SELF REGULATION AND CULTURAL ORIENTATION ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS ON DISTANCE EDUCATION IN KAMPALA, UGANDA

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By:

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DECLARATION A

"This dissertation is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or any other academic award in any university or institution of learning".

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Name and Signature of Candidate

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Date

i

DECLARATION B

"We confirm that the work reported in this dissertation was carried out by the candidate under our supervision".

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ABSTRACT

Correlated in this study were the variables of self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement of university students on distance education in Kampala, Uganda with these aspects sought for in the specific objectives: (1) socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents in terms of gender, age, nationality, religion, course of study and present course enrolled in; (2) extent of self regulation; (3) degree of cultural orientation; (4) level of academic achievement; (5) significant differences in the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement between gender, among nationalities, and between type of university the students were enrolled in; (6) significant correlations between the level of academic achievement and gender, among nationalities and between the type of university; between the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation on the level of academic achievement. The study employed the ex post facto, descriptive comparative and descriptive correlation designs. The major findings were as follows: in terms of socio-demographic characteristics, 54.8% were male; 90.6% belonged to the early adulthood stage of life (20-39 years); 52.5% were Ugandans; 37.7% were enrolled in Social Sciences; 50.3% were Catholics and 57.2% were enrolled in the private university understudy. The extent of self regulation was satisfactory (mean=2.97); while the degree of cultural orientation was also satisfactory (mean=2.94); the level of academic achievement was above average/good (35.1%). On significant differences, there was no significant difference in the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement between gender, type of university and among nationalities thus the null hypotheses were accepted; there was a significant correlation between the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation on the level of academic achievement, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. In conclusion, the culture fit theory of Kanungo and Jaerger (1990) and Aisha (2007) were validated and proven true through the findings of this study while self regulation and cultural orientation were proven predictors to academic achievement. The recommendations based on the findings of this study addressed to the institutions understudy, to the distance learners and distance education facilitators were in these areas: proactive stance on gender sensitivity, managing cross cultural variations; enhancing learner's autonomy, cultural orientation and academic achievement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE
THE PROBLEM AND ITS SCOPE

Background of the Study

Distance education or distance learning is a field of education that focuses on teaching methods and technology with the aim of delivering teaching, often on an individual basis, to students who are not physically present in a traditional educational setting such as a classroom. It has been described as a process to create and provide access to learning when the source of information and the learners are separated by time and distance or both (Honeyman and Miller, 1993). However, there are also distance education courses that require physical on-site presence for any reason (including taking examinations) and such courses or such type of distance education courses have been referred to as hybrid (Tabor, 2007) or blended (Vaughan, 2010) courses of study.

Distance education dates as early as 1728 when an advertisement in the Boston Gazette, named Caleb Phillips, teacher of the new method of short hand was seeking students for lessons to be sent weekly (Holmberg, 2005). Modern distance education initially relied on the development of postal services in the 19th century and had been practiced at least since Isaac Pitman taught shorthand in Great Britain via correspondence in the 1840's (Moore and Greg, 2005). The University of London claims to be the first University to offer distance learning degrees, establishing its External Programme in 1858. This program is now known as the University of London International Programmes and includes postgraduate, undergraduate and diploma degrees created by colleges such as the London School of Economics, Royal Holloway and Goldsmiths. In the United States, William Rainey Harper, first president of the University of Chicago, developed the concept of extended education whereby the Research University had satellite colleges of education in the wider community and in 1892 he also encouraged the concept of correspondence school courses to further promote education, an idea that was put into practice by Columbia University (Levinson,

2005). In Australia, the University of Queensland established its department of correspondence studies in 1911 (White, 1982).

More recently, Charles Wedemeyer of the University of Wisconsin-Madison is considered significant in promoting methods other than the postal service to deliver distance education in America. From 1964 to 1968, the Carnegie Foundation funded Wedemeyer's Articulated Instructional Media Project (AIM) which brought in a variety of communications technologies aimed at providing learning to an off-campus population. According to Moore's recounting, AIM impressed the UK which imported these ideas when establishing in 1969 the Open University, which initially relied on radio and television broadcasts for much of its delivery (Moore and Greg, 2005). Athabasca University, Canada's Open University, was created in 1970 and followed a similar, though independently developed pattern (Byrne, 1989). Germany's Fern Universitat in Hagen followed in 1974, and there are now many similar institutes around the world, often with the name Open University (in English or in the local language). All open universities use distance education technologies as delivery methodologies and some have grown to become mega-universities (Daniel, 1998), a term coined to denote institutions with more than 100,000 students. Some institutions have established colleges with in themselves that specifically deal with distance study programs. There is even a college, for example in Kampala International University known as College of Open and Distance Learning (CODL), which was initially known as Institute of Open and Distance Learning (IODL). It is an example of such colleges of distance learning, created within the institution of Kampala International University.

The development of computers and the internet have made distance learning distribution easier and faster and have given rise to the Virtual University, the entire educational offerings of which are conducted on line (Gold and Maitland, 1999). In 1996, Jones International University was launched and claims to be the first fully on line university accredited by a regional accrediting association in the US. In 2006, the Sloan Consortium, a body which arguably has

a conflict of interest in the matter, reported that: "more than 96 percent of the very largest institutions (more than 15,000 total enrollments) have some online offerings, which is more than double the rate observed for the smallest institutions" and that almost 3.2 million US students were taking at least one online course during the fall term of 2005 (Allen and Seaman, 2006). A study published in 2011 by the U.S Department of Education found that from 2000 to 2008, the percentage of undergraduates enrolled in at least one distance education class expanded from 8 percent to 20 percent and the percentage enrolled in a distance education degree program increased from 2 percent to 4 percent.

Today, there are many private and public non-profit and for profit institutions world wide, (in this case in Uganda), offering distance education courses from the most basic instruction through to the highest levels of degree and doctoral programs. Levels of accreditation vary. Some of the institutions receive little outside over sight, and some may be fraudulent diploma mills, although on many jurisdictions, an institution may use terms such as: *university* without accreditation and authorization, often overseen by the national government, for example: the Quality Assurance Agency in the UK (degree awarding powers and university title, 2011). In Uganda, the accreditation and authorization is done by the Uganda National Council for Higher Education (UNCHE, 2010). In the US, the Distance Education and Training Council (DETC) specializes in the accreditation of distance education institutions.

To date, there are universities in Uganda offering distance studies. In this study, the selected universities involved are Kyambogo University (public) and Kampala International University (private).

Statement of the Problem

Academic achievement is the major, if not the most important reason why students choose to take up academic programs of what so ever kind. Distance

learning students choose distance education because they want to achieve academically at their own pace (Kanungo and Jaerger, 1990).

However, there is always a problem when it comes to the performance of distance learning students. Their performance is often not at par with fulltime-on campus students. Aisha (2007) concretizes this statement. She asserts that distance learning students often are victims of poor performance as compared to the fulltime students. This is very dangerous, and not a desired effect. Good performance should be achieved by distance learning students, just like the full time students because the major essence of going to school is to achieve academically and attain a professional qualification among other reasons.

Several studies have been carried on how to improve the performance of distance learning students. For example Young (1996), Candy (1990), Schunk (2005), Aisha (2007), and Garrison (1997) have all done studies on this cause. How ever, these studies have been carried out on distance learning students mainly in Europe, America and Asia, neglecting Africa. Many of them have looked at self regulation as one of the ways of improving performance of distance learning students. But there is need to establish this aspect in Africa, in Uganda, and Kampala in particular. Therefore, this study was intended to establish how self regulation and cultural orientation can affect the academic performance of distance learning students in selected universities in Kampala, Uganda.

Cross-cultural variations are slightly addressed in the distance education literature. The majority of the available literature is theoretical and lacks empirical research. With the expansion of distance education through information technology, the body of learners is becoming more diverse and multiple cultural contexts are involved, yet not represented or even fully understood. The process of learning at a distance appears to be very similar for many learners around the world. It is minimally viewed as a function of the distance education system which stresses self-directed learning and learner autonomy by moving the bulk of the responsibility for learning to the learner.

However, not all learners are able or willing to handle this burden, which results in dropping out from the system, or silently struggling to regulate one's learning process (Aisha, 2007).

This may be more so when cultural views of learning are in direct conflict with the philosophical assumptions made by instructors and instructional designers regarding learners' autonomy and personal control of learning. Learning at a distance cannot be entirely autonomous (Candy, 1990). What students will learn is largely pre-determined by social agents represented in distance teaching institutions. Even in their absence, teachers play the role of social agents by organizing and designing students learning and consequently affecting student cognitive processing. Self learners only appear to be alone while in fact their thinking is determined by many diverse social inputs and with additionally socially mediated help not far away it is needed (Pressley, 1995). There is a need to understand learner self regulation in distance education environment with in a cultural context. There is an obvious need for cultural fit between the organization and design of distance education and learners socio-cultural beliefs to minimize learners' opportunity for success in this system.

Learning process cannot be conceptualized without the socio-cultural context. Bandura (2001) believes that individuals are producers as well as products of the social system. Their internal mechanisms are orchestrated by environmental events and organized through their active efforts to coordinate their behaviors with the dominant cultural systems of practice (Kitayama, 2002).

Purposes of the Study

This study was conducted in view of the following reasons: (1) to test the null hypotheses of no significant differences and no significant correlations between the independent and dependent variables to be investigated (2) to bridge the gaps identified in the previous related literature and studies; (3) to validate the culture fit theory of Kanungo and Jaerger (1990) and (4) to generate

5

new knowledge from the existing body of information on self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement of university distance learners.

Research Objectives

General: This empirical investigation correlated self regulation and cultural orientation on the academic achievement of university students on distance education in Kampala, Uganda.

Specific: This study sought to

1. identify the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents as to age, gender, nationality, religion and present course enrolled in.

2. determine the extent of self regulation of the university students in distance education in these metacognitive aspects:

   2.1   planning

   2.2   self checking

   2.3   effort

   2.4   self efficacy

   2.5   help seeking

   2.6   time and study environment management

3. determine the degree of cultural orientation of the students in the following constructs;

   3.1   time (future time orientation)

   3.2   structure (uncertainty avoidance)

   3.3   authority (power distance)

   3.4   relation (interdependence)

4. determine the level of academic achievement of the university students under study.

5. determine if there were significant differences in the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement

   5.1   between male and female students

5.2   among nationalities

5.3   between public and private university students under study

6. establish if there were significant correlations

    6.1   between the level of academic achievement and gender, nationality and university type

    6.2   between the extent of self regulation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study

    6.3   between the degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What were the socio- demographic characteristics of the respondents as to age, gender, nationality, religion and present course enrolled in?

2. What was the extent of self regulation of the university students on distance education in these metacognitive aspects:

    2.1   planning?

    2.2   self checking?

    2.3   effort?

    2.4   self efficacy?

    2.5   help seeking?

    2.6   time and study environment management?

3. What was the degree of cultural orientation of the students in the following constructs:

    3.1   time (future time orientation)?

    3.2   structure (uncertainty avoidance)?

    3.3   authority (power distance)?

    3.4   relation (interdependence)?

4. What was the level of academic achievement of the university students under study?

5. Were there significant differences in the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement

    5.1   between male and female students?

    5.2   among nationalities?

    5.3   between public and private university students under study?

6. Were there significant correlations

    6.1   between the level of academic achievement and gender, nationality and university type?

    6.2   between the extent of self regulation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study?

    6.3   between the degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study?

Null Hypotheses (Ho)

Ho#1: There were no significant differences in the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement

    1.1 between male and female students

    1.2 among nationalities

    1.3 between public and private university students under study

Ho#2: There were no significant correlations

    2.1 between the level of academic achievement and gender, nationality and university type

    2.2 between the extent of self regulation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study

    2.3 between the degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study

Scope

Geographical Scope

The study was conducted in selected public and private universities in Kampala, Uganda offering distance education. The public university considered was Kyambogo, and the private university considered was Kampala International University.

Content Scope

The study delved further into the demographic characteristics of the respondents, various dimensions on the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement of distance education students; the significant differences in terms of the main variables in this study considering gender, nationalities and type of university where the respondents are (private or public), cause and effect relationship between the independent variables (self regulation, cultural orientation) and dependent variable (academic achievement).

Theoretical Scope

This investigation was anchored on the cultural fit theory of Kanungo and Jaerger (1990) and its elaboration by Aisha (2007) which conceptualizes the general cultural environment as exogenous/independent variables that directly predict learner self regulated learning and indirectly predict learners' academic achievement through course flexibility and interaction.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are of benefit to the researcher himself, the distance education learners, their educators/facilitators, the instructional designers, the National Council for Higher Education of Uganda and future researchers.

For the **researcher** who is an educator on distance learning and **distance learning facilitators,** the empirical evidences on self regulation,

cultural orientation and students' achievement serve as a twin goal of providing both theoretical understudy of learning and practical information for designing better educational environments to support distance learners.

Self regulation and cultural orientation brings about the realization in its profound impact on the learners' struggle to attain a professional qualification. The findings of this study will shed light on the **learners** on how they can succeed in the distance learning mode maximizing their positive self regulation and cultural orientation.

Understanding cross-cultural issues in distance education provides another practically valued input for **instructional designers of the universities under study** in developing effective distance education programmes. While the **National Council for Higher Education of Uganda** as the movers of quality teaching in higher institutions of learning will recognize the performance of the universities offering distance learning in view of the academic achievements of the distance learners.

The **future researchers** will utilize the findings of this study to embark on a related study.

Operational Definitions of Key Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined as they were used in the study:

Socio-Demographic characteristics of the respondents referred to the profile of the respondents in terms of age, gender, nationality; course enrolled in and level of education presently enrolled.

Self regulation referred to the distance students' own generated thoughts, feelings and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals. The defining characteristic of self regulated learners in that, they display personal initiative, perseverance and adaptive skills in pursuing their learning so that mental abilities are transformed into task related academic skills. Therefore, self-regulated learning (SRL) is an

interaction between cognition (thoughts), motivation (feelings) and behavior (actions) and context. It is a multi-faceted phenomenon consisting of four constructs in this study: planning, self checking, effort, self efficacy, help seeking, time and study environment management.

Cultural orientation was a distinctive acquired pattern of relating to the environment, thought, action and value of the distance learner. In this study, the cultural orientation is measured in terms of time (future time orientation), structure (uncertainty avoidance), authority (power distance), and relation (interdependence).

Academic achievement referred to the successful accomplishment of the academic program of the distance learner determined in this study through a performance indicator such as grade point average on the current distance learning courses.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Concepts, Opinions, Ideas from Authors/ Experts

Self Regulation/Self Regulated Learning

Garrison (1997) criticizes the literature of self directed learning in adult education because it nearly focuses on external management (task control) of the learning process, but lacks a more comprehensive model by additionally including the cognitive (cognitive responsibility) and psychological (motivational) dimensions. For better understanding of the last two dimensions, he suggested referring to the psychological literature on self regulation. The concept of self-regulation grew out of cognitive psychology where as learner autonomy and self directed learning were established in adult education and humanistic psychology (Garrison, 1997). In fact, self regulation was the result of the interest of learning and motivational researchers in self directed learning (Ridely, Schutz and Glanz, 1992).

The simplest definition of self-regulation is exercising control over oneself to bring the self in line with preferred standards. Also,the term self-regulated (process of taking control of and evaluating one's own learning and behavior) can be used to describe learning that is guided by metacognition (thinking about one's thinking), *strategic action* (planning, monitoring, and evaluating personal progress against a standard), and *motivation to learn* (Butler and Winne, 1995; Winne and Perry, 2000; Perry, Phillips, and Hutchinson, 2006; Zimmerman, 1990; Boekaerts and Corno, 2005). Self-regulated learning (SRL) as the three words imply, emphasizes autonomy and control by the individual who monitors, directs, and regulates actions toward goals of information acquisition, expanding expertise and self-improvement (Paris and Paris 2001). In particular, self-regulated learners are cognizant of their academic strengths and weaknesses, and they have a repertoire of strategies they appropriately apply to tackle the day-to-day challenges of academic tasks. These learners hold incremental beliefs about intelligence (as opposed to entity, or fixed views of intelligence) and

attribute their successes or failures to factors (e.g., effort expended on a task, effective use of strategies) within their control (Dweck and Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 2002).

Students who are self-regulated learners believe that opportunities to take on challenging tasks, practice their learning, develop a deep understanding of subject matter, and exert effort will give rise to academic success (Perry et al., 2006). In part, these characteristics may help to explain why self-regulated learners usually exhibit a high sense of self-efficacy (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). In the educational psychology literature, researchers have linked these characteristics to success in and beyond school (Corno, et al., 2002; Pintrich, 2000; Winne and Perry, 2000). Self regulated learners are successful because they control their learning environment. They exert this control by directing and regulating their own actions toward their learning goals. Self regulated learning should be used in three different phases of learning. The first phase is during the initial learning, the second phase is when troubleshooting a problem encountered during learning and the third phase is when they are trying to teach others (Palincsar and Brown, 1984).

In Psychology, regulation is not only of the self but also by the self (Vohs and Baumeister, 2004). Self regulation involves overriding responses that might occur as a result of habit, learning, inclination or innate tendencies. It reflects an effort to alter ones response, so that responses higher in hierarchy have enough strength to override lower tendencies and impulses. This has been and still is a vital aspect of human adaptations to life (Baumeister, Heatherton and Tice, 1994).

Although early work on self regulation was therapeutic in nature as it was used to alter dysfunctional behavior, self regulation principles are applied today to learning (Schunck, 2005). Zimmerman and Schunk (2001) identify seven theoretical perspectives to view self regulated learning (SRL): Operant, phenomenological, information processing, social cognitive, volitional, vygotskian, and cognitive and constructivist. They differ in their views on

motivation to self regulate, self awareness, key self regulation processes, and the role of the social and physical environment and process in acquiring self regulation. Information processing and social cognitive perspectives prove significant input for this study. The first can be used to address issues in instructional design while the second is helpful to address social and cultural issues in the learner environment.

Within the above perspective, self regulation basically refers to developing a recursive feedback loop in electronic computing to indicate the discrepancy between learner performance outcomes in comparison with certain standards. Self regulation is a continuous cycle of control and monitoring. It is judged by the learner ability to retrieve information. A number of strategies can be used to transform information into more readily, useable forms even as chunking bits of information into larger unit, creating schemas to sort incoming information, and creating if then strategies and tactics (Zimmerman and Schunk, 2001).

According to Nolen-Hoeksema and Corte (2004), previous research has shown that there are some areas where gender differences in self regulation strategies are clear. One is in the styles of copying with negative emotions. Studies suggest that women are more likely to take a passive stance toward negative emotions, ruminating about them; this is associated with higher rates of depression. On the other hand; men have been shown to be more likely to use, and abuse alcohol. In the self regulation of health behaviors, important sex differences are evident in several ways. Gender was one of a number of factors contributing to the prediction of adherence to asthma treatment, with females more likely to adhere (Jessop and Rutter, 2003). In a study of patients' self regulation in managing hypertension, some similarities, but significant sex differences were noted; men's efforts were more closely related to perceived control and chance of success; women's efforts were more related to the expectations of significant others (Taylor, Bagozzi and Gaither, 2001).With regard to self regulation strategies used in recovering from illness in general,

14

there were significant gender differences reported in the use of most of the strategies examined (Massey, 1991).

Mixed results have been found with regard to sex differences in other aspects of self regulation .Sex is one of many factors associated with differences in the self regulation of driving habits (Lesikar, 2000). Males report more risky driving behaviors and seem to be more present oriented; females tend to be more future oriented in this area (Zimbardo, Keough and Boyd, 1997). However, in studies of athlete's use of self regulation strategies in competitive swimming, there were few significant sex differences found. The marked differences that were found were between elite and non elite athletes and only minor strategy differences were some times evident between males and females (Anshel and Porter, 1996).

In academic achievement among children and adolescents, girls were found to have more confidence in their ability to self regulate in learning tasks (although this was found to be associated more with feminine gender role than with biological sex) ;(Pajares and Valiante, 2002). In a study of self regulated learning in high school students, girls were shown to have greater knowledge about the role of thinking in self-regulation of learning, to use more metacognitive and other strategies, to be more intrinsically motivated, and to express more feelings related to learning (Peklaj and Pecjak, 2002). In a similar study of self regulation of learning among college freshmen, however, males and females were found to be more alike than they were different (Minnaert, 1999). Possibly, the differences found in young individuals are developmental in nature and wash out in young adulthood. In the Minnaert (1999) study, one exception was a sex difference found in the tendency to avoid failure for females; high fear of failure was linked to deficits in regulatory activities (Minnaert, 1999).

Kurman (2001) reviewed studies related to sex differences in achievement areas more generally. According to this review, there is evidence to suggest that women tend to have lower expectations of success in achievement areas, which influences goal setting. Also, women may often prefer easier tasks, compared to

15

men, although this may only apply to masculine type tasks. In addition, Kurman (2001) reports that women respond differently to the feed back, and use different criteria in studying their own success. However, Kurman points out that many of these studies were conducted in western universities, and that the results may not be reflective of people, especially women, everywhere. In Kurman's own cross-cultural study, cultural differences in self regulation were greater than gender differences, and culture and gender interacted in some ways.

Not only cognition determines self-regulation to learners. Environmental and behavioral event have an important influence on learning as well. Learner self-regulation is influenced by learner-self efficacy and outcome and goal expectation. There fore, it covers three areas: metacognition (thoughts), motivation (feelings) and behavior (actions) (Zimmerman, 2001). Bandura (1991) identifies three processes of academic self regulation: self monitoring, self judgment and self-reflection. Self monitoring provides information for setting realistic goals and evaluating one's progress. It serves as a diagnostic and self-motivating function. Self judgment provides the basic for self reaction through judging ones' progress against personal and collective standards. Self reaction creates self-incentives for ones' anticipated effective reaction to ones' own behavior and internal standards. Zimmerman and Schunck (2001) provide another way to view the interactive SRL processes through a three-phase cyclical model, which consists of forethought, performance and self reflection. Each phase leads to the next one.

Recently, based on psychological analysis of academic learning through his work and others including Bandura, Zimmerman and Schunck, Pintrich (2004) suggests a more comprehensive conceptual frame work for future research of self regulation. It provides a blueprint for future development of assessment instruments of self regulation strategies, some of which can already be measured by the Motivational Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSQL).

16

Phases of Self Regulation

Pintrich explains that self regulated learning can be identified through four phases in four areas of self regulation. Together, they explain how self regulated learning operates in the classroom. They are: **phase 1: forethought, planning and activation** that involves planning and goal setting as well as activation of perceptions and knowledge of task and content and the self in relation to the task; **phase 2: monitoring** that deals with various monitoring processes that represent metacognitive awareness of different aspects of the self and task or context; **phase 3: control** that involves efforts to control and regulate different aspects of the self or tasks and context; **phase 4: reaction and reflection** that involves various kinds of reactions and reflections on the self and the task or context (Pintrich, 2004).

Pintrich clarifies that although these four phases present a time-honored sequence, they are not hierarchically or linearly structured. In fact, they may occur simultaneously. At each phase, SRL cuts across four areas/domains: Cognition, motivation or affect, behavior and context. The first three are typical psychological functions where as the last one (context) reflects social context. Table one lists some of the activities, tactics and strategies students are involved in at each phase in each domain. Schunk (2005) explains that some of the activities with in these areas require little if only self regulation and some learning situations may engage learners in some but not all the phases.

Table 1

Pintrich's (2004) Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) Phases, Areas and Behaviors

Phases of SRL	Areas of SRL	Behaviors
Phase 1 Forethought,, planning and activation	Cognition	Target goal setting Prior content knowledge activation Metacognitive knowledge activation
	Motivation/Affect	Goal orientation adoption Efficacy judgments Perceptions of task difficulty; Task value activation and interest activation
	Behavior	Time and effort planning Planning for self observations of behavior
	Context	Perceptions of task Perceptions of context
Phase 2 Monitoring	Cognition	Metacognitive awareness and monitoring of cognition
	Motivation/affect	Awareness and monitoring of motivation and affect
	Behavior	Awareness and monitoring of effort, time use, need for help Self observation of behavior
	Context	Monitoring changing task and context conditions
Phase 3 Control	Cognition	Selection and adaptation of cognitive strategies for learning, thinking
	Motivation/Affect	Selection and adaptation of strategies for managing, motivation and affect
	Behavior	Increase/decrease effort, persist, give us; help seeking behavior
	Context	Change or renegotiate task Change or leave context
Phase 4 Reaction and reflection	Cognition	Cognitive judgments Attributions
	Motivation/Affect	Affective reactions Attributions
	Behavior	Choice behavior
	Context	Evaluation of task Evaluation of context

Like Pintrich, Winne and Hadwin (2008) also identified four phases of self regulation, but their phases quite vary from those of Pintrich. To them, self-regulation unfolds over "four flexibly sequenced phases of recursive cognition." These phases are task perception, goal setting and planning, enacting, and adaptation. During the task perception phase, students gather information about the task at hand and personalize their perception of it. This stage involves determining motivational states, self-efficacy, and information about the environment around them.

Next, students set goals and plan how to accomplish the task. Several goals may be set concerning explicit behaviors, cognitive engagement, and motivation changes. The goals that are set depend on how the students perceive the task at hand. The students will then enact the plan they have developed by using study skills and other useful tactics they have in their repertoire of learning strategies.

The last phase is adaptation, wherein students evaluate their performance and determine how to modify their strategy in order to achieve higher performance in the future. They may change their goals or their plan; they may also choose not to attempt that particular task again. Winne and Hadwin state that all academic tasks encompass these four phases.

Sources of Self Regulation

According to Iran-Nejad and Chissom, there are three sources of self-regulated learning: active/executive, dynamic, and interest-creating discovery model (1992). Active/executive self-regulation is regulated by the person and is intentional, deliberate, conscious, voluntary, and strategic. The individual is aware and effortful in using self-regulation strategies. Under this source of SRL, learning happens best in a habitual mode of functioning. Dynamic self-regulation is also known as unintentional learning because it is regulated by internal subsystems other than the "central executive."

The learner is not consciously aware they are learning because it occurs

both under and outside the direct influence of deliberate internal control. The third source of self-regulated learning is the interest-creating discovery module, which is described as "biofunctional" as it is developed from both the active and dynamic models of self-regulation. In this model, learning takes place best in a creative mode of functioning and is neither completely person-driven nor unconscious, but it is a combination of both.

Self-regulation from the Social Cognitive Perspective looks at the triadic interaction among the person (e.g., beliefs about success), his or her behavior (e.g., engaging in a task), and the environment (e.g., feedback from a teacher). Zimmerman et al. specified three important characteristics of self-regulated learning:

1. self-observation (monitoring one's activities);
2. self-judgment (self-evaluation of one's performance) and
3. self-reactions (reactions to performance outcomes).

To the extent that one accurately reflects on his or her progress toward a learning goal, and appropriately adjusts his or her actions to maximize performance, he or she has effectively self-regulated. During a students school career the primary goal of teachers is to produce self-regulated learners by using such theories as Information Processing Model (IPM). By storing the information into long term memory (or a live document like a Runbook) the learner can retrieve it upon demand and apply to tasks, becoming a self-regulated learner.

Winne and Marx posited that motivational thoughts and beliefs are governed by the basic principles of cognitive psychology, which should be conceived in information-processing terms. Motivation plays a major role in self regulated learning. Motivation is needed to apply effort and continue on when faced with difficulty. Control also plays a role in self regulated learning as it helps the learner stay on track in reaching their learning goal and avoid being distracted from things that stand in the way of the learning goal (Palincsar and Brown, 1984).

Lovett, Meyer and Thille (2008) observed comparable student

performance between instructor-led and self-regulated learning environments. In a subsequent study, self-regulated learning was shown to enable accelerated learning while maintaining long-term retention Whyte, 1978 and Lauridsen & Whyte, 1985 noted the importance of internal locus of control tendencies on successful academic performance, also compatible with self-regulated learning. Whyte recognized and appreciated external factors, to include the benefit of working with a good teacher, while encouraging self-regulated hard work, skill building, and a positive attitude to perform better in academic situations.

To increase positive attitudes and academic performance, expert learners should be created. Expert learners develop self-regulated learning strategies. One of these strategies is the ability to develop and ask questions and use these questions to expand on their own prior knowledge. This technique allows the learners to test the true understanding of their knowledge and make correction about content areas that have a misunderstanding. When learners engage in questioning, it forces them to be more actively engaged in their learning. It also allows them to self analyze and determine their level of comprehension (Palincsar and Brown, 1984). This active engagement allows the learner to organize concepts into existing schemas. Through the use of questions, learners can accommodate and then assimilate their new knowledge with existing schema. This process allows the learner to solve novel problems and when the existing schema does not work on the novel problem the learner must re-evaluate and assess their level of understanding (Paris and Paris, 2001).

Application of Self-Regulated Learning in Practice

Edirippulige and Marasinghe (2011) reviewed evidences of blending of self-regulated learning with new educational programmes such as e-Health teaching using different ICT technologies. There are also many practical applications for self-regulated learning in schools and classrooms today. Paris and Paris (2001) state there are three main areas of direct application in classrooms: literacy instruction, cognitive engagement, and self-assessment. In

the area of literacy instruction, educators can teach students the skills necessary to lead them to becoming self-regulated learners by using strategies such as reciprocal teaching, open-ended tasks, and project-based learning. Other tasks that promote self-regulated learning are authentic assessments, autonomy-based assignments, and portfolios. These strategies are student-centered and inquiry based, which cause students to gradually become more autonomous, creating an environment of self-regulated learning. However, students do not simply need to know the strategies, but they need to realize the importance of utilizing them in order to experience academic success.

According to Dweck and Master, "Students use of learning strategies – and their continued use of them in the face of difficulty – is based on the beliefs that these strategies are necessary for learning, and that they are effective ways of overcoming obstacles." Students who are not self-regulated learners may daydream, rarely complete assignments or forget assignments completely. Those who do practice self-regulation ask questions, take notes, allocate their time effectively, and use resources available to them. Pajares lists several practices of successful students that Zimmerman and his colleagues developed in his chapter of Motivation and Self-Regulated Learning: Theory, Research, and Applications. These behaviors include, but are not limited to, the following: finishing homework assignments by deadlines, studying when there are other interesting things to do, concentrating on school subjects, taking useful class notes of class instruction, using the library for information for class assignments, effectively planning schoolwork, effectively organizing schoolwork, remembering information presented in class and textbooks, arranging a place to study at home without distractions, motivating oneself to do schoolwork, and participating in class discussions. Examples of self regulated learning strategies in practice include:

Self-Assessment: Fosters planning, assess what skills the learner has and what skills are needed. Allows students to internalize standards of learning so they can regulate their own learning (Laskey and Hetzel, 2010).

Wrapper Activity: Activity based on pre-existing learning or assessment task. This can be done as a homework assignment. Consist of self assessment questions to complete before completing homework and then after completion of homework.

Think Aloud: This involves the teacher describing their thought process in solving a problem (Joseph, 2010).

Questioning: Following new material, students develop questions about the material (Joseph, 2010). In this study, a detailed discussion of some major self regulation processes will be presented. These are planning, self checking/monitoring, effort, self-efficacy, help seeking and time and environment management. As suggested by Zimmerman (2005), processes of self-regulation are interrelated and cyclically sustained. The cyclical nature of these processes depends on feed back from previous performance that is used to adjust to the changing personal, behavior and environmental factors.

In planning the learners set goals, practice an evaluative task that mobilizes effort toward goal attainment (Bandura, 1991). Setting goals for oneself has both practical and motivational advantages. As Wood and Bandura (1989) explain, goals provide one with a sense of psychological wellbeing and accomplishment because they not only help to sustain effort, but provide a sense of purpose. In addition, they provide standards to measure one progress against. Goal setting and planning is determined by the task and the environmental features (Zimmerman, 1989). The literature suggests that specific and challenging goals result in better performance than easy and vague goals (Ridley, et al., 1992).

Previous research suggests making plans is generally beneficial for self control. Yet in five experiments, it was found out that planning does not always benefit everyone (Townsend and Liu, 2011). Although planning tends to aid subsequent self control for those who are in good standing with respect to their long-term goal, those who perceive themselves to be in poor goal standing are found to exert less self control after planning than in the absence of planning.

This occurs because considering a concrete plan for goal implementation creates emotional distress for those in poor goal standing, thereby undermining their motivation for self regulation.

One aspect in self-regulation is the activation of goal directed behaviors to guide individual responses to task performance (Behncke, 2002). After self-monitoring over a given period, internal and external cues initiate a modulation of thought, affect or behavior under goal-setting directives (Karoly, 1993). These responses are presumably stored in long-term working memory that can constantly scan psycho-physiological content during activity and alert the individual to impending discrepancies in behavior producing conscious intervention generating a self-regulatory response.

Karoly (1993) alludes to two issues concerning the ability of the individual to employ self-regulation methods as directed by goal settings. Firstly, it can not be presumed that individuals work with only one mind controlling the entire operation of the self-regulatory process, but there exists a multiple-mind approach. Self-regulatory processes are most probably under the control of many interconnected "mind-centers" within the individual. For example: self-regulatory procedures that predominantly use conceptualization to intervene in cognitive matters require intellectual strategies; self-regulatory procedures attempting to alter movement require somatic strategies; and, emotional self-regulation requires affective based strategies. Unless the self-regulation procedure accurately identifies what mind-center or predominant mode of function (i.e.: intellectual, somatic or emotional) is employed in the given task, inappropriate self-regulation strategies may be used under goal directives. For example: if an individual is attempting to alter hand movements, such as a persistent fidgeting of the fingers during a dexterous activity, then merely stopping the unnecessary movements through somatic interventions (i.e., when the individual observes the fidgeting they stop the movement) may not be sufficient. The fidgeting may be a result of nervousness or expressed anxiety arising from the cognitive center, and intervening with the somatic center may serve to shift the fidget from one body

24

part to another because the displayed fidgeting is a symptom rather than a cause. A cognitive based strategy (i.e., observing what initiated the anxiety and intervening through positive reinforcement), may be more effective in controlling the nervousness because it seeks to discover and intervene at the underlying cause rather than the affecting the symptom.

Though attitudes and beliefs (Gill, 1986; Riddle, 1990), and motivation (Carmack and Martens, 1979; Dishman, 1984; Weinberg, 1984) contribute to the athletes' approach towards training and competition, initiation and adherence to goal setting involves distinct levels of directed behavior for a specific aim (Brunelle, Janelle, and Tennant, 1999; Chen and Singer, 1992; Green-Demers, Pelletier, Stewart, and Gushue, 1998; Kane, Marks, Zaccaro, and Blair, 1996). Directions of behaviors are influenced by long- and short-term, important and non-important, and easy and difficult goals that are prioritized and strategically implemented according to individual aims during self-regulation. Once a specific self-regulation treatment has been learned and adapted for a specific behavior, it becomes increasingly difficult to change treatment to be congruent with long-term goals. In other words, too much deviation from the original path may lead to never finding the same path again. Thus, clear and defined goal setting is essential in the initial approach to self-regulation.

While in **self-monitoring,** reduction in this aspect results into failure of self regulation because individuals act in ways that are not consistent with their own standards. As identified by a number of self regulation researchers, self monitoring is a significant metacognitive component of self regulation (Aisha, 2007). Learners with self-monitoring perform better academically in tests. They use more self regulated strategies and develop better knowledge representation (Lan, 1996). The discrepancy between ones' behavior and self standards guide ones' reaction to achieve the desired results (Wood and Bandura, 1989).

Once goal setting has been developed, the ability to self-monitor becomes essential (Behncke, 2002), because attention to internal and external cues, through greater self-awareness, leads to faster and more appropriate control of

25

intervention strategies. Attention to internal states (thoughts, feeling, and sensations) and external states (bodily movement and environment) is a different phenomenon from attentional styles, though there is overlap between the two. Attentional styles involve the relationship of concentration and focus, or perception selection, to a dynamic environment (Zaichkowsky, 1984). Attentional styles can range from broad-external focus of attention (optimal for reading complex sport situations and assessing the environment, i.e., good anticipation skills), broad-internal focus of attention (optimal for analyzing sport within the context of strategies and plans, and for future anticipated events, i.e., quick learners), narrow-external focus of attention (able to pay attention on the necessary stimuli at the right moments with the correct responses), and narrow-internal focus of attention (ability to psyche oneself up and calm oneself down) (Nideffer, 1981). There are degrees and combinations of the aforementioned foci of attention across and within individuals. How much of these types of attentional styles, and their combinations, is a product of personality and/or trainable is still unclear, but attentional styles appear to be related to the degree of internal and external distraction (Singer et al., 1991), and the degree of conscious and automatic control an individual possesses for a given task (Hardy, Mullen, & Jones, 1996). That is it is the ability of the athlete to intervene and separate important mental content from non-important derived from specific stimuli, and to know when to consciously over-ride actions or to allow automatic processes to continue. This process is governed by the skill of the individual to self-monitor effectively.

To ascertain effective self-monitoring, Snyder (1979), has separated two distinct types involving high self-monitors (those individuals who use cues from others to regulate their behavior) and low self-monitors (those individuals who are controlled from within by their affective states and attitudes). Splitting self-monitoring criteria into these two simplified domains leaves out a considerable number of variables that influence the self-monitoring process. One of these variables is the definition of self-monitoring, normally taken as the level of self-

26

awareness that an individual has over psychological content. However, high and low self-monitors, defined by Snyder (1979), appear to rest on external rather than internal cues. For example: someone who is defined as a high self-monitor takes external cues (other people's behavior towards them) as an indication of what behavior modification is required from a specific situation. This may be appropriate for social events where etiquette needs to be observed, but under sporting competitions this may be detrimental. Conversely, low self-monitors take internal cues (observation of one's own psychological state) as an indication of behavior modification. For most sporting situations low self-monitors would be at an advantage because they would not be as likely to fluctuate with the numerous external cues, but would be more likely to remain psychologically stable in a dynamic environment. The definitions designated by Snyder (1979) to different self-monitoring attributes may serve to confuse appropriate use of self-monitoring. More specifically, high self-monitors monitor the environment more so than themselves, unlike low self-monitors. Therefore, attributing the process of self-monitoring to high self-monitors defeats the intention of the definition. For practical purposes, low self-monitors monitor themselves whereas high self-monitors monitor the environment.

Defining self-monitors this way has led to contradictory results in some studies. For example, Chatterjee, Hunt and Kernan (1999) found that in an information processing experiment, low self-monitors exhibited significantly higher mean recognition scores than high self-monitors contradictory to what the Snyder (1979) definition should have obtained. High self-monitors should be better at cognitive processing because of better self-observational power. As was said above, this may be because high self-monitors learn to discriminate external cues better than internal, and thus, when a cognitive task is given, a distinct lack of internal attention would be evident.

Lester (1997) found that high self-monitoring subjects reported experiencing "multiple selves" (i.e., different aspects of external behavior) in social situations more so than low self-monitoring subjects. High self-monitors

27

recognized more external cues that changed their behavior than low self-monitors. Although these results coincide with Snyder's predicted performance of high self-monitors, it does not indicate whether they could observe their psychological content (thoughts and feelings), or simply knew (recalled) they were behaving differently. Conversely, the low self-monitors, not reporting an experience of multiple selves, did not indicate whether, from observing themselves, they chose not to react to external cues and preserve that state of self.

Graziano and Bryant (1998) found that high self-monitors reacted to bogus biofeedback (heart-rate monitoring) when viewing slides of attractive people more so than low self-monitors, coinciding with Snyder's (1979) theory. However, like Lester (1997), no differentiation was made concerning the ability of high and low self-monitors to regulate internal states of self. The authors concluded that high self-monitors are more susceptible to external stimuli than low self-monitors and could not give a causative explanation.

Marcie, Bodenhausen and Milne (1998) found that subjects who were in a heightened state of self-focus (low self-monitors) were able to suppress social stereotypes better than in a non-self-focused state (high self-monitoring). This indicated that the terms of high and low self-monitors should be reversed when dealing with internal (self) regulation rather than adherence to external cues. The conclusion, in terms of self-monitoring aspects (internal versus external) is also supported by Webb, Marsh, Schneiderman, and Davis (1989) that found low self-monitors were better able to manipulate private self-awareness (awareness of own behavior towards others) than high self-monitors, but high self-monitors were better able to manipulate public self-awareness (awareness of other's behavior towards themselves).

Apart from disagreement in definitions, self-monitoring can be influenced by personality type, that is, a particular predisposition or temperament an individual possesses that allows pursuit and maintenance of conscious self-monitoring (Caligiuri and Day, 2000). Gender appears to play a role in self-

monitoring and regulation in different socio-cultural situations (Rankers and Varni, 1977), but whether this is a socio-economic or hereditary construct is unclear, particularly in sports (Anshel and Porter, 1996a, 1996b). Motor skill level and expertise generally correlate with better self-monitoring as the athlete learns various individual strategies to improve skills with experience, though these strategies may be limited in development; it clearly gives experienced athletes an advantage over novices (Ferrari, Pinard, Reid, and Bouffard-Bouchard, 1991). Some individuals, in an attempt to protect their ego from self-criticism, may disregard vital information from observation in a self-serving bias, and thus, limit the effectiveness of self-monitoring (Baumeister, Heatherton, and Tice, 1993; Krosnick and Sedikides, 1990). Attentional styles to field dependence/independence, and locus of control, influence perceived internal and external cues mediated in the self-monitoring process, although, it appears that different attentional styles can be taught (Leventhal & Sisco, 1996). When learning, or fine tuning particular skills, the capacity to observe and imitate influences self-monitoring ability (Ferrari, 1996). Depletion patterns in conscious effort occur over sustained periods of self-monitoring and self-regulation that restrict further effort, and thus, the ability to sustain constant and consistent efforts of self-monitoring may be limited by the familiarity of the athlete with self-monitoring, or insufficient capability (Muraven, Tice, and Baumeister, 1998). Even before adequate self-monitoring can be implemented, multiple factors influence the effectiveness and efficiency of individual performance. If these factors are not considered in the initial implementation of self-regulation strategies, in relation to self-monitoring, set goals may not be achievable.

Another factor influencing self-monitoring and self-monitoring research is reliability and accuracy of self-reports. Nasby (1989) found that low self-monitors (high degree of private self-consciousness, but low public self-consciousness) were able to provide greater reliability across time than high self-monitors (low degree of private self-consciousness, but high public self-consciousness). This is because individuals possessing high private self-consciousness, or a greater

29

ability in self-awareness, have articulated self-schemata of greater temporal stability than individuals in low private self-consciousness.

Briggs and Cheek (1988), investigating Snyder and Gangestad's (1986) 18-item measure of the self-monitoring scale, a revised scale of Snyder (1979), suggest that it is time to move beyond the construct of Snyder's (1987) model of self-monitoring. This is because it is assumed that there is a bipolarity of social and personal orientations, uniformity among those scoring high on the self-monitoring scale, as well as uniformity among those scoring low on the self-monitoring scale, and the lack of clarity concerning the role of intentionality in self-representational processes. Most of the self-monitoring measures conducted in a majority of recent research under the Snyder scale split people into two distinct groups, two extremes in a theorized self-monitoring construct. Obviously, this never happens in real life where there is more often than not combinations and merging of the two, dependent upon situational needs. This is especially important because research conducted in the laboratory is a different situation compared to life events. Artificial settings may cause nervousness and anxieties that dominate in one self-monitoring mode rather than the other that may be more natural to the individual.

The Snyder scale assumes uniformity among high self-monitors (the social psychology), and low self-monitors (the personality psychology), that is, they monitor similar external or internal cues. Intentionality of self-presentation processes is also not factored into the scale. From a personality perspective (extroversion/introversion, etc), do the self-monitors, upon self-report, intentionally manipulate information, either consciously or unconsciously, to present themselves in a certain light? How much does personality or socio-cultural influences play a part in the validity of self-monitoring? Li and Zhang (1998) have attempted to discriminate the personality factor in intentional self-presentation within a revised self-monitoring scale, but found the scale useful only for cross-cultural purposes as relatively known cultural elements from the individuals' respective country could be correlated with personal data. Therefore,

30

there appears to be many underlying factors, causes and situational dependencies that manipulate the ability of an individual to self-monitor. This may not be solely due to individual differences, but to the data collection methods.

On the other hand, regulation of ones **effort** reflects a commitment to pursue ones' goals in spite of difficulties and distractions (Pintrich, 2004). In order to maintain effort, strategic planning is needed. Effort is affected reciprocally by enactive feedback from these efforts (Zimmerman, 1989). Process goals are more effective in guiding one's effort. At this point, it is important to distinguish between attribution of failure and success and their results (pride or shame) to effort or ability. Weiner (1972) suggests that, pride is the result of attributing success to low ability and effort, while shame is the result of attributing failure to lack of motivation, which leads to the lack of effort, while having the ability. From previous research (Bandura, 1991) concludes that highly efficacious learners attribute their failure to lack of effort while low efficacious learners attribute failure to low ability. Not withstanding, student ability to learn is viewed differently from Western and Eastern perspectives (Aisha, 2007). While Western perception of ability to learn is somehow fixed and teacher's role becomes trying to meet individual needs and make students work at their own pace, the Eastern perception of ability is not fixed. All students are encouraged to work hard to achieve the same standards because effort is the only factor making a difference in student learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996).

On the aspect of **self efficacy**, Bandura (1991) defines it as people's perceived ability to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives. He contends that it influences self regulation through four processes; cognition, motivation, affect and selection. Assuming that human action is intentional and purposive, self-efficacy beliefs affect the type of goals people set for themselves. For-example, self regulated learners believe they have the ability to perform the appropriate learning task to master course content (Bois and Staley, 1997). Part of the cognitive process of self-

31

efficacy is assessing environmental constraints that may reduce personal control (Bandura, 1991). Self-efficacy was found to be positively related to positive control orientation (Yamaguchi, 2001). Self-efficacy is also a term used to describe how one judges one's own competence to complete tasks and reach goals (Ormrod, 2006). Psychologists have studied self-efficacy from several perspectives, noting various paths to the development of self-efficacy; the dynamics of self-efficacy, and lack thereof, in different settings; interactions between self-efficacy and self-concept; and habits of attribution that contribute to, or detract from, self-efficacy.

Because of the technology-based environment in distance education, computer self-efficacy was found to predict the likelihood of learner's future participation in web-based courses, as well as their satisfaction with web-based courses (Lim, 2001). Self efficacy, however, is not only important to web-based learning distance learning students, but to all forms of distance education students. It is equally important to students of distance education courses that require physical on-site presence i.e. hybrid or blended courses (Tabor, 2007; Vaughan, 2010). In addition, self efficacy for learning and performance alone was found to explain 7 percent in the variance of learner grades in a blended online course (Lynch and Dembo, 2004).

Using motivational strategies, learners initiate and direct their behavior towards desired learning goals (Bois and Staley, 1997). This requires learners to activate their self-evaluation processes so they have a personal standard to judge their progress. Those with high self-efficacy persist in the face of difficulties while others who have self doubts abort their effort prematurely (Bandura, 1977; 1991). Self efficacy beliefs are affected by the regulation of the degree of anxiety and depressive mood one may experience when pursuing goals. The lack of one's belief in his/her ability to control potential threats results in coping deficiency that may lead individuals to magnify the severity of possible threats and consequently distress themselves (Bandura, 1991). In distance education, how distance learners maintain their effort and control their

anxiety remains largely unexplained. Lee and Witta (2001) found that self-efficacy for distance education has increased during the course of a semester; however, it was not predictive of learner performance.

Self efficacy influences the type of environment individuals select to be involved in or even create for themselves. This is especially obvious when choosing careers (Bandura, 1989). Certainly, choosing to be involved in distance education program requires individuals to assess their capabilities to participate in this unique educational environment. This assessment includes but not limited to the ability to take responsibility for one's learning and the ability to use instructional technology. The distance education literature seems to suggest that those who choose this mode of instruction are more likely to be already independent learners (Thompson, 1984; Thompson & Knox, 1987).

Self-efficacy affects every area of human endeavor, by determining the beliefs a person holds regarding his or her power to affect situations, thus strongly influencing both the power a person actually has to face challenges competently and the choices a person is most likely to make. These effects are particularly apparent, and compelling, with regard to behaviors affecting health (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2005). Self-efficacy is distinct both from efficacy and from self-esteem, confidence, and self-concept. Understanding how to foster the development of self-efficacy is important for policymakers, educators, and others in leadership positions, and to anyone seeking to build a happier, more productive life.

Psychologist Albert Bandura has defined self-efficacy as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations. One's sense of self-efficacy can play a major role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges (Luszczynska and Schwarzer, 2005).The theory of self-efficacy lies at the center of Bandura's social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the role of observational learning and social experience in the development of personality. The main concept in social cognitive theory is that an individual's actions and reactions, including social behaviors and cognitive processes, in almost every situation are influenced by

33

the actions that individual has observed in others. Because self-efficacy is developed from external experiences and self-perception and is influential in determining the outcome of many events, it is an important aspect of social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy represents the personal perception of external social factors (Bandura, 1977; Miller and Dollard, 1941; Bandura, 1988; Mischel and Shoda, 1995). According to Bandura's theory, people with high self-efficacy—that is, those who believe they can perform well are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. The social learning theory describes the acquisition of skills that are developed exclusively or primarily within a social group. Social learning depends on how individuals either succeed or fail at dynamic interactions within groups, and promotes the development of individual emotional and practical skills as well as accurate perception of self and acceptance of others. According to this theory, people learn from one another through observation, imitation, and modeling. Self-efficacy reflects an individual's understanding of what skills he/she can offer in a group setting (Ormrod, 1999).

The self concept theory/ model seeks to explain how people perceive and interpret their own existence from clues they receive from external sources, focusing on how these impressions are organized and how they are active throughout life. Successes and failures are closely related to the ways in which people have learned to view themselves and their relationships with others. This theory describes self-concept as learned (i.e., not present at birth); organized (in the way it is applied to the self); and dynamic (i.e., ever-changing, and not fixed at a certain age) (McAdam, 1986).

Attribution theory focuses on how people attribute events and how those beliefs interact with self-perception. Attribution theory defines three major elements of cause:

(1) Locus which is the location of the perceived cause. If the locus is internal (dispositional), feelings of self-esteem and self-efficacy will be enhanced by success and diminished by failure.

34

(2) Stability which describes whether the cause is perceived as static or dynamic over time. It is closely related to expectations and goals, in that when people attribute their failures to stable factors such as the difficulty of a task, they will expect to fail in that task in the future.

(3) Controllability which describes whether a person feels actively in control of the cause. Failing at a task one thinks one cannot control can lead to feelings of humiliation, shame, and/or anger (Heider, 1958).

Self efficacy affects human function. People generally avoid tasks where self-efficacy is low, but undertake tasks where self-efficacy is high. Self-efficacy significantly beyond actual ability leads to overestimation of the ability to complete tasks. On the other hand, self-efficacy significantly lower than ability discourages growth and skill development. Research shows that the optimum level of self-efficacy is slightly above ability; in this situation, people are most encouraged to tackle challenging tasks and gain experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997)

High self-efficacy can affect motivation in both positive and negative ways. In general, people with high self-efficacy are more likely to make efforts to complete a task, and to persist longer in those efforts, than those with low self-efficacy. The stronger the self-efficacy or mastery expectations, the more active the efforts (Bandura,1977).However, those with low self-efficacy sometimes experience incentive to learn more about an unfamiliar subject, where someone with a high self-efficacy may not prepare as well for a task.

Self-efficacy has several effects on thought patterns and responses:

(1) Low self-efficacy can lead people to believe tasks to be harder than they actually are. This often results in poor task planning, as well as increased stress.

(2) People become erratic and unpredictable when engaging in a task in which they have low self-efficacy.

(3) People with high self-efficacy tend to take a wider view of a task in order to determine the best plan.

(4) Obstacles often stimulate people with high self-efficacy to greater efforts, where someone with low self-efficacy will tend toward discouragement and giving up.

(5) A person with high self-efficacy will attribute failure to external factors, where a person with low self-efficacy will blame low ability. For example, someone with high self-efficacy in regards to mathematics may attribute a poor test grade to a harder-than-usual test, illness, lack of effort, or insufficient preparation. A person with a low self-efficacy will attribute the result to poor mathematical ability.

Choices affecting health, such as smoking, physical exercise, dieting, condom use, dental hygiene, seat belt use, and breast self-examination, are dependent on self-efficacy (Conner and Norman,2005) Self-efficacy beliefs are cognitions that determine whether health behavior change will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and failures. Self-efficacy influences how high people set their health goals (e.g., "I intend to reduce my smoking," or "I intend to quit smoking altogether"). A number of studies on the adoption of health practices have measured self-efficacy to assess its potential to initiate behavior change (Luszczynska and Schwarzer, 2005).

Research on Australian science students showed that those with high self-efficacy showed better academic performance than those with low self-efficacy. Confident individuals typically took control over their own learning experiences, were more likely to participate in class, and preferred hands-on learning experiences. Those with low self-efficacy typically shied away from academic interactions·

Bandura showed that difference in self-efficacy correlates to fundamentally different world views. People with high self-efficacy generally believe that they are in control of their own lives, that their own actions and decisions shape their lives, while people with low self-efficacy may see their lives as outside their control.

From a cross-cultural perspective, views of self-efficacy are expected to be mediated by external socio-cultural beliefs leading to differences in the way self efficacy beliefs operate in Western and non Western cultures. From a review of 20 cross-cultural research studies, Klassen (2004) concludes that even when students perform equally well, non Western collectivist groups report lower self-efficacy than Western individualistic group. He suggested that collective efficacy works the same way for collective groups as self efficacy for individualistic group. Collective efficacy refers to groups shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments (Bandura, 1997). Lim (2004) reached a similar conclusion in her study of US and Korean distance students. She explains this finding by emphasizing Asia student orientation towards effort attributions and performance goals while emphasizing US student orientation towards a mastery of learning over time and enjoying the learning process.

On **help seeking** as a construct of self regulation, Knowles (1975) suggests that self directed learners are engaged in a process in which they take the initiative with or without the help of others in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, choosing and implementing learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes. Moore (1972) confirms that autonomous learners will turn to teachers for help temporarily surrendering their control over their learning process. However, the type and purpose of help has been established by them in the first place. Students with prior distance education experience are more likely to ask for instructors help outside the course (King, Harner and Brown, 2000). There are qualitative differences noted by Zimmerman (2004) in help seeking between distance learners who persist and those who do not persist. Non-completers rely more on face-to-face help while completers try to adapt their help seeking behavior to the online environment. Glickman (2009) asserted that, learning how to ask for help — and how to do it right — is critical to doing your job well and setting yourself up for success. You may be afraid of looking dumb, but to be afraid to ask for and get

the help you need is inexcusable, especially when the stakes are high. Asking for help in the workplace is a good thing. In fact, asking for help the right way can show how smart you are: it demonstrates that you've got good judgment and shows that you know what you know and what you don't know. Moreover, getting help up front saves endless time, energy and resources on the back end; in the Madoff case, it could have saved billions of dollars and immeasurable heartache .Of course, it's not just asking for help — it's asking the right way (Glickman, 2009).

Hence it is important to ask for help from those who are believed to be of more knowledge.

In view of **time and study environment management,** according to the Science Daily (2010)," although we can't technically travel through time (yet), when we think of the past or the future, we engage in a sort of mental time travel. This uniquely human ability to psychologically travel through time arguably sets us apart from other species". The social cognitive theory posits that self regulation is influenced by personal, social and environmental factors (Aisha, 2007). They provide a source for enhancing fore thought, performance, volitional control and self reflection. They provide valuable modeling and instructional sources. Regulation of one's context was introduced previously in the model presented by Pintrich (2004). It is particularly important in distance education where students assume more responsibility and control over their learning. Students learning environments are considered a part of the distance education system. Unlike the traditional classroom, most distance learners interact with their course materials in non-traditional places such as work, cars, hotels and even battle fields (Moore & Kearsley, 2005). As Pintrich explains, the situation of distance learning provides multiple opportunities for contextual control and regulation. This is unlike traditional classroom, in which there is more instruction control of most aspects of task and context. Therefore, there is more need for time and environment management for the distance learner. In reality, many distance learners suffer to do so as Bullen (1998) explains. In

addition, Kramarae (2003) suggests that research about management of time and environment in distance education should be viewed from a gender perspective as women must accommodate extra home responsibilities.

Cultural Orientation

This section reviews some perspectives on cross-cultural differences. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) suggest that systematic variations between cultures are expected as well as variations in the degree of individual consciousness about their value orientation.

The most widely cited and comprehensive framework to compare between cultures is Hofstede's cross-cultural dimensions (Aisha, 2007). Hofstede proposed five international cultural dimensions after conducting an empirical study of IMB local subsidiaries in 50 countries around the world. These are individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and long-term orientation. However time perspective which Hofstede did not include, is equally viewed important in this review.

On **time (future time orientation),** Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) suggest that the way one relates to people and events in their lives is not only due to social and contextual influences, but it is also the result of individual differences. Zimbardo (2002) refers to this as time perspective and defines it as the mind's way of parsing the flow of human experience into zones of past, present and future. It suggests the continual flow of personal and social experiences are decomposed or allocated into selected temporal categories or frames that help give order, coherence, and meaning to those events (Keough, Zimberdo & Boyd 1999). If this flow is balanced, the transition among temporal orientation will be flexible and situationally appropriate, otherwise there will be a biased orientation toward one time perspective over another.

Most related to this study is present and future time orientation. As Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) explain a present-fatalistic time perspective reveal helpless and hopeless attitude toward the future and life. People with this orientation fail to plan and achieve goals because they worry less about the

future. On the contrary, people with future-time perspective are good in setting and achieving goals and planning strategies for meeting long-term obligations (Aisha, 2007). A biased orientation towards present time orientation was found to be a significant predictor of dys-regulation such as large amount of alcohol consumption (Keough, Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). Because time perspective is a construct that is not developed through a cross-cultural framework, it does not completely reflect the cross-cultural variations such as the idea of giving time to significant others and unplanned events (Aisha, 2007).

In terms of **structural orientation (high/low uncertainly avoidance),** uncertainty avoidance dimension explains the degree to which a society can deal with ambiguity and tolerance for deviation from the norm (Hofstede, 1991). For example, in a society with high uncertainty avoidance, instructional design must be organized and clearly articulated for acceptance as formal rules of order will provide great stability.

Different cultures have different needs for structure in order to function efficiently (Mead, 2005). The function of structure in cross-cultural literature can be explained through Hofstede's dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance. When uncertainty is high, the teaching process is very structured with precise objectives, detailed assignments and strict time tables (Hofstede, 2002). In low uncertainty avoidance, there is less structure in the educational process and students are rewarded for originality.

Mead (2005) divides structure into formal and informal. A formal structure stresses rules and laws. It regulates tasks and relationships, so that responsibilities are specialized and roles are clear. Applied to educational tasks including: who will perform the task, how it will be performed, what tasks typically precede it, what resources are needed to perform it, and where and when the task is performed. In addition, clear communication signals are provided even as who will communicate with whom and how. In cultures with formal structures, there is usually one superior to report to. This type of structure is common in countries with high power distance. Mead suggests that

40

in these cultures there is a preference for hierarchical lines of control and communication. In other wards, communication is more vertical.

On the other hand, an informal structure is reflected in felt but not expressed obligations between the more or less powerful persons. Responsibilities and routines are constantly changing. In this case, it is possible that there is more than one superior to report to. This type of structure is more common in cultures where there is less need to avoid uncertainty and have low power distance. Communication is more horizontal between all levels and units (mead, 2005). White (1999) explains that, although novice distance learners in her study expressed no initial uncertainty, during the middle of the course, most students felt less sure about either themselves as learners or about their understanding of learning material in this solo learning context.

The dimension of **authority (power distance)** reflects the range of responses of various countries to social equality and class differences. It determines access and opportunity to society benefits. For example, this may be reflected in acceptance of power holders' privileges and lack of access to superiors (Hofstede, 1991). Forrora (2002) refers to this dimension as equality and hierarchy. Equality cultures stress status indifference while hierarchy cultures stress status differences. In education, Hofstede (2001) explains that this is most obvious in the power relation between teachers and their students.

Looking at power distance and self regulated learning, Jackson, Mackenzie and Hobfoll (2001) question SRL assumption that individuals have equal control over their external environment. Due to different degrees of power, external factors may undermine individual control. Nadel (1952/1953) further explains, self regulation is absent in situations of high social control. Jackson, et al. (2001) suggest this situation is even worse for women and minority groups who face economic and social constrains that hinder their personal control. In addition, the authors draw our attention to the differing meaning and sources of power within individualistic and collectivistic cultures. This aspect is better explained by Hofstede. Kenneth (2003) observes that, active participation in

41

class discussions can help us to learn how to turn intuitive opinions into intellectually informed arguments, to communicate these arguments to our peers and to take on board alternative points of view and constructive criticism. Open and rigorous discussions, however do not simply "happen", but must be consciously attempted, practiced and properly facilitated according to rules that are at least, implicitly agreed to by every participant. Otherwise, discussions can be directionless, frivolous, and even hostile. Often, we came up against psychological barriers that prevent us from speaking up in class. The reward (or threat) of "marks for participation" may not be an adequate solution. It is also important to realize that, participation is not simply about giving the right answers to questions posed by the tutor (Kenneth, 2003). You do not have to wait until an idea is fully developed in your head before you speak up-if you do, chances are you will miss nearly every opportunity to say any thing.

In view of the aspect of **relation (interdependence),** Jackson, et.al. (2001) suggest that traditional SRL theories are deeply rooted in the concept of self constrained individualism making it a necessary component to achieve self-reliant, personal agency and therefore success. While in collectivist cultures more consideration is given for others than the self placing success is within the social context. Thus, self regulation is viewed as an interdependent, social process rather than a self-reliant process (Aisha, 2007). To Rimm-Kaufman & Chiu (2007), positive relationships can help a student develop socially. Improving student's relationships in their learning environment has important, positive and long-lasting implications for student's academic and social development. A teaching environment which regulates tasks and relationships is highly contributive to student's academic excellence (Rimm-Kaufman and Chiv, 2007).

Further, Jackson, et.al. (2001) argued that while self-regulation theorists, based on individualistic perspective, perceive internal and personal factors as the source of self regulation, a collectivistic perspective emphasizes communal expectations. To explain this further, Nadel (1952) suggests that people self regulate their action to act in accordance with traditional norms and models as a

result of two conditions. First, such traditional models are desired and valued in away sufficient enough to direct behavior. Second, the practice of given traditional models must have proven to be safe within a society to the extent they become routines and expectations. Therefore, following them will eventually lead to maximum success within that society. Jackson, et.al. (2001) call for more research to explain how collectivism qualifies practices of self regulation. In doing so, they suggest adapting communal based models of behavior, which they found to capture the strengths of socially interdependent individuals. Relational orientation as it relates to group development was found to be different based on country context. Such differences are attributed to country context rather than age and gender differences. A significant body of research indicates that, academic achievement and students' behavior are influenced much by the quality of relationships students have at school (Killen, 1998). Such relationships could be between students with fellow students, or with their teachers. Students prefer being in good relationship with those who surround them.

Academic Achievement

Whoever enrolls for an academic course hopes to get academic achievement at the end of the course (Aisha, 2007). An academic achievement is something one does or achieves at school, college or university in class, in a laboratory, library or field work. It does not include sport or music. An academic achievement, such as graduating 1st in one's class, is sometimes a purely quantitative matter, while having the findings of lengthy, comprehensive research published by a recognized journal, is also a notable academic achievement. Being named head/chairman of a particular department at a university is both a professional and an academic achievement.

In educational institutions, success is measured by academic performance, or how well a student meets standards set out by the institution. In an effort to learn how to increase academic performance of students, teachers have tried to improve their presentation of the course material by adding

interactive media tools to increase academic motivation (Hammand, 2011). But some of the other ways to improve performance is through presenting difficult and challenging tasks to students. This will help them to concentrate a lot in order to overcome the challenging tasks, and eventually performance will be enhanced. Visual guides, programmed learning guide, text books, among others should be in place for learner's performance to be improved (Kamya, 2011).

Academic achievement or (academic) performance is the outcome of education, the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. Academic achievement is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important procedural knowledge such as skills or declarative knowledge such as facts (Ward, Stoker and Murray-Ward,1996). In California, the achievement of schools is measured by the Academic Performance Index. Individual differences in academic performance have been linked to differences in intelligence and personality (Von-Stumm, Benedikt; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011). Students with higher mental ability as demonstrated by IQ tests (quick learners) and those who are higher in conscientiousness (linked to effort and achievement motivation) tend to achieve highly in academic settings. A recent meta-analysis suggested that mental curiosity (as measured by typical intellectual engagement) has an important influence on academic achievement in addition to intelligence and conscientiousness (Von-Stumm, Benedikt; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011).

However, in this study, academic achievement was limited to good performance of distance learning students in terms of the learners' self evaluation and grade point averages.

Theoretical Perspective

Model building strategies were used to discover the best model to explain the relationship between learner self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement of distance learning students. Specifically, the study was based on the model of culture fit presented by Kanungo and Jaerger (1990).

44

This model examined the relationship between culture and its dimensions on certain aspects of human life in different countries by focusing not only on the larger socio-cultural environment, but also the internal organization of work culture. Mendonca and Kanungo (1994) discuss the issue of culture fit between human resource management practices and the characteristic of internal work values in organizations, which reflect the cultural values and beliefs of developing countries. They forecast that the lack of fit occurs as a result of the uncritical adoption by developing countries of the Western management practices.

The model of culture fit presents a good framework for investigating differences in the phases of self regulation between learners in distance education environment (Aisha, 2007). With in this model, distance teaching institutions are viewed as units operating with in the larger socio-cultural environment, and are influenced by society's norms, values and preferences. The sensitivity to the external culture is essential to their success (Kanungo and Jaeger, 1990). In addition, another overlapping layer of culture is the professional academic culture association with the field of distance education. This association could be created by professional associations, unions, university departments, publishers, etc. It encompasses on association with professional peers and reference groups, schools of academic thought and practice, professional approach (Holliday, 1994).

The model of culture fit integrates the work of Hofstede's international cultural dimensions (Kanungo and Jaerger, 1990; Ross, 1999; Sagie and Aycon, 2003). The idea of emphasizing both the wider socio-cultural environment as well as the smaller cultures hosted within is further explained by Holliday (1994). As illustrated in Figure 1, this model of culture fit conceptualizes the general cultural environment as exogenous/independent variables that directly predict learner self regulated learning and indirectly predict learners' academic achievement through learner preferences for course flexibility and interaction

Cross Cultural Variables

- Future Time-Perspective
- Un-certainty Avoidance
- Interdependence
- Power Distance

SRL

Self Regulation Variables

- Help seeking
- Effort
- Planning
- Self Checking
- Time and Study Environment Management
- Self Efficacy

Academic Achievement Through Learner Preference for Course Flexibility and Interaction
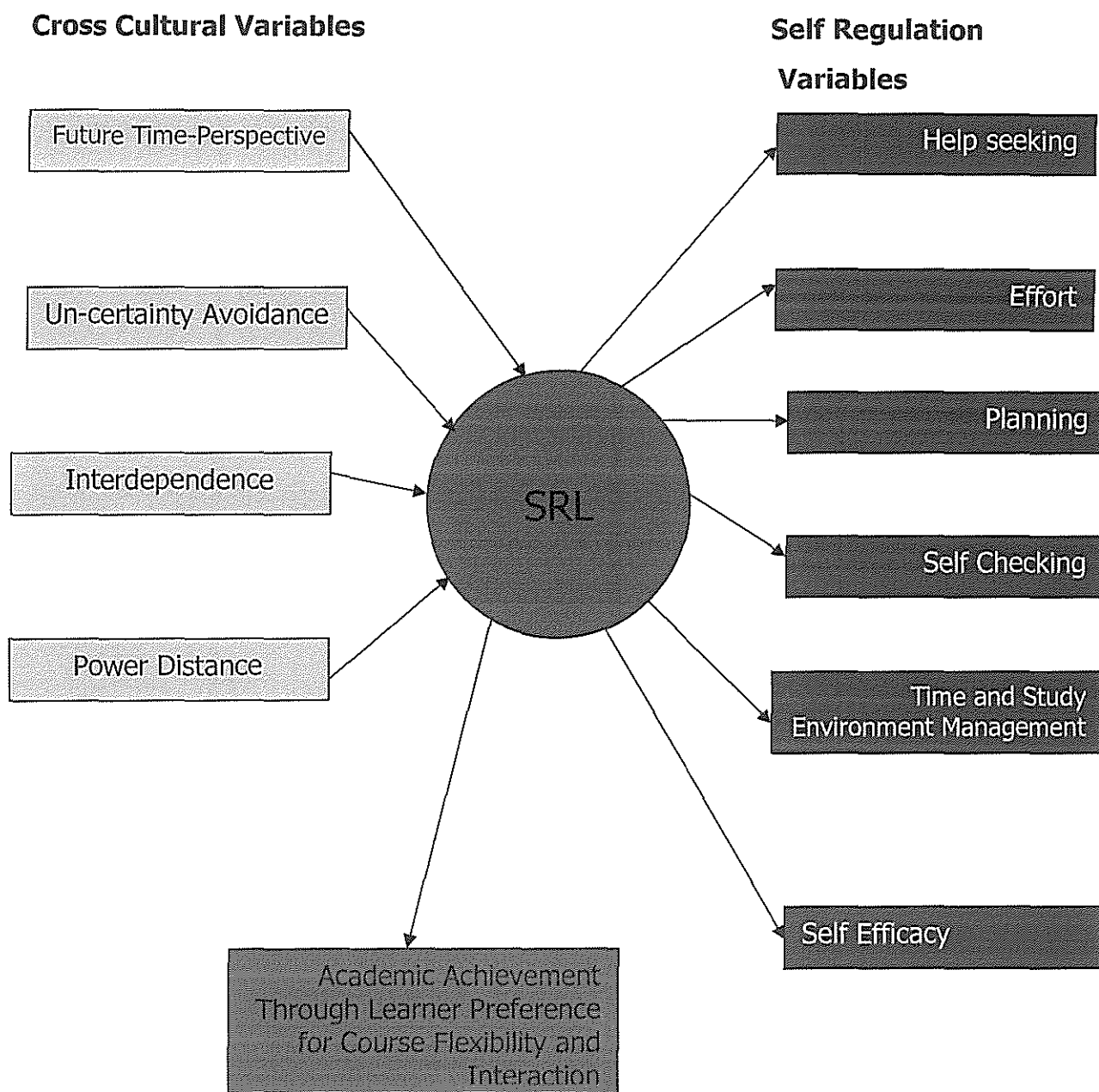
Fig 1: The culture fit model by Kanungo and Jaerger, 1990

However, Aisha (2007) improved the culture fit model to look as follows:

(Cross Cultural Variables)
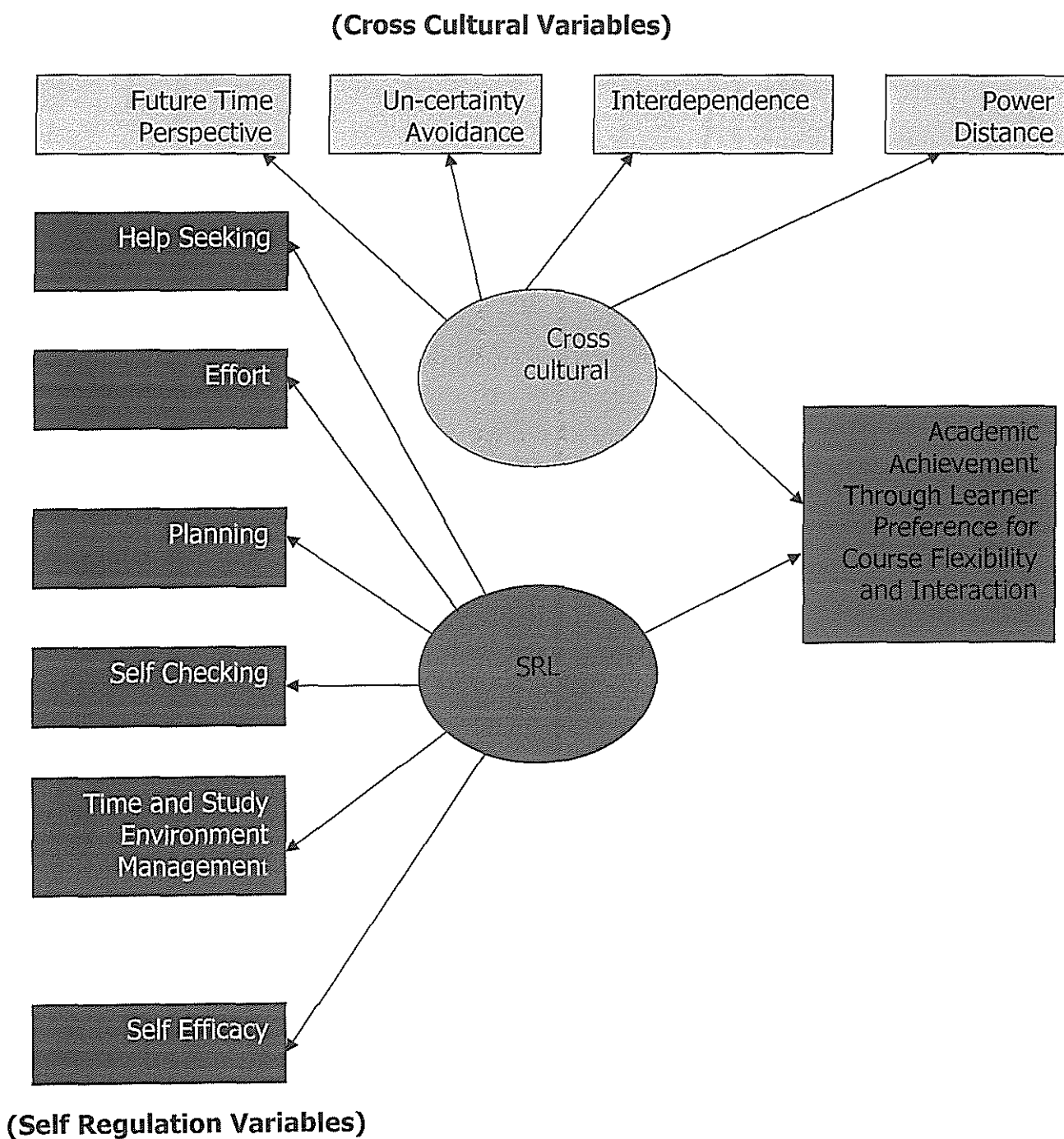
Fig 2: The culture fit model expanded by Aisha, 2007

(Self Regulation Variables)

Self Regulation and Cultural Orientation on Academic Achievement

Self regulated learning theories of academic achievement are distinctive from other accounts of learning and instruction by their emphasis on how students select, organize, or create advantageous learning environments for themselves and on how they plan and control the form and amount of their own instruction (Zimmerman, 1990). Undoubtedly, all learners are responsive to some degree during instruction; however, students who display initiative, intrinsic motivation and personal responsibility achieve particular academic success (Zimmerman and Martinez – Pons, 1988). These self regulated students are distinguished by their systematic use of metacognitive, motivational and behavioral strategies; by their responsiveness to feedback regarding the effectiveness of their learning; and by their self-perceptions of academic accomplishment.

Since the founding of the republic, American educational leaders have stressed the importance of individuals assuming personal responsibility and control for their own acquisition of knowledge and skill. Benjamin Franklin wrote extensively in his autobiography about techniques he used to improve his learning, erudition, and self control (Benjamin Franklin writings, 1868-1987). He described in detail how he set learning goals for himself, recording his daily progress in a ledger. He sought to improve his writing by selecting exemplary written models and attempting to emulate the authors' prose. In addition to teaching himself to write, Franklin felt this procedure improved his memory and his arrangement of thoughts two cognitive benefits that research on observational learning has verified (Rosenthal and Zimmerman, 1978; Zimmerman and Rosenthal, 1974). Recognition of the importance of personal initiative in learning has been reaffirmed by contemporary national leaders such as Gordner (1963), former secretary of Health, Education and welfare, who suggested that the ultimate goal of the education system is shift to the individual the burden of pursing his own education. This shows that, academic

achievement largely depends on the extent of self regulation, i.e. how much an individual commits himself to direct his own learning.

But Aisha (2007) goes ahead to affirm that, self regulatory learning goes hand in hand with cultural orientation. As earlier on noted in chapter one of this study, Aisha (2007) asserts that, cultural orientation is very significant to academic achievement. If a self regulated learning, gets cultural orientation towards his study environment and values, he will perform to the best. This then reflects that, there is a significant relationship between self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement, especially when it comes to distance learning students, who greatly carry the bulk of work related to their studies. Her view is supported by Maehr, 1974 and Pekrun, 1993, who assert that, cultural influences greatly impact on students' academic achievement.

Related Studies

Young (1996) provides an evidence suggesting that the learners with low self regulation or self direction perform poorly when given control over their learning in relation to choice, sequence and pace of learning events (structural component of transactional distance), where as their counterparts with high levels of self direction or self regulation performed equally well regardless of the type of control given.

Most teachers are frustrated by their unmotivated students. What they may not know is how important the connection is between student motivation and self determination (Mc Combs, 2007). Research has shown that motivation is related to whether or not students have opportunities to be autonomous and to make important academic choices. Having choices allows them to feel that they have control or ownership over their own learning. This is very important for distance learning education, where much control is expected to be in hands of the learners, other than the teachers (instructors).

Researchers studying student engagement, motivation and self-regulated learning generally agree that these connected concepts are important for

learning and achieving success in school. From a theoretical perspective, this is supported by the self-determination theory of motivation advanced by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2002). This theory states that, if students can be supported in meeting their basic needs for competency, autonomy and relatedness in learning situations, they are more likely to develop into independent, self directed and life long learners. Further more, extensive research on Deci and Ryan's' theory has shown that under specific conditions autonomy/supportive classrooms are those in which the classroom have positive effects on self regulated learning and motivation. Autonomy supportive classrooms are those in which students see their perspectives valued, have opportunities to share their thoughts and feelings, and are encouraged to make choices and exercise self-initiative in learning activities. This means that, self regulation is important to learners, only that, distance learning students most often feel lazy to exercise self regulation.

Studies highlight the relationship between self regulation and academic achievements (Duckworth, Akerman, Mac Gregor, Salter and Vorhous, 2009). Children and young people with more adaptive personal skills and learning resources are more likely to succeed academically. Although the size of the effect is considerably smaller than that associated with prior attainment, it exists independently of prior attainment and can be supported through appropriate policy and practice. Not all students are well placed to develop self regulation skills. Students who struggle to know whether a given strategy will be successful are likely to have difficulties in assessing whether further effort is worthwhile (Efklides, Papadaki, Papantoniou, and Kiosseoglou, 1999). Others adopt defensive approaches to learning (Paris and Newman, 1990), avoiding failure by procrastinating, choosing easy tasks or avoiding work altogether. But however, easy tasks cannot lead one to valuable success. It is harder tasks that yield valuable success and achievement.

Research has shown that metacognition is a key element of self regulation, but there remain substantial gaps in the evidence for predictions and outcomes of self regulation. Nevertheless, self regulation can be improved

through appropriate guidance, modeling of effective strategies and creating supportive and challenging contexts (Boekaerts and Corno, 2005; Perry and Vandekomp, 2000). Autonomy is an important dimension of self regulation. Students who own their goals-because they enjoy the activity or because it fits with their values-devote more time to their tasks, show greater concentration, process information more deeply, and show greater levels of persistence. They even perform better academically (Ryan and Deci, 2002). On the other hand, when individuals feel coerced to achieve a goal, they do less well scoring lower on a number of academic outcome measures (Lemos, 2002; Nolen, 2003).

There is little doubt that self-regulation has a positive effect on academic attainment, while also making a positive contribution to student behavior, discipline and self belief (Duckworth, et.al, 2009). Although the effect is often small by comparison with the impact of socio-demographic characteristics, self regulation is amenable to support and intervention. One of the major benefits of self-regulation as a framework for learning is that it connects programmes that are focused on learning strategies and thinking skills with the wider well being agenda in schools.

There is a growing body of research indicating that students who can self-regulate cognitive, motivational, and behavioral aspects of their academic functioning are more effective as learners (Soresi and Zimmerman, 2005). Soresi and Zimmerman (2005) studied relations between the self-regulation strategies used by a group of Italian students during the final years of high school and their subsequent academic achievement and resilience in pursuing higher education. They used the self-regulated learning interview schedule, which focuses on cognitive, motivational, and behavioral strategies used during academic learning in both classroom and non-classroom contexts. The cognitive self-regulation strategy of organizing and transforming proved to be a significant predictor of the students' course grades in Italian, mathematics, and technical subjects in high school and in their subsequent average course grades and examinations passed at the university. The motivational self-regulation strategy of self-

consequences was a significant predictor of the students' high school diploma grades and their intention to continue with their education after high school.

Also known as self-discipline, researchers describe self-regulation as the ability to consciously suppress or delay responses in order to work for a higher goal. Examples include "deliberately modulating one's anger rather than having a temper tantrum, reading test instructions before proceeding to the questions, paying attention to a teacher rather than daydreaming, saving money so that it can accumulate interest in the bank, choosing homework over TV, and persisting on long-term assignments despite boredom and frustration." Self-regulation predicts academic success better than IQ. It also better predicts GPA, standardized test achievement, homework completion, the potential for GPA gains during the course of a year, and even SAT scores (Washburm,2009).

Because it significantly influences student achievement, it makes sense to develop students' self-regulation capacities. But how? How can teachers and schools aid their students' strengthening of self-regulation? Self-regulation is much like a muscle. It can be exercised and strengthened. Any task that requires ignoring and delaying reward or that requires persistence through boredom or challenge exercises the self-regulation "muscle" (Eyler, 2009).For example:

a) Exercise students' "muscles" of self-regulation. By engaging students in activities that require delayed gratification or perseverance, we provide a self-regulation workout. Just like exercising yields slow but steady results, gradually increasing the amount of self-regulation required for tasks slowly builds capacity. As Aaron Eyler suggests, engage students in complex assignments that require time spent thinking about how ideas connect instead of separate, quickly-completed assignments focused on individual ideas.

b) Teach students stick-to-it and wait-for-it strategies, such as self-talk. The messages we consciously "speak" to ourselves influence our thinking, and our thinking influences our actions. In several recent studies, researchers have found that "mental tricks," motivational and instructional self-talk has "small but

significant effects" on "physical exertion... [and] performance" and help us stay "focused."

c) Teach students "cognitive transformation." Cognitive transformation involves distracting the mind by shifting the focus. For example, in the famous "marshmallow test," some children managed to avoid eating the marshmallow by imagining it as something else—a cloud, a table, a chef's hat. This "distraction" prolonged their ability to resist eating the marshmallow.

d) Engage students in attention training, such as listening for details, observing closely, and solving complex puzzles. Again, increasing the level and duration of attention required for success can strengthen the self-regulation "muscle." Reading aloud to students is one of the best ways of accomplishing this. Throughout a school year, increase the amount of time you read to children and the complexity of the texts you read.

e) Implement a school fitness program. The emphasis needs to be on fitness, not on competition or learning a specific sport. Students engaged in regular physical activity score higher on self-regulation measures.

Some may argue that because self-regulation is non-academic, it should not be addressed in school. This perspective fails to recognize the strong connection between self-regulation and learning (Washburm, 2009). Perhaps a metaphor can help. Imagine a suspension bridge, such as San Francisco's Golden Gate or the Bristol Channel's Severn. If the road, carrying travelers from one shore to another, represents a student's learning, the cables, the roadway's essential support, represent self-regulation. Weak cables limit the roadway's depth and distance. Strengthening students' self-regulation capacities supports the academic learning we're seeking through our teaching.

An important purpose of education is to help produce students who are able to manage their own lives by setting goals, monitoring their progress toward those goals, and making the necessary changes to attain those goals (Moran, 2007). In most middle school classrooms the teacher assumes the responsibility for monitoring students' performance. The challenge is to create an environment

that will shift the responsibility from teacher-directed to a more student-managed learning environment, and this academic independence occurs when students learn how to regulate their own behaviors in order to have personal control over performance outcomes. This is a movement toward autonomy in the acquisition of knowledge, away from the reliance on others for the incentives to learn, and toward the internal satisfaction with accomplishment of the learning process itself.

Many tasks and behaviors expected of students in school are not intrinsically appealing, after all speaking in low voices, walking quietly in straight lines in the hallway, andcom-pleting pages of unimaginative math problems are not the activities of choice for most middle schoolers. Yet such behaviors are often considered necessary to maintain the social order of schools and ensure students master the increasingly more rigorous standardized curriculum. Thus, schools often serve the function of teaching not only "what interests the child" but also "what's in the child's best interest". This process by which students' become able to control their own behavior in a adaptive manner to attain their goals, is referred to as "self-regulation". The development of the capability to self-regulate cognition, motivation, affect, and behavior is an important developmental task. The construct of self-regulation refers to the degree that individuals are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning. Metacognition refers to the awareness of the process of learning, i.e. knowing which learning strategies provide the best chance for academic success. Just like an athlete may be aware which training methods are more productive than others in developing either strength or speed, a student can realize what learning strategies will produce the best academic outcome. Metacognitive strategies are at the core of self-regulated learning. Self-regulation involves such strategies as goal setting, self-instruction, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. Self-regulated learners set goals for their learning, use self-instruction to guide themselves through difficult learning

situations, keep track of or monitor their progress, and evaluate their performance toward meeting their goals

Self-regulated students initiate and direct their own efforts to acquire knowledge and skill rather than relying on teachers or parents to assume this duty.

Research on academic learning has shown that student's who are able to regulate their own learning in the face of many distractions in classrooms, learn better than students who lack these self-regulatory capabilities (Aisha, 2007). Self-regulated learning is an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then monitor and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior in the service of these goals. Students' use of self-regulated learning strategies enables them to increase their personal control over their own learning environment. They monitor their behavior by setting attainable goals, utilize prior knowledge, access helpful resources, and arrange a time schedule to follow. Many students who have difficulty learning in school attribute their problems to a lack of ability when the problem may be that they have never been properly taught how to learn in the first place. Self-regulated learners approach educational tasks with confidence, diligence, and resourcefulness. Unlike their passive classmates, self-regulated students proactively seek out information when needed and take necessary steps to master it.

According to Zimmerman (2005), "learning is not something that happens to students, rather it is something that happens by students". These academic self-regulatory processes include: planning and time management, attending to and concentrating on instruction, organizing and rehearsing, establishing a productive homework environment, utilizing social resources effectively, goal setting, and self-monitoring performance.

Summary of Gaps Identified from the Related Literature and Related Studies Bridged by this Study

Based on the literature reviewed and past studies documented

1. specifically, self regulation and cultural orientation correlated with academic achievement had not been fully investigated in the African context
2. the literature and past studies did not exactly delve into African university students on distance education
3. the constructs included in this study under the categories of self regulation and cultural orientation were not completely the dimensions studied in past studies reviewed.
4. the socio-demographic characteristics and multicultural context involved in distance education had not been well emphasized in the past studies.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study employed the ex post facto/retrospective prospective designs for the researcher to gather data/information from the respondents from their past (retrospective) and present (prospective) experiences as reflected in the nature of the options in the questionnaires for self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement. The *descriptive survey* design specifically the *descriptive comparative* and *descriptive correlation* strategies were also used to determine respectively the significant differences in the learners' self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement from the standpoint of gender, nationalities and type of university students (private or public) and significant correlations between self regulation and student achievement; cultural orientation and student achievement. Being descriptive in design, the characteristics of the respondents were described in terms of their socio demographic characteristics and academic achievement; their patterns of self regulation and characteristic cultural orientation.

Research Population

Target Population

The target population included a total of 1,200 distance learning students of the selected private and public universities in Kampala district.

Sample Size

Table 2 shows the respondents of the study with the following categories: university, target population and sample size. The Sloven's formula was used to determine the minimum sample size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N\alpha^2}$$

Table 2

Respondents of the Study

University	Total Target Population	Sample Size
Kyambogo University	400	200
Kampala International University	800	267
Total	1,200	467

Source: Departments of Distance Learning (Kyambogo University and Kampala International University)

Sampling Procedures

To select the respondents, the purposive sampling was used based on these criteria: male or female university students on distance education in any of the two universities under study; students from any African country; enrolled in diploma, bachelors and masters courses offered through distance education.

With consideration to the computed minimum sample size and using a sampling frame/ list of students qualified to be the respondents based on the inclusion criteria, the systematic random sampling was employed to choose the respondents. Anticipating that not all questionnaires would be retrieved or some questionnaires would be returned with incomplete responses, the number of

qualified respondents was increased to 600 to exceed 467 as the minimum sample size.

Upon sorting of the returned questionnaires (male, female, by nationality, by university type, with complete responses) the simple random sampling was done to arrive at the minimum sample size of 467 from the 600 respondents.

Research Instruments

The research tools that were utilized in this study included the following: (1) *face sheet* to gather data on the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, nationality, religion, present course enrolled); (2) *standardized questionnaires* to determine respectively the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation; and a researcher devised *record sheet* to determine the level of academic achievement.

The questionnaire to determine the extent of self regulation was adopted from Aisha (2007). It had 37 options distributed under these megacognitve aspects: planning (options 1-8); self checking (options 9-15); effort (options 16-21); self efficacy (options 22-27); help seeking (options 28-32); time and study environment management (options 33-37). While the questionnaire to measure the degree of cultural orientation was adopted from Kanungo and Jaerger, 1990; and Aisha, 2007. It had 25 items with the following corresponding constructs and number of items: future orientation (items1-8), structure orientation/uncertainty avoidance (items 9-13), authority/power distance (items 14-19) and relation/interdependence (items 20-25). Both questionnaires reflect these response modes and scoring system: strongly agree (4); agree (3); disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1).

The level of academic achievement of the learners in terms of the latest grade point average was documented in the researcher devised record sheet. The categories in this tool were as follows: learner's cumulative grade point average, academic status whether excellent, very good, average/good, below average and unsatisfactory.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Construct validity and reliability testing (Cronbach's alpha) were done on the adopted questionnaires (self regulation, cultural orientation) for these reasons: (1) the original validity and reliability values were not specifically known (2) these questionnaires were administered within African context (Uganda).

The results of the validity and reliability testing were as follows:

Construct Validity Test for Self Regulation Questionnaire

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.906 (Very good)
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5.665E3
	Df	666
	Sig.	.000

Construct Validity Test for Cultural Orientation Questionnaire

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.884 (Very good)
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3.205E3
	Df	300
	Sig.	.000

Reliability Statistics

Construct	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Self Regulation	37	.916 (Very good)
Cultural Orientation	25	.878 (Very good)

Data Gathering Procedures

Before administration of the questionnaires

1. An introduction letter was obtained from the College of Higher Degrees and Research (CHDR) for the researcher to solicit approval to conduct the study.

2. When approved, the researcher secured a list of the qualified respondents from the university authorities (Kyambogo University and Kampala International University) ; employed the systematic random sampling from this list to select 600 respondents and further applied the simple random sampling on the retrieved questionnaires sorted out in terms of gender, nationality, type of university student (A or B) and completeness of the responses to arrive at the minimum sample size of 467.

3. The respondents were explained about the study and were requested to sign the Informed Consent Form (Appendix 3).

4. More than enough questionnaires were reproduced for distribution.

5. Research assistants were selected to assist in the data collection and were briefed and oriented on the options in the questionnaires, sampling procedure, time of administration that was to be done consistently with the rest of the research assistants and researcher.

During the administration of the questionnaires

1. The respondents were explained about the study and the questionnaires. They were also requested to answer completely and not to leave any part of the questionnaires unanswered.

2. The researcher and his assistants emphasized retrieval of the questionnaires within a period of one week from the date of distribution.

3. All returned questionnaires were checked to confirm if answered completely.

After the administration of the questionnaires

The questionnaires completely filled out were subjected to simple random sampling to arrive at the 467 minimum sample size and the data were encoded and processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Data Analysis

The frequency and percentage distribution was used to determine the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and their level of academic achievement. While the computation of the mean was applied to determine the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation.

The following mean ranges were used:

A. For the extent of self regulation (planning, self checking, effort, self efficacy, help seeking, time and study environment management)

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Almost Always	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Some Times	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Often	Fair
1.00-1.75	Almost Never	Poor

B. For the degree of cultural orientation (time, structure, authority and relation)

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Strongly Agree	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Agree	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Disagree	Fair
1.00-1.75	Strongly Disagree	Poor

C. For the level of academic achievement

CGPA	Grade Range	Interpretation
4.4-5.0	80-100	Excellent
4.0-4.3	70-79	Very Good
3.0-3.9	60-69	Average/Good
2.0-2.9	50-59	Below Average
0-1.9	0-49	Unsatisfactory

The t-test, as well as the analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were utilized to test the significant differences (Ho #1) at 0.05 level of significance. The Chi square was used to analyze the significant correlations (Ho #2).

Ethical Considerations

To ascertain the practice of ethics in this study, the following activities were done by the researcher:

1. Coding the respondents and universities included in this study.
2. Securing permission through a written request to the concerned officials of the universities included in the study.
3. Requesting the respondents to sign in the *Informed Consent Form* (Appendix 3)
4. Citing through referencing to acknowledge the authors quoted in this study and the authors of the standardized questionnaires.
5. Generalizing the presentation of the findings of this study.

Limitations of the Study

The following threats to the validity of the findings were identified by the researcher, however inspite of the measures to resolve or minimize these threats, they still account for the 5% acceptable margin of error in this study.

Intervening variables such as the respondents' honesty and personal biases which were beyond the researcher's control, although during the data collection, the respondents were requested to be as honest as possible and avoid biases in answering the questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter reflects the data collected from the universities involved in this study in organized tables. The empirical data processed statistically are also depicted within each table in this chapter. Interpretations of the data are presented below each table that includes results, implications and discussions.

Each table in this chapter is illustrated based on the specific objectives of this study which are in these dimensions (1) socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents;(2) extent of self regulation;(3) degree of cultural orientation ;(4) level of academic achievement;(5) significant differences and (6) significant correlation.

The null hypotheses tested in this study were as follows:

Ho#1: There were no significant differences in the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement

    1.1 between male and female students

    1.2 among nationalities

    1.3 between public and private university students under study

Ho#2: There were no significant correlations

    2.1 between the level of academic achievement and gender, nationality and university type

    2.2 between the extent of self regulation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study

    2.3 between the degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement of the university students involved in this study

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 3 illustrates the profile of the respondents as to gender, age, nationality, religion and present course enrolled in, employing the frequency and percentage distribution.

Table 3

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

(n=467)

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	256	54.8
Female	211	45.2
Total	467	**100**
Age		
20-39 years (Early childhood)	423	90.6
40-59 years (Middle adulthood)	43	9.2
60+ years (Late adulthood)	1	.2
Total	467	**100**
Nationality		
Ugandan	245	52.5
Kenyan	84	18.0
Tanzanian	19	4.1
Rwandese	10	2.1
Burundian	6	1.3
South Sudanese	85	18.2
Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	18	3.9
Total	467	**100**
Religion		
Catholic	235	50.3
Protestant	135	28.9
Muslim	70	15.0
Others (Born Again Christians, Seventh Day Adventists, Presbyterian)	27	5.8
Total	467	**100**
Present Course Enrolled in		
Education	22	4.7
Business Management	77	16.5
Law	10	2.1
Social Sciences	176	37.7
Computer Science	3	.6
Information Technology	4	.9
Others (Conflict resolution and peace building, peace and human rights)	175	37.5
Total	467	**100**

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Results, Implications and Discussions

Gender of the Respondents

In this study, 256 (54.8%) were male and 211 (45.2%) were female.

It is evident that the male dominated in terms of number of respondents and implies that there is a wide gender gap in Africa, Uganda in particular, where a few women reach university level. Kyolaba (2011) observes that there is a wide gender gap in Africa, which hinders females from acquiring higher education, thus explaining why few female students were part of this study. Gender parity has been observed in a number of countries in Southern Africa, such as in Botswana, Lesotho, and South Africa; and in East Africa, Uganda has not been an exception. Stromquist (1996) remarked that women are one of the most important targeted groups because they are often subject to multiple disadvantages in the developing world. Increasing educational access and improving quality for girls could have profound economic, social and political benefits for women and for society (King and Hill, 1993).

Age of the Respondents

In this study, the majority of the respondents were under the category of early adults. The majority (90.6%) belonged to this category. As shown in Table 3, the ages of the respondents were categorized into three, namely: 20-30 years (early adult hood), 40-59 years (middle adult hood) and 60 years + (late adult hood). The life stage called early adulthood defines individuals between the ages of 20 and 39, who are typically vibrant, active and healthy and are focused on friendships, romance, child bearing and careers. Yet serious conditions such as violent events, depression and eating disorders can negatively impact young adults. Females reach their adult heights by the age of 18, and except for some males who continue to grow in their early 20's, most have reached their adult heights by the age of 21.

It is inferred that it is in this age bracket that most people enroll into university level of education. On average, many students join university at

66

around the age of 19-20 years. This age bracket is associated with exploration of needs, interests, capacities, values and opportunities for professional growth (Kyolaba, 2011). Only one respondent (0.2%) belonged to the category of late adult hood (60 +). This was not a surprise, because by this age, a few people have hope of benefiting from further schooling, and most people at this age are thinking of retirement, instead of going to school. Forty three respondents (9.2%) belonged to the middle adult hood category (40-59 years).

Many theorists, such as Jean Piaget (1896-1980) noted a significant difference between adult and adolescent thinking. Adults have more flexibility in their patterns, understanding that there are multiple opinions on issues, and that there is more than one way to approach a problem. Young adults are able to assimilate and synthesize complex and contradictory situations and arguments, and unlike adolescents, are not set on finding absolute truths. They are focused on developing their careers and achieving independence from their families, a crucial requirement for balanced well functioning adults.

Nationality of the Respondents

Majority (52.5%) of the respondents were Ugandans. In contrast, Burundi had the least number (1.3%) of respondents. These findings imply that many Ugandans have embraced distance learning, as compared to those from other neighboring countries of Uganda like Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda Burundi, among others. In addition still, the universities under study were Ugandan based, yet natives have many career choices as compared to foreign students. In addition, the results of this study reflect a very low level of enrollment of Burundians into Ugandan universities in view of the difference in the language backgrounds of Burundians, whose country (Burundi) is francophone, yet Uganda's education system is based on the Anglophone. Hence few Burundians are attracted to get education from Uganda.

Freeman, Weinstein, Marincola, Rosenbaum, and Solomon (2001) opined that natives have many career choices compared to foreign students. Besides, studying in a foreign country has got several challenges like: Culture shock, and

academic challenges. Consider the difficulties you may face learning to study in a completely different environment, especially if your classes are in another language. If you are not a strong student to begin with, study abroad may not be a good idea.

Nevertheless, it is equally very good to study in a foreign country for reasons: Learning about another culture. Living in a different country for awhile will teach you way more than you can learn in any book about that culture. It also provides opportunity to meet amazing people. Tired of running into the same people on campus all the time? Studying abroad gives you the opportunity to meet people from all over the world. It's also a great way to build interpersonal skills, as you'll be in a situation where you need to befriend and interact with strangers who are quite different than you. It is also an amazing opportunity to travel. If you study abroad, you'll probably have the opportunity to visit neighboring cities and countries. You will also find new course opportunities. Your new school undoubtedly has courses that your old school does not (Eric, 2007).

Present Course Enrolled in

Most respondents (37.7%) enrolled into social sciences, and the least (0.6%) were into computer studies. This illustrates a picture of African education, mainly falling in the line of social sciences over academic endeavor into the field of computer studies.

Social science includes the academic disciplines concerned with society and human behavior. "Social science" is commonly used as an umbrella term to refer to anthropology, archaeology, criminology, economics, education, history, linguistics, communication studies, political science and international relations, sociology, geography, law, and psychology (Verheggen et al.,1999).To Verheggen et al.(1999) ,social sciences appear to be a very interesting field of study, since it deals with issues related to man's life. This makes social sciences highly liked by many students compared to other academic disciplines.

The term may however be used in the specific context of referring to the

original *science of society* established in 19th century sociology (Latin: *socius,* "companion"; *-ology,* "the study of", and Greek λόγος, *lógos,* "word", "knowledge"). Émile Durkheim, Karl Marx and Max Weber are typically cited as the principal architects of modern social science by this definition (Birkland, 2011). Positivist social scientists use methods resembling those of the natural sciences as tools for understanding society, and so define science in its stricter modern sense. Interpretivist social scientists, by contrast, may use social critique or symbolic interpretation rather than constructing empirically falsifiable theories, and thus treat science in its broader sense. In modern academic practice, researchers are often eclectic, using multiple methodologies (for instance, by combining the quantitative and qualitative techniques). The term social research has also acquired a degree of autonomy as practitioners from various disciplines share in its aims and methods (Garai and Kocski, 1995).

Respondents' Religion

Majority of the respondents (50.3%) were Catholics, while a combination of Seventh Day Adventists, Presbyterian and Born Again Christians were the least in number (5.8%). Worth noting is that Christianity is the major religion practiced by about 66% of the Ugandan population, with about 90% of all Christians being Roman Catholics or Anglican.

The findings above imply that the Catholic and protestant denominations are not only predominant in the Ugandan setting, but as well in the entire regions surrounding Uganda. Christianity and Islam are the predominant religions in East Africa, an area that encompasses Ethiopia, Eritrea, Djibouti, Somalia, Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda, Uganda and Burundi. Indigenous beliefs are also prevalent, often coexisting with the practice of organized religion. In addition, small but significant populations of Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs and Baha'i exist in East Africa (Monique, 2012). Nevertheless, the most predominant religious group is that of Christians, mainly the Catholics and Protestant denominations. This is in congruence with the findings of this study.

The Roman Catholic Church in Uganda is part of the worldwide Roman Catholic Church, under the spiritual leadership of the Pope and curia in Rome. There are an estimated 13.6 million Catholics in Uganda about 42% of the total population, estimated at about 32.4 million in 2010 (Uganda Population Estimates at CIA, 2012). With this revelation, no wonder majority of the respondents of this study were Catholics.

Extent of Self Regulation

Tables 4A and 4B show the indicators, means, interpretations, rank by constructs and overall ranks consequently reflecting which items were considered strengths and weaknesses in terms of means.

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Table 4A
Extent of Self Regulation (Planning, Self Checking, Effort)
n=467

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Indicators	Mean	Interpretation	Rank by Constructs	Overall Rank
Planning				
I determine how to solve a course assignment before I begin	3.41	Very Satisfactory	1	1
I figure out my goals and what I need to do on my academic work in time	3.06	Satisfactory	2	7
I try to understand the goal of a course assignment before I attempt to answer	2.99	Satisfactory	3	11
I carefully plan my course of action in my study	2.95	Satisfactory	4	17
I plan for all my course activities	2.93	Satisfactory	5	23
Planning is a very hectic exercise, so I rarely plan my course activities.	2.93	Satisfactory	5	23
I ask myself questions about what a course assignment requires me to do before I do it	2.91	Satisfactory	7	28
I do my academic work depending on available time I have.	2.87	Satisfactory	8	33
Average Mean	**3.00**	**Satisfactory**		
Self Checking				
I ask myself questions to stay on track as I work on a task	3.01	Satisfactory	1	10
I check my work while doing it	2.99	Satisfactory	2	11
I correct my errors	2.99	Satisfactory	2	11
I keep track of my progress	2.93	Satisfactory	4	23
I know how much of a task I have left to complete	2.90	Satisfactory	5	
I take self checking as an easy task	2.87	Satisfactory	6	33
I cannot perform well in my coursework	2.87	Satisfactory	6	33
Average Mean	**2.93**	**Satisfactory**		
Effort				
I consider hard work to be a source of success	3.16	Satisfactory	1	2
I put much effort to ensure that I do not lag behind in my course activities	3.11	Satisfactory	2	3
I work hard to do well even if I do not like a course assignment	3.07	Satisfactory	3	5
I work as hard as possible in all course assignments	2.98	Satisfactory	4	15
I am not discouraged and I do not give up with my work	2.94	Satisfactory	5	18
I will eventually succeed if I eventually persist	2.91	Satisfactory	6	28
Average Mean	**3.02**	**Satisfactory**		

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Legend

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Almost Always	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Some Times	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Often	Fair
1.00-1.75	Almost Never	Poor

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71

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Table 4B

Extent of Self Regulation (Self Efficacy, Help Seeking, Time and Study Environment Management)

n=467

Items on Self Regulation	Mean	Interpretation	Rank by Constructs	Overall Rank
Self Efficacy				
I make good use of my study time	3.08	Satisfactory	1	4
I feel good if I exercise control over my studies	2.99	Satisfactory	2	11
I do not allow any body to interfere with my reading schedule	2.96	Satisfactory	3	16
I always exercise control over my own level of functioning and over events that affect my life	2.94	Satisfactory	4	18
I usually study in a place where I can concentrate on my reading	2.92	Satisfactory	5	26
I make sure that I stick to my weekly reading schedules	2.84	Satisfactory	6	36
Average Mean	**2.95**	**Satisfactory**		
Help Seeking				
I always identify students in my class whom I can ask for help if necessary	3.07	Satisfactory	1	5
I always ask for help from other students	2.94	Satisfactory	2	18
I do not ask for help from any body	2.92	Satisfactory	3	26
I ask the instructor to clarify concepts I don't understand well in class	2.91	Satisfactory	4	28
I use online forums to ask for help from other students	2.83	Satisfactory	5	37
Average Mean	**2.93**	**Satisfactory**		
Time and Study Environment Management				
I always manage my time well	3.06	Satisfactory	1	7
If i manage time and environment well, I perform better	3.04	Satisfactory	2	9
I always adjust when ever I feel poor time and environment management	2.94	Satisfactory	3	18
I manage my study environment well	2.94	Satisfactory	4	18
I find it hard to manage time and study environment	2.91	Satisfactory	5	28
Average Mean	**2.98**	**Satisfactory**		
Overall Mean	**2.97**	**Satisfactory**		

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Legend

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Almost Always	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Some Times	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Often	Fair
1.00-1.75	Almost Never	Poor

Results, Implications and Discussions

Tables 4A and 4B present the various aspects on self regulation, namely: planning, self checking, effort, self efficacy, help seeking, time and study environment management. Looking at the rank by constructs on self regulation the construct of planning, the items with highest rank was that of determining to solve course assignments before beginning the course assignment. It had the highest mean (3.41) meaning that the majority of the respondents highly determined how to solve their course assignments before they actually carried out the assignments. This shows a very high level of planning specifically in the aspect of determining how to solve course assignments. The item ranked lowest on planning was doing academic work depending on available time. This had a mean of 2.87, which was however satisfactory considering the interpretation of the means, but not satisfying enough. This shows that time management was poorly observed by the respondents. There is little emphasis put on time management, explaining why the least respondents do their academic work depending on available time.

On self checking, ranked highest was asking oneself questions to stay on track, while working on a task. This scored a mean of 3.01, interpreted as satisfactory. It is important for one to ask him/her self questions which will help him/her to stay on track and avoid getting lost from the right direction.

On effort, many respondents consider hard work to be a source of success (mean score of 3.16), interpreted as satisfactory. This means that hard work is a means to get to success in ones self regulation. However looking at the aspect of persistence, it ranked the least, with a mean of 2.91. Hence, the respondents do not reflect persistence as a way to success. Zimmerman (1989) considers persistence as one form of effort, which can help one in as far as self regulation is concerned. All students are encouraged to work hard to achieve the same standards through persistence because effort is the only factor making a difference in student learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996).

On self efficacy, making good use of study time was the dominant item in this construct. It is important to make good use of the study time (Fluckigers, 2009), if one is to effectively regulate him/her self. This item scored a mean of 3.08, which was interpreted as satisfactory. On the other hand, many students in this study did not make sure that they stick to their weekly reading schedules. This appears to be in line with Lombardi's (2012) observation that despite ones best efforts, it is sometimes difficult to stick with one's plan to finish that list of books. Other projects get in the way. One may find oneself overwhelmed by the size of the book chosen. One may just let the habit of reading slide or slip until one has forgotten much of the plot and/or characters and one feels that he might as well just start over. However, Lombardi (2012) explains that one needs to establish ways of sticking to reading schedules.It is not good to divert from pre-set reading schedules. In this study this item scored low mean of 2.84, a sign of poor maintenance of reading schedules.

On help seeking, the respondents attached emphasis on identifying students in class, whom to ask for help where necessary (mean score of 3.07 and interpreted as satisfactory). No man is an island hence no one can work alone, without consulting others. Glickman (2009) asserted that, learning how to ask for help and how to do it right is critical to doing one's job well and setting oneself up for success. One may be afraid of looking dumb, but should not be afraid to ask for help when it is needed. Asking for help in the workplace is a good thing. In fact, asking for help the right way can show how smart one is, as it demonstrates good judgment, what one knows and what he does not. Moreover, getting help up front saves endless time, energy and resources (Glickman, 2009). Hence it is important to ask for help from those who are believed to be of more knowledge.

Under the construct on help seeking, the item with the lowest mean was the use of online forums to ask for help from other students. Given the fact that it is a computer age where there is expected to be a very high use of a computer technology to facilitate learning, this mean score (2.83) showed clearly not

74

enough computer use culture in Ugandan universities, which supports the study of Bakkabulindi (2007) who reported poor computer usage in Makerere University.

In terms of time and study environment management, worth noting was the fact that the respondents found it hard to manage time and study environment (mean=2.91).This item coincided with the responses on doing academic work depending on available time under the construct on planning. This is in line with Keeley (1997) who asserts that most students find that their greatest challenge in adjusting to college life and to succeeding in the classroom is in managing their time effectively. This is especially true for community college students who often work long hours. Adult students deal with the additional issues of child care and family and home responsibilities.

Considering the overall rank in which all the 37 items/ questions on self regulation were put together, the highest ranked in overall, was determining how to solve a course assignment in advance. In fact, it was the only item which scored a very satisfactory interpretation, with a mean of 3.41. This means that the respondents were good in determining how to solve course assignments in advance. Mike (2012) observed that problem solving is one of the most essential skills in life. How one deals with challenges will often be a determining factor in a successful life. It is important then for students to use strategies for solving course problems before hand as this contributes to success.

Table 4C
Summary on the Extent of Self Regulation
n=467

Constructs on Self Regulation	Average Mean	Interpretation	Rank
Planning	3.02	Satisfactory	1
Self Checking	3.00	Satisfactory	2
Effort	2.98	Satisfactory	3
Self Efficacy	2.95	Satisfactory	4
Help Seeking	2.93	Satisfactory	5
Time and Study Environment Management	2.93	Satisfactory	5
Overall Mean	**2.97**	**Satisfactory**	

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Legend

Mean Range	Response Mode	Interpretation
3.26-4.00	Almost Always	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Some Times	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Often	Fair
1.00-1.75	Almost Never	Poor

Results, Implications and Discussions

Out of the six metacognitive aspects on self regulation, the following were dominant: planning with highest mean (3.02), while help seeking, time and study environment management with the lowest mean (2.93). Very evident in the summary table was the interpretation revealing only a satisfactory self regulation implying the need for room for improvement. Palinsac and Brown (1984) suggested the element of control for learner to stay on track. While Iran-Nejad and Chissom (1992) pointed out sources for self regulation such as these: (1) for the person to be conscious and strategic in regulating one self,(2) dynamic self regulation;(3) combination of person driven and unconscious self-regulated learning.

In planning, the learners should set goals, practice an evaluative task that mobilizes effect toward goal attainment (Bandura, 1991). Setting goals for one self has both practical and motivational advantages. As Wood and Bandura (1989) explain, goals provide one with a sense of psychological well being and accomplishment because they not only help to sustain effort, but provide a sense of purpose. In addition, they provide standards to measure one progress against. Goal setting and planning is determined by the task and the environmental features (Zimmerman, 1989). The literature suggests that specified and challenging goals results in better performance than easy and vague goals (Ridley, 1992). Hence, planning is a vital and key aspect to high academic achievement of the students.

Further, Knowles (1975) contended that, it is not good for self regulated learners to over rely on help seeking. He suggested that, self directed/regulated learners should engage in a process in which they take the initiative with or without the help of others in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, choosing and implementing long strategies and evaluating learning outcomes. Moore (1972) confirms that, autonomous learners will turn to teachers for help temporarily surrendering their control over their learning process. On the other hand, there are qualitative differences noted by Zimmerman (2004) in help seeking between distance learners who persist and those who do not persist. Non completers rely more on face to face help, while completers try to adopt their help seeking behavior to the online environment. Hence, if there is poor use of online forums, it is most likely that the distance learning students will not complete their courses of study.

Degree of Cultural Orientation

Evident on table 5A is the degree on cultural orientation in these constructs: time/future time orientation; structure/uncertainity avoidance; authority/power distance and relation/interdependence. The mean, interpretation

and rank are also illustrated to reflect which items are the strengths or the weaknesses.

Table 5A
Degree of Cultural Orientation
n=467

Constructs and Items on Cultural Orientation	Mean	Interpretation	Rank by Constructs	Overall Rank
Time/Future Time Orientation				
I always think about the future time of my course	3.24	Satisfactory	1	1
I always set future goals and establish specific means of achieving these goals	3.08	Satisfactory	2	2
I make lists of things to do	3.01	Satisfactory	3	4
I worry much about the future, that is why I plan for the future	2.98	Satisfactory	4	9
I am able to resist temptation when I know that there is work to do	2.91	Satisfactory	5	15
Meeting tomorrow's deadlines comes before tonight's play	2.88	Satisfactory	6	18
I am not worried about the future time of my course	2.81	Satisfactory	7	22
I have a biased orientation towards the future time	2.77	Satisfactory	8	25
Average Mean	**2.96**	**Satisfactory**		
Structure/Uncertainty Avoidance				
I prefer a teaching environment which regulates tasks and relationships	3.06	Satisfactory	1	3
A structured learning environment limits and avoids uncertainty	3.01	Satisfactory	2	4
I prefer a very structured teaching process, with a detailed course syllabus and description	2.99	Satisfactory	3	8
It is important for me to get precise objectives, detailed assignments and strict timetables	2.96	Satisfactory	4	11
I believe university rules should not be broken	2.86	Satisfactory	5	19
Average Mean	**2.98**	**Satisfactory**		
Authority/Power Distance				
It is not a problem for me to speak up my views during class	3.01	Satisfactory	1	4
It is important to me to have a good working relationship with my teacher	2.96	Satisfactory	2	11
I feel a teacher's authority should not be questioned	2.93	Satisfactory	3	13
There is a very close gap between me and my teachers	2.91	Satisfactory	4	15
My teachers are not afraid of students who disagree with them in class	2.84	Satisfactory	5	20
I cannot protest the grade my teacher gives me, even when I feel unsatisfied	2.80	Satisfactory	6	23
Average Mean	**2.91**	**Satisfactory**		
Relation/Interdependence				
I greatly value my relationships with others than my personal accomplishment.	3.00	Satisfactory	1	7
I will sacrifice my self interests for the good of my group	2.98	Satisfactory	2	9
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group	2.93	Satisfactory	3	13
I will stay in a group provided they need me, even when I am not happy with the group	2.89	Satisfactory	4	17
I feel it good for me to accept all the decisions made by the group	2.83	Satisfactory	5	21
I avoid arguing with group members	2.79	Satisfactory	6	24
Average Mean	**2.90**	**Satisfactory**		
Overall Mean	**2.94**	**Satisfactory**		

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
Mean Range	**Response Mode**	**Interpretation**
3.26-4.00	Almost Always	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Some Times	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Often	Fair
1.00-1.75	Almost Never	Poor

Results, Implications and Discussions

Table 5A presents the findings on the aspects of cultural orientation. Just like the previous independent variable (self regulation), the degree of cultural orientation has been ranked in two ways; first was rank by constructs, then secondly, overall rank. However, in this interpretation, the rank by constructs was the first to be considered.

Time /Future Time Orientation.

The following items were rated satisfactory but with the highest means: (1) I always think about the future time of my course (3.24) ;(2) I always set future goals and establish specific means of achieving these goals (3.08) ;(3) I make lists of things to do (3.01).The item with the lowest mean in this construct but interpreted as satisfactory states as follows: I have a biased orientation towards the future (2.77).

The above findings evidently reflected an acceptable degree of cultural orientation though it does not deprive the respondents from intensifying their time orientation to excel to none than acceptable degree of cultural orientation which means that the respondents can expand their time perspective within the social, contextual and individual influences and differences and be good in setting and achieving goals and planning strategies to meet long term duties (Aisha, 2007).

The Science Daily (2010) quotes "although we can't technically travel through time (yet), when we think of the past or the future, we engage in a sort of mental time travel. This uniquely human ability to psychologically travel through time arguably sets us apart from other species".

Structure/Uncertainty Avoidance

These items were rated satisfactory though with the highest means in this particular construct: (1) I prefer a teaching environment which regulates tasks and relationships (3.06) ;(2) A structured learning environment limits and avoids uncertainty (3.01) ;(3) I prefer a very structured teaching process, with a detailed course syllabus and description (2.99). While the item rated lowest but

interpreted as satisfactory was this: I believe university rules should not be broken (2.86).

Obviously, the cultural orientation spelled out encompasses a teaching and structured environment that regulates tasks and relationships, limits and avoids uncertainty and with university rules that need to be complied.

To Rimm-Kaufman and Chiu (2007), positive relationships can help a student develop socially. Improving student's relationships in their learning environment has important, positive and long-lasting implications for student's academic and social development. A teaching environment which regulates tasks and relationships is highly contributive to student's academic excellence (Rimm-Kaufman and Chiv, 2007).

Authority/Power Distance

Worth noting under this construct were these responses: It is not a problem for me to speak up my views during class (3.01, satisfactory); I cannot protest the grade my teacher gives me, even when I feel unsatisfied (2.80, satisfactory). Illustrated based on the above findings was a culture orientation of power relation between the teacher and students.

Kenneth (2003) observes that active participation in class discussions can help one to learn how to turn intuitive opinions into intellectually informed arguments, to communicate these arguments to peers and to take on board alternative points of views and constructive criticism. Open and rigorous discussions, however, do not simply "happen", but must be consciously attempted, practiced and properly facilitated according to rules that are at least, implicitly agreed to by every participant. Otherwise, discussions can be directionless, frivolous, and even hostile. Often, psychological barriers prevent students from speaking up in class. The reward (or threat) of "marks for participation" may not be an adequate solution. It is also important to realize that, participation is not simply about giving the right answers to questions posed by the tutor (Kenneth, 2003).

Relation/ Interdependence

These responses were ranked one as highest and the last as lowest respectively: I greatly value my relationships with others than my personal accomplishment (mean=3.0); I avoid arguing with group members (mean=2.79). Both items were interpreted as satisfactory.

A significant body of research indicates that, academic achievement and students' behavior are influenced much by the quality of relationships students have at school (Killen, 1998). Such relationships could be between students with fellow students, or with their teachers. Students prefer being in good relationship with those who surround them. This thus implies also avoiding arguments with others.

Overall Degree of Cultural Orientation

Based on the overall ranking, the following responses were clearly noted under time orientation construct in their corresponding means and interpretation. I always think about the future time of my course (mean=3.24; satisfactory); I have a biased orientation towards the future time (mean=2.77; satisfactory).

The overall degree of cultural orientation based on the responses was satisfactory with time orientation as the dominant construct with both the highest and lowest ranked items. The Science Daily (2010) noted that one cannot technically travel through time, but when one thinks of the past or future, the person engages in a sort of mental time travel. It is hence important to be very critical on the future time of one's course of study.

Summary on Degree of Cultural Orientation

Table 5B summarizes the degree of cultural orientation based on constructs, average mean, interpretation and rank.

Table 5B

Summary on Degree of Cultural Orientation

n=467

Constructs on Cultural Orientation	Average Mean	Interpretation	Rank
Structure/Uncertainty Avoidance	2.98	Satisfactory	1
Time/Future Time Orientation	2.96	Satisfactory	2
Authority/Power Distance	2.91	Satisfactory	3
Relation/Interdependence	2.90	Satisfactory	4
Overall Mean	**2.94**	**Satisfactory**	

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Legend

Mean Range	**Response Mode**	**Interpretation**
3.26-4.00	Almost Always	Very Satisfactory
2.51-3.25	Some Times	Satisfactory
1.76-2.50	Often	Fair
1.00-1.75	Almost Never	Poor

Results, Implications and Discussions

Table 5B summarizes the degree of cultural orientation, from the highest scoring construct, to the least scoring construct in terms of average means. The highest scoring construct on the degree of cultural orientation was structure/uncertainty avoidance. It had an average mean of 2.98, interpreted as satisfactory. This was mainly strengthened by students preferring a teaching environment which regulates tasks and relationships (mean=3.04) All the items in this construct had balanced scores, which were not so divergent (with little range). For example, the last item under this construct scored a mean of 2.86, not so different from the first item, hence making this construct with a high average mean over others. Uncertainty avoidance dimension explains the degree to which a society can deal with ambiguity and tolerance for deviation from the norm (Hofstede, 1991). In a society with high uncertainty avoidance, instructional design must be organized and clearly articulated for acceptance as formal rules of order will provide great stability. Different cultures have different

82

needs for structure in order to function efficiently (Mead, 2005). The function of structure in cross-cultural literature can be explained through Hofstede's dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

Relation/interdependence had the least average mean 2.90. On the premise that the respondents were on distance learning, where there is need for much autonomy of the students, relation/interdependence surfaced as a very important affair, since distance learning is much about exercising independence and autonomy (Moore,1972).

Level of Academic Achievement

Using the frequency and percentage distribution, the level of achievement is illustrated in table 6 which shows the distribution of the level of academic achievement of the respondents, measured in terms of Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) range. The measure was based on the five point grading system, provided by the National Council for Higher Education, Uganda (2011).

Table 6

Level of Academic Achievement

n=467

Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) Range	Interpretation	Frequency	Percentage (%)
00-1.9	Unsatisfactory	9	1.9
2.0-2.9	Below Average	83	17.8
3.0-3.9	Average/Good	164	35.1
4.0-4.3	Very Good	160	34.3
4.4-5.0	Excellent	51	10.9
	Total	467	100

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Legend

CGPA	Grade Range	Interpretation
4.4-5.0	80-100	Excellent
4.0-4.3	70-79	Very Good
3.0-3.9	60-69	Average/Good
2.0-2.9	50-59	Below Average
0-1.9	0-49	Unsatisfactory

Results, Implications and Discussions

Most students' performance was average/good at 35.1%.This implies that most students were middle performers with 10.9% categorized as excellent,

while 1.9% performed unsatisfactorily;34.3% achieved very good performance while 17.8% were below average.

In educational institutions, success is measured by academic performance, or how well a student meets standards set by the institution. However, based on the data in Table 6, it is clear that a lot is still desired to improve. Hammand (2011) contended that in an effort to learn how to increase academic performance of students, teachers have tried to improve their presentation of the course material by adding interactive media tools to increase academic motivation. Some of the other ways to improve performance is through presenting difficult and challenging tasks to students. This will help them to concentrate in order to overcome the challenging tasks, and eventually performance will be enhanced. Visual guides, programmed learning guide, text books, among others should be in place for learner's performance to be improved (Kamya, 2011).

Significant Differences in the Extent of Self Regulation (Male vs. Female Students)

Based on the t-test computation on significant differences, Table 7A depicts the details of this comparison anchored on the various metacognitive aspects of self regulation.

Table 7 A
Significant Differences in the Extent of Self Regulation Between Male and Female Students
Level of Significance=0.05

Variable	Gender	Mean	t	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
Planning	Male	3.00	.090	.929	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	3.00				
Self Checking	Male	2.94	.072	.943	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.94				
Effort	Male	3.04	.969	.333	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.99				
Self Efficacy	Male	2.96	.183	.855	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.94				
Help Seeking	Male	2.94	.238	.812	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.93				
Time and Study Environment Management	Male	2.99	.351	.726	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.97				
Overall Extent of Self Regulation	**Male**	**2.98**	**.391**	**.696**	**No significant difference**	**Accepted**
	Female	**2.96**				

Source: Primary Data
Legend

If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**

If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

At the level of significance of 0.05, all the variables under self regulation as seen in Table 7A were compared in terms of gender (male and female respondents). The results showed no significant difference. It is therefore deduced based on Table 7A that gender did not matter in terms of self regulation although it should be noted closely that in terms of means, the constructs on planning, self checking revealed equal self regulation for both male and female students. On the other hand, male students showed dominance in terms of means under the aspects of effort, self efficacy, help seeking, time and study environment management.

Generally, the consequent t-test results showed that gender was not a variable that distinguished differences in self regulation. Deviations from the above findings such as according to Nolen-Hoeksema and Corte (2004), previous research has shown that there are some areas where gender differences in self regulation strategies are clear. One is in the styles of copying with negative

emotions. Studies suggest that women are more likely to take a passive stance toward negative emotions and ruminating about them. This is associated with higher rates of depression. On the other hand, men have been shown to be more likely to use, and abuse alcohol.

In the self regulation of health behaviors, important sex differences are evident in several ways. Gender was one of a number of factors contributing to the prediction of adherence to asthma treatment, with females more likely to adhere (Jessop and Rutter, 2003). In a study of patients' self regulation in managing hypertension, some similarities, but significant sex differences were noted. Men's efforts were more closely related to perceived control and chance of success; women's efforts were more related to the expectations of significant others (Taylor, Bagozzi and Gaither, 2001). With regard to self regulation strategies used in recovering from illness in general, there were significant gender differences reported in the use of most of the strategies examined (Massey, 1991).

Mixed results have been found with regard to sex differences in other aspects of self regulation. Gender is one of many factors associated with differences in the self regulation of driving habits (Lesikar, 2000). Males report more risky driving behaviors and seem to be more present oriented while females tend to be more future oriented in this area (Zimbardo, Keough and Boyd, 1997). However, in studies of athlete's use of self regulation strategies in competitive swimming, there were few significant gender differences found. The marked differences that were found were between elite and non elite athletes and only minor strategy differences were sometimes evident between males and females (Anshel and Porter, 1996).

In academic achievement among children and adolescents, girls were found to have more confidence in their ability to self regulate in learning tasks ,although this was found to be associated more with feminine gender role than with biological sex (Pajares and Valiante, 2002). In a study of self regulated learning in high school students, girls were shown to have greater knowledge

86

about the role of thinking in self-regulation of learning, to use more metacognitive and other strategies, to be more intrinsically motivated and to express more feelings related to learning (Peklaj and Pecjak, 2002). In a similar study on self regulation of learning among college freshmen, however, males and females were found to be more alike than they were different (Minnaert, 1999). Possibly, the differences found in young individuals are developmental in nature as compared with young adulthood. In Minnaert's study, one exception was gender difference found in the tendency to avoid failure for females; high fear of failure was linked to deficits in regulatory activities (1999).

Kurman (2001) reviewed studies related to gender differences in achievement areas more generally. According to this review, there was evidence to suggest that women tend to have lower expectations of success in achievement areas, which influences goal setting. Also, women may often prefer easier tasks, compared to men, although this may only apply to masculine type tasks. In addition, Kurman (2001) reports that women respond differently to the feed back, and use different criteria in studying their own success. However, Kurman pointed out that many of these studies were conducted in western universities, and that the results may not be reflective of people, especially women, everywhere. In Kurman's own cross-cultural study, cultural differences in self regulation were greater than gender differences, and culture and gender interacted in some ways.

Significant Differences in the Extent of Self Regulation Among Nationalities

Table 7B shows a comparison in terms of extent of self regulation among nationalities.

Table 7B
Significant Differences in the Extent of Self Regulation among Nationalities
Level of Significance=0.05

ble	Nation	Mean	F	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
ing	Ugandan	2.99			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	3.00				
	Tanzanian	3.11				
	Rwandese	3.08	1.142	.337		
	Burundian	2.79				
	S.Sudanese	3.05				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.80				
hecking	Ugandan	2.89			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	3.00				
	Tanzanian	3.01				
	Rwandese	2.98	1.539	.164		
	Burundian	2.61				
	S.Sudanese	3.00				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.76				
:	Ugandan	3.04			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.98				
	Tanzanian	3.15				
	Rwandese	3.01	1.423	.204		
	Burundian	2.61				
	S.Sudanese	3.05				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.73				
Efficacy	Ugandan	2.96			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.91				
	Tanzanian	3.00				
	Rwandese	3.01	.858	.526		
	Burundian	2.69				
	S.Sudanese	3.00				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.75				
Seeking	Ugandan	2.89			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.94				
	Tanzanian	3.14				
	Rwandese	2.96	1.103	.359		
	Burundian	2.76				
	S.Sudanese	3.01				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.81				
e and Study ronment agement	Ugandan	2.97			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.99				
	Tanzanian	3.07				
	Rwandese	3.10	.881	.509		
	Burundian	2.70				
	S.Sudanese	3.00				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.75				
erall ent of Self gulation	Ugandan	2.96			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.98				
	Tanzanian	3.08				
	Rwandese	3.03	1.305	.254		
	Burundian	2.70				
	S.Sudanese	3.02				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo, Zanzibar)	2.77				

e: Primary Data, 2012

Results, Implications and Discussions

Irrespective of which nation a student came from, it did not have any effect on the extent of his/her self regulation. This in other words reflects that all students can have the same extent of self regulation with out any significant influence by or from his or her nation of origin (nationality). Never the less, this is with in the confines of this study only.

In a study by Warren and Lloyd (2009),on Civil Society Organizations (CSO) self regulation, which was carried out in a global perspective, considering many countries world over, there were differences in the extent of self regulation, particularly patterns in civil society organization self-regulatory initiative types. The study explained the eight main types of CSO self regulatory initiative types, namely; codes of conduct and ethics, information service, working group, self assessment tool, award scheme, self certification, peer certification and 3rd party certification. In analyzing the countries and regions with the high levels of CSO self regulation, North America, the United States specifically, and to a lesser extent Canada, as well as Western Europe had the highest levels of CSO self regulatory initiatives globally, while the United States had by far the highest number of active initiatives (over 50) while the United Kingdom had over 20 initiatives with a notably smaller popular and CSO sector size. In this very study, it was established that CSO self regulation had emerged more slowly outside Western Europe, the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada, but is nonetheless on the agenda in other regions. South Asia provided a mixed picture of CSO self regulation development. Self regulation of the CSO sector in Latin America had just begun to take root in some countries. There was generally a lot of information in this study on self regulation, though it concentrated on CSO's. It is clear that there are differences in the extent of self regulation in terms of regions and nations in the above study. Contrally to the findings of this study, nationality did not matter in terms of extent of self regulation of the university students under study.

89

Significant Differences in the Extent of Self Regulation (Public vs. Private University Students)

Table 7C reveals distinctions between the public and private universities in terms of extent of self regulation.

Table 7C

Significant Differences in the Extent of Self Regulation Between Public and Private University Students

Level of Significance=0.05

Variable	University	Mean	t	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
Planning	Public	2.98	.888	.375	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	3.02				
Self Checking	Public	2.88	1.79	.073	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.97				
Effort	Public	3.01	.128	.898	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	3.02				
Self Efficacy	Public	2.95	.011	.991	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.95				
Help Seeking	Public	2.89	1.16	.245	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.96				
Time and Study Environment Management	Public	2.96	.423	.673	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.98				
Overall Extent of Self-Regulation	Public	2.95	.841	.401	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.99				

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

Similar to nationality and gender as already seen in the previous tables on significant differences, Table 7C presents the findings of no significant differences in the extent of self regulation between public and private university

students on distance education. This implies that the type of university did not play a distinguishing role in self regulation. Students of public and private universities then equally self regulate themselves, with out much influence by their type of university.

However, based on studies carried out, the type of school (public or private) determines the extent of self regulation. In a model study on the explanation of the Centralized High School Entrance Examinations in Turkey, carried out by Altun and Canoa (2011), whose main objective was to determine the predictive power of students self-efficacy perceptions, metacognitive self regulation skills course test points, school achievement points and school behavior points on their High School Entrance Examination (SBS) scores, one of the other targets was to establish the influence of school type on such self regulation. In the findings, predicting the SBS score by the metacognitive self regulation ability, there were differences in terms of school type (i.e. public and private). Metacognitive self-regulation strategy involved the individuals' awareness on one's own level of knowledge, one's ability to control and to do the necessary adjustments. In Altun and Canoa's findings, while students in public schools have the chance to take responsibility for their learning process and to enhance this ability, the students in the private schools may underdevelop this responsibility and awareness because of the extreme support of their parents (2011). In another study by Mc Whaw and Abham (2001), it was found out that the students who receive high levels of attention for their expected performance in the examination, metacognitive self-regulation strategies were used more. In case of failure in the SBS, the students from private schools in this study still have the chance to enroll in a good school and this fact may be a factor on the result that the metacognitive self regulation does not have a significant effect on SBS scores for them. The above are evidences to prove that the school type had an impact on the extent of self regulation. While in this study, the type of university did not bring about varying extents of self regulations, given the fact

91

that students in private institutions may regulate themselves more due to the circumstances present in the private institutions.

Significant Differences in the Degree of Cultural Orientation (Male vs. Female Students

Table 8A
Significant Differences in the Degree of Cultural Orientation Between Male and Female Students
Level of Significance=0.05

riable	Gender	Mean	t	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
ne/Future Time ientation	Male	2.98	1.32	.186	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.92				
ructure/Un-certainty oidance	Male	3.02	2.15	.032	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.91				
ithority/Power Distance	Male	2.95	2.12	.035	Significant difference	Rejected
	Female	2.85				
lation/Interdependence	Male	2.92	1.00	.316	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.87				
verall Degree of ıltural Orientation	Male	2.98	1.90	.058	No significant difference	Accepted
	Female	2.89				

rce: Primary Data, 2012
ıend
ıe significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
ıe significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

Evidently illustrated in Table 8A were these findings: no significant differences in terms of gender under the orientation and relation constructs; with significant differences in terms of gender under the metacognitive aspects of structure/uncertainty avoidance and authority/power distance.

The above results implied that the male and female distance learners can equally orient themselves in terms of future time, while gender differences did matter in terms of structure/uncertainty avoidance and authority/power distance.

92

In content to the findings of this study, Greene and De Backer (2004), examined for gender differences in terms of future orientation. In their report, women's future expectations have become more similar to men's in the career realm, although women also have maintained their focus on interpersonal goals. Schools are a potentially powerful socio-cultural context that can encourage students to envision futures that are not constrained by gender, race/ethnicity or other stereotypes. However, the findings of this study quite differ from those of Kalkan (2008).To Kalkan (2008), gender influenced future time orientation Gender accounted for 0.2% of the variance in future time orientation in romantic relationships. In addition, other scholars who also established that gender has an impact on future time orientation include Normi (1991), Oner (2001) and Sakalli (2003).

In a study by Matic (2006), gender had significant impact on uncertainty avoidance. Matic's (2006) study established the degree of uncertainty avoidance present in Croatian and American undergraduate students in a comparative analysis.

In Hamamura's (2011) findings, power distance was found out to predict gender differences in mathematics performance across societies. To Hamamura (2011), gender stereotypes regarding maths may be relatively low to high power distance societies. On the other hand,, results from a standardized maths exam among eighth grades compiled in the trends in international mathematics and science study were analyzed. As predicted, the society's power distance predicted gender differences in maths performance. The pattern of boys outperforming girls was more pronounced relative to high power distance societies. This effect was independent of the society's gender equality and prevalence of implicit stereotype. However, Jackson, Mackenzie and Hobfoll (2001) believed that individuals have equal control over their external environment, but due to different degrees of power and external factors, individual control can be undermined.

Tomcho and Foels (2009) asserted that, there is a gender difference in interdependence with women placing more value on relational groups, and men placing more value on collective groups.

Similarly, Gabriel and Gardner (1999) asserted that, behavior may be better understood through consideration of gender differences in independence and interdependence. On the basis of literature regarding gender differences in affect, behavior and cognition, it was hypothized that, women would focus more on the relational aspects of interdependence, where as men would focus more on collective aspects of interdependence. Five studies in which gender differences in self construals, emotional experience, selective memory, and behavioral intentions were examined supported the expansion of the model to include both relational and collective aspects of interdependence (Gabriel and Gardner, 1999).

Significant Differences in the Degree of Cultural Orientation Among Nationalities

Table 8B illustrates comparisons in the degree of cultural orientation among nationalities

Table 8B
Significant Differences in the Degree of Cultural Orientation Among Nationalities
Level of Significance=0.05

ariable	Nation	Mean	F	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
me/Future Time rientation	Ugandan	2.93			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.94				
	Tanzanian	3.00				
	Rwandese	3.02				
	Burundian	2.83	.506	.804		
	S.Sudanese	3.03				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	2.91				
ructure/Uncertainty /oidance	Ugandan	2.93			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	3.04				
	Tanzanian	3.02				
	Rwandese	3.04				
	Burundian	2.90	.676	.669		
	S.Sudanese	3.03				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	2.87				
uthority/Power Distance	Ugandan	2.87			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.93				
	Tanzanian	3.13				
	Rwandese	3.11				
	Burundian	2.44	1.869	.084		
	S.Sudanese	2.96				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	2.82				
elation/Interdependence	Ugandan	2.89			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.86				
	Tanzanian	2.92				
	Rwandese	3.08				
	Burundian	2.44	1.098	.363		
	S.Sudanese	2.97				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	2.90				
)verall Degree of :ultural Orientation	Ugandan	2.91			No significant difference	Accepted
	Kenyan	2.94				
	Tanzanian	3.02				
	Rwandese	3.06	.965	.448		
	Burundian	2.65				
	S.Sudanese	2.99				
	Others(Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia,Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	2.88				

ource: Primary Data, 2012
egend
the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

In this study, from all the nations where the respondents came, the data showed no significant differences in the degree of cultural orientation among

95

nationalities at the level of significance of 0.05. All the significance values obtained in the four constructs under which cultural orientation was conceptualized were above the 0.05 level of significance; hence the null hypothesis was accepted. This was true for all the four constructs which were investigated as indicators of the degree of cultural orientation, namely, time/future time orientation (.804), structure/uncertainty avoidance (.669), authority/power distance (.084), and relation/interdependence (.363). These results mean that irrespective of the nation from which students came from, it did not matter in terms of their degree of cultural orientation. In other words, all students could equally orient them selves, irrespective of their country of origin.

Never the less, it is important to examine what other schools of thought have written about the constructs which have been used to measure the degree of cultural orientation in relation to nationality.

According to the results by Gary and James (1991) on time orientations, there are cross-cultural differences in time orientation and that these differences may be useful to consumer researchers. This is contrary to this study's findings (of no significant differences). Similarly, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) noted that one's time orientation is largely a product of his/her culture. Doob (1971) argues forcefully that traditional societies favor a past time orientation, while modern western societies favor a future time orientation. In general, people from far eastern countries such as China, Japan and Korea tend to have past time orientation, while Latin Americans are more present oriented, and Westerners (Americans and Northern Europeans) have more of a future time orientation (Graham 1981, Hall 1959; 1976; Kluckhohn and strodtbeck 1961; Yau 1988). Therefore, such studies reflect that there are significant differences between future time orientation and nationality while opposed to the findings of this study did not show any significant difference.

Mead (2005) asserts that different cultures and societies have different needs for structure in order to function efficiently. In countries with high uncertainty, the teaching process is very structured with precise objectives,

detailed assignments; and strict time tables, compared to those with low uncertainty (Hofstede, 2002). In a study by Matic (2006) on the degree of uncertainty avoidance present in Croatian and American undergraduate students, it was found out that the American sample was found to be higher in uncertainty avoidance than the Croatian sample; hence uncertainty avoidance varies according to nationality.

Considering other studies, it appears that nationality has an impact on the degree of authority/power distance .Chinese citizens hold collectivist values, while American and Canadian citizens tend to hold more individualistic values (Hofstede, 1980; Oyserman et al, 2002).

Significant Differences in the Degree of Cultural Orientation (Public vs. Private University Students)

Table 8C presents the findings on significant differences in the degree of cultural orientation between public and private university students.

Table 8C
Significant Differences in the Degree of Cultural Orientation Between Private and Public University Students
Level of Significance=0.05

Variable	University	Mean	t	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
Time/Future Time Orientation	Public	2.92	1.276	.203	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.98				
Structure/Uncertainty Avoidance	Public	2.93	1.367	.172	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	3.00				
Authority/Power Distance	Public	2.89	.680	.497	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.92				
Relation/Interdependence	Public	2.89	.337	.736	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	2.91				
Overall Degree of Cultural Orientation	Public	.480	1.042	.298	No significant difference	Accepted
	Private	.474				

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

In Table 8C, all the four constructs on cultural orientation, (time/future time orientation, structure/ uncertainty avoidance, authority/power distance; and

relation/interdependence) are presented in terms of significant differences at 0.05 level of significance.

Results, Implications and Discussions

There were no significant differences in the degree of cultural orientation between public and private university students in this study. In other words, the type of university did not matter in terms of the students' degree of cultural orientation in respect to the four constructs investigated. In a review of literature on the degree of cultural orientation versus type of school, information is quite different from the findings of this study. Public education has traditionally been viewed as a key element of the melting pot, a vehicle for cultural integration of new immigrants that promotes efficient communication between ethnic groups and reduces ethnic tensions (Gradstein and Justman, 2002).

Correlation Between the Level of Academic Achievement and Gender

Table 9A depicts the data on correlation using a Chi-square test at the level of significance of 0.05.

Table 9 A
Correlation Between the Level of Academic Achievement and Gender
Level of Significance=0.05

Students Cumulative Grade Point Average	CGPA Range	Gender of the Respondents		Total
		Male	Female	
	00-1.9	6	3	9
	2.0-2.9	46	37	83
	3.0-3.9	81	83	164
	4.0-4.3	95	65	160
	4.4-5.0	28	23	51
	Total	256	211	467
Chi-square Test		X =3.815 Sig. =.432 No significant correlation Decision on Ho= Accepted		

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

There was no significant correlation between the level of academic achievement and gender. Therefore, gender did not have any influence on

student's performance. Hence male or female students performed the way they did regardless of which ever gender. This meant that, gender did not directly impact on students' levels of academic achievement.

The above findings are compared with some previous studies as follows: Linver, Davis-Kean and Eccles (2002) carried out a study in April 2002, to establish the influences of gender on academic achievement and why women do not seek careers in information technology occupations. Performance of male and females in math school grades from 6th to 12th grades were investigated where young women had slightly higher grades than young men. This meant that, gender had impact on academic achievement. Even though women had made great strides in law, medical and social science professions, very few could be found in graduate programs or professions in mathematics, computer science, physics, engneering, or information technology jobs (Eccles, 2001).

Work by Eccles, Lord, Roeser, Barber and Jozefowicz (1997) found gender differences in enrollment in advanced mathematics courses in high school are mediated by gender differences in expectations for success in math and physics and perceived value of competence in math. In another study by Dayioglu and Turut-Asik (2004), in which they were attempting to determine whether there are significant gender differences in academic performance among undergraduate students in a large public university in Turkey based on three indicators; university entrance scores, performance in English preparatory school; and in the program the student was majoring in. A smaller number of female students managed to enter the university and when they did so, they entered with lower scores. This meant that gender had an impact on academic performance.

However, in the same study by Dayioglu and Turut-Asik (2004), the girls who entered university education excelled in their studies and out performed their male counter parts. Therefore, gender played a significant role in academic achievement, while the findings of this study showed no significant correlation.

99

Correlation Between the Level of Academic Achievement and Nationality

Table 9B correlates the level of academic achievement and nationality at the level of significance of 0.05 where a Chi-square test was employed.

Table 9B
Correlation Between Level of Academic Achievement and Nationality
Level of Significance=0.05

Students' Nationality		CGPA Range					Total
		00-1.9	2.0-2.9	3.0-3.9	4.0-4.3	4.4-5.0	
	Ugandan	5	42	87	86	25	245
	Kenyan	3	17	27	29	8	84
	Tanzanian	1	1	11	4	2	19
	Rwandese	0	4	2	3	1	10
	Burundian	0	1	0	2	3	6
	S.Sudanese	0	17	31	25	12	85
	Others (Somalia,Somaliland,Ethiopia, Nigeria,Congo,Zanzibar)	0	1	6	11	0	18
	Total	9	83	164	160	51	467
Chi-square Test	X =33.854 Sig. =.087 No significant correlation Decision on Ho= Accepted						

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

There was no significant correlation between level of academic achievement and nationality. However, in a study by Burk (2006) which looked at differentials in the academic achievement of children of immigrants, he

observed that one in five school age children in the United States is the immediate descendant of an immigrant. His paper considered the performance of these children in the United States Middle Schools and High Schools. These children of immigrants were a diverse group amongst themselves, hailing in significant numbers from a large variety of countries and in a variety of social and economic backgrounds. His study used data from the children of immigrants' longitudinal study, and his paper established that there was a significant variation in the academic out comes of the children across nationality groups. Hence, to Burk's findings, nationality had a significant impact on academic achievement of students, contrary to the findings of this study.

Wicaksono (2008) contended whether nationality affected students' academic achievement and found out that nationality did not have a significant impact on students' academic achievement. In this study, having chosen assessment tasks where the students were randomly allocated into multi-national groups, he discovered very little differences between the average marks of the home and international students. The average group work mark for the home students was 58.16%, and for international students 56.03%. This difference was statistically insignificant. However, when he considered the marks for the average of three individual assessments, there was a statistically significant difference between the average for the home students (56.6%) and the average for international students (48.2%).

Correlation Between the Level of Academic Achievement and Type of University

Table 9C shows the significant correlation between the level of academic achievement and type of university at the level of significance of 0.05 where a Chi-square test was used.

101

Table 9 C

Correlation Between Level of Academic Achievement and University Type

Level of Significance=0.05

Students' Cumulative Grade Point Average	CGPA Range	Type of University		Total
		Public	Private	
	00-1.9	5	4	9
	2.0-2.9	40	43	83
	3.0-3.9	72	92	164
	4.0-4.3	65	95	160
	4.4-5.0	18	33	51
	Total	200	267	467
Chi-square Test		X =3.148 Sig. =.533 No significant correlation Decision on Ho= Accepted		

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

There was no significant correlation between the level of academic achievement and type of university. This implies that it did not matter which type of university a student belonged to in determining his/her level of academic achievement. In other words, students from private or public universities can equally perform, while other factors can lead to variations in academic performance. The above results are compared with past studies as follows.

In a study by Finger and George (1963), a different result was reached where Public school students obtained higher college grades than Private school students. Equating on scholastic aptitude, it was reported to leave a difference favoring the public school students. Hence, there was a significant correlation between public and private school students' performance. Finger, et al (1963)

102

concluded that, private school students do less well because as a group, they are lower in scholastic aptitude and motivation. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Lubienski and Lubienski (2006) in a project funded through a national assessment of educational progress secondary analysis grant from the National Center for Education Statistics Institute of Education Sciences.

In addition, Lubienski et al (2006) analyzed US mathematics achievement and found out that, after accounting for the fact that private schools were more advantaged populations, public schools performed remarkably well, often outscoring private and charter schools. Lubienski further refuted the view and assumptions of the superiority of private-style organizational models. New results from a study of a large, comprehensive dataset on US student achievement seriously challenged assumptions of private school's superiority and substantial differences between different types of private schools. Based on the 2003 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics exams, an analysis which compared achievement in public, charter and different types of private schools, when compared with other subjects (like reading, for instance), math was more heavily influenced by the school than home experiences, and the public schools proved to perform better than the private schools. Hence, there was a correlation between the type of institution and academic achievement, while in this study, there was no significant correlation between the level of academic achievement and type of university.

Correlation Between the Extent of Self Regulation and Degree of Cultural Orientation to the Level of Academic Achievement

Table 10 illustrates the correlation between the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation to the level of academic achievement tested at the level of significance of 0.05.

Table 10

Correlation Between the Extent of Self Regulation and Degree of Cultural Orientation on the Level of Academic Achievement

Level of Significance=0.05

Independent Variables	CGPA Range	Mean	F	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
Extent of Self-Regulation	00-1.9	2.64	5.229	.000	Significant difference	Rejected
	2.0-2.9	2.83				
	3.0-3.9	2.94				
	4.0-4.3	3.04				
	4.4-5.0	3.09				
Degree of Cultural Orientation	00-1.9	2.64	2.612	.035	Significant difference	Rejected
	2.0-2.9	2.85				
	3.0-3.9	2.91				
	4.0-4.3	2.98				
	4.4-5.0	3.03				

Source: Primary Data, 2012
Legend
If the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **significant.**
If the significant value is more than 0.05 level of significance, the interpretation is **not significant.**

Results, Implications and Discussions

Evidently illustrated in Table10 were these findings: significant correlation in terms of the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation to the level of academic achievement. Given the fact that the level of academic achievement was measured in terms of Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) range, the One Way-ANOVA was used instead of the Pearson's Linear Correlation Coefficient. The test revealed a significant correlation between the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation to the level of academic achievement, at the level of significance of 0.05.

The above results implied that the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation affected students' level of academic achievement. In agreement to the findings of this study, studies highlight the relationship

104

between self regulation and academic achievements (Duckworth, Akerman, Mac Gregor, Salter and Vorhous, 2009). Children and young people with more adaptive personal skills and learning resources are more likely to succeed academically. Although the size of the effect is considerably smaller than that associated with prior attainment, it exists independently of prior attainment and can be supported through appropriate policy and practice. Not all students are well placed to develop self regulation skills. Students who struggle to know whether a given strategy will be successful are likely to have difficulties in assessing whether further effort is worthwhile (Efklides, Papadaki, Papantoniou, and Kiosseoglou, 1999). Others adopt defensive approaches to learning (Paris and Newman, 1990), avoiding failure by procrastinating, choosing easy tasks or avoiding work altogether. But however, easy tasks cannot lead one to valuable success. It is harder tasks that yield valuable success and achievement.

There is little doubt that self-regulation has a positive effect on academic attainment, while also making a positive contribution to student behavior, discipline and self belief (Duckworth, et.al, 2009). Although the effect is often small by comparison with the impact of socio-demographic characteristics, self regulation is amenable to support and intervention. One of the major benefits of self-regulation as a framework for learning is that it connects programmes that are focused on learning strategies and thinking skills with the wider well being agenda in schools.

Aisha (2007) affirms that, self regulatory learning goes hand in hand with cultural orientation. As earlier on noted in chapter one of this study, Aisha (2007) asserts that cultural orientation is very significant to academic achievement. If a self regulated learner gets cultural orientation towards his study environment and values, he will perform to the best. This then reflects that, there is a significant relationship between self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement, especially when it comes to distance learning students, who greatly carry the bulk of work related to their studies.

105

Her view is supported by Maehr (1974) and Pekrun (1993) who assert that cultural influences greatly impact on students' academic achievement.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the findings, conclusions and recommendations are presented with relevance to the specific objectives of this study.

FINDINGS

Table 11

Summary of the Major Findings of the Study

Categories	Major Findings
1.Social Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents	
1.1 Gender	Male (54.8%)
1.2 Age	20-39 years (early adulthood) (90.6%)
1.3 Nationality	Ugandans (52.5%)
1.4 Course of Study	Social Sciences (37.7%)
1.5 Students Religion	Catholic (50.3%)
1.6 Type of University	Private (57.2%)
2. Extent of Self Regulation	Satisfactory extent of Self Regulation
3. Degree of Cultural Orientation	Satisfactory degree of Cultural Orientation
4. Level of Academic Achievement	Good/Average level of Academic Achievement
5. Significant Differences	
A Extent of Self Regulation	
5.1 Male vs. Female Students	No Significant Difference
5.2 Among Nationalities	No Significant Difference
5.3 University1 vs. University 2	No Significant Difference
B Degree of Cultural Orientation	
5.4 Male vs. Female Students	No significant Difference
5.5 Among Nationalities	No Significant Difference
5.6 University1 vs. University 2	No Significant Difference
6 Significant Correlation	
6.1 Level of Academic Achievement and Gender	No Significant Correlation
6.2 Level of Academic Achievement and Nationalities	No Significant Correlation
6.3 Level of Academic Achievement and Type of University	No Significant Correlation
6.4 Extent of Self regulation and Degree of Cultural Orientation on the Level of Academic Achievement	Significant Correlation

Source: Primary Data, 2012

CONCLUSIONS

The null hypothesis of no significant differences in the extent of self regulation, degree of cultural orientation and level of academic achievement between gender, nationality and type of university was accepted.

The null hypothesis of no significant correlation between the level of academic achievement and gender, nationality and type of university was accepted.

The null hypothesis of no significant correlation in the extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation on the level of academic achievement was rejected

Authentication of the Theory to Which the Study Was Based

The culture fit theory of Kanungo and Jaerger (1990) was validated and proven true in view of the findings of this study.

New Information Generated from the Findings

1. Female and male students can equally regulate themselves.

2. Regardless of the nationality and type of university, students on distance education can equally regulate themselves.

3. Generally, gender, nationality and type of university where the distance learners are enrolled in, were not distinguishing factors in the aspect of cultural orientation.

4. Determining how to solve a course assignment before beginning a course is a strength among the respondents though it did not match with a high level of academic achievement among the majority of the respondents.

5. Self regulation among distance learners can be measured in terms of these constructs: planning, self checking, effort, self efficacy, help seeking, time and study environment management.

6. Cultural orientation of distance learners proved to be measurable utilizing these constructs: time/future time orientation,

structure/uncertainty avoidance, authority/power distance and relation/interdependence.

7. The extent of self regulation and degree of cultural orientation are influencing factors to the level of academic achievement of distance learners understudy.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following findings of this study and the corresponding implications (in bracket), were the bases for the recommendations as discussed in terms of areas of concern, objectives and recommendations. The general dissemination techniques/strategies are also indicated for the findings to be known and appreciated and for the recommendations to be utilized by the respondents, the universities involved in the study and other beneficiaries.

A. Bases for the Recommendations

1. The ratio of male to female distance learners who were the respondents of this study representing the target population in the two universities under study was 1 male to 1 female (1:1; **gender balance**).

2. There was a conspicuous evidence of diversity among the distance learners as to gender, age, nationality and religion (**cross cultural variations**).

3. The only item rated very satisfactory under the construct on self regulation sub-category on planning: distance learners determine how to solve course requirements before beginning the course. No weaknesses observed under self regulation but majority of the items were rated satisfactory (**enhance learners' autonomy; need to intensify on all these items namely planning, self checking, effort, self efficacy, help seeking, time and study environment management to reach optimum self regulation**).

109

4. No strengths nor weaknesses observed under cultural orientation **(room for improvements or intensification to reach a very satisfactory degree of cultural orientation on all items rated satisfactory such as structure/uncertainty avoidance, time/future time orientation, authority/power distance, relation/ interdependence).**

5. Forty five (45.2%) of the respondents who were distance learners had their level of academic achievement from excellent to very good **(should maintain the self paced momentum)**

6. Thirty five percent (35.1%) achieved average CGPA and about 20% of the distance learners had their level of academic achievement ranging from below average to unsatisfactory **(requires innovative instructional strategies to improve their level of academic achievement).**

7. The variables of self regulation and cultural orientation were predictors of academic achievement **(distance learners should recognize ways to regulate self and cultural orientation; the distance education system should adopt techniques to engage the distance learners to develop more positive self regulation and cultural orientation to achieve high academic performance).**

B. Areas of Concern, Objectives, Recommendations

B.1 Gender Sensitivity

Objective: For the institutions offering distance education to advocate proactive stance on gender awareness/gender consciousness.

Recommendations

1. Educational and university facilities and services that consider gender differences wherever applied such as coeducational lecture rooms, library, food outlets, computer laboratories, accessible, clean, decent and cost effective hostels, noise

110

controlled study areas, medical clinic with both female and male medical staff to attend to the students with consideration on gender, separate decent rest rooms for male and female.

2. Gender sensitive distance learning facilitators/tutors (lecturers) with fair dealings for both male and female learners (assignments, verbal communication, projects)

3. Sitting arrangement in the lecture rooms and computer laboratories well planned to accommodate the comfort ands safety of female students

B.2 Cross Cultural Variations (Gender, Age, Religion, Nationality)

Objective: For the universities offering distance education to employ unbiased treatment for the cross-border learners

Recommendations

1. Multi-purpose halls where the students can use for their respective religious and cultural exercises, activities, functions within the institutions' policies

2. Customized time tables for tutorials and face to face sessions

3. Flexible time for on line interaction

4. Enhancement courses/seminars/workshops for distance learners with English difficulties

5. Quality circles by the tutors/facilitators (equivalent to lecturers of the taught regular school) when necessary to enhance understanding of the course understudy

6. Thorough orientation and information in print on school policies, regulations, time tables, and other academic activities

B.3 Distance Learners' Autonomy/ Self- paced Learning

Objective: For the distance learners to achieve high academic achievement through proper blending of one's commitment to his/her course with self regulation

Recommendations

1. Planning: figure out academic goals, understand the goal of a course assignment, carefully plan course of action for academic study, plan well the time for academic work

2. Self checking: develop self-inquiry as a strategy to stay on course, check academic work most often and correct errors, keep track on progress and how much time is left to complete

3. Effort: consider hard work as a source of success, ensure much efforts not to lag behind in course activities, do not be discouraged and do not give up, be persistent with the course

4. Self efficacy: make good use of study time, feel good and exercise control over the course of study, have a good reading culture, stick to reading schedule and do not allow any interference on this, select a conducive place to study

5. Help seeking: identify students in class for help, always ask for help when needed, clarify from the facilitator any unclear concepts, use on line forums to ask for help from other students

6. Time and study environment management: manage time and environment well for course of study and adjust well to time management alteration

7. Take notes, use available learning resources, finish homework assignments before deadlines, use wisely the library, organize school work effectively, arrange a study area at home which has no distractions, motivate oneself to do schoolwork and participate in class discussions

8. Be consistent with own standards as deviation from this means a failure in self regulation

9. For the educators of distance learners to assist the learners to keep up with self regulation through literacy instruction (reciprocal teaching, open-ended tasks, project based learning); cognitive engagement and self-assessment

B.4 Cultural Orientation of Distance Learners

Objective: For the distance learners to set in advance on how to achieve his/her goals to complete the course of study

1. Time/ Future time orientation: think about the future time and do not be biased about it in order to complete the course; make lists of things to do; resist temptation whenever there is work to do

2. Structure/Uncertainty Avoidance: prefer a structured teaching- learning environment which regulates tasks, relationships and avoids uncertainty such as detailed course syllabus and description, precise objectives of the course, detailed assignments and vigilant timetables and university rules

3. Authority/Power distance: speak up views in class; have a good relationship with the facilitators; respect facilitators' authority; clarify doubts and be open to the facilitators about marks and other issues concerning the course

4. Relation/Interdependence: value relationships with others than personal accomplishments; sacrifice self interests for the good of fellow students; maintain harmony with student colleagues; decide with student colleagues when necessary and avoid arguing that create unnecessary conflicts

B.5 Academic Achievement of Distance Learners

Objective: For the distance learners to attain academic performance more than the average

1. Apply self regulation and good cultural orientation (letters C and D)

2. Facilitators should employ innovative and emphatic teaching strategies to increase academic motivation of the learners (interactive media tools, worksheets, action research, case study, simulation, present difficult and challenging tasks, seminars, debate, and educational tours)

3. Continuous assessment such as progressive written and oral exams/ revalida, hands-on; practical examinations; reaction papers and reflection papers

C. General Dissemination Techniques/ Strategies

Purpose: For the findings to be known and appreciated and for the recommendations to be utilized by the respondents, the universities involved in the study and other beneficiaries (instructional designers, NCHE and future researchers)

The **brochure** will be used as the main vehicle to communicate the findings and recommendations to the target beneficiaries. It also contains information about self regulation, cultural orientation and academic achievement. The researcher and his research assistants shall distribute this brochure and post them in strategic places of Kampala International University (KIU), Main Campus; send copies of this brochure to the other branches of KIU in Western Campus, Nairobi and Tanzania. In the same manner, the other university involved in this study shall also receive this brochure through its academic affairs and distance learning departments.

AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. A similar study in a different research setting and respondents
2. Reciprocal Teaching and Mental Abilities of Distance Education Students
3. Cross cultural Variations and Self Paced Learning

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117

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TRANSMITTAL LETTER FROM THE CHDR

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (DVC)
COLLEGE OF HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH (CHDR)

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: INTRODUCTION LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR INSTITUTION

Mr. Eddie Morgan Sangaire is a bonafide student of Kampala International University pursuing a Ph.D. in Educational Management

He is currently conducting a field research for his dissertation entitled, **Self Regulation and Cultural Orientation on Academic Achievement of University Students on Distance Education in Kampala, Uganda.**

Your institution has been identified as a valuable source of information pertaining to his research project. The purpose of this letter then is to request you to avail him with the pertinent information he may need.

Any data shared with him will be used for academic purposes only and shall be kept with utmost confidentiality.

Any assistance rendered to him will be highly appreciated.

Yours truly,

Novembrieta R. Sumil, Ph.D.
Deputy Vice Chancellor, CHDR

APPENDIX IB

TRANSMITTAL LETTER FOR THE RESPONDENTS
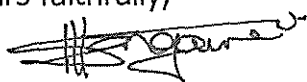
Dear Sir/ Madam,

Greetings!

I am a Ph.D. in Educational Management candidate of Kampala International University. Part of the requirements for the award is a dissertation. My study is entitled, **Self Regulation and Cultural Orientation on Academic Achievement of University Students on Distance Education in Kampala, Uganda.**

Within this context, may I request you to participate in this study by answering the questionnaires. Kindly do not leave any option unanswered. Any data you will provide shall be for academic purposes only and no information of such kind shall be disclosed to others.

Thank you very much in advance. May I retrieve the questionnaire within seven days (one week)?

Yours faithfully,

Mr. Eddie Morgan Sangaire

APPENDIX II

CLEARANCE FROM ETHICS COMMITTEE

Date_____

Candidate's Data

Name_____

Reg.# _____

Course _____

Title of Study _____

Ethical Review Checklist

The study review considered the following:

___ Physical Safety of Human Subjects

___ Psychological Safety

___ Emotional Security

___ Privacy

___ Written Request for Author of Standardized Instrument

___ Coding of Questionnaires/Anonymity/Confidentiality

___ Permission to Conduct the Study

___ Informed Consent

___ Citations/Authors Recognized

Results of Ethical Review

___ Approved

___ Conditional (to provide the Ethics Committee with corrections)

___ Disapproved/ Resubmit Proposal

Ethics Committee (Name and Signature)

Chairperson _____

Members _____

APPENDIX III
SAMPLE INFORMED CONSENT

I am giving my consent to be part of the research study of Mr. Eddie Morgan Sangaire that will focus on **Self Regulation and Cultural Orientation on the Academic Achievement of University Students On Distance Education in Kampala, Uganda.**

I shall be assured of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality and that I will be given the option to refuse participation and right to withdraw my participation anytime.

I have been informed that the research is voluntary and that the results will be given to me if I ask for it.

Initials: _____

Date_____

APPENDIX IV A

FACE SHEET: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Direction: Please tick or specify the right answer as may be indicated.

Gender

--- Male

--- Female

Age

---Early adulthood (20-39 years)

---Middle adulthood (40-59 years)

---Late adulthood (60 years and above)

Nationality

---Ugandan

---Kenyan

---Tanzanian

---Rwandese

---Burundian

---Sudanese

---Others (please specify)

Present Course Enrolled (please specify if diploma, bachelors, masters)

---Education

---Business Management

---Law

---Social Sciences

---Computer Studies

---Information Technology

---Others (please specify)

Religion

---Catholic

---Protestant

---Muslim

---Others (please specify)

---Your Current Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA)

APPENDIX IVB

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT OF SELF REGULATION

Direction: Please write your rating on the space before each option which corresponds to your best choice in terms of extent of self regulation. Kindly use the scoring system below:

Response Mode	Rating	Interpretation
Almost Always	(4)	Very Satisfactory)
Some Times	(3)	Satisfactory
Often	(2)	Fair
Almost Never	(1)	Poor

While working on my course requirements in this programme:

____1. I determine how to solve a course assignment before I begin.

____2. I try to understand the goal of a course assignment before I attempt to answer.

____3. I carefully plan my course of action in my study.

____4. I ask myself questions about what a course assignment requires me to do before I do

------5. I figure out my goals and what I need to do on my academic work in time.

____6. I plan for all my course activities

____7. Planning is a very hectic exercise, so I rarely plan my course activities.

____8. I do my academic work depending on available time I have.

While working on my course requirements in this programme, I

----9. check my work while doing it

----10 keep track of my progress

____11. ask myself questions to stay on track as I work on a task

____12. know how much of a task I have left to complete

----13. correct my errors

____14. take self checking as an easy task

____ 15. cannot perform well in my coursework

____16. work as hard as possible in all course assignments

____17. put much effort to ensure that I do not lag behind in my course activities

____18. am not discouraged and I do not give up with my work

____19. work hard to do well even if I do not like a course assignment

____20. will eventually succeed if I eventually persist

____21. consider hard work to be a source of success

141

___22. always exercise control over my own level of functioning and over events that affect my life

___23. feel good if I exercise control over my studies

--- 24. usually study in a place where I can concentrate on my reading

--- 25. make good use of my study time

---26. make sure that I stick to my weekly reading schedules

---27. do not allow any body to interfere with my reading schedule

__28. always ask for help from other students

__29. do not ask for help from any body

__30. ask the instructor to clarify concepts I don't understand well in class

__31. always identify students in my class whom I can ask for help if necessary

__32. use online forums to ask for help from other students

__33. always manage my time well

__34. manage my study environment well

__35. find it hard to manage time and study environment

__36. always adjust when ever I feel poor time and environment management

__37. manage time and environment well, I perform better

_____

Source: Aisha, S.A.A.H. (2007). *Learner Self Regulation in Distance Education: Across Cultural Study.* The Pennsylvania State University.

APPENDIX IVC

QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE THE DEGREE OF CULTURAL ORIENTATION

Direction: Please write your preferred option on the space provided before each item.
Kindly use the rating guide below:

Response Mode	Rating	Description	Interpretation
Strongly Agree	(4)	You agree with no doubt at all	Very satisfactory
Agree	(3)	You agree with some doubt	Satisfactory
Disagree	(2)	You disagree with some doubt	Fair
Strongly Disagree	(1)	You disagree with no doubt at all	Poor

____ 1. I always think about the future time of my course

____ 2. I am not worried about the future time of my course

____ 3. I worry much about the future, that is why I plan for the future

____ 4. I have a biased orientation towards the future time

____ 5. I always set future goals and establish specific means of achieving these goals

____ 6. Meeting tomorrow's deadlines comes before tonight's play

____ 7. I make lists of things to do

____ 8. I am able to resist temptation when I know that there is work to do

____ 9. I prefer a very structured teaching process, with a detailed course syllabus and description

____ 10. It is important for me to get precise objectives, detailed assignments and strict timetables

____ 11. I prefer a teaching environment which regulates tasks and relationships.

____ 12. I believe university rules should not be broken

____ 13. A structured learning environment limits and avoids uncertainty

____ 14. It is important to me to have a good working relationship with my teacher

____ 15. I feel a teacher's authority should not be questioned

____ 16. I cannot protest the grade my teacher gives me, even when I feel unsatisfied

____ 17. It is not a problem for me to speak up my views during class

____ 18. My teachers are not afraid of students who disagree with them in class

____ 19. There is a very close gap between me and my teachers

____ 20. It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group

____ 21. I will sacrifice my self interests for the good of my group

____ 22. I feel it good for me to accept all the decisions made by the group

____ 23. I will stay in a group provided they need me, even when I am not happy with the group

____ 24. I avoid arguing with group members

____ 25. I greatly value my relationships with others than my personal accomplishment.

Source: Kanungo, R.N., & Jaeger, A.M. (1990). *Introduction: The Need for Indigenous Management in Developing Countries;* And

Aisha, S.A.A.H. (2007). *Learner Self Regulation In Distance Education: Across Cultural Study.* The Pennsylvania State University.

143

APPENDIX IVD

RECORD SHEET TO DETERMINE THE LEVEL OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Student Code Number	Learner's Present Cumulative Grade Point Average	Learner's Academic Status (based on legend below)

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Legend

CGPA	Grade Range	Interpretation
4.4-5.0	80-100	Excellent
4.0-4.3	70-79	Very Good
3.0-3.9	60-69	Average/Good
2.0-2.9	50-59	Below Average
00-1.9	00-49	Unsatisfactory

APPENDIX V

SAMPLE SIZE COMPUTATION (SLOVEN'S FORMULA)

$$n = \frac{N}{1+Na^2}$$

UNIVERSITY 1

$n = \dfrac{400}{1+ (400 \times 0.0025)}$

$n = \dfrac{400}{1+1}$

$n = \dfrac{400}{2}$

n= 200

UNIVERSITY 2

$n = \dfrac{800}{1+ (800 \times 0.0025)}$

$n = \dfrac{800}{1+2}$

$n = \dfrac{800}{3}$

n= 267

APPENDIX VIA

CONSTRUCT VALIDITY FOR SELF REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.335	25.230	25.230	9.335	25.230	25.230
2	3.232	8.735	33.965	3.232	8.735	33.965
3	1.644	4.444	38.409	1.644	4.444	38.409
4	1.263	3.414	41.823	1.263	3.414	41.823
5	1.190	3.216	45.038	1.190	3.216	45.038
6	1.164	3.145	48.184	1.164	3.145	48.184
7	1.097	2.966	51.150	1.097	2.966	51.150
8	1.001	2.705	53.855	1.001	2.705	53.855
9	.950	2.567	56.422			
10	.909	2.457	58.879			
11	.890	2.406	61.285			
12	.859	2.320	63.606			
13	.836	2.261	65.866			
14	.785	2.122	67.988			
15	.751	2.029	70.017			
16	.746	2.016	72.033			
17	.741	2.004	74.037			
18	.705	1.906	75.943			
19	.667	1.803	77.746			
20	.648	1.753	79.498			
21	.609	1.646	81.144			
22	.597	1.612	82.757			
23	.563	1.521	84.277			
24	.547	1.478	85.755			
25	.523	1.414	87.169			
26	.508	1.374	88.543			
27	.489	1.322	89.865			
28	.470	1.270	91.135			
29	.442	1.196	92.331			
30	.421	1.139	93.469			
31	.412	1.113	94.583			
32	.377	1.020	95.602			
33	.361	.975	96.578			
34	.347	.938	97.516			
35	.335	.905	98.421			
36	.313	.847	99.268			
37	.271	.732	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

146

RELIABILITY TEST FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON SELF REGULATION

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	467	100.0
	Excluded(a)	0	.0
	Total	467	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.916	37

147

APPENDIX VIC

CONSTRUCT VALIDITY FOR CULTURAL ORIENTATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Total Variance Explained

Compone nt	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.409	25.638	25.638	6.409	25.638	25.638
2	2.382	9.530	35.167	2.382	9.530	35.167
3	1.486	5.944	41.111	1.486	5.944	41.111
4	1.165	4.658	45.769	1.165	4.658	45.769
5	1.124	4.496	50.265	1.124	4.496	50.265
6	1.044	4.177	54.442	1.044	4.177	54.442
7	.936	3.745	58.187			
8	.879	3.518	61.705			
9	.851	3.403	65.108			
10	.791	3.165	68.273			
11	.714	2.858	71.130			
12	.701	2.805	73.936			
13	.644	2.576	76.511			
14	.635	2.540	79.051			
15	.595	2.379	81.430			
16	.542	2.168	83.598			
17	.530	2.119	85.717			
18	.511	2.043	87.760			
19	.508	2.032	89.792			
20	.482	1.930	91.722			
21	.466	1.864	93.586			
22	.437	1.749	95.335			
23	.417	1.669	97.004			
24	.384	1.534	98.539			
25	.365	1.461	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

148

APPENDIX VI D

RELIABILITY TEST FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE ON CULTURAL

ORIENTATION

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	467	100.0
	Excluded(a)	0	.0
	Total	467	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.878	25