discussed in this chapter.

Findings of the Study

Research Question One: **What are the major challenges facing the UEW Distance Education Programme?**

Research Question 1 sought information on the major challenges facing the UEW distance education programme. Table 4 presents responses from respondents on the major challenges facing the UEW distance education programme.

Table 4

Major challenges facing the UEW Distance Education Programme

Issue	Respondent	Responses		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure
Inadequate feedback	Students	252 (68%)	103 (28%)	14 (4%)
	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	0 (0%)
Inadequate modules	Students	227 (62%)	130 (35%)	12 (3%)
	Tutors	8 (89%)	1 (11%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Inadequate support	Students	291 (79%)	71 (19%)	7 (2%)
	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	0 (0%)
Delayed modules	Students	190 (51%)	168 (46%)	11 (3%)
	Tutors	8 (89%)	1 (11%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	0 (0%)
Inadequate tutor	Students	158 (43%)	120 (33%)	91 (24%)
motivation	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

On the issue of “inadequate feedback from tutors”, the results were as follows: majority of the students, 252 (68%), agreed that they do not receive adequate feedback from their tutors. Responses from the tutors indicated that all tutors, 9(100%), agreed that students do not receive adequate feedback from

them. Also, responses from the coordinators indicated that 2 of them, (67%), agreed that students do not receive adequate feedback from their tutors.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents agreed that students do not receive adequate feedback from their tutors. The results confirm a study conducted by Keegan (1990) in Mangolia that distance learners do not have adequate feedback from their instructors. This situation is not good for distance learning. Keegan believes that the separation of student and teacher imposed by distance removes a "vital link" of communication between these two parties. Willis (1993) maintains that feedback to students is very important in distance learning as learners place high premium on it. Willis points out that feedback to students is one of the strategies for effective distance learning.

A study conducted by Lucia (2005) on student support services in Namibia revealed that distance learners attach great importance to support services such as orientation, contact and communication and feedback. This is also supported by a similar study conducted by Bampo (2008) on students' assessment of facilities and services at the University of Cape Coast which confirmed that distance students have a strong desire for feedback. Effective feedback from tutors is crucial in distance learning, therefore, planners of distance learning should pay attention to this issue.

On the issue of "inadequate modules", majority of the students, 227 (62%), agreed that there are inadequate modules. Responses from the tutors indicated that almost all of them, 8 (89%) also agreed that there are inadequate modules. All the coordinators, 3(100%), indicated that there are inadequate modules.

The results indicate that there are inadequate modules at the UEW distance programme. The above information confirm Joshi's (1999) findings in Tanzania on distance learning materials which revealed that majority of students held the view that distance education study materials were not adequate. However, the situation is different at the University of Namibia. Owusu-Mensah (1998) points out that the University of Namibia provides adequate study materials to its students. The significance of study materials for effective distance learning delivery cannot be underestimated. Murphy (1991) in her study on study materials in Turkey noted that first year students see study materials as the most useful part of a distance education programme.

On the question of "inadequate support services", the responses were as follows: majority of the students, 291 (79%), agreed that support services at the UEW distance programme are inadequate. All the tutors, 9(100%), also agreed that there are inadequate support services. Results from the coordinators indicated that 2(67%) were of the view that there are inadequate student support services at the UEW distance programme.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents agreed that there are inadequate support services at the UEW programme. One concern of distance learners is the provision of adequate support services. Studies by Owusu-Mensah (1998), Bampo (2008), Owusu-Boateng, Essel and Mensah (2001) support this assertion. This means that distance education providers should endeavour to provide adequate support for their students. The neglect of student support services at UEW distance programme can have serious implications on their programme. According to Wood (1996), lack of support

for students can lead to learning problems resulting in students` dissatisfaction for distance programme. Oaks (1996), also holds the view that success in attracting and retaining students depends on excellent student support. Planners of distance programmes should pay attention to student support to promote effective distance learning delivery.

In response to the issue of “delayed modules”, the responses were as follows: there were 190 (51%) students agreed that modules are delayed. On the part of the tutors, 8 (89%) agreed that modules for the programme are delayed. Results from the coordinators also showed that 2 (67%) agreed there is delay in the provision of modules to distance learners at UEW.

The findings point to the fact that modules for distance students at UEW are delayed. This is contrary to the suggestion by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) (1999) that distance learning materials should be made available to distance learners on time. Bampo (2008) attributes the delay of distance materials to lecturers who teach both regular and distance students but who are engaged in the writing of distance materials.

Also, Adentwi (2002) traces the delay in the supply of modules to the fact that most distance institutions sublet the production of modules to local firms most of whom do not have the capacity to produce them on time. The problem of delay in the supply of distance study materials is not peculiar to UEW. A UNESCO (2002) report indicates that most distance institutions in Africa do not supply modules on time and even when they do they are usually inadequate. Students are at the risk of dropping out unless study materials are provided (Murphy, 1991; Moore & Kearsley, 1996).

On the issue of, “inadequate motivation for tutors”, all the tutors 9(100%) and the coordinators 3(100%) agreed that tutors at the UEW distance programme are not motivated. The results from the respondents indicate that tutors on the UEW distance learning are not adequately motivated. Poor motivation of tutors can make the programme ineffective. This is because tutors may not be committed to their work. Carter (2001) argues that the teacher sets the tone for learning in any educational environment. The instructor must be motivated and trained in order to be effective. Distance learning authorities should ensure that their tutors are motivated for it is by this means that they can have committed tutors to teach on their programme and to get the best from them (Adentwi, 2002).

Research Question Two: What factors make the UEW Distance Education acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators of the programme?

Research question two sought information from the respondents on the factors that make the UEW distance education programme acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators of the programme. Table 5 presents the responses from respondents on such factors.

Table 5

Factors that Make the UEW Distance Education Acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators of the programme

Factor	Respondent	Responses		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure
UEW distance is good	Students	357 (97%)	9 (2%)	3 (1%)
	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Students needs are met	Students	335 (91%)	33 (8%)	1 (1%)
	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Same quality as regular	Students	200 (54%)	163 (44%)	6 (2%)
	Tutors	4 (44%)	5 (56%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	0 (0%)
Quality course structure	Students	286 (78%)	70 (19%)	13 (3%)
	Tutors	6 (67%)	3 (33%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Effective face-to-face	Students	299 (81%)	62 (17%)	8 (2%)
	Tutors	7 (78%)	2 (22%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

On the issue, “UEW distance programme is good”, the results indicated that majority of the students, 357 (97%), agreed that the programme is good. Responses from the tutors indicated that all tutors, 9 (100%), agreed that the

programme is good. Also, all the coordinators, 3 (100%), agreed that the UEW distance programme is good.

Information gathered on the question indicates that majority of the respondents hold the view that the UEW distance programme is good. The acceptance of the UEW programme as good confirms the assertion by Oduro (2008) that most distance learners have positive perception towards the programme. A study of students of Pennsylvannia State University by Ferguson and Wijekuman (2000) on students satisfaction with distance education revealed that majority of the students (75%) indicated that they were satisfied with the distance programme.

A similar study conducted by Sam-Tagoe (2000) about how good distance programme is, showed that majority of teachers agreed that distance education is good. Supporting this view, Musa (2002) reports from a research carried out to find out the interest of teachers in the Wa district of Ghana in distance education that majority of the teachers expressed great interest in distance education. They see it as a means by which they can upgrade themselves in order to be effective. It is therefore not surprising that most respondents described the programme as good.

On the issue of "parity of quality of distance programme compared to the regular system", the results indicated that most students, 200 (54%), agreed that the UEW distance programme has the same quality as that of the regular system. On the other hand, 163 students (44%) disagreed that the two programmes are of the same quality. Responses from the tutors showed that 4 (44%) agreed that UEW distance programme has the same quality as that of the

regular system while 5 (56%) disagreed to the fact that the two programmes are of the same quality. All the coordinators, 3 (100%), agreed that the UEW distance programme is of high quality as the regular system.

The results show that majority of the respondents agreed that the UEW distance programme is comparable to the regular system in terms of quality. However, there was a sharp contrast in the response of the tutors on this issue. The trust in the quality of distance education compared to the regular system by most of the respondents is in line with the assertion by Koomson (1998) that there is no significant difference in the professional competence between teachers trained by distance and those trained by conventional system. While this may be true, some believe this notion may not be correct. Greenberg (1998) in a survey of higher administrators reports that many of the decision makers including lecturers view distance education as second rate, a necessary but a deviant form of education. According to Keegan (1991), many believe that distance students perform poorly in assessment than regular students because of the additional pressures and burdens on distance learning. However, this assertion is also proved wrong. A study of the results of 67 Science subjects at California State University (CSU) over a six year period showed that there was no difference in the performance of distance learners and regular students (Keegan, 1991).

In relation to the issue of "quality course structure of the UEW programme", the results of the responses revealed that majority of the students, 286 (78%), agreed that it was of good quality. Responses from the tutors revealed that majority of them, 6 (67%), agreed that the UEW distance

programme is of good quality. All the coordinators, 3 (100%), agreed that the distance programme at UEW was of good quality.

The results suggest that majority of the respondents endorse the quality of the courses of the UEW distance programme. This confirms the results of an evaluation exercise carried out at UEW on the quality of study materials which revealed that study materials were highly commended by distance learners (Adentwi, 2002).The results are in line with the assertion by the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (2007) that quality course structure is crucial in distance learning. AFT, after a survey on good practices of distance education recommends among other things, that distance learning courses should cover all the necessary information in order to ensure quality. The South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) (1996) also identifies quality course design and development as one of the essential components of a well functioning distance education system. However, many believe that distance courses are inferior to traditional courses (Perraton, 1991). Faculty must try as much as possible to maintain high standard of their courses. The meeting of this requirement by UEW as indicated by Adentwi (2002) is a step in the right direction.

On the issue of "effective face-to-face at UEW", the results indicated that majority of students, 299 (81%), agreed that face-to-face at UEW is effective. Responses from the tutors indicated that majority of them, 7 (78%), agreed that the face-to-face at the UEW distance is effective. Also, all the coordinators, 3 (100%), agreed that the face-to-face programme of the UEW distance programme is effective.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents agreed that face-to-face at UEW is effective. This means that UEW pays attention to its face-to-face programme. The findings confirm Quaigrain's (2001) study on face-to-face tutorials at the University of Hong Kong. The study revealed that attendance was relatively high with 95% of new students and over 70% of continuing students attending 75% or more of the sessions. The University of Namibia also provides face-to-face tutorials at its study centres using local tutors who are trained to provide tutorials (Owusu-Mensah, 1998). UEW also provides face-to-face tutorials at its study centres using lecturers from the university and part-time tutors (Adentwi, 2002). Students at UEW attend monthly face-to-face tutorials at the various study centres. Face-to-face tutorials at UEW are held five times a semester (IEDE, 2007).

However, face-to-face tutorials at the Makerere University is centralized at the main university campus and scheduled three times a year with each session lasting two weeks (Owusu-Mensah, 1998). According to Aguti (1995), face-to-face sessions motivate Makerere students to learn. It allows them to concentrate on their work, gave students the opportunity to interact with their friends and a sense of belonging to the university. Face-to-face at UEW provides the same opportunities like that of Makerere University. In view of the crucial role of face-to-face in distance learning, Lewis (2002) advises distance education providers to take their face-to-face tutorials seriously.

Research question three: What are the prospects of the UEW distance education programme?

Research Question 3 gathered information on the prospects of the UEW distance education programme. Table 6 presents the responses from respondents on the question.

Table 6

Prospects of UEW Distance Education

Prospects	Respondent	Responses		
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure
Teacher accessibility to	Students	356 (97%)	5 (1%)	8 (2%)
University education	Tutors	8 (89%)	1 (11%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Higher professional	Students	352 (96%)	9 (2%)	8 (2%)
training	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Teacher efficiency	Students	347 (94%)	16 (4%)	6 (2%)
	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Reduces pressure on	Students	328 (89%)	32 (9%)	9 (2%)
admission	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Potential to attract more	Students	339 (92%)	19 (5%)	11 (3%)
teachers	Tutors	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Coordinators	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	0 (0%)

On the issue of “access to university education”, the responses showed that majority of students, 356 (97%), agreed that UEW distance programme enables students to have access to university education. On the part of the tutors, majority of them, 8 (89%), agreed that distance education at UEW presents students with the opportunity to have access to university education. All the coordinators, 3 (100%), also held the view that the programme helps students to have access to university education.

Responses gathered on the issue indicate that majority of the respondents hold the view that distance education at UEW gives students the chance to have access to university education. The results affirm the notion by Bishop (1986) that distance education provides opportunity for the large number of people to acquire formal education which otherwise would have been difficult. Distance education is used in many African countries to train teachers (UNESCO, 2001). For instance, a UNESCO (2002) report describing the impact of distance education in Nigeria said distance education was used to train about 48,204 teachers from 1990 to 1999 to address the acute shortage of teachers in Nigeria. In Ghana, distance education is used as a strategy for the training of teachers (Koomson, 1998). Adentwi (2002) points out that many basic school teachers in Ghana have received training through this programme. A lot more are doing so.

In response to the issue, “distance education provides higher professional training”, the results indicated that most students, 352 (96%), agreed that distance education at UEW will help students attain higher professional training. All the tutors, 9 (100%), as well as all the coordinators, 3

(100%), agreed that the programme will help teachers to acquire higher professional skills.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents agreed that pursuing distance education at UEW will help them to upgrade their professional skills. The results are in support of the assertion by Musa (2002) that distance education allows professional teachers to upgrade themselves to enhance their career advancement. Most teachers are inspired by the fact that distance learning will grant them the opportunity to acquire higher education and to enrich their knowledge. In a study conducted by Owusu-Boateng, Essel and Mensah (2001) on distance education and career advancement, the findings revealed that most learners (95%) believe the programme has the potential of helping them to acquire higher professional training. In a similar study, Sam-Tagoe (2000) indicated that majority of Ghanaian teachers (96.6%) hold the view that distance education will help them to achieve their ambition for higher academic laurels.

In responding to the issue “distance education promotes teacher efficiency”, the result revealed that majority of students, 347 (94%), agreed that distance education promotes teacher efficiency. Responses from the tutors indicated that all of them, 9(100%), agreed that distance education promotes teacher efficiency. All the coordinators, 3 (100%), also share the same view that distance education promotes teacher efficiency.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents hold the view that distance education promotes teacher efficiency. The findings affirm the assertion by Chivore (1993) that distance education brings about efficiency of

work as it makes it possible for students to apply theories, techniques and skills acquired through the programme to their jobs thereby making them improve upon their job performance. Since distance education leads to efficiency, Chivore argues that most African countries such as Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Zimbabwe and South Africa use distance education programmes to train more professional teachers. Oduro (2008) reports that the Tanzania government in its quest to achieve Universal Primary Education relied on distance education as a strategy to achieve this objective.

On the issue of "distance education reducing pressure on admission", the responses indicated that majority of students, 328 (89%), agreed that distance education reduces pressure on admissions. All the tutors, 9 (100%), agreed that distance education reduces pressure on admission. Responses from the coordinators indicated that all of them, 3 (100%), agreed that distance education reduces the pressure on admission.

The results show that majority of the respondents agreed that distance education reduces pressure on admission. The results are in tune with the opinion of Adentwi (2002) that distance education allows Ghanaian basic school teachers to have easy access to university education thereby alleviating them from the stress they go through looking for admission into university. Distance education has been used by some institutions in Ghana as a means of expanding access to university education. Study conducted by Mensah and Owusu-Mensah (2002) about interest in distance education in four public universities- the University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, University of Cape Coast and the University of Education

indicated that these universities are into distance education with the view that the programme will help them to expand access to many applicants who are refused admission into conventional tertiary education every year. More importantly, distance education will make education available to the large number of the working population who are unable to study full-time. Also a study conducted by Mireku-Gyimah (1998) on students' interest in distance education revealed that majority of the students (88%) saw the need for distance education citing accessibility as one of the key factors that influenced them to opt for the programme.

In response to the issue, "distance education has the potential to attract more teachers to enrol in future", the results indicated that a great number of students, 339 (92%), agreed that distance education is capable of attracting more teachers to enrol in future. All the tutors, 9 (100%), also agreed that distance education has the potential to attract more teachers to enrol in future. Results from the coordinators showed that all of them, 3 (100%), agreed that distance education has the potential to enrol in future.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents agreed that distance education has the potential to attract more teachers to enrol in future. The results is in agreement with the view held by Keegan (1995) that distance education has the potential to attract many applicants to enrol in future due to factors such as cost, flexibility of programme and easy access to university education. According to the American Council on Education, the number of students in distance learning doubled from 1995 to 1998 totalling 1.6 million (Devarics, 2001). Another forecast revealed that by the year 2002, there will be 2.2 million

students on distance education programmes in American colleges and universities (Dibiase, 2001). Also, some cases in Mongolia showed that distance education was able to reach more teachers more quickly than traditional alternatives. It reached over half of the country's primary school teachers (Moore & Thompson, 1999).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The study was a descriptive survey which was meant to identify the challenges and prospects of the UEW distance education programme. The study specifically sought to identify the major challenges of the UEW distance education programme, find the factors that make the programme acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators of the programme as well as identify the prospects of the programme. Three research questions were posed to direct the study. They were: What are the major challenges of the UEW distance education programme? ; What factors make the UEW distance programme acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators of the programme? ; What are the prospects of the UEW distance education programme?

Literature was also reviewed on issues that related to the subject under study. The review covered issues such as the meaning and features of distance education, theories and philosophies of distance education, challenges of distance education, support services in distance education, prospects of distance education, models of distance education, media used in distance education, organization and management, policy making and control.

The sample for the study was 381 comprising 168 diploma students,

201post-diploma students, 9 tutors/lecturers and 3 study centre coordinators. The stratified and simple random sampling methods were used to select the respondents. With guidelines from Cohen et al (2008), 20% of the respondents were randomly selected from each stratum to ensure fair representation.

Questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect data. To ensure that the questionnaire is reliable, a pilot-test exercise was carried out at the Accra study centre involving 20 respondents. They comprised 6 diploma students, 6 post-diploma students, 7 tutors/lecturers and 1 coordinator. The Cronbach Alpha Reliability Co-efficient for the three research questions stood as .758, .681 and .788 respectively.

Following a successful pilot-testing, questionnaires were sent to the respondents for the main study. With the cooperation of respondents and assistance from colleagues, all 381 questionnaire distributed to the respondents were retrieved indicating 100% return rate.

Reponses to the questions were coded and entered into the SPSS for analysis and interpretation. Percentages and frequencies were used for the analysis and interpretation. Responses to the questions were analysed according to the research questions.

Summary of Findings

The major findings from the study are presented as follows:

1. The findings revealed that majority of the respondents; students (68%), tutors (100%) and coordinators (67%) were not satisfied with the feedback situation at the UEW distance education programme. This may

affect the academic work of students. The results confirm a study by Keegan (1990) in Mongolia which revealed that distance learners do not receive adequate feedback from their instructors.

2. The study revealed that majority of the respondents; students (62%), tutors (89%) and coordinators (100%) expressed worry about inadequate modules at the UEW programme. The results confirm Joshi's (1999) findings in Tanzania on distance learning materials which revealed that distance learning materials were not adequately provided. However, Owusu-Mensah (1998) reports that the University of Namibia provides adequate study materials to its students.
3. The study further revealed that most of the respondents; students (79%), tutors (100%) and coordinators (67%) complained about inadequate support system for distance students and staff. Studies by Owusu-Mensah (1998), Bampo (2008), Owusu-Boateng, Essel and Mensah (2001) in some African countries confirm this.
4. The study discovered that majority of the respondents; students (51%), tutors (89%) and coordinators (67%) acceded to the fact that modules for UEW distance programme are delayed. The results are in contrast with the suggestion by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) (1999) that distance learning materials should be provided on time.
5. The study also brought to light the issue of inadequate motivation of tutors of the UEW distance programme. Most of the respondents; tutors (100%) and coordinators (100%) accepted the fact that tutors are not adequately motivated. Carter (2001) holds the view that the teacher sets

the tone in educational environment and as such needs to be adequately motivated.

6. The study also indicated that majority of the respondents; students (97%), tutors (100%), and coordinators (100%) described the programme as good. The acceptance of the programme as good supports the claim by Oduro (2008) that most distance learners have positive perception about the programme. This is also supported by a study by Sam-Tagoe (2000) which revealed that majority of teachers expressed great satisfaction in distance learning.
7. The findings showed that most respondents; students (54%) and the coordinators (100%) believe the quality of the UEW distance programme is the same as the regular system. However, the tutors (56%) disagreed that the two programmes have the same quality. The agreement by the students and coordinators that UEW distance programme is of the same quality as that of the regular system is in line with the assertion by Koomson (1998) that there is no significant difference in the professional competence between teachers trained by distance and those trained through the regular system. However, a survey by Greenberg (1998) indicates that higher administrators including lecturers view distance education as second to conventional education. Keegan (1991) also reports that many believe distance students perform below their regular counterparts.
8. The study revealed that majority of the respondents; students (78%), tutors (67%) and coordinators (100%) were happy about the quality of

the course structure. The results confirm an evaluation exercise carried out at UEW on the quality of study materials which revealed that study materials were highly commended by distance learners (Adentwi, 2002).

9. The findings also indicated that majority of the respondents; students (81%), tutors (78%) and coordinators (100%) described the face-to-face programme as effective. The findings confirm a study by Quaigrain (2001) which revealed that due to the effectiveness of face-to-face tutorials at the University of Hong Kong, the programme has attracted high patronage. UEW provides face-to-face tutorials at its study centres using lecturers and part-time tutors (Adentwi, 2002).
10. The findings revealed that majority of the respondents; students (97%), tutors (89%) and coordinators (100%) held the view that the UEW distance education enhances student access to university education. The results affirm the notion by Bishop (1986) that distance education provides opportunity to many people to acquire higher education which otherwise would have been difficult.
11. Majority of the respondents; students (96%), tutors (100%) and coordinators (100%) accepted the fact that distance education at UEW will help basic school teachers to acquire higher professional training. The results are in support with the assertion by Musa (2002) that distance education allows professional teachers to upgrade themselves.
12. The study further revealed that a great number of respondents; students (94%), tutors (100%) and coordinators (100%) agreed to the fact that

13. The findings also indicated that most of the respondents; students (89%), tutors (100%) and coordinators (100%) held the view that distance education at UEW will help reduce the pressure on admission at the main campuses. The results are in tune with the opinion of Adentwi (2002) that distance education allows Ghanaian basic school teachers to have easy access to university education.
14. Finally, the study revealed that majority of the respondents; students (92%), tutors (100%) and coordinators (100%) saw the UEW distance education programme as having the potential to attract more teachers to enrol in future. The results confirm the assertion by Keegan (1995) that distance education has the potential to attract many applicants to enrol in future due to factors such as cost, flexibility and access.

Conclusions

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the findings. The study noted inadequate feedback from course tutors, inadequate modules, inadequate support system, delayed modules and inadequate motivation of tutors as the major challenges facing the UEW distance education programme.

Generally, distance learners at UEW accept the programme to be good due to the quality of the programme and the course structure which is

comparable to the regular one. The face-to-face tutorial sessions have also been described as effective.

The UEW distance programme presents certain prospects. These include teacher accessibility to university education thereby reducing pressure on admission, and higher professional training leading to teacher efficiency. Due to the effectiveness of the programme it is expected that more teachers will enrol in future.

Recommendations

Following the research findings and conclusions, the following recommendations have been made:

1. Feedback to students is very crucial in distance education. Authorities of UEW distance programme should therefore ensure that students receive adequate feedback from their course tutors.
2. Modules are the main materials available to the students. These are often inadequate. To facilitate learning, the researcher recommends that adequate modules be supplied to all students and on time. Writers of the modules should be given incentives to produce and distribute the modules on time. Also modules should be given to publishing institutions that have the capacity to produce in large quantities and on schedule.
3. Adequate support system should be provided students and tutors to ensure effective teaching and learning. Lack of support for students can result in their dissatisfactions for distance programmes (Wood,

1996). Some of the support services that need urgent attention include library services, counselling, feedback to students and face-to-face tutorials.

4. Since tutors play a vital role in any educational institution, they need to be motivated. Distance planners at UEW should do well to motivate their tutors so that they will give off their best. In-service training programmes should also be organised for tutors from time to time to enable them upgrade their professional skills.
5. Since most students have described the programme as good, the authorities should make sure that high standards are maintained. The standard at distance education should be the same as the regular. All assessment procedures should be of the same standard as that of the regular system.
6. To maintain high standard at the distance programme, there should be quality course structure, effective organization of face-to-face tutorials and effective monitoring system.
7. Since many teachers see the programme as a means of acquiring higher professional training, UEW should try to improve on its practices to enable it to be more effective. When this is done they will be able to attract and sustain many teachers.
8. The relevance of content for the programme should be of high priority to the authorities. The programme should be such that it will allow distance learners to apply knowledge acquired through the programme to their jobs.

9. Since the programme has the potential to attract more teachers to enrol in future, UEW should be thinking of opening more study centres to ease the pressure on the existing ones.
10. Relevant materials and photocopies to supplement the modules should be made available to students at minimal cost.
11. Though most respondents described the quality of the programme as being the same as the conventional one, the tutors who do the teaching think otherwise. UEW should take the opportunity to find out what factors account for this so that the necessary measures are put in place to maintain the standard expected by all stakeholders.

Suggested Areas for further Research

I suggest that further research should be carried out on the role of ICT in distance education delivery. I also suggest that a study would be conducted to identify the factors that contribute to high attrition at distance education programmes. One critical area of concern as far as distance education is concerned is guidance needs of distance students; I therefore suggest that research is conducted to examine the guidance needs of distance education students.

REFERENCES

Adekanmbi, G. (2004). *The transformation of distance education in Africa*. Retrieved July 15, 2009 from *http://www.col.org/forum/pcfpapers/ Adenkanmbi, pdf.*

Adentwi, K. I. (2002). *Principles and practices and issues in teacher education*. Kumasi: Sky Printing Works.

Adukpo, A. D. (2007). *Distance education in the context of basic teacher education*. An unpublished M.PHIL thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Aguti, J. N. (1995). *Makerere University external degree programme: A dual role approach*: Unpublished MA dissertation. Institute of Education, University of London, London.

Allport, F. H. (1995). *Theories* of *perception and concept of structure*. New York: John Willy and sons Inc.

Amedahe, F. K. (2002). *Notes on educational research*. Unpublished, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (2007). *Management controls for distance education at State agencies and accrediting agencies*. Washington, D. C: U. S. Government Printing Office.

Asabre-Ameyaw, k. (2008, February 12). 15000 teachers leave classroom every year to study. *Daily Graphic* (No. 150279) P. 31.

Baker, T. L. (1994). *Doing social research.* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Bampo, J. (2008). *Students' assessment of facilities and services available for distance teaching and learning in the University of Cape Coast*. An unpublished M.PHIL thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Bates, A. (2005). *Technology learning and distance education*. (2nd ed.).New York: Routledge.

Bates, T. (1993). *Theory and practice in the use of technology in distance education*. London: Routledge.

Bates, T. (1995). *Technology*: *Open learning and distance education*. New York: Routledge.

Bishop, G. (1986). *Innovation in education*. London: MacMillan publishers.

Boachie-Mensah, F. O. (2000). *Essentials of management.* Accra: Woeli Publishers.

Bollag, B. & Overland, M. A. (2001). Developing countries turn to Distance education. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 47* (40), 29-31.

Bredo, E. (1994). Reconstructing educational psychology: situated cognition and Deweyan pragmatism. *Educational Psychology, 29* (1), 23-25.

Brehen, S. C. & Grobler, R. (1997). The instructors' changing role in distance education. *The AmericanJjournal of Distance Education, 4*(2), 21-29.

Carter, A. (2001). Interactive distance education: Implications for the adult learner. *International Journal of Instructional Media, 28* (3), 249-261.

Chivore, C. J. (1993). The future of multimedia: Bridging to virtual worlds. *Educational Technology, 8*(32), 54-60

Chou, P. (1994). *Guide to managing at telecourse/distance learning programme*. Suisun, California: Learning Resource Association.

.Cohen, L, Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2005). *Research methods in education*. (5^{th} ed.). London: Routledge Falm.

Coldeway, D. O., Mac Rury, K. & Spencer, R. (2003). *Distance education from the learner perspective: The results of individual tracking at Athabasca University*. Edmonton: Athabasca University.

Commonwealth of Learning (CoL) (2004). *Defining open and distance learning.* Retrieved April 16, 2008 from *http://www. col.org/ resource /*

Dervarics, C. (2001). Support builds for distance learning. *Community College Week, 14*(1), 3-5.

Dibiase, D. (2001). Is distance education a faustian bargain? *Journal of Geography of Higher Education, 24* (1), 130-136.

Dodd, T. (1991). *The Development of distance education*: *A historical perspective*. India: National Open University Extension College.

Elliot, J. & Kervin, D. (1999). *Adult education research: Issues and directions.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ferguson, L. & Wijekuman, K. (2000). Effective design and use of web-based distance learning environments. *Professional Safety, 45*(12), 28-33.

Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (2000). *How to design and evaluate research in education.* (4^{th} ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Galusha, J. M. (1997). *Barriers to learning in distance education.* Mississippi: University of Southern Mississippi.

Garrison, D. R. (1990). An analysis and evaluation of audio teleconferencing to facilitate education at a distance. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 4*(3), 13-14.

Garrison, D. R. (1993). Critical thinking, cognitive presence, and computer conferencing in distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education, 15*(1), 7-15.

Garrison, D. R. (1994). Theoretical challenges for distance education in the 21st century: A shift from structural to transactional issues. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*. *1*(1), 1-7.

Garrison, D. R. (1997). *Understanding distance education: A framework for the future*. London: Routledge.

Garrison, D. & Shale, D. (1996). Mapping the boundaries of distance education: Problems in defining the field. *The American Journal of Distance Education,1*(1), 7-13.

Gay, R. L. (1992). *Educational research competencies for analysis and application*. (4th ed.). New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.

Government of Ghana (1989). Ministry of Education. Accra: PBME Division.

Government of Ghana (2004). *White paper on the report of the education review committee.* Accra: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports.

Greenberg, G. (1998). Distance education technologies*:* Best practices for K-12 settings. *IEEE Technology and Society Magazine, 2*(5), 36-40.

Hall, Y. (1996). *Distance* learning *strategies examined*. MacMillan Publishing Company.

Harden, D. (1994). Theorising open and distance education.*Open Learning, 6* (2), 3-13.

Harry, S. (1992). *Studying learning: Improved teaching*. London: Kogan Page.

Hellman, D. C. (2003). Learner-interface interation in distance education: An extension of contemporary models and strategies for practitioners. *The American Journal of Distance Education, 8*(2), 30-42.

Holmberg, B. (1990). Looking at distance education through an educational technologist's eyes. *The America Journal of Distance Education, 4*(1), 53-67.

Holmberg, B. (1993). *Key issues in distance education: An academic viewpoint*. London: Routledge.

Holmberg, B. (1995*). Theory and practice of distance education*. London: Routledge.

Holmberg, B. (2001). *Distance education in essence*. Oldenburg: Bibliotheks.

Holmberg, B. (2002). *Theoretical foundations of distance education.* London: Routledge.

Holmberg, B. (2004). *Growth and structure of distance education*. London: Croom Helm.

Horton, W. (1994). *How we communicate*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Rocky Mountain Chapter of the Society for Technical Communication. Denver, Co.

Institute for Educational Development and Extension (IEDE) (2007). *BED degree in basic education by distance*, students' handbook. Winneba: IEDE.

Jackman, D. (1994). Alternative instructional models for IVN delivery (Vol. 1). Fargo: North Dakota State University, *Central Duplicating Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(44), 661-679.

Johnston, S. G. (1997). *Virtual culture: Identity and communication in cybersociety*. London: Kogan page.

Joshi, I. (1999). *Scenario of distance education in African countries*: *Case Studies*. Retrieved December 15, 2008 from *http://www.orbicom. uquan.ca/infocus/columns/en/archies/1999aout.*

Keegan, D. (1990). *Foundations of distance education*. London: Routledge.

Keegan, D. (1991). *Foundations of distance education*. (3rd ed.). London: Routledge.

Keegan, D. (1995). Recent contributions to the theory of distance education. *Open Learning*,*5*(3), 10-15.

Keegan, D. (1996). Problems in defining the field of distance education. The *American Journal of Distance Education*, *2*(2), 4-11.

Kinnaman, D. (1995). The future of distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education, 15*(4), 6-11.

Koomson, A. K. (1998). Distance education as a strategy for training teachers in Ghana: Problems and prospects. *Journal of the Institute of Education, 4*(1), 59-68.

Kwapong, O. A. T .F. (2007). Widening access to tertiary education for women in Ghana through distance education. *Turkish on line Journal of Distance Education, 8*(4), 1302-6481.

Lewis, R. (2002). The Hybridisation of conventional higher education.UK: RetrievedJuly1,2008from *http://www.irrodl.org/content/v2.2/lewis.pdf*.

Ljosa, E. (1993). *Understanding distance education*. In Keegan, D. (Ed.). Theoretical principles of distance education. London: Routledge.

Lucia, M. D. (2005). *An evaluation of student support services in open and distance learning at the University of Namibia*. Namibia: University of Namibia.

Magagula, C. M. & Nguenya, S. (2004). Distance education in Sub-Sahara Africa. Retreived November 8, 2009 from *http:// www2.ncsu.edu.*

Marrs, L. (1995). *An analysis of distance education and educational technology.* Washington: Western Washington University.

Mark, M. S. (1991). Problems affecting evaluation of distance education in developing countries. *Research in Distance Education, 2*(3), 12-16.

Mensah, J. & Owusu-Mensah, F. (2002). Towards a theory of independent learning and teaching. *Journal of Education, 5*(214), 661-679.

Mireku-Gyimah, P. B. (1998). *Distance education in the context of tertiary level education in Ghana universities.* An unpublished M.PHIL thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Moore, M. & Kearsley, G. (1996). *Distance education: A systems view.* Belmont: Wadsworth.

Moore, M. G. & Thompson, M. K. (1999). *Studying learning: Improved teaching.* London: Kogan page.

Mullins, L. G. (2007). *Management and organisational behaviour*. (8th ed.). Edinburg Gate: Financial Times Pitman Publishing Imprint.

Murphy, K. L. (1991). *Socio-cultural context of interaction in Turkish distance learning: Implication for distance education teaching*. University of Oklahoma: Oklahoma Research Centre.

Musa, A. (2002). *The prospects and problems of providing distance education programme for professional teachers in the Wa District.* An unpublished M.PHIL thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

New Zealand (2003). Methodological issues in the content analysis of computer conference transcripts. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education, 7*(12), 8-22.

Nsowah-Nuamah, N. N. N. (2005). *Basic statistics*. Accra: ACADEC press.

Oaks, M. (1996). *Western cooperative for educational telecommunications*, Washington State University. Retrieved October 7, 2009 from *http://www.wiche.educ/telecom/tech wasu.htm*

Oduro, G. K. T. (2008). *Coping with the challenging of quality basic education*: *The missing ingredient*, in Amenumey (Ed.), Challenges of education in Ghana in the 21st century. Accra: Woeli publishers.

Oliveria, A. (1998). Making distance education more efficient. *ICDE Bulletin, 4*(18), 18-20.

Omoregie, M. (1997). Distance learning: An effective education delivery system. *Eric Document Reproduction Service*, NO ED 418683.

Open Polytecnic of New Zealand (2003). Problems affecting evaluation of distance education in developing countries. *Research in Distance Education, 2*(3), 12-16.

Osuala, E. C. (1991). *Introduction to research methodology*. Onitsha: Africa FEP publishers.

Owusu-Boateng, W. Essel, R. & Mensah, J. (2001). *Using DL to address the educational need of the Ghanaian basic school teachers.* Kumasi: Institute of Distance Learning, KNUST.

Owusu-Mensah, F. (1998). *The provision of student support services in distance education in three different contexts: Implication for University College of Education, Winneba*. An unpublished MA dissertation, University of London, London.

Pallof, R. & Pratt, k. (2000). Making the transition: Helping teachers to reach on-line. *Eric Document Reproduction Service*, NO ED 452806.

Paul, R. (1990). *Open learning and open management: Leadership and integrity in distance education.* London: Kogan Page.

Perraton, H. (1991). *Training teachers at a distance*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Perraton, H. (1992). The neglected resources in distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, *6*(3), 5-21.

Perraton, H. (1998). *A Theory for distance education*. New York: Routledge.

Perraton, H. (2000). Rethinking the research agenda. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, *1*(1), 21-29.

Peters, O. (1998). *Learning and Teaching in Distance Education*. London: Kogan page.

Phelps, R. H. (1999). Is anyone making money on distance education? *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *8*(10), 41-47.

Phelps, R. H. (1991). Effectiveness and costs of distance education using computer-mediated communication. *American Journal of Distance Education, 5* (3), 7-9.

Porter, D. (1994). New directions in distance learning. *Journal of Distance Education,7* (4), 8-12.

Prawat, R. & Floden, R. E. (1994). Philosophical perspectives on constructivist views of learning. *Educational Psychology, 29* (1), 33- 48.

Prymus, M. S. (2004). Distance education opportunities for women. *International Council for Distance Education, 22*(1), 7-29.

Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) (1999). *Distance learning guidelines*. Retrieved July 5, 2008 from *http//www.qaa.ac.uk*

Quaigrain, K.A. (1994). An assessment of training needs in the use of distance education. *International Journal of Telecommunications,1*(1),5-22.

Quaigrain, K. A. (2001). Expanding teacher education through distance in Ghana: Prospects and challenges. *Journal of Educational Development, 6(*1), 75-82.

Ravhudzuho, C. M. (2000). NADEOSA conference papers. Retrieved may 6, 2009 from *http*// *www.2.ncsu.edu*.

Rekkedal, T. (1994). *Distance education in Norway*. New York: Englewood Libraries.

Rose, A. (1995). Expanding the potential of distance education. *Adults Learning, 7* (1) 5-8.

Rowntree, D. (1992). *Exploring open and distance learning*. London: Kogan page.

Rowntree, D. (1999). *Ethical considerations in distance education*. London: Kogan page.

Rumble, G. (1986). *The Planning and management of distance education*. London: Croom Helm.

Rumble, G. (1992). *The* management *of distance learning systems*. Paris: IIEP.

SAIDE (1996). *Staff development needs of distance education and computer-based education*. London: Croom Helm.

Saint, W. (1999). *Tertiary distance education and technology in Sub-Saharan Africa.* Washington D. C: World Bank, Working Group on Higher Education, Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA).

Sam-Tagoe, J. (2000). *Teachers' perception and needs of distance education programming in Ghana*. An unpublished M.PHIL thesis, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social research.* (3rd ed.). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Savoye, C. (2002). Distance learning with a twist real campuses. *Christian Science Monitor, 24* (1), 15-21.

Scardamalia, M. & Bereiter, C. (1994). Computer support for knowledge-building communities. *Journal of the Learning of Sciences, 3*(3), 265-283.

Schlosser, C. A. & Anderson, M. L. (1993). Distance education: A review of the literature. Washington D.C. Association for Educational Communications and Technology. *Eric Document Production Service,* NO ED 382159.

Seamans, M. C. (1990). *New perspectives on user-centred design*. Presentation at the Interchange Technical Writing Conference. Lowell: University of Lowell.

Shale, D. (1990). *The distance teaching Universities*. London: Croom Hell.

Sheets, L. (1992). Issues in distance learning. *International Journal of Educational Telecommunications, 1*(4), 337-365.

Simpson, O. (2000). *Supporting students in open distance learning*. London: Kogan page.

Sweet, M. (1996). Designing learner feedback in distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 1(3), 24-40.

Tait, A. (1995). *Student support in open and distance education.*London: Routledge.

Talab, R. S. & Newhouse, B. (1993). *Self-efficacy, performance variables and distance learning facilitator technology adoption: Support for the needs hierarchy*. New Orleans: Research and Theory Division.

Taylor, J. (2001). *Distance education technologies. New millennium distance education.* Retrieved December 9, 2009 from *http://www.users/taylor /publicationspresentations/2001 GNOV.doc.2004.*

Taylor, J. (2002). *Distance education technologies. Automating e-learning: The higher education revolution.* Retrieved June 15, 2008 from *http://www.backkingaustraliasfuture.gov.*

Threlkeld, R. & Brezoska, K. (1994). *Research in distance education.* Englewood Cliffs: Educational Technology Publications.

UNESCO (2001). *Teacher education through distance learning: Technology, curriculum, evaluation, cost.* Paris: Education Sector, Higher Education Division, Teacher Education Sector.

UNESCO (2002). *Strategic Framework for Sub-Saharan Africa, in the area of teacher and secondary education through open and distance learning.* Paris: UNESCO.

U. S. Congress Office of Technology Assessment. (1998). *Power on! New tools for teaching learning.* Washington D. C: US Government Printing Office.

U. S. Congress. (1989). *An assessment of training needs in the use of distance education for instruction*. Washington DC: US Government Printing Office.

Vander Ven, K. (1994). *Viewpoint: The power and paradox of distance education. The on-line chronicle of distance education and communication.* Retrieved May 3, 2010 from *http://usenet news group alt*.

Verduin, J. R., & Clark, T. A. (1991). *Distance education: The Foundations of Effective Practice Educational Psychology, 29* (1), 33-48.

Weber, J. (1996). The compressed video experience. Paper presented at summer conference of the association of small computer users. North Myrtle Beach, South Carolina. *Eric Document Production Service*, NO ED 40583.

Willis, B. (1993). Strategies for teaching at a distance. *ERIC Document Reproduction Service*, NO. ED 351008.

Wolfe, L. (1994). *The digital co-op: Trends in the virtual community*. Paper presented at the writers technology and equipment.Vancouver, B. C.: The University of British Columbia Continuing Studies.

Wood, H. (1996). *Designing study materials for distance students*. Retrieved March 5, 2008, from *http:www.csu.educ.an/division/oli-rd/occparp/7/ design.htm.*

Wright, S. J. (1991). *Research on selected aspects of learner support in distance education programming: A review of selected papers (part 1).* The Second American Symposium on Research in Distance Education, Pennsylvania State University. (pp 59-71).

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESPONDENTS

The University of Education (UEW) uses distance education as a strategy to complement its conventional system of tertiary education. This questionnaire is an attempt to examine the UEW's distance education programme in relation to challenges facing the programme, factors that make the students, tutors/lectures accept the programme and the prospects of the programme. To help UEW plan its programme well to achieve the intended goals, you are kindly requested to respond to this questionnaire. You are assured of **confidentiality** and **anonymity** as you fill this questionnaire (NB, the questionnaire has **4 pages**). Thank you.

PART 1

Personal Background Information

Please respond by ticking the appropriate box. For example [✓]

1. **Category of respondents**

   Student [ ]

   Tutor/Lecturer [ ]

   Coordinator [ ]

2. **Gender**

   Male [ ]

   Female [ ]

3. Academic and/or professional qualification

PhD [ ]

MPhil [ ]

MA/MED/MSc. [ ]

1st Degree [ ]

Diploma [ ]

Others (please specify)……

4. Teaching experience

1 – 4 years [ ]

5 – 9 years [ ]

10 – 14 years [ ]

15 – 19years [ ]

20 – 24 years [ ]

Above 24 years [ ]

PART 2

What are the major challenges facing the UEW Distance Education Programme?

This part of the questionnaire is to solicit information on the major challenges facing the UEW distance education programme. Please tick only one column in the following categories for each statement.

SA = Strongly Agree: A = Agree: D = Disagree: SD = Strongly Disagree: Not Sure. =NS

Major challenges facing the UEW distance education programme include:	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**	**NS**
1. Inadequate feedback and contact with tutors/lecturers.					
2. Inadequate provision of modules.					
3. Poor quality of modules.					
4. Inadequate student-support system (example, counselling, internet, library facilities).					
5. Inadequate tutorial sessions (Face-to-face meetings).					
6. Students are not comfortable with the method of teaching used.					
7. Feeling of insecurity due to poor tutor/lecturer-student relation.					
8. Students/Tutors/lecturers do not receive modules on time.					
9. Inadequate In-service training for tutors and coordinators.					
10. There are inadequate qualified tutors/lecturers.					
18. Inadequate motivation for tutors/lecturers.					
19. The programme does not meet students' expectation.					

PART 3

What are the Factors that make the UEW Distance Education Programme Acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators?

This section of the questionnaire seeks to gather information on the factors that make the programme acceptable to the students, tutors/lecturers and coordinators. Please tick only one column in the following categories for each statement.

SA = Strongly Agree: A = Agree: D = Disagree: SD = Strongly Disagree

Factors that make the UEW distance education programme accepted by you include the following:	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**	**NS**
20. The UEW distance education programme is good.					
21. The UEW distance education programme is designed to meet students' needs.					
22. The quality of the UEW distance programme is the same as the regular (campus) system of tertiary education.					
23. There is quality course structure.					
24. The face-to-face instruction of the programme is effective.					

PART 4

What are the Prospects of the UEW Distance Education Programme?

This section will gather information on the prospects of the UEW distance education programme. Please tick only one column in the following categories for each statement.

SA = Strongly Agree: A = Agree: D = Disagree: SD = Strongly Disagree

Prospects of the UEW distance education programme include:	**SA**	**A**	**D**	**SD**	**NS**
25. The UEW distance education programme increases teacher accessibility to university education.					
26. The UEW distance education programme enables teachers to acquire higher professional training whiles on their jobs.					
27. The UEW distance education programme increases the efficiency of teachers as they get the chance to learn more skills through the programme.					
28. The UEW distance education programme will reduce the number of prospective students who are refused admission into tertiary institutions every year.					
29. The UEW distance education programme has the potential to attract more teachers to enrol in future.					

Thank you for your time and cooperation