THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OBJECTIVES, CONTENT AND EXAMINATIONS IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

By

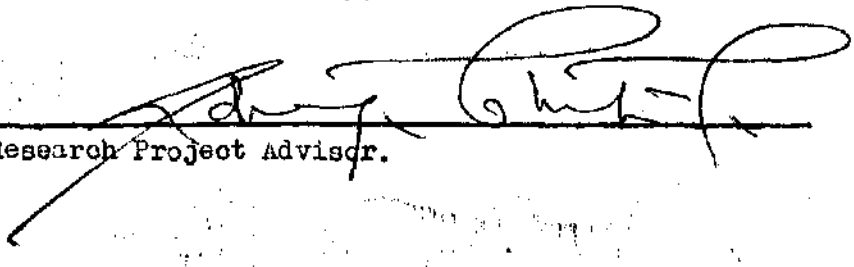
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DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to Forim Abdullahi my grandmother under whose dedicated home education I learned whatever ability for hard work I possess.

ABSTRACT

Since anything done in school or elsewhere is almost always for some declared or understood purpose, we decided to undertake a study to ascertain what exactly were the declared purposes for teaching the school certificate history syllabus. This was done in relation to the fact that stated objectives usually determine the selection of content and conduct of examination. It was therefore meant to determine whether the conduct of examination in the syllabus had any bearing on stated objectives.

The teachers answered some questionnaires on the objectives they stated, the teaching techniques they often used and the teaching materials available. Their schemes of work and lesson plans were inspected in attempts to identify the sort of objectives they stated.

Students were also interviewed. This was to know what objectives the students understood for learning the various history topics in the syllabus. It was the year Four students that were interviewed - about thirty-nine of them, three in each school. Their note books were also inspected.

The findings were that teachers hardly discussed the objectives for the topics they taught. The syllabus itself stated no objectives. No stated objectives were read either in lesson plans or schemes of work. The students expressed mainly the cognitive type of objectives and of these, the knowledge category predominated. Their notebooks had no stated objectives. The conduct of examination was not therefore determined by stated major objectives of the syllabus.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Having taught history, the urge in one to ask for what the syllabus was taught became stronger.

I am thankful to Mrs. Veridiano through whose inspiring example one had the push to embark on the work. I am also indebted to Drs. Olutola and DuBey for particularly reading through the work and making useful corrections as the supervisors of the research.

May I also express my indebtedness to all whose work have been cited in and/or used as theoretical basis to the work especially the works of B.S. Bloom, H. Taba and Wheeler.

S. T. Bitkon

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TABLE OF CONTENT

		Page
Title Page		
Dedication		
List of Tables and Figures		
Abbreviation		
Abstract		
Acknowledgement		
CHAPTER 1 - THE PROBLEM		1 - 8
	Introduction	1
	Statement of the Problem ...	4
	Analysis of the Problem ...	5
	Hypotheses for the Study ...	5
	Significance of the Study ...	6
	Scope and Delimitation of the Problem	7
Chapter 2 - REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THE THEORY OF THE STUDY ...		9 - 24
	The Role of Objectives... ...	9
	How Objectives are Stated ...	11
	The Role of Content	12
	The Role of Examination ...	13
	The Theory of the Study ...	15
	The Theoretical Model	17

Page

Chapter 3 - METHODOLOGY ... ... 25 - 31

Introduction 25

Sampling Procedures 25

The Instruments Used 28

Chapter 4 - DATA ANALYSIS ... ... 32 - 73

Introduction 32

The Teachers 34

The Objectives in the Syllabus.. 36

Teachers' Statement of Objectives 39

Objectives in Schemes of Work and Lesson Plans 39

Were Objectives Stated in Students' Notes? 41

Students' Notes - Made or Given? 42

Discussing Objectives in Class 45

Objectives Understood by Students 48

Facilities 60

The Syllabus 64

The West African Examination Council and the Teachers.. 65

Major Issues 68

Chapter 5 - OBJECTIVES ... ... 74 -114

Introduction 74

Objectives for the School Certificate History Syllabus 76

Page

National Political Objectives 81

National Educational Philosophy 84

National Educational Values 85

Educational Philosophy and National Political Philosophy 87

National Educational Objectives 88

General Educational Objectives for Secondary Schools 91

History Objectives ... ... 93 -114

What is History? 93

How is History Interpreted? 95

The History Objectives ... 99

History Objectives in Nigerian Secondary Schools 102

Chapter 6 - THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OBJECTIVES CONTENT AND EXAMINATIONS ... 115 -158

Relationship Between Objectives and Content 115

The Relationship Between Objectives and Examination 127

The Relationship Between Objectives and Methods... 148

Examination Bodies and Teachers 156

Chapter 7 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 159 -172

Conclusions 159

Recommendations 165

Page

APPENDICES ... ... 173 - 213

I Definition of Terms ... 173

II History Syllabus (Ordinary Level) 177

III Unit Plans 187

IV From a Teacher 204

V Lesson Plans 205

VI The Questionnaire ... 214

BIBLIOGRAPHY 220

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

			Page
1.	Conceptual Model		18
2.	Table 4.1	Teachers' Qualifications and Experience	35
3.	Table 4.2	Are Objectives Stated in the Syllabus?	38
4.	Table 4.3	Teachers Statement of Objectives	40
5.	Table 4.4	Were Objectives Stated in Student Note Books? ...	42
6.	Table 4.5	Student Notes	44
7.	Table 4.6	Discussing Objectives in Class	47
8.	Table 4.7	The Objectives the Students Stated	48
9.	Table 4.8	Teaching Techniques and Frequency of Use	58
10.	Table 4.9	Why Lecture Technique is Frequently Used	60
11.	Table 4.10	Basic Facilities	61
12.	Table 4.11	The Library	62
13.	Table 4.12	The History Room	63
14.	Table 4.13	Suitability of the Syllabus	65
15.	Table 4.14	The WAEC and the Teachers - Communication	69
16.	Table 6.1	Objectives and Content ...	116

ABBREVIATION

Am. Educ. Journal - American Educational Press Journal.

B.A. - Bachelor of Arts

B.A. (Ed.) - Bachelor of Arts (Education).

E.L. - Educational Leadership.

D.T. - The Daily Times Newspaper.

G.C.E. - Graduate Certificate in Education.

I.E.A.B.U. - Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University.

J.A.H.T.N. - A Journal of the Association of History Teachers of Nigeria.

J.E.R. - Journal of Educational Research .

J.H.S.N. - Journal of the Historical Society of Nigeria.

N.C.E. - National Certificate in Education

N.E.R.C. - National Educational Research Council.

N. N. - The New Nigerian Newspaper.

Obj. - Objectives.

R.S.N.P.E. - Report of the Seminar on National Policy on Education.

Sch. - School.

S.N.D.P. - The Second National Development Plan.

S.T. - The Sunday Times Newspaper.

W.A.E.C. - The West African Examination Council.

W.A.J.E. - The West African Journal of Education.

W.P.E.D. - Government White Paper on Educational Development.

Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

In Nigeria, parents used to tell the story of their past to their children in the evenings by the fire side. It usually was after they had completed the day's work. The work was at times the hard physical type which might be clearing of bushes for a new farm-land or putting the next course on the walls of a new homestead they were building. In spite of this physical tiredness, they would sit up to tell their children their past. In this way the story of Inikpi, the Igala princess who willingly agreed to be buried alive in order to save the kingdom from a military defeat (Boston 1968:23-24); the story of Amina, the empire-building Queen of Zaria (Palmer 1969:109); the story of Oduduwa, the legendary Yoruba ancestor (Johnson 1921:45); the story of Ewuare the Great of Benin (Egharevba 1968: 14) and many others were passed on from generation to generation.

This determination to tell the story of the past in spite of odds like physical tiredness shows that there

gave which the ancestors had insisted on teaching their children, the colonial masters in Africa meant to deny it to the African child. Therefore, the colonial masters in Britain were worried when in 1950 Dike wrote his Trade and Politics in the Niger Delta. The cataloguers in the London Library did not know under what section of the library to place the book since they had no section on African history at that time. Biobaku's The Egba and their Neighbours caused even more problems. Dike's work had been placed under economic history, but Biobaku's work was not an economic history. It was finally placed under colonial history, not African history (Ayandele 1971:20-27). Such written work reflected the type of protests that the colonialists did not want. Could there be African history after all?

Therefore, there is a case for some value in teaching history. This value may be the force behind the great drive to teach history inspite of difficulties. Bruner (1960:8) had said that the moment one begins to ask about the value of specific courses, one is asking about the value of education. It could also be said that if we ask about the value of history, we

are asking about the objectives of history. Since one of the values of history appears to be the same with the force that drove our ancestors to teach history, one may like to know whether its objectives in our secondary schools have succeeded in stating, in clear terms, what this value is? If they have so stated it, do the objectives have any influence on the selection of content and conduct of examinations? What is the relationship among the content selected, the objectives and the examinations set? Do the examinations test the achievement of objectives or just the mastery of content?

Statement of the Problem

When objectives are stated, their attainment sets down a relationship which has to exist among the stated objectives, the content, the classroom situation, and the examinations that are set to test the realisation of the objectives. This study is meant to find out whether history objectives have been clearly stated for our secondary schools or not. If they have been stated, do they determine the selection of content and conduct of examinations? Or is the content determined by examination requirements? What is the relationship among

the objectives, the content, the classroom activities and the examinations that are set in the teaching of history?

Analysis of the Problem

The problem will be investigated through finding answers to the following questions:

1. What are the history objectives in the secondary schools in Zaria province?
2. Was the selection of content determined by the specifications of the objectives?
3. Are the examinations consistent with the objectives?
4. What determine the selection of methods in the classroom, the specifications of the objectives or the requirements of examinations?

Hypotheses for the Study

To give the study a sense of direction, the following hypotheses are advanced that:

1. The specifications of the objectives do not determine the selection of content and do not determine the conduct of examinations in the school certificate syllabus operating in our secondary schools.

2. Considerations for examinations limit the teachers to those methods that allow wider coverage only.

Significance of the Study

Many curriculum conferences aimed at reconstructing our educational system have been held since the one held from September 8th to 12th in 1969. The needs of a country usually form the basis for the country's educational objectives. Since the educational system of the country is being made to reflect the needs of the society, a study of this nature on history objectives may contribute by influencing the making of objectives to be more accurately geared to the needs of the society.

The study may also be important because it appears as if the value of history is now being questioned. The Historical Society of Nigeria has referred to the challenge of history at its nineteenth annual congress at Samaru, Zaria in 1973. The society expressed grave concern over the allegation that some candidates offering history in the universities are denied scholarships (NN December 22, 1973:7). The failure of history candidates to attract scholarship may be a result of

the fact that history does not lend itself to the acquisition of practical skills like making a bridge. The governments may have been concentrating their resources on such subjects that provide practical skills for making tangible things like roads. A study such as this may lead to the clarification of what history can do in terms of commitment to national ideals which are just as necessary for nation building as acquisition of practical skills.

Scope and Delimitation of the Problem

A study of the relationship which is necessary for achieving history objectives in the classroom may include analysis of the relationship between learning experiences, which are referred to in this study as the classroom situation, and the teacher; the relationship between the school environment and the objectives; the relationship between objectives and the children's background. This study limits itself to that relationship which exists among objectives, the content and the examinations that are set to test the achievement of the objectives. It will also be limited to the 1966 history syllabus for secondary schools. Other syllabi

such as the one that came into operation in 1951 and those that have just been suggested for the six-year secondary school programme will be used as background. Only fifteen secondary schools in Zaria Province of the North Central State will be involved in the programme. Only a sample of form four students will be interviewed, and their exercise books scrutinised and checked. The form four students would be used because at the end of the session, they would not be bothered by the worries and uncertainties of the terminal examinations which the form five students would be facing. Unlike the form three students, the form four students would have done two years work in the syllabus.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THE THEORY OF THE STUDY

The Role of Objectives

It may be a very fortunate situation for the history teacher that almost all authors agree that the first thing to clarify in any curriculum work are the objectives. The reason for this role of educational objectives is, perhaps, best stated by Bloom (1969:26). He says that a number of behavioural changes are likely to result from learning experiences. Some of these behavioural changes that may occur may not be desirable. To save time and resources, the desired behavioural changes must be identified and clearly stated. In this way, any behavioural outcomes that may occur in the learning situation are likely to be the ones that have been so identified and stated. Tyler (1971:3) does not only support the idea of clearly stating objectives that will direct activities in the learning situation, but also adds that before content is outlined, tests and examinations are prepared,

objectives must be clearly stated. Wheeler (1967:34) also accepts this view by saying that adequate educational experience cannot be offered unless it is abundantly clear what sort of objectives are meant to be achieved. Taba (1962:350-352) has added that the beginning of all educational endeavour is the clarification of objectives. Cave (1971:95-96) sees the role of educational objectives as that of the director of all educational plans. For Bruner, (1960:8) when the value of any course is questioned, it is the objectives of education as they affect that course that are being questioned.

These views seem to contrast with those expressed by Brown and Anene (1960: VIII) in which they said that the "best teachers in education always remain the students". This may be true if what is wanted is the accumulation of facts. The aim of their book was to present scholarly content material for the syllabus launched in 1966. If all the content and learning experiences are meant to achieve some clearly stated educational objectives, then the best teachers may not always remain the students; for the achievement of objectives need proper direction.

How Objectives are Stated

Bloom and his co-w rkers who led the way in the efforts to state clear educational objectives are of the view that educational objectives should be stated in behavioural terms. Bloom (1969:26) feels that when objectives are clearly stated in specific behavioural terms, the way to achieve them will be made simpler. Smith (1957:113-118) believes that when objectives are stated, they should be an expression of the social needs of the country. This view is also the understanding of educational objectives the Lagos Seminar (1073:7) had.

The participants in the seminar wrote:

> ...the statement of educational objectives ...should be an expression as well as an embodiment of the corporate national... aspirations of the people.

Taba (1962:350) insists that objectives are useful if they state clearly what abilities, attitudes and feelings are to be developed. These things should not only be named as was done by the seminar but according to Taba, the objectives should also state the ways by which they can be achieved. If knowledge is to be used by bringing it to bear on events that

are encountered (Bruner 1960:11), then the objectives will have to be stated in behavioural terms.

The Role of Content

The stand of Brown and Anene on content when they stated that "the best teachers always remain the students" (1966: VIII) appears to be the belief of those who planned the 1966 syllabus. The reason for this may be that it might have been the intention of the planners and Brown and Anene to provide enough content to enable students pass examinations. Brown (1966:16) seemed to have accepted this stress on examinations. He warned that teachers who failed to take note of the importance attached to passing examinations by parents and students were doing so at their own risk. Wheeler (1967:37, 280) realises this situation and says that countries which have examination bodies often select content merely for enabling students to memorise enough materials for passing examinations. Wheeler warns that unless this is checked, the desire to pass examination may lead to over-emphasising content which emphasis in turn leads to unnecessary cramming. Wheeler says the danger in this situation is that examination will then give

content an importance which destroys the correct relationship between content and objectives. Tyler (1971:13) sees the role of content as that of facilitating the achievement of objectives. Cave (1971:95-96) describes content as an instrument for attaining objectives. Musgrove (Hooper 1971) believes that when content is given the importance it does not deserve students may think that its accumulation is all that matters, and when they do not accumulate enough, they make rushed decisions about their abilities.

This is not to say that content is not important. Without content, no educational objectives can be realised. What is certainly being said is that each content which is selected for any learning experiences must be known to be useful for attaining a particular goal.

The Role of Examination

Wheeler (1967:280) argues that excessive reliance on examinations leads to stressing anything that can be easily assessed. He (Wheeler 1967:281) says that unless both the examiners and the teachers sit

together to analyse the objectives for their syllabi, there is bound to be some trouble. For what appears important to the teacher in the objectives, may not be what the examiners may test. He sees the role of examination as indicating clearly the levels of the attainment of objectives and also the direction to which the objectives are being achieved (1967:269). Bloom (1969:28) accepts Wheeler's view by stating that when examination plays a determining role in education, it leads to making the examiners to control education. This he says is not fair.

Taba (1962:350) sees the role of examination as that of diagnosing the levels of attainment of the objectives of education. Cave (1971:95-96) thinks that examination should play the role of facilitating the achievement of objectives. Odunsi (1971:55) blames examination for making students worship syllabi rather than allow the teacher to use them as guides. Students insist on "covering" the syllabi. Both Marris and Ritter (1964, 1966) are of the view that examinations are now actually harmful to learning. They inhibit students from asking genuine questions for fear of being judged. Each author cited here

believes that if properly used, examination can facilitate the realisation of objectives.

The Theory of the Study

The relationship as established by the preceding paragraphs indicate that history as defined here can not properly be taught without clearly stated objectives.

In addition, objectives are to be stated in order to direct efforts. Once they are stated, the objectives should determine what contents to select. This done, examinations will be employed to test not only the realisation of the objectives but also the way in which the objectives are being achieved. This is because all the efforts in teaching are meant to achieve objectives.

It is therefore clear that all instructions aim at achieving behavioural changes (Wheeler 1967:79, Bloom 1969:28). Therefore, a reference to the objectives whenever any instruction is to be given becomes necessary. This makes it much easier to reduce the possibility of giving instructions that bear no relations to the objectives. Tyler (1971:3) seems to

suggest this reference to objectives in all instructions when he says it is only when objectives are stated that content can be outlined. In this way, it is easier to evaluate the selected content in terms of the specifications of the objectives. And the effectiveness of instruction can only be evaluated in terms of the objectives achieved.

The same reference to objectives has to be made in respect of selecting instruments of evaluation. Before any evaluation tools are selected therefore, the objectives must be known (Taba 1962:329). This knowledge, however, is not enough. For after the instruments have been designed, their suitability will have to be evaluated in terms of the specificatins of the objectives concerned (Wheeler 1967:274). It is by this second reference to objectives that tests may be able to do what Wheeler (1967:269) describes as producing evidence about the nature, the direction and the extent of behavioural changes.

The requirements for achieving objectives described above set a pattern of relationships among the objectives, content, evaluation and the classroom situation. The theoretical framework below seeks to

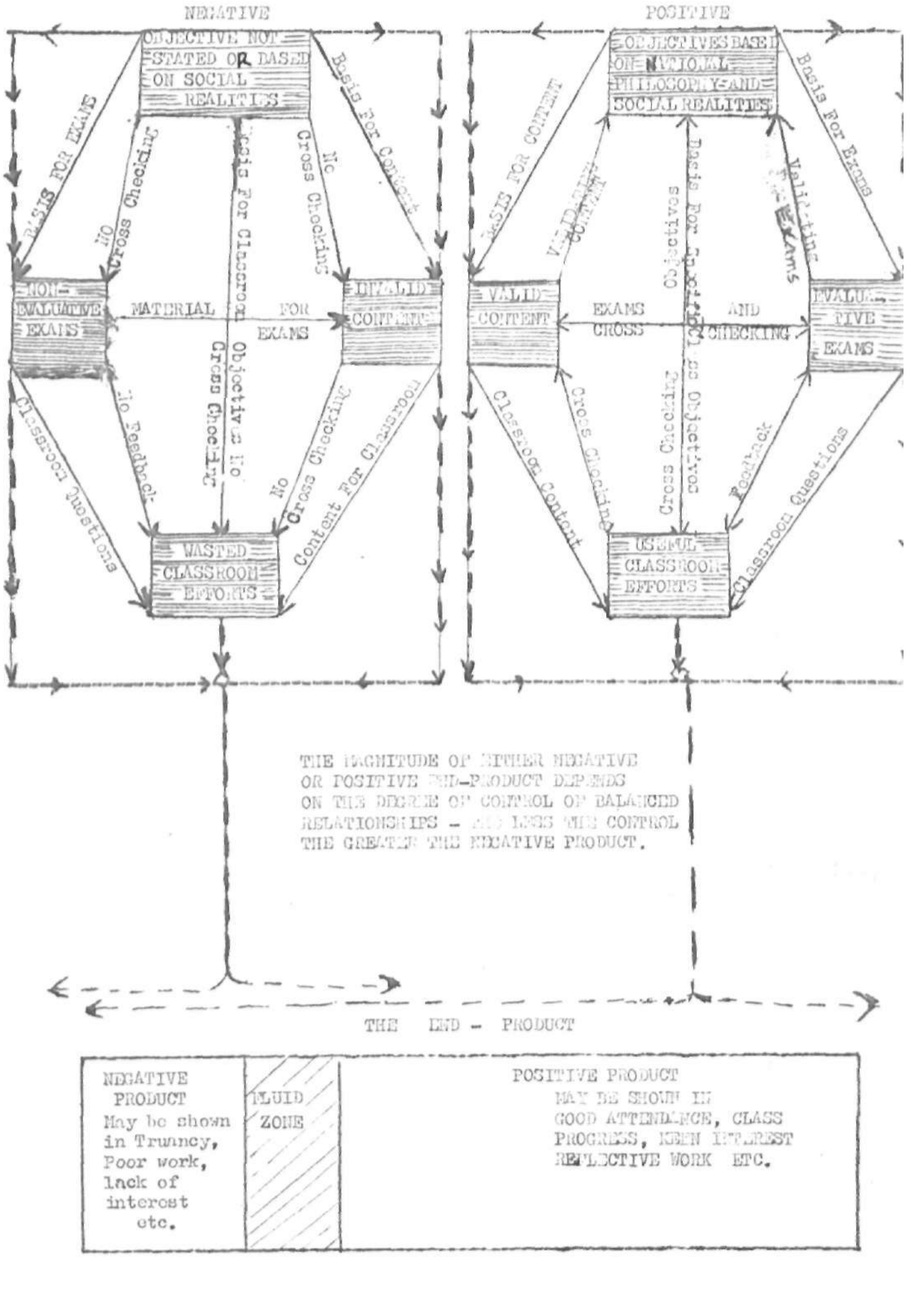
present a diagramatic expression of these relationships among the factors concerned. This model would be applied to the real classroom situations in secondary schools in Zaria Province. It would be done in order to see how much the teaching-learning situation in the classroom differs or conforms to the model.

The Theoretical Model

Bloom (1969:26) has said that no school has the resources and time to afford giving instructions without objectives because there are too many possible behavioural changes. He stresses the need to select the desired behavioural changes which the school programme should seek to attain. The basic theory of this study, therefore, is that the achievement of any school objectives is very likely to be dependent upon the degree to which the relationships among the objectives, the content, evaluation and the classroom situation remain stable. These relationships are characterised by constant reference to the objectives *whenever any of the others are being selected or* prepared for any instruction.

It can be seen that objectives play a key role in these relationships. But, as Wheeler (1967:28) has

OBJECTIVE - CONTENT - EXAMINATION - CLASSROOM SITUATION - END PRODUCT MODEL (AN IDEAL SITUATION)



written, objectives can play this role only if they are clearly stated. He asserts that adequate assessment is possible only if specific objectives are detailed. Taba (1962:200-201) has emphasised that objectives need be stated analytically and specifically. She adds that if the teacher is to know exactly what to do, objectives must be clearly stated. One of the criteria for stating clear objectives is to ensure that each objective reflect specific social needs (Wheeler 1967:99, Taba 1962:194).

In the model above, the objectives on the right are said to be based on social needs. This is because all educational programmes are meant to enable learners live in societies whose social needs constitute educational objectives (Taba 1962: 196). If such learners can effectively meet these needs after their educational experiences, their preparation may be said to have been very effeciently done (Bruner 1960:11).

Taba (1962:197) has said that desired behavioural changes set the scope and limits for what is to be taught and learned. Therefore, in the diagram, the right hand side shows a two-directional flow of arrows from and to the objectives. In the same manner, arrows

flow from each and to each of the factors in the diagram. For example, an arrow flows from content to the classroom situation entitled "useful classroom efforts." This arrow represents the broad content which has been selected and cross-checked against the requirements of the broad objectives. The teacher uses this broad content to select his specific content.

The second arrow flows from the classroom situation to the broad content. This signifies the teacher's cross-checking of the specific content he selects against the broad content earlier presented. Then a two-directional arrow flows from and to both the classroom situation and the objectives. By flowing from objectives to the classroom situation, the arrow signifies the presentation to the class teacher of the broad objectives for his instructions. By flowing from the classroom situation to the objectives, the arrow shows the teacher's cross-checking of the specific objectives he selects against the broad objectives.

Another arrow flows from evaluation to the classroom situation. This arrow presents two vital information: firstly, it represents known selected examination instruments which have been cross-checked, usually by

experts, against the requirements of the broad objectives.

Secondly, it represents actual examination questions attempted by the learners. From the broad instruments, presented by the evaluation system, the teacher selects his own evaluation tools and cross-checks them against the one earlier presented in broad terms. This cross-checking by the teachers is represented by the arrow flowing from the classroom situation to evaluation.

This two directional arrow flowing from and to both evaluation and the classroom situation has another function. It indicates the flow of information between the teacher and the evaluation system often represented by an examination body. This information deals with problems the teacher may have in preparing learners for achieving the objectives. Wheeler (1967:281) claims that this information is necessary because when there is no communication between the teacher and the examiner, it is likely to have the teacher stressing one set of objectives while the examiner stresses quite another. The designing and administering of any examinations may serve a better purpose if based on feedbacks from the classroom teacher. It may be only by so doing that the

weaknesses which Wheeler talks about may be avoided.

It appears, therefore, that constant cross-checking with all the factors at all levels of instructional activities stabilises the relationships under review. If this happens, the end-product of all instructions is likely to be largely positive. By positive end-product, it is meant the ability of instructional activities to achieve the major objectives of instructional programmes.

The left hand side of the model shows one-directional flow in these relationships. Taba (1962-197) has written that the possibilities of knowledge and learning are boundless. Bloom (1969:26) makes the same claim when he states that there are too many behavioural outcomes that are likely to occur in any learning situation. These authors advise that a selection of behaviour outcomes will have to be made. Taba (1962: 197) specifically says that the teacher has always to be faced with the problems of selecting which behavioural changes to stress. This implies that there are always many behavioural outcomes competing for recognition. This researcher holds the view that for the selected behavioural changes to be achieved, they

must be constantly referred to or else, the teacher may lose sight of them. Since, therefore, there are boundless learnings jostling for attention, a one directional flow in the relationships being studied may very likely lead to a largely negative end-product. By negative end-product, it is meant the achievement of behavioural changes which bear no relations to the objectives of the programme concerned.

The boundlessness of learning appears to make it very unlikely to have a hundred per cent achievement of positive end-product. The theory guiding this study postulates that constant reference to the selected desired behavioural outcomes may ensure stable relationships among the factors under study. If that happens, the positive end-product is very likely to be greater than the negative end-product.

It may be important to stress that the end-product of instructions are likely to either be largely positive or gegative. For every instruction that produces undesirable behavioural outcome has produced negative end-product. If the objectives of the instruction have been carefully selected, it is likely that the ones selected are the desired behavioural outcomes. It is

therefore very likely that different behavioural outcomes resulting from that instruction are likely to be the undesired behavioural outcomes that were rejected while the desired ones were being selected. It may mean that a vast majority of badly taught lessons easily lead to achieving undesirable behavioural changes.

In that case, constant reference to the selected behavioural outcomes may indicate a desire by the teacher concerned to teach well. It may also indicate that only the best method will very likely be chosen and that this may lead to good teaching. Since good teaching is likely to result from maintaining a stable relationship among the factors concerned in this theory, the beginning of success in maintaining this stability in the relationships among our factors is the ensuring that constant reference is made to the selected objectives.

The question may be asked as to what level of stability in these relationships lead to what percentage of positive or negative end-product? Answers to questions like this may be found through a system of experimentation which is beyond the scope of this work.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

It was hypothesised that objectives had not helped in determining the selection of content of the school certificate history syllabus being offered in secondary schools in Zaria Province of North-Central State and that consideration for passing examinations was the main concern of the teaching that went on in those schools.

In order to test these hypotheses, it was necessary to collect data on statement of objectives, the teachers' ability to communicate the objectives, to their students, the teachers' professional and academic training, the students' understanding of the objectives, and the teaching techniques the teachers frequently employed. In addition data was collected on the teaching materials and facilities available to the teachers.

Sampling Procedures

For the reasons enumerated below, it was decided that the school certificate history syllabus should

be the one to use. It was the syllabus which was being offered in all the secondary schools in the province. The terminal examinations were set by a single body. The students faced the same questions. In fact, the syllabus is offered and the same examination questions are attempted by all secondary schools in the country. These schools are referred to in some parts of the country as Grammar Schools.

It was very likely, therefore, that the general objectives for the syllabus would be the same. Since the syllabus was being offered all over the country, the general objectives would very likely be national because "the teaching of history is part of training in citizenship" (RSC, HSN 1973:1). It was pertinent therefore, to expect that such a nation-wide syllabus would have clearly stated objectives which would reflect the national objectives of education.

Another consideration in favour of selecting this syllabus was that it had evolved to its present form (Adejumobi 1974:366-67). There had been the syllabus that prepared students for some British School Certificates. That was replaced in 1951 by another which was in turn changed in 1966. The last change was necessary

because the "Tropical Africa in World History" 1951 syllabus presented African history as:

> ...nothing more than ...European activities in Africa (Anene and Brown 1966:2).

These changes were suggestive of improvements in statements of objectives. Therefore, it was expected that the objectives for the syllabus would be those that are clearly stated. The objectives would also be those that seek to express the aspirations of the Nigerians because these changes were thought of as having been necessitated by the desire to satisfy the social needs of Nigeria.

Because of the funds available and time limits, Zaria province was selected for its proximity. There were nineteen secondary schools in the province then. The Federal Government Secondary School at Kaduna was not included because it had not started offering the syllabus at that time.

Although thirteen schools were eventually used for the study, it was originally planned to use fifteen. Since fifteen out of nineteen would leave out four, the sampling procedure employed was the one which would randomly eliminate the four. Therefore, the names of

the nineteen schools were written on separate pieces of paper each paper containing one name only. These pieces of paper were separately folded and put in a common pool. One by one, four folded pieces of paper were drawn out from the common pool. Each draw was preceded by a thorough shuffling of the pieces of paper in the common pool.

In carrying out the research, however, complete data was obtained from thirteen schools out of the randomly selected fifteen. In spite of several visits, we were unable to interview students and inspect their notebooks in the two remaining schools. Although everything else was available from all the fifteen, we decided to leave out the other data collected from the two schools where students were not interviewed.

The Instruments Used

To find out what was really happening in the classroom with regards to the relationship among objectives, content and examination, a few research tools including open ended interviews were used and student exercise books were inspected.

In identifying levels of interviewing, Fox (1969: 401) described what he called "conscious depth level"

as the level of interviewing in which

> ...the techniques of individual interactions ...are required and so sample sizes...are small.

Therefore, only three Form Four students were used from each of the thirteen schools. The teachers presented one of the best, one of the average and one below average student in each school. The judgement in this matter was left to the teachers.

Any one of the following questions was asked each student:

1. You are a Nigerian, of what use is learning about Ashanti Golden Stool to you?
2. Of what use is learning about the Fulani Jihad to you?
3. What is the point in learning about the Dahomey kingdom or the Sudanese empires?

Each student was asked the following questions:

4. Do you discuss the uses of the topics you study with your teacher in class?
5. If yes, is it at the beginning or after the facts about the topics have been taught?

All the objectives the students stated as the reasons for their learning about the topics asked were

jotted down and later re-grouped into two categories called "Knowledge" and "Application" after (Bloom 1956).

A written questionnaire utilising "the Bales system of observation" (Galtung 1967:119) in which questions are described as "closed" or "open" was used. "Closed" questions presented all the expected possibilities and the respondent merely ticked the ones that applied. "Open" questions allowed the respondent to state his own views in the space provided for the purpose. The questions would not present choices in the "open" questions system.

The first part of the questionnaire was "open" and it dealt with personal data like teaching experience and academic qualifications.

Sets of closed questions were drawn up to test various aspects of the study. One set investigated teaching techniques, materials and facilities available to the teachers. There was another set of questions testing whether or not objectives were stated by teachers. Others tested the system of communication between the teachers and examiners.

It was hoped that our hypotheses regarding the relationship among objectives, content and examination

in the teaching of history in the schools concerned would be adequately tested by the use of the instruments outlined above. Once that was known, the theoretical situation was to be compared with it. If there were wide gaps between the theory and the real classroom situation, it was hoped that remedies would be suggested.

objectives which can comulatively give rise to the students' clear understanding and achievement of the major goals of the programme.

Formal education in all the fields alone would not do. Certain experience in teaching would have educated the teacher about which objectives are appealing but not realisable. It might also have taught him what objectives are useful and realisable in certain given situations. Table 4.1 contains the facts about experience and professional and academic qualification of the teachers.

Table 4.1

Teachers' Qualifications and Experience

Experience	Qualifications			
Years of Service	N.C.E.	BA	BA + GCE	Totals
0 - 2	2	1	0	3
3 - 6	4	4	1	9
Over 7	0	1	0	1
	6	6	1	13*

* One teacher taught the syllabus in each school.

According to this table, the majority had taught for about five years. Only one had taught for over seven years and he had taught twelve years. Only three had taught for less than three years. The range of their teaching experiences was three months to two years. That can be deemed quite acceptable. But their professional qualification gives some room for concern. Nobody had a post graduate professional education, and nobody had the Bachelor of Arts (Education) or the Bachelor of Education.

The Objectives in the Syllabus

The teachers' academic and professional education appear unlikely to have sufficiently prepared them to accurately identify and communicate to their students, the major objectives of the programme; let alone the instructional objectives of the lessons they taught. They would very likely have to depend on whatever objectives are stated in the syllabus in order to teach effectively. Table 4.2 presents the facts about statement of objectives in the schools visited for the study.

Evidently, there are no stated objectives for this syllabus. The relationship we are seeking to ascertain

appears to be none existent.

Apart from the N.C.E. holders who had some academic and professional education, the rest, except one, seem to be lacking either in academic or professional education. The N.C.E. teachers were originally not meant to teach this syllabus since they were prepared mainly for teaching forms one and two. The intention was that while the graduate teachers teach the School Certificate syllabus, the N.C.E. teachers would teach the introductory courses. It is obvious therefore, that their teaching the syllabus indicates a dearth for qualified teachers. They might not therefore have adequately been equiped for the task of selecting the desired major behaviour outcomes for history. This might also be true of their ability to select appropriate content which could bring about a natural realisation of the objectives they might select.

But the teachers of this history syllabus are expected to identify the major objectives since those who planned it stated no objectives. In addition, the teachers have to decide their specific instructional objectives. This becomes the more difficult to do because there are no major goals expressed and some of

Table 4.2

Are Objectives Stated in the Syllabus?

The general objectives for the history syllabus are:	(a)	Clearly stated on the first page	0
	(b)	Sent to us separately	0
	(c)	Stated some where in the middle of the syllabus.	0
	(d)	Not stated at all.	13
		Total	13
Each class has its own objectives stated	(a)	On the first page.	0
	(b)	Separatefly sent to the teacher concerned.	0
	(c)	Somewhere in the middle of the syllabus	0
	(d)	Nowhere at all.	13
		Total	13
I read the class general objectives	(a)	Every time I plan	0
	(b)	Once a week	0
	(c)	Once a term	0
	(d)	At no time at all	13
		Total	13
I type out the objectives and give them to the students	(a)	At the beginning of session	0
	(b)	At the beginning of each term	0
	(c)	At the end of session	0
	(d)	At no time at all	13
		Total	13

the teachers are not well prepared to identify the objectives for the syllabus; some of the teachers' defective education makes them dependent on whatever objectives are expressed. If, therefore, they are to operate the syllabus realistically, the major objectives have to be clearly stated.

Teachers' Statement of Objectives

The statements in the above paragraph can be regarded as mere propositions. Their proof would have to be sought in the type of objectives the teachers expressed. Table 4.3 shows what the teachers themselves said about the sort of objectives they stated in their teaching of history.

According to table 4.3, only four teachers either stated no objectives at all or did not do so when they had little time to plan. The rest claimed that they did not only state their objectives but that they stated them in terms of what their students could do. The objectives they stated are examined later.

Objectives in Schemes of Work and Lesson Plans

To check on the claims of the teachers on stating objectives, we studied their schemes of work and

Table 4.3

Teachers Statement of Objectives

Objectives			Response
As a history teacher I	(a)	state my objectives in terms of what the students can do	12
	(b)	was badly taught how to state objectives.	0
	(c)	have never been taught how to state objectives	0
	(d)	never state any objectives	1
		Total	13
If I have no time to write out my lesson plan, I	(a)	just write out my objectives for the lesson.	9
	(b)	read the class general objectives.	0
	(c)	use the previous lessons objectives.	1
	(d)	state no objectives at all	3
		Total	13

lesson plans. Some of these schemes of work and lesson plans can be seen in appendix III, p . 187 and appendix IV p . 204.

It can be seen that neither the lesson plans nor the schemes of work have any stated objectives. If we compare term two of the schemes of work of all the three schools presented, we would find the same pattern in which only topics are stated and weeks assigned to each topic. It is surprising to see the striking similarities in these plans especially if we know that these schemes of work came from schools three hundred kilometers apart. So are also the lesson plans similar. The common features here include the absence of objectives.

Were Objectives stated in Students' Notes?

We requested for the students' note-books to see whether the objectives, the teachers claimed to have stated were copied there. These note books were inspected and the findings are recorded in table 4.4.

In each school we examined three student note books. The note-books belonged to the students we interviewed.

The information in table 4.4 should be compared with table 4.5. If the teachers stated any objectives at all, especially those that go beyond the knowledge

category, the students would almost definitely note them down.

Student Notes - Made or Given?

Notes were given by the teachers in most cases. The reasons given for this include the students' incompetency in English, their inability to make their own notes from books and their poor reading speed. Details of some of the reasons given can be read in Appendix IV, page 204.

Table 4.4

Were Objectives stated in Student Notebooks?

School	Objectives	
Serial No.	Shown	Not Shown
1	0	1
2	0	1
3	0	1
4	in terms of the dramatists in the event	0
5	0	1
6	0	1
7	0	1
8	0	1
9	0	1
10	0	1
11	0	1
12	0	1
13	1	0
13	2	11

The neatness of the handwriting of the students in some of the schools suggests that the students spent much more time in copying clean notes than they might have spent on reading and understanding what they read. It appeared as if they had competitions in good handwriting and copying clean notes. One is not sure whether good handwriting should be given such high priority.

In one of the schools, it appeared that attempts were made to make students make their own notes. One could see the teacher's red ink marks with comments such as "confused."

An important learning that a history student should be proud of is that which enables him to read historical passages, understand them and take down summaries. If a student finished secondary education without being able to read, understand, and make notes from a passage, that student would be seriously handicapped. The fact that all the students interviewed were form four students makes this a serious matter.

We asked each student whether the notes they had were made by them or given them by their teachers.

relate history to life today. Table 4.6 presents the responses we got from the students on this issue.

Table 4.6

Discussing Objectives in Class

Do You	Discuss Objectives in Class?	
School	Yes	No
1	0	1
2	0	1
3	0	1
4	0	1
5	0	1
6	0	1
7	0	1
8	1	0
9	0	1
10	1	0
11	1	0
12	0	1
13	1	0
13	4	9

Objectives Understood by Students

It can be seen that not much has b en done in the schools on stating objectives either in writing or verbally. It might be helpful to know what sort of objectives the students were able to express as the reasons for their learning history. What did they think would constitute the objectives for learning the various topics in their syllabus? The students' answers to the questions put to them on the objectives of the topics selected and stated in chapter three are reproduced in table 4.7.

Table 4.7

The Objectives the Students Stated

School		Objective Stated	Classification	
Sch. No.	Obj. No.		Know-ledge	Appli-cation
1	1	Sudanese empires were also in West Africa	1	0
	2	Sudanese empires had trade contacts with the Guinea States, like Oyo	1	0
	3	It is good to know about our neighbours.	1	0

Sch. No.	Obj. No.	Objective Stated	Know-ledge	Appli-cation
2	4	The rise and fall of the empires must have influenced our lives in Nigeria	0	1
	5	Some people from the empires migrated into Borno	1	0
3	6	To know how the empires rose and fell.	1	0
	7	To know how the empires maintained themselves	1	0
	8	We can compare and contrast similar empires like that of Oyo.	0	1
	9	Islam was received by these empires	1	0
4	10	The Sokoto Jihad spread Islam in Nigeria	1	0
	11	To see the work of those who assumed responsibility for the spread of Islam.	1	0
	12	Hausa aristocracy was replaced by Fulani aristocracy	1	0
	13	Hausa malpractices were eradicated	1	0
5	14	So as not to know just about our country but to study other countries also	1	0
	15	We can copy ideas from the empires to apply to our lives	0	1

Sch. No.	Obj. No.	Objective Stated	Know-ledge	Appli-cation
5	16	The study can help us solve our daily problems.	0	1
	17	To enable us see the effects of our past on us today	0	1
6	18	We want to know about the past	1	0
	19	To know how the kings ruled their kingdoms.	1	0
	20	To know how they controlled their gold mines	1	0
	21	We want to know why, unlike Oyo, the Dahomey kingdom survived and how it expanded	1	0
7	22	To gain more knowledge of political and religious movements	1	0
	23	Because Dan Hodio was a well known person in the empire	1	0
	24	Because Dan Hodio was a good leader	1	0
	25	Because the past affects the present	0	1
	26	Because Dahomey had contacts with Nigeria	1	0
8	27	To know what happened in the past	1	0
	28	To correct the present through a knowledge of the past	0	1

Sch. No.	Obj. No.	Objective Stated	Know-ledge	Appli-cation
8	29	Just to know what happened in the past.	1	0
	30	To know about West Africa	1	0
	31	To know what happened a long time ago though it did not happen in our own time	1	0
	32	To know the evil practices of the Jihadists - e.g. killing.	1	0
9	33	To know the past of Dahomey	1	0
	34	To know how Dahomey contri-buted to the past of West Africa	1	0
	35	A knowledge of how diverse people, as were in the empires, lived together can help unity.	0	1
10	36	To compare our lives today with those who lived in the past	0	1
	37	To know about he history of areas in West Africa so that we can understand those who now live there.	0	1
11	38	The stool contained the spirit of the people.	1	0
	39	Because the stool was sent from heaven	1	0
	40	To learn about the things of the past.	1	0

Sch. No.	Obj. No.	Objective Stated	Know-ledge	Appli-cation
11	41	To know the techniques of the rulers in governing and the loyalty of their sub-jects to them	1	0
	42	A knowledge of certain past problems can help us avoid getting into similar problems	0	1
12	43	So that people may know about Dan Hodio	1	0
	44	To know that they believed in God	1	0
	45	To know how Usman Dan Hodio guided the people in the Caliphate	1	0
	46	To know their systems of administration in order to compare with our own	0	1
	47	To use some of the useful ways they used to solve their problems in solving our own.	0	1
13	48	The empires must have influenced our lives in Nigeria in some ways.	0	1
	49	To know how the empires were organised	1	0
	50	The empires had contacts with Nigeria and this explains the introduction of Islam to some parts of Nigeria	0	1
13	50		35	15

The objectives have been divided into two broad categories in the cognitive domain of educational objectives stated by the students which tend to stress recall, acquisition of facts, knowledge of terms and movements of ideas. Application covers those objectives that seek to relate the past to the present in order to make some judgements and conclusions. There are only fifteen such objectives of the fifty objectives stated. That is only 30% of the objectives went beyond the knowledge category of educational objectives.

If history teaching is to be used for citizenship education then the first stage in that education is to apply the knowledge gained to life situations. This application makes the students aware of the links between the past and the present. Citizenship education belongs to the affective domain of the educational objectives. What is expected of the history teacher is to transfer the cognitive objectives to affective objectives at the application level. The comprehension level of the cognitive domain is implied here. The teacher has to make sure that the level is reached. He then leads the class to the application level and

then transfers them to the affective domain. The application of the facts to the present stimulates the students. If this is done often, their interests would be roused so that they may go out or their way to seek to apply history knowledge to life today. By continuing to do that, they can then organise these facts of history which they can apply to their daily lives. They would know that lack of honesty and sincerity in rulers led to the rise of popular leaders who challenged the establishment. The student can now begin to read the actions of their leaders with new insight. They can understand such terms as oppression of the poor and their reactions to injstices may be modelled after the leaders they learned about in history. Such phrases like "working for the greatest good of the greatest number" may then become more meaningful.

The fewer number of application objectives among the ones given makes one fear that our children's understanding of history may not be that of a subject that gives education for citizenship.

Each of the answers given by the students was followed by such questions as "Is that useful to you?"

The majority re-emphasised their answers by repeating the information earlier given. For example, "To know the past" when followed by the question "Is that useful to you?" They said "Yes". When asked further - "In what ways?" They said "By giving me enough information about the past". To the question, "How do you use that information?" they answered "To increase my knowledge about the past."

This result is not surprising in view of the fact that not all the topics had been discussed in class in terms of the use of studying such topics to the students although it is accepted that such a discussion is important and necessary. For every minute spent in class is paid for. The payment is not made to give the learner a mere pleasure in knowing facts, but to train and fit him into the society. If thirty minutes are spent on learning about any history topic, the use of such learning in preparing the learner for useful life must be known. To do otherwise may amount to spending public money irresponsibly. The question to always ask may be "Do the benefits to be derived from learning and teaching this topic justify spending the money the nation entrusts to me as the teacher?" The spending

of the money provided for educating children to be useful citizens may perhaps be best justified if both the teacher and the students understand clearly the objectives and the manner by which the topics learned about can help to make the learners better citizens.

The knowledge category of the taxonomy of educational objectives contributes only minimally to the development of the child towards making him a better citizen. Bloom (1956:28, 29) defines it as nothing:

> ...More than the remembering of the idea or phenomenon in a form very close to that in which it was originally learned.

In table 4.7, this type of objectives predominates. Since their major concern is to enable the student to recall, remember and, perhaps, reproduce what has been learned, the preoccupation of these schools would very likely be transferring finished knowledge, for the purpose of answering examination questions.

The students were quick to see the difference in their learning at the interviews and that of their day to day classroom learning. They would comment at the end of the interviews that they did not learn in class in that way. They did not blame their teachers for this: they blamed the syllabus for being too wide to

allow any time for such. If they were to engage in discussing the objectives of each lesson, they would not cover the syllabus. Odunsi (1971:55) knew what he was talking about out of experience when he asserted that it was easy for the teacher to earn the displeasure of his students if he engaged in doing anything outside the syllabus, no matter how highly the teacher regarded the "extra" bit. The syllabus must be covered. Odunsi (1971:55) added that both the teacher and the students

> ...do not only want to worship the syllabus but to 'cover' it.

They are usually all in a hurry to reach a point when they can say

> We have covered the syllabus. (Odunsi 1971:55).

One might ask, is covering the syllabus the best way to pass examinations? Other than passing examination, for what else is covering the syllabus?

Since the lecture technique of teaching appears to be one of the ways of covering the syllabus in the time available, it is usually one of the most frequently used techniques. Table 4.8 shows this clearly.

Some of the techniques here are not naturally challenging. Such techniques include lecture, full note

Table 4.8

Teaching Techniques and Frequency of Use

Teaching Techniques	Used	
	Often	Never
Lecture	10	3
Visits, Field trips, Films, slides etc.	0	13
Projects	0	13
Class discussion through question and answer	13	0
Debates	3	10
Assignments	13	0
Dramatisation in groups	1	12
Dramatisation by individuals	0	13
Full note taking from the chalk board	8	5
Note taking based on chalkboard summaries	11	2
Dictation	3	10
Note making under teacher's guidance	5	8
Note making from text-books	5	8
Note making through completing sentences	1	12
Group work	0	13
Exchange visits	0	13
Problem solving	0	13
Outsiders talk to students	0	13
Demonstration	3	10
	66	171

taking from the chalkboard in which the teacher writes everything and the students merely copy dictation, and in some cases question and answer discussion. The more challenging but somewhat time consuming are visit, field trips, film shows, projects, debates, problem solving, dramatisation and so on are not used. These were stated by the teachers themselves. Their reasons for not using these teaching techniques are that apart from their being difficult to organise, they consume too much time which the teachers badly need to cover the syllabus. Table 4.8 gives us a picture of schools in a hurry to cover a given area. Their choice of teaching techniques is determined by that great need to cover the syllabus.

Table 4.8 agrees with table 4.9. When the major objective of a programme is to accumulate an array of facts and "finished" knowledge, the lecture technique of teaching may predominate. It allows the teacher to present a large number of facts and figures in the shortest possible time. This type of lecture does not provide for bringing in other techniques. It usually gives the teacher thirty minutes talking time, two to three minutes question and answer time and the rest of

Table 4.9

Why Lecture Technique is Frequently Used

Teaching Technique		Reason for Frequent Use	Score
I use the lecture technique of teaching very frequently because	(a)	the WAEC never asks for my feelings about the syllabus so I lose interest.	0
	(b)	the syllabus is too wide to be covered by using any other technique	6
	(c)	it is the easiest teaching techniques	0
	(d)	children like to listen	5
	(e)	it is the best technique for teaching history	2
			13

the time for note taking which would be completed during preparation time in the evening as part of the students assignment.

Facilities

While stated objectives may indicate the most effective teaching techniques to use, the availability of teaching materials determines what techniques are eventually selected. For it would be unwise to select

lecture interspersed with tape recorded speech technique if there are no tape recorders in the school and if there are none nearby.

The list of teaching techniques in table 4.8 contains those techniques that were considered minimum for a successful teaching of history. This consideration was based on the researcher's personal experience in teaching history in this part of the country. Therefore, these techniques had a good chance of being used. What facilities were there for the teachers? Most of the schools had electricity supply which made it possible for them to use certain modern teaching facilities. The findings on facilities are recorded in the following tables.

Table 4.10

Basic Facilities

Do the following exist?	Yes	No
Film Projector	3	10
Projection Screen	3	10
Window blinds	3	10
Cards for drawing	9	4
Modelling Facilities	0	13
Notice and Display Boards	6	7
Portable chairs and tables	8	5
Duplicating facilities	6	7
	38	66

Table 4.11

The Library

Do the following Exist?	Yes	No
Encyclopaedia	7	6
Books on Nigerian History Published 1964-1972	8	5
Books on African History Published 1964-1972	8	5
Journals of the Historical Society of Nigeria	3	10
Journals of African History	3	10
Tarikh	2	11
History Method Books	2	11
Newspapers	5	8
Good Dictionaries	9	4
History Atlases	8	5
	55	75

In one school, there were attempts to designate a room "history room" but that the room also served students reading English literature. The history teacher recounted her unpleasant experience by saying that when she displayed, in the room, certain history

* Table 4.12

The History Room

Do the following Exist?	Yes	No
Storage for history materials	0	13
Display gallary for history materials	0	13
Teachers' Cupboards	0	13
Diorama Boxes	0	13
Wall Maps	0	13
Notice and Display boards	0	13
Periodicals	3	10
Portable Chairs and tables	0	13
History Atlases	0	13
	3	114

* The situation in table 4.12 is that none of the schools had a room devoted entirely to history teaching and activities and also for keeping and displaying history materials

materials, she found that they were disappearing one by one or getting broken. She could not hold her students responsible because they were not the only ones who worked in the room. She later abandoned attempts to collect and display any history materials.

Facilities for teaching history in these schools could be described as poor and not very encouraging. This could have a limiting effect on the selection of teaching techniques that may be required for achieving specified objectives.

The Syllabus

On whether the syllabus itself allowed selecting effective teaching techniques like problem solving, the teachers indicated that the content of the syllabus did not give room for selecting teaching techniques on the basis of their ability to develop the thinking power of pupils. It is interesting to note that one of the teachers told us that when he had to fill in questionnaires like the ones here, he avoided choosing the extremes. This may be one probable reason that quite a number of them took the moderate stand. They would not take "very bad" because it is an extreme case of neglect. But that might be the truth. So, five said the syllabus was adequate. The rest said it was too wide as can be seen in table 4.13.

Those who drew up the 1973 suggested syllabus also believed that the present syllabus is too wide. They

wrote:

> That the teaching of history, based mainly on the consideration of examination requirements of the existing syllabus, is observed generally to be too formal and examination oriented to be sufficiently stimulating and challenging (NERC 1973:4)

The group went on to say:

> ... the existing W.A.E.C. syllabus is too ambitious as it seeks to cover far more than can be coped with satisfactorily by the schools (NERC 1973:4)

Table 4.13

Suitability of the Syllabus

Is the present School Certificate history syllabus	(a)	too wide?	8
	(b)	adequate?	5
	(c)	a little bit inadequate?	0
	(d)	very inadequate?	0
	(e)	completely unsuitable?	0
			13

The West African Examination Council and the Teachers

Having sent the syllabus to the teachers, the normal thing one would expect might be for the council to seek the opinion of the teachers on the suitability

and otherwise of the syllabus. In this way, adjustments to the syllabus could be jointly sought and effected where necessary.

Communication between the teachers and examiners is necessary because without it each group is likely to stress a different objective. Whealer (1967:281) is of the view that unless this communication exists the views of the examiners and those of the teachers would not be the same. Those who suffer from such difference are the students.

However, the absence of communication that existed between the teachers and the council was amply demonstrated by the following incidents. A teacher at Queen Amina College, Kaduna, told us that when she started teaching, she could not know from the syllabus what to teach and what to leave out. She therefore wrote to the W.A.E.C. asking for past questions to guide her. She got the questions and used them as guides in her teaching. Her students passed the examination well. At Zonkwa, another teacher told us how she also wrote and asked for past questions when she was teaching at Kano. The past questions took so long to arrive that by the time she got them, she had left Kano. So she could not use them

where she wanted. All the same she found them useful in her new place. Another teacher from Katsina said she had watched with dismay the way her students were disappointed each year as they failed to pass their examination in history, in spite of her covering the syllabus. She therefore decided to apply to take part in marking the examinations in order to know what the council wanted from the students.

The marking instructions told her to award more marks to those students who did not only state the facts but applied the facts to argue their cases in answering the questions set. This shows that the W.A.E.C. had implied objectives which the teachers are not aware of.

If there were clearly stated objectives, it would not have been necessary for the above incidents to occur. Above all, because the council did not communicate with the teachers, the solution of such problems were left entirely to individual initiative.

What these few instances show is that teachers are as ignorant about the requirement of the W.A.E.C. as their students are. Secondly, instead of leaving such communication efforts to individual initiative, the

council should ensure that an officially recognised channel for communication is opened so that both teachers and the examiners have the same goals. By this silence, the council seems to have constituted itself into a punishment organ terrorising both teachers and students alike.

The syllabus states no clear objectives. The council does not seem to have any system of professional communication with teachers. Those teachers who have feelings for their students and their reputation initiate communication with the W.A.E.C. Those who seem not to care, nothing happens. Therefore, both the teachers who do not care and the W.A.E.C. cheat the child and the nation.

Unless the teacher knows what the examiner wants, and the examiner knows the constraints under which the teacher operates the syllabus, their efforts are likely to bear less fruits as far as the child and the nation are concerned. Table 4.14 shows the evidence on this matter.

Major Issues

The various tables bring to the fore certain basic issues. The first is the teachers' professional and

Table 4.14

The WAEC and the Teachers - Communication

Is the present system of communication between the WAEC and teachers	(a)	very thorough and satisfactory?	0
	(b)	Satisfactory?	0
	(c)	rather inadequate?	3
	(d)	bad?	7
	(e)	very bad?	3
			13
How does your school receive the examination reports?	(a)	Directly from WAEC	5
	(b)	Through the Inspector of Education	3
	(c)	None at all	0
	(d)	I do not know	5
			13
Who receives the reports?	(a)	The Principal only	4
	(b)	The Head of Department through the Principal	2
	(c)	All the teachers through their Heads of Department	2
	(d)	I do not know	5
			13
What happens when the reports are received?	(a)	The Principal keeps them and that is all.	3
	(b)	Heads of Department keep them.	0
	(c)	Teachers read and return them to their Heads of Department	3
	(d)	A discussion of the points raised follows.	0
	(e)	Students are given copies	2
	(f)	Nothing happens	5
			13

academic education. In five teachers colleges in Kwara State, Agbogun (1973:17) found that only one of the history teachers had a degree and in economics not history. In all the post primary institutions in Zaria, Umar (1974:24, 25) found that out of twenty five teachers, only one had a professional education up to a degree level (B.A. Ed.) eleven were graduateswithout professional education while seven had professional education up to N.C.E. level. Six were N.C.E. holders only. And in all the post primary institution in Kachia District of North Central State, Alabi (1975) found that out of thirteen history teachers, four were N.C.E. holders, seven had degrees without professional education and only two had the post graduate diploma in education. In Kaduna, of all the seventeen history teachers in all post primary institutions there, Zakari (1974:24) found that one had a masters degree but without professional education, five had only N.C.E. certificates, seven had degrees without professional education and one had a diploma in journalism. The rest had degrees with professional education up to the N.C.E. level.

If selection of objectives is one of the teachers major problems, he needs adequate professional education

to be able to face the problems successfully. The majority of the teachers in these schools lack this professional education. Professional education which enables teachers to select good educational objectives is important because, as Bloom (1956: 7) rightly states:

> ... attitude changes and growth in knowledge have little relations.

Again, Bloom (1956: 7) quoting Adkins and Kuder (1940) emphasised that:

> cognitive achievement and attitude and values are statistically independent.

A sound academic training alone is not enough. And yet, the syllabus states no clear objectives. The non-Nigerian teachers who had no professional education and sound knowledge of the Nigerian Society must have been placed in a very difficult position.

In addition to these problems, few facilities exist for effective teaching. None of the schools had a history room in which history materials could be kept in safety. The syllabus is very wide and since it has no clearly stated objectives to provide a common frame of reference, both the teachers and examiners had severe limitations. The teachers had to direct their efforts to covering the syllabus to enable their students cover

the areas that questions might be asked in. What was needed was not only a statement of the major objectives but that of the specific objectives for each topic and period in the syllabus. The national interests demand that history contributes its own quota to national development. It can do this effectively if it helps the children to develop certain attitudes needed to make the children committed citizens.

The fact that the students generally were not able to see the use of the topics they studied beyond enabling them to have knowledge demonstrates the need for clearly stated objectives.

The selection of content for this syllabus appears not to have been determined by any stated objectives. Examination considerations, as alleged by the group who drew up the 1973 suggested syllabus, seemed to have been the main determining factor in selecting content and teaching techniques for this syllabus. This is confirmed by table 4.8 in which the techniques that help covering a large area in the shortest time possible were used to avoid making students to face questions on topics the teacher had been unable to touch in the class. It is indefensible that in Southern Zaria the location of Nok,

history teaching went on with few organised field trips and visits.

How can we identify history objectives to make sure that no content and teaching techniques are selected unless it is known that they would lead to achieving objectives? The following chapters five and six take up these matters.

Chapter 5

OBJECTIVES

Introduction

Almost all human actions are purposive. For example, when a child cries, it may be that it wants to eat. When it lifts its arm and plays, it may be doing so to satisfy a basic physical need of which it may not be aware.

Just as a child may not know the reasons for all it does, so there are teachers who may not know why they teach certain lessons. It may not matter whether a child knows why it plays or not, its physical needs for play will still be met. However, for the teacher, unless he knows exactly what he is out to achieve, his efforts may be wasted.

Often, however, it is not the fault of the teacher alone that he does not know why he teaches a topic. For example, the Ironsi regime lamented that our education lacked direction (NN May 25, 1966: 6). This direction is still lacking until the various suggestions now being offered are implemented. The

1969 September 8-12 Curriculum Conference drew up what may likely become the guide-lines to Nigerian Education. Consequent upon this, the Seminar on National Policy on Education held in Lagos, June 4-8, 1973 recommended a set of objectives and policies for education in the country. The government promised a white paper on the recommendations. Until when this is published, our education can safely be said to lack a sense of national direction.

Many people have talked about this state of affairs. For example, Dr. Osoba called for a national philosophy at a conference in Zaria (1972:1) Dr. Ogunsola, of the Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University also called for a national sense of purpose for education (NN Nov. 24, 1972:9). These had been proceeded by the opinion of the then Northern Nigerian Government which stated that education in Northern Nigeria lacked direction (WPED 1961: 5).

Objectives are what give education a sense of direction; a point towards which all classroom and outdoor school activities are directed. The national objectives are the very ultimate behaviour outcomes that each educational institution in the country

strives to see its students exhibit at the end of their studies. The objectives for the various institutions and levels of the educational system provide the mediate behaviour outcomes which students who go through these levels and institutions are expected to exhibit. Objectives for subjects provide semi-mediate objectives and those for the individual lessons make up the immediate objectives (Wheeler 1967: 31-33).

Objectives for the School Certificate History Syllabus

There are four words in the literature on educational objectives which are often used interchangeably: goals, aims, purpose and objectives (Wheeler 1967:31,32; Bloom 1969: 25; Cave 1971:79 and 80). Aims and purpose are usually stated in general terms, as statements of intent about what educational system and programmes mean to achieve. Goals and objectives are the same and are defined by both Wheeler (1967: 31 and 32) and Bloom (1969:26). Objectives at the classroom level are defined by Wheeler (1967:31) as immediate goals.

Fenton (1966:20) raises the question of whether the yardstick for determining objectives should be a philosophy of education or the psychology of learning.

Since education is concerned mainly with transmitting and transferring culture so that learners become not only adjusted members of their societies but also active innovators, a choice need not be made between a psychology of learning and a philosophy of education. While objectives should be firmly rooted in a national philosophy to make them socially functional, they should also be based on psychology of learning to cater for the individual's psychological needs involved in the learning process. Therefore, once the objectives have been selected, both the psychology of learning and educational philosophy would be used in evaluating the desirability of the objectives. Failure to use psychology to evaluate our educational goals may lead to psychological problems for the children (Fenton 1966:70).

This exercise brings one to the first question of the study; what are the history objectives in secondary schools in Zaria province? The findings show that the West African Examination Council's syllabus is designed to assign topics on which the council will ask questions and those who master enough facts to answer the questions set will be awarded the council's certificate (Appendix II, page 177). The objectives of the syllabus

the "Development of Tropical Africa", the 1951 syllabus, because:

> ...the development of more scholarsly approach to African history showed that the syllabus for this paper still reflected a European view point on African History (Anene and Brown 1966: VII).

and that view point was that what constituted African history:

> ... was in fact largely concerned with European activities in Africa (Anene and Brown 1966: VIII).

The 1966 syllabus appears to have copied the form for the 1951 syllabus not realising that for Britain, the syllabus would serve her best if the objectives were not stated but for Nigeria as a country trying to free herself not only from political and economic domination but also from psychological colonialism, a guide to the teachers as to how the nation intends to use its history resources for this battle is necessary. The editors for one of the textbooks for this syllabus claimed that previous books for the syllabi had paid little attention to content. They alleged that:

> the best teachers always remain the students (Anene and Brown 1966: VIII).

The aim was to presentthe content in a scholarly textbook and allow the students to absorb it. This denies

Becker's claim that objective history is not possible that "Every generation... must inevitably play on the dead whatever tricks it finds necessary for its own peace of mind" (Burston 1967:2).

It appears now that the problem facing historians in Nigeria today is not lack of facts but failure to indicate clearly "what inevitable trick" they can play on the dead for the peace of mind of the Nigerians. What use is the history syllabus to nation building? The student may be the best teacher for the accumulation of facts but he needs to be guided as to what to do with the facts acquired. The student's self teaching without clearly stated objectives may lead to developing many undesirable behaviour changes (Bloom 1969: 26).

Now that school certificate history has no stated objectives, we would have to deal with the national stated objectives, that is our national educational objectives as suggested by the Lagos seminar. This will be done in order to find a basis for suggesting history objectives.

National Political Objectives

Since the publication of the book "The Second National Development Plan 1970-74" in April 1970, Nigerians meeting at various conferences have accepted the objectives outlined for the plan as the basis for our national ideology. In 1972, the November conference on economic development accepted them (NN. November 22, 1972: 2, and November 24th, 25th). In the absence of a stated national ideology or philosophy therefore, the Second National Development Plan objectives take the place of our national ideology or philosophy. For this reason the Seminar on National Policy on Education held in June 4-8, 1973 adopted the objectives and even took the pains to interpret each of them in order to help them to define our national educational philosophy (RSNPE 1973:7).

A political national philosophy is usually a written expression of what the nation feels and is consciously working to achieve. It is first felt. Then it is translated into action. When it is committed to writing, it is to tell the world what the nation is already doing, or what it is setting out to do.

Nyerere (1972: XV) describes this as:

> an attempt to formulate and to express in policy making terms, the basic ideals of the masses of the people...

On page 32 of the said plan launched in 1970, the planners declared that their plan was designed to build "a

1. free and democratic society;
2. just and egalitarian society;
3. united, strong and self-reliant nation;
4. great and dynamic society;
5. land of full and bright opportunities for all its citizens."

They went on to stress that:

> It is appropriate for the government and the people of the country to seek to give concrete meaning to these objectives and ensure their full realisation at all times (SNDP 1970: 32).

The National Seminar on National Policy on Education held in Lagos, June 4-8, 1973 interpreted number one above as:

> ... a free and democratic society implies individual political freedom for all Nigerians. It implies the freedom to conscience, expression, peaceful assembly; association and movement; freedom from discrimination; in short the fundamental human rights of the individual (including right to life, humane treatment, personal liberty, private and family life, and freedom from slavery and forced labour).

For "fairness and equality" involve making a decision. It is usually a question of passing a judgement as to what is fair or equal. The use of the terms is suggestive of the government doing this judgement.

Probably, it is because of this that the government decided to set up the Nigerian National Supply Company and the Prince Control Board. The difficulties that are facing these could be a result of the government's commitment to "freedom of conscience" and the many other freedoms listed above. Probably the difficulties in achieving the egalitarian objective are responsible for the Sunday Times columnist's statement about these two socialist bodies. He declared:

> The idea of using pseudo-socialist methods in solving the problem of capitalist economy will not work (S.T. February 17, 1973)

National Educational Philosophy

Based on our national objectives, the conference put forward a philosophy of education for Nigeria in these terms:

> The philosophy of Nigerian education must be based on equal opportunities for all citizens of the nation at primary, secondary and tertiary levels both inside and outside the formal school system (RSNPE 1973: 8-9).

Here again it appears that equal opportunity outside and inside the school system is more than the removal of fees. As Horn (1970:22) has indicated, it is not what fees a student pays that determines equal opportunity. Horn has shown clearly that in a situation such as in America where fees may not be payable, the socio-economic background of children often leads to poor performances and high rate of drop-outs.
To have this objective attained, the government will have to equalise chances of access to wealth, equip all schools equally, so that there is no difference in the children's home background and the school they attend and no difference between private and public schools. Or better still, cancel all private schools. But this will be a contradiction to objective number one above.

The national political philosophy is supposed to guide national educational philosophy which determines the nations educational objectives. The philosophy is supposed to be guided by a national value system.

National Educational Values

The Lagos conference therefore tackled the issue of what values the educational system should seek to

uphold. For the first time Nigerians put down what values they think their school children should uphold after their education. The use of writing down the values lies in the fact that both the teacher and the student know that the skills, abilities and knowledge that the school transmits to the students are to be used for upholding certain values. This is a sure way to ascertaining that those values that have stood the test of time may not be thrown away only to create a vacuum, the filling of which may mean some emotional distress to the society. The seminar wrote:

> The quality of instruction at all levels must therefore be determined by the need to inculcate the following values:
>
> a) respect for the worth and dignity of the individual;
>
> b) faith in man's ability to make rational decisions;
>
> c) moral and spiritual values in interpersonal and human relations;
>
> d) shared responsibility for the common good of society;
>
> e) promotion of emotional, physical and psychological health of all children (RSNPE 1973:8).

It is pertinent to add here that one of our problems has been our inability to transform our culture to suit our time. In this case one of the values to be included will be the retention and modification of our cultural values. For example, our extended family system has a lot to commend it although it has problems. While it has saved the governments from having to face serious problems caused by the unemployed and the destitutes whose burdens are borne by their relatives, it causes difficulties to people in position to employ others. You are expected to help a brother. Should you reject him in favour of another more qualified? The answer theoretically is yes. But practically many might say no. If education can help us to reject the bad side of this tradition it would provide some essential services to mankind.

Educational Philosophy and National Political Philosophy

The role of any national political philosophy in drawing up national educational philosophy is to give guidance to what educational philosophy should be. Realising this, the seminar declared that the philosophy of education for the nation must be:

> geared towards serving the need for self realisation, better human relationships, individual and national *officiency*, *effective* citizenship, national consciouness, national unity, social, economic, political, scientific and technological progress.

National Educational Objectives

If the above mentioned are what our national philosophy of education should attempt to see realised, what should be the national objectives for education? Educational objectives have been defined as:

> ... explicit formulation of the ways in which students are expected to be changed by the educative process - that is the way in which they will change their thinking, their feelings, and their actions (Bloom 1969:26).

In stating educational objectives, we are stating the ways by which the behaviour of our students will be changed. We must know

> the major objectives of the school or unit of instruction... if time and effort are not to be wasted on less important things and if the work of the school is to be guided by a plan (Bloom 1969: 26).

Apart from avoiding wasting time on less important behaviour changes, educational objectives also

> provide detail specifications of evaluation techniques. A test of the achievement of students, is a test of the extent to which the students have attained these objectives (Bloom 1969: 26).

Such is the case that Bloom declared that the validity of any achievement test lies in its ability to provide evidence of the extent to which students are attaining the major objectives of the unit of instruction (1969: 28).

All this means that we must have clearly stated objectives.

It is in this light that the statement of clear national educational objectives is important. The seminar presented the following as our national educational objectives:

(a) the inculcation of the right types of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the society.

(b) the training of the mind in building valuable concepts generalizations and understanding of the world.

(c) the acquisition of the appropriate skills, and abilities and competencies of both a mental and physical nature as equipments for the individual to live in his society and

(d) the acquisition of a relevant and balanced knowledge of facts about local and world phenomena.

> In the pursuit of the objectives outline above, we should ensure that traditional institutions and values are preserved as much as possible but modified or changed when necessary to serve the needs of a modern society (RSNPE 1973:9).

The importance of the last paragraph can not be over emphasized. For in education, we are introducing and often making available to the child what the society has been doing to survive. He will meet problems in respect of physical, psychological, social and at times spiritual needs. What education is doing is to say to him "Look here, through the ages, man has acquired a wide range of experiences. He has developed this and that method of attacking some of the problems you may meet. He has had these problems to solve. You will benefit much if you take these and work on them to solve some of your problems.
These solutions have been found useful, try them. See what you can do to improve upon. These other problems are yet to be solved. These have been our way of investigation. Try them."

A lot of these experiences have been constituted into traditions, institutions and value systems. This being the case, traditions, institutions, and value systems of our society in which the children will operate become central to all educational endeavours.

General Educational Objectives for Secondary Schools

Having stated the national educational objectives which are based on our national political philosophy, the seminar then addressed itself to identifying objectives for the various levels. These are the mediate objectives for the nation's school system.

For secondary school, two general aims were identified and they are:

1. Preparation for life.
2. Preparation for higher education (RSNPE 1973:9).

This is emphasising the weakness of the present system which prepares children for higher education only. The 1969 September Curriculum Conference had insisted that the secondary school curriculum should be diversified to cater for the vast majority of our secondary school leavers who will not go to University (Adaralegbe 1972: 220, 219).

The seminar then elaborated on these objectives by saying: in specific terms, the secondary school should

(a) provide an increasing number of primary school pupils with the opportunity of education of a high quality, irrespective of sex or social, religious and ethnic background;

(b) diversify its curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities and roles possessed by or open to students after secondary school course;

(c) equip students to live effectively in our age of science and technology;

(d) develop and project Nigerian culture, art and language as well as the world's cultural heritage;

(e) raise a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others, respect the dignity of labour, and respect those values specified under our broad national objectives;

(f) foster Nigerian unity with an emphasis on common ties that unites us in our diversity;

(g) inspire its students with a desire for achievement and self improvement both at school and in later life (RSNPE 1973: 14-15).

What may be puzzling here is the requirement that our secondary school pupils are expected not only to know "world culture" but also to develop and project it. One of the reasons for the National Youth Service Corps programme is that the students should be provided with a chance to know Nigeria. That suggests that even some Nigerian graduates do not know enough about Nigeria and its culture. But the world culture has been invading us so much that we have had to do what is known as a come back to our culture. To strike a

happy balance, we should not go out to seek the world culture. Our secondary school pupils should develop and project Nigerian cultural heritage. If we try to balance now, the result may be a disproportionate development and projection of the world culture detrimental to Nigerian culture. The world culture has such powerful weapons as imperialism, colonialism and neo-colonialism which we do not possess. It will come to us without us seeking it.

The recommendations of the seminar in Lagos, 1973 have been dealt with in greater details, in many instances just presented, because this is one of the only two such documents which deal with national educational objectives in more specific terms like this. It appears that the Federal Government would also use these as the basis for its white paper on educational policy.

History Objectives

What is History?

Before one talks about the objectives of history teaching, one would have to answer the question "what is history?" It is then that it will be easier to say why it is taught.

It appears that it is the interpretation of events that constitute history. Renier (1961: 32, 33) defines it as the story of men and women in societies, their deeds and achievements. Few historians would agree that history is just a story. The inclusion of such words as "achievement" suggests that the story has to be interpreted. For Dance (1960:9) history is the recorded past. He quickly points out the issues of bias. By implication he accepts that the record must be interpreted. He says, as a record, there must be a recorder who must have recorded his biases as well as the facts. To stress the interpreting aspect of history, Danto (1965: 1, 3) states that history does not consist of knowing past events. If we were to know all the events that have ever occurred in history, we would merely have known all the past and not history. History is the interpreted record of the past.

The relationship between history and events can be likened to that of cotton wool and clothes. Every bit of a cloth is made of cotton wool but the cloth is greater than the cotton wool. Every history is made up of past events but history is greater than the events. This distinction is crucial to the teaching of history.

Other philosophers do not accept this view of histo_y believing that history does not succumb to laws because all events have a "thought-side". Chief among these are Collingwood, Oakeshotte, and Dray. In arguing this, Dray points out that:

> The cause of a thing is the handle by which we control it. Causation is more than mere correlation. (1970: 95 and 97).

Dray is asserting that what the covering law philosophers call causation is a mere correlation. However, the concern of history is not to discover the events but the thought expressed in the events. Therefore correlation in events is largely irrelevant. This idea is carried further by Perry (Burston 1967:29) who asserts that the historian is like a judge or a detective and therefore his work involves something wider than deducting logical meanings. In that case, Perry goes on, the historian uses all kinds of laws and generalizations, theories and principles, but once the job is done these are no longer useful as it will be entirely a new set of laws that would be used to interpret the next event. (Burston 1967:33). Such laws and generalizations that are used do not figure in the interpretation in important way but only as the

Mere knowledge of events does not constitute history. Real teaching of history should introduce the child to the history method. It is no longer the view of historians that this method is the preserve of professors and professional historians (Buston 1970:1). It should be the total experience of all history lessons. Children should not only be told what tricks have to be played on the dead for our peace of mind (Burston 1967:2), but they should also take part in playing the tricks - interpreting history.

How is History Interpreted

Philosophers have been arguing about how history is interpreted. Some of the philosophers believe that history explanation is done through the medium of the "causal law" or "the covering law". (Hempel, C.G.; Popper, K.R. 1935; and Gardiner 1961:2,11,31,33). Such laws operate through a system of "antecedent conditions" of events. It could be stated as whenever such and such events occur, such and such other events may follow. Although these laws may not necessarily explain all events, they are said to form some useful "sketches" which are meant to direct investigation.

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vestiges of a procedure worked through to attain the interpretation (1967:33). Events of history do not always behave in the same way as events of the same kind (Burston 1967:35). We cannot find a class of "causes" of "battles" say each number of which is the same irrespective of the war concerned (Burston 1967: 35).

Probably, history would have been the most valuable practical subject of all the social sciences if definitive laws for interpretation were available. It would mean defining the laws as in making an electric bulb. Obey the rule to interpret events and then apply it to life and man's social problems are solved. A Government may be overthrown for being corrupt. The succeeding Government may be more corrupt but not overthrown.

Liddel-Hart (1972:15) wrote a whole book about why man does not learn from history. Although such a concept is entertained only in the light of wars, and other sociological problems, it is still useful to stress the impracticable application of law to history. For the interpretation of history has to do with the working of the mind. (Liddel-Hart (1972:18) asserts

For the history teacher, Burston (1970:1) assures him that the analysis of events by children introduces them to that experience which is historical. That is, since history is the interpreted events, getting children to take part in processing the events introduces them to history. If we expose children to the events and stop there, we have denied them history.

The History Objectives

The uniqueness of history may lie in the experience gained in interpreting the events. For it is the interpretation that exposes the thoughts expressed in the events that is valuable. This valuable experience is said to be capable of being applied to human problems (Robinson 1969: 182-3). Since history deals with a valuable thing like human experience, it is essential. But history experience is of a kind. It is vicarious and that is its chief advantage. The person gains the experience without feeling the real pain or joy involved in the event. But that may also be its chief defect. The objectives of history therefore may be to expose people to vicarious experiences which they can apply to human problems.

Reaky, in defending Black history, said:

> ...helping black youngsters understand and cope with their peculiar problems requires willing treatment of history. Blacks need to know their own history in order to grapple realistically with their future (Robinson 1969: 182-3).

These preceding paragraphs have indicated history objectives in all societies. These objectives can be summarised as follows:

1. Understanding the present through a knowledge of ones heritage.
2. The ability to offer judgement based on evidence gained through the practice of interpreting history.
3. Teaching morals, value system and the art of living together - understanding human relations.
4. Training the imaginative powers through dealing with things not physically present.
5. The rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Learning tolerance through understanding how the other person comes to behave the way he does.
7. Learning to cope with contemporary and future events.
8. Teaching to create international understanding based on interdependence.

These are general statements of aims. They are not behaviourally stated objectives but they provide the guidelines for stating history behavioural objectives.

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History Objectives in Nigerian Secondary Schools

The School Certificate History syllabus drawn up in 1951 did not have stated objectives as its main concern was to replace the British Commonwealth and European history by African history. The topics were simply replaced with topics in what was known as the "Development of Tropical Africa". This syllabus turned out to be not African history but history of European exploitations of Africa. To the Europeans this constituted African history. Their view of Africa was that Africa had been stagnant until the Portuguese appeared on the scene in the fifteenth century (Ayandele 1971: 20). This was soon seen through and it was known that the syllabus (1951) was not the great improvement it claimed to have been (Anene and Brown 1965: VII). However, it appears that the concern of the people who introduced the 1966 syllabus was centred on replacing topics with topics. That does not mean to say they did not know about objectives. Brown writing in a chapter on the objectives declared that:

> History teaching should seek to enlarge a student's capacity to deal with problems of people by the exercise of thought in assessment of evidence and in reaching conclusions (Anene and Brown 1965: 13).

As stated on page 12, Brown seemed to have expressed the central concern of the council and the society when he warned that:

> ...in Africa... social pressures (on) obtaining a certificate becomes the focal point of endeavour in most secondary school pupils (Anene and Brown 1966:16).

He insists on each educator recognising the pressures. Apart from the fact that recognizing a problem does not in itself solve the problem, Brown makes no suggestion as to how this problem can be ended. In addition, such social pressures cannot be said to be an exclusive African problem. In the first place, the syllabus Brown was helping to correct was being used by an Examining body based in Britain. Moreover, the various commissions set to study and make recommendations about British Public Examination systems are suggestive of public pressures (The Norwood Commission 1943, The Spens Commission 1938, The Beloe Commission 1960 in Cave 1971:105).

Since 1966 when the syllabus was put into use, the Examination Council has persistently issued the following threats to candidates in history:

> Candidates will be required to answer five questions. The questions set will be designed to test knowledge of facts,

> reasonable power to select such facts as are appropriate to the questions set and some ability to adopt the matter so selected to the requirements of the questions.
>
> Candidates must bear in mind that a proper understanding of the period selected for some special study is impossible without some outline knowledge of developments which led up to and immediately followed it.

These warnings contained here may add to the pressure on the teachers to make sure that their children pass the questions, whose requirements must be met. What are these requirements?

The paragraphs quoted above occupy what appears to be the place for objectives such as one finds in the syllabus for chemistry.

The absence of stated objectives can also be seen in the syllabus the Historical Society of Nigeria was contemplating to present to the nation. The difficulties of the committee to draft the syllabus might probably have contributed to that state of affairs. It is gratifying to note that the National Educational Research Council's syllabus for the proposed six year secondary school programme does not only provide stated objectives but also solve the problems that the syllabus committee of the Historical

The governments would want to know what the knowledge of the people of West Africa around the year A.D. 1000 would do to contribute to the nation's development in the fields of social, economic or political growth. Unless that is known the Government would feel rather reluctant to spend public funds on any such things.

A definite beginning for stating clear objectives has to be made right now. Such a beginning was made by the Social Studies group in the secondary education curriculum workshop which was held in September 9-23, 1973. The suggested objectives would be presented below.

Earlier, the Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University had drawn up a history syllabus for Post Primary Institutions and it declared the following objectives:

(1) To develop the students' pride in being an African and to eliminate all elements of colonial mentality in the students' outlook.

(2) To make the students aware of historic relations that have linked the people of Nigeria and those that have linked peoples of all Africa and the world.

(3) To give students a background for understanding the position of Nigeria and Africa in the world today, and to stimulate their interest in current affairs.

(4) To develop the student's ability for independent appreciation of historical facts and ability to search and find information for himself.

(5) To develop the student's skill in reading, comprehension and expression.

(6) To provide the student with a background for further study of history, especially the West African Examination Council's courses.

(7) To provide students in the Teacher's colleges with the necessary skills and inspiration to enable them teach the subject with competence and enthusiasm (IEABU 1970:1).

These objectives are good although they are not stated in behavioural terms. The key action words are "to develop, to make, to give, and to provide." The student does not make, he is made, he does not give, he is given. The interesting thing about behavioural objectives is that they commit the teacher. If it is stated by the teacher that "the students should show pride in being Africans and should reject all traces of colonialism", the teacher is commiting himself to leading the students to exhibit these behaviours.

However, there is a definite attempt here to relate objectives to national needs. Number one shows the need to reassert the humanity of the black people. Number two is concerned with the issue of national unity. Number three is talking about current affairs

and the place of Nigeria in the world; making the student see himself as a Nigerian. Number four is to make the student an individual who appreciates the historical method which includes number five. The last two are entirely on the students personal interests.

In presenting the suggested syllabus which the September, 1973 workshop drew up, they said they were replacing the present one with those syllabi because the present one does not lay any significant emphasis on Nigeria. That it is based on examination requirements and therefore not sufficiently challenging and that it is too ambitious (NERC 1973:4).

It appears that the 1966 syllabus was based on the erroneous belief that there are certain history facts which must be known by all history candidates. In so doing, they presented what the group described as too ambitious a syllabus. If history for at least the non-specialist, is viewed as being taught for specific purpose like citizenship education' then not all the facts need be learned in order to achieve the objectives. It is obvious that even the specialists cannot claim to know all the facts of history for some facts are unknowable. That the non-specialist young student should be

unity to prove one's case. We went to war to preserve the nation. The claim that the nation was unstable made the Gowon Government to decide to continue beyond 1976 (NN October 1, 1974:1). The declaration by the Historical Society of Nigeria in 1972 that the teaching of a nation's history is a training in citizenship is another proof. We need a national consciousness because others show interest, such as France and other Western countries were alleged to have shown, in our drifting apart. If it was not profitable to remain one, such interest might not have been shown.

Our concern for technological development can be seen in the heavy amounts we spend on industrialization. We set up an Industrial Development Bank. The Second National Development Plan allocated ₦757 million to industry as against ₦120 million to Agriculture although industry employed only about 10% of Nigerians and Agriculture employs about 70% (Osoba 1972:21) (SNDP 1970:275 and 290).

Corruption has been a topical issue. It led to the controversy over affidavits in our courts between the Chief Justice and the Judicial Advisory Council on the one hand and the Nigerian Bar Association on the

forced to do that much may be unreasonable.

The group presented the following as the objectives for the syllabus it was presenting:

(1) To arouse children's curiosity for a knowledge of the past and deepen their understanding by enabling them to see how past events influence present and future situations.

(2) To develop their ability for independent appreciation of historical facts and ability to collect and assess information dispassionately.

(3) To further improve their skill in reading, comprehension and expression.

(4) To make children aware of the historical relations that have linked the peoples of Nigeria and those of all Africa and the world.

(5) To assist children's growth as citizens of Nigeria with a sense of common belonging to the continent of Africa.

(6) To enlist children's interest for further study of history.

The guiding principle in defining any educational objectives is the national social needs. This principle has to be applied in identifying objectives with the understanding that such objectives as are selected will also satisfy the basic requirements of the subject concerned (Smith 1957:113-118).

How are the social realities known? Either listing down what people say about their society or by a

direct research, one can know what these social realities are. Since a direct research in the field is a huge research topic in itself, a few of what some of the people say about the social realities of this country would be listed here.

In 1973, one of the topical issues was whether there is a gap between the rich and the poor (S.T. October 21, 1973:7; December 9, 1973:13; November 11, 1974:11). Allied with this was Chief Fajemirokun versus Femi Okunu on whether the indigenisation decree was meant to make a few Nigerians rich. The Chief represented the less articulated view that only a few are able to buy shares.

Another issue is culture. In spite of what fault there may be in our efforts in this field, one can say that there is a general feeling that for a national identity to emerge, culture will have to play a big role in the society. We may not be able to build a nation by portraying other people's culture. The way to go about this may have been wrongly chosen but the feeling to do it may not be deniable.

The issue of national unity is crucial and one need not say how many people have called for national

unity to prove one's case. We went to war to preserve the nation. The claim that the nation was unstable made the Gowon Government to decide to continue beyond 1976 (NN October 1, 1974:1). The declaration by the Historical Society of Nigeria in 1972 that the teaching of a nation's history is a training in citizenship is another proof. We need a national consciousness because others show interest, such as France and other Western countries were alleged to have shown, in our drifting apart. If it was not profitable to remain one, such interest might not have been shown.

Our concern for technological development can be seen in the heavy amounts we spend on industrialization. We set up an Industrial Development Bank. The Second National Development Plan allocated ₦757 million to industry as against ₦120 million to Agriculture although industry employed only about 10% of Nigerians and Agriculture employs about 70% (Osoba 1972:21) (SNDP 1970:275 and 290).

Corruption has been a topical issue. It led to the controversy over affidavits in our courts between the Chief Justice and the Judicial Advisory Council on the one hand and the Nigerian Bar Association on the

other (NN November 13, 1974:1; D.T. November 22, 1974: 13). More than 9,000 civil servants lost their jobs between July 29, and November 30, 1975 in efforts to eradicate corruption.

These are some of the national realities. And the areas that may constitute the fields for history objectives for Nigeria may be as follows:

(1) The struggle for economic independence and development in fields like industrialisation.

(2) The problems resulting from the process of changing from non-industrialised to an industrialised society.

(3) The problems of the onslaught of other cultures on our national cultures and cherished traditions.

(4) The experience of integrating apparently heterogeneous societies into a single entity in the face of a competitive world.

(5) The task of evolving a national ideology commensurate with the exigencies of our time. A world in which no society can really function in isolation in spite of racial divisions and oppressions.

(6) Unlearning all the inimical attitudes and habits resulting from our recent colonial experience which attitudes and habits facilitate neo-colonialism and economic imperialism.

(7) The development of appropriate self-respect, confidence, dignity and critical judgement; some awareness of world interdependence.

(8) A training in the historical method and the joy of history.

These are loosely stated objectives encompassing vast areas. They can be turned into operational objectives as follows:

(1) The students should be able to show the ability to work hard. They should also be able to state why Nigeria needs a measure of economic independence and what role each of them must play to achieve that independence.

(2) Students should be able to identify and seek solutions to the factors that are likely to lead to social problems in a situation of rapid industrial growth.

(3) They should show a sense of selective preference and pride in their cultures and traditions and the ability to transform such cultures and traditions to suit their peculiar modern situations.

(4) The students should be able to select thos elements in the cultures of our heterogeneous societies that are capable of bringing understanding, unity and national consciousness.

(5) The students should be able to understand the needs of our society and judge the national ideology in relation to its ability or inability to satisfy those needs.

(6) Students should be able to distinguish those attitudes and habits that arose from our recent experience as colonial people and be able to isolate and reject those that tend to encourage neo-colonialism and economic imperialism.

(7) They should be able to develop self-confidence and tolerance and should accept the equality of human beings.

(8) The students should be able to accept as their own all meaningful national interests and disallow personal interests to colour their official duties.

(9) They should be able to decide what the historical, diplomatic and economic relationships that Nigeria has with other African countries and the world mean to them in the light of their lives and world issues.

(10) The students should demonstrate the ability to assess evidence and make appropriate decisions.

It should be pointed out that it is not being claimed here that these are our national history objectives for secondary schools as the drawing up of such objectives is the concern of the whole nation. These objectives are put down to demonstrate what clearly stated major behavioural objectives should be like. They are not behavioural instructional objectives. In the next chapter, attempts will be made to use these objectives to show how objectives should determine the selection of content and the conduct of examinations.

Chapter 6

THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OBJECTIVES, CONTENT AND EXAMINATIONS

Relationship Between Objectives and Content

Curriculum development should start with definition of broad aims and clearly stating the same usually in operational terms (Cave 1971: 95-616). What we should attempt to do is to first define objectives. Then we should ask what subject matter will most likely enable the students to attain the stated objectives.

One of the things that will readily help to keep teachers close to objectives is to keep the difference between subject matter and topic constantly in mind. Since subject matter brings the teacher to the question of the essence of the topic usually presented, it brings him nearer to the question: why do we teach that or this?

Wheeler (1967:30) has noted that the process of curriculum development may be a matter of simulteneous development rather than development in steps. The drawing up of the objectives is the first phase but at

any point in that phase any of the other phases may be present. In this case, a determination of a period or periods, theme or themes may be made along with the objectives. The issue will then be to decide what subject matter in the history of the chosen area can best lead to attaining the stated objectives.

With these principles in mind, this section of the chapter intends to present the relationship between objectives and content by dealing with the period "West Africa from A.D. 1000 to today", since this is one of the alternatives in our syllabus. The objectives are the ones earlier stated in chapter five. What subject matters will best lead to attaining these objectives?

Objectives	Subject Matter
1. The students should show the ability to work hard. They should also be able to state why Nigeria needs a measure of economic independence and what role each of them must play to achieve this independence.	1. Economic practices of the early states of Tekrur, Ghana, Kanem and Mali. 2. Economic development and practice of the Hausa states, Borno and Songhai.

		3. Patern of trade and attendant problems among the states above including Nupe, Jukun, the Mossi, Dagomba States, Gonja, Segu, Futa-Toro, and Futa-Jalon.
		4. Economic interactions among the Guinea States and the Savanna States. The case of Hausa States, Oyo and Benin, the delta states. The case of the Western Savanna States and Western Guinea States.
		5. The role of external trade in the survival or otherwise of these states.
		6. The basic technology possessed by and the effectiveness of the technology in meeting the needs of the people of the states above.
		7. The impact of advanced technology on the states of West Africa up to 1906.
2.	To identify the factors that may lead to problems in a situation of rapid technological development in Nigeria and seek solutions to the problems.	1. Comparisons of the rate of technological development from A.D. 1000 to AD 1500 and AD 1500 to the present day.
		2. The social situation before the introducation of the Trans Atlantic Slave Trade. The social situation during and after the trade.

		3. The technological development now and social problems in the West African States. For example, the issues of employment: cities and housing problems.
3.	Students should develop a sense of selective preference for and pride in their cultures and traditions and transform them to suit their peculiar modern situation.	1. African traditional cultures expressed in general common religious beliefs in the West African region before the arrival of Islam.
		2. Introduction of Islam and its effects on the African cultures and traditions of the West African region.
		3. The Islamic movements and their effects on the rate of cultural change and transformations. Examples of some traditions that have been retained or transformed.
		4. Reasons for the changes and transformation of the traditions.
		5. The onslaught of Western European cultures and technological culture on African traditions in the West African region. The rationale behind the changes taking place and those that have taken place.

4.	The students should be able to select those elements in the cultures of our heterogeneous societies that are capable of bringing understanding, unity, and national consciousness.	1. Similarities evident in the political practices of the people of West Africa around A.D. 1000. Religion and politics, basic marriage practices, basic interpersonal relationships.
		2. Islamic system of government and the modifications it brought in Ghana, Songhai, Borno, and Hausaland.
		3. The development of cities in Hausaland and Yorubaland and their effects on development of these states.
		4. How states developed in the West African region up to the emergence of empires. Why was this development limited to some areas? What is the evidence in these societies for or against the evolution of larger political units?
		5. The emergence of present day states - a natural development or unfair superimposition?
		6. The issue of tribal loyalties and state development. How did the early states deal with such loyalties? How have tribal loyalties developed? What purpose do tribal loyalties serve? Can they be

		transformed and can a nation do away with tribal loyalties? Must it do away with them?
5.	The students should be able to understand the needs of our nation and judge current national ideology in relation to its ability or inability to serve the needs of our societies.	1. The early West African states and their process of decision making, economic relations in inter-personal interactions up to A.D. 1500. 2. The coming of Islam and its effects on process of political decision making and inter-personal economic relations. 3. The Western European economic and political ideology and its effects on traditional ideologies in the West African region since 1500. 4. The needs of the societies then and now. The present national ideology and its ability or inability to serve these needs.
6.	Students should be able to define those attitudes and habits that arose from our recent experience as colonial peoples and be able to isolate and reject those that tend to encourage neo-colonialism and economic imperialism.	1. The rise of large scale commercialism and European economic adventurism in form of travels and external trade - gold, slaves etc. at the Coast of West Africa.

2. The role of technological advancement and imperialistic expansion of Europe in Africa - Abolition of Slave Trade, Missionaries, adventures into hinterland and colonialism.

3. Problems of ruling colonial people for imperialistic reasons - necessity to educate for developing colonial attitudes in colonial peoples. Separation structures - G.R.A., Catering Rest Houses, Rest Houses etc.

4. Economic developments in the colonies for industrial requirements of the metropolitan countries. Educational systems and the colonial mentality - system of Honours - OBE, MBE etc. Assimilation and Integration in French territories.

5. Reaction to colonial exploitation and nationalist movements in West Africa.

6. Independence, the rise of neo-colonialism and economic imperialism, the problem of national development and acquired colonial mentality. Economic dependence, and system etc.

7. West African artistic achievements and the development of African history.

7. To orientate students to develop self confidence and tolerance and to accept the equality of human beings.	1. The rise of popular leaders, their abilities and short comings, their contributions to the quality of life in the West African region since A.D. 1000.
	2. The rise of religious reform leaders and their contributions to the quality of human life in West Africa.
	3. Personal and group resistance against colonialism and the repressive measures taken against such groups or individuals.
	4. The commitments of such people to personal and group interests.
	5. Rejection of colonialism and rise of nationalists - racial superiority complex and colonialism - Effects of the world wars on nationalist movements.
	6. Economic self interests and racial superiotity complex.
8. The students should accept as their own all meaningful national interests and disallow personal interests to colour their official duties.	1. The cost of being colonised.
	2. Modern economic system and racial superiority complex.

3. Political strength depends on collective national strength - divide and rule during colonial process.

4. Greater opportunities in bigger nations with resources - Resources need greater manpower to exploit them.

5. Weak West African States in competition with former colonial masters who had drained African resources to industrialise and therefore become stronger.

9. The students should be able to decide what the diplomatic, economic and historical relationships that Nigeria has with other African countries and the world mean to them in the light of their lives and world issues.

1. Relationships between Nigeria and the West African empires, kingdoms and peoples. Trade, Religion, and all forms of social interactions. Effects of these on Nigeria and the students today.

2. World attitude to independence e.g. Portugal South Africa, Guinea Bissau, Mosambique etc. Independent West African States and the United Nations.

3. Industrialisation led to colonialism in Africa.

that we are trying to bestow on the child. The idea of time becomes important only as it serves as a tool for developing the historical approach to evidence. In this way, time enables historians to judge the genuineness of statements and to report events assigned to individuals and groups. Anything other than that makes time sequence to be of little significance in the study of history. One may ask whether it does not matter to know that it takes man about a period of seven thousand years to develop atomic energy. What matters here is a rough estimate of period and not the exact time sequence.

There is at the moment no certainty about the exact dates of some developments. What we have are estimated periods of those developments. The use of such estimates is that they help to ask such questions as "why so long or so short?" If the exact dates were known, the historian would be all the more happier, but the inability to know the exact dates for most of our work on the distant past has not prevented advances into studies of such periods.

One is not saying that time is unimportant. What is being said is that time is a tool for judging

evidence. It should not be the focus on which all historical studies should be fixed. Brown (in Fenton 1966:447) asserts "we are frankly interested in the possibility that a history course might move more effectively not from A to Z but from the inside out, with the student starting somewhere, anywhere, moving backward and forward... as inquiry leads him."

Thematic studies have often been suggested. These are usually said to be based on some social relevance. For example, the study of the development of transport is said to be capable of enabling children appreciate how the various transport systems they now see have developed. But these as have often been done - tracing the life history of people like John Macadam or George Stephenson - are rather superficial. They were mainly the tracing of European developments. Such themes if they are to be useful must be seen to satisfy some basic objectives based on national issues. The effects of the introduction of modern transport on the lives of Nigerians may be more useful. Therefore, if themes are to be selected, such items as the development of transport, the Post and Telecommunication should not be accepted just like that. This is because studies

of that nature presume that because everybody travels, it is of everybody's interest to study how present transport systems started. Such courses might have done a lot to strengthen the colonial mentality whereby the lives of the heroes of the colonial masters were studied to justify the superiority claims of the colonialists. Objectives are concerned with the needs of the place where the student lives and will probably live.

The attempt made in this section is to present how objectives affect content. It is important that each topic should be placed beside the objectives it is meant to help realise. It is not enough to expect teachers to remember, or discover which objective fits what topic. Topics and objectives should be put side by side so that the teacher taking any topics knows what general objectives that topic is contributing to its realisation. We in Nigeria must do this because we need all the things that can help build the Nigeria of our dream. History is one such subject we can use.

The Relationship Between Objectives and Examination

There are three sides to evaluation. One deals

with finding out whether what has been done has helped to achieve the objectives of the curriculum. This is called "informal judgement". The second one investigates the status of each indivudual or group with respect to whether the content used, its manner of use, and the techniques employed are efficient to help the individual attain the expected outcome. This is called "assessment". "Measurement" is the third aspect of evaluation. It deals with some sort of scale for ranking individuals not in terms of what has happened before but what the individual or group can do or what they know (Wheeler 1967: 267-268).

While "informal judgement" and "assessment" test not only what is the status of the individual now but also how effective have been what are responsible for bringing the individual or group to this status, measurement is interested only in what the individual can do now or what he knows now.

In the educational process, measurement, since it does not examine what has gone before, is relatively the least valuable but its chief advantage over the more useful ones is that it can easily be quantified in terms of percentages and positions and it is the

easiest to carry out. It is the most ineffective tool for evaluating the affective domain of the taxonomy of educational objectives.

"Evaluation should always be related to aims" declares Cave (1971:101). Evaluation here includes all the three phases. The West African Examination Council runs history measurement without relating it to any stated objectives since no such objectives have been clearly stated for the syllabus.

The absence of stated objectives has given an undue emphasis to examination. This stress is unreasonable because, as has earlier been stated here, examination does not ask why an individual is in a particular status. It only finds out about the existence of the status at the time the examination takes place. That is, "what is Danjuma's status in mathematics today in relation to Sarah?" That means that examination (measurement) is not, and it is not expected to be, interested in those things that prepare the student to reach the status it wants to test. It is obviously not a tool for evaluating those very important aspects of education such as attitude and values.

However, in a materially oriented society like our

own has been, what you are is what appears to matter and not how you became what you are. In that case, measurement may assume the importance that is far above its normal due, because it deals with what you are.

There are other reasons why measurement assumes this importance. One of this may be the fact that in our educational system, the lower levels of the cognitive domain such as knowledge, comprehension and perhaps, very little of application form the largest percentage of all that take place in class because they are the easiest to handle and test by means of measurement.

Bloom (1969:28) recognised this state of affairs in which "knowledge is frequently the primary, sometimes almost the sole kind of, educational objectives in a curriculum." It would appear that the soaring popularity of measurement over the more useful tools of evaluation is also that it is the easiest to handle. Measurement is the best means of testing knowledge. In this way, measurement has become as dominant as knowledge in our curricula.

The fact that measurement ranks people according to what they can do or what they know makes it very appealing. Someone got ninety percent and another got eighty. Another reason may be that this colonial system of education which we still operate (Fafunwa 1974:111, 179) stressed examinations probably as a means of making the more intelligent members of the colonial subjects to identify themselves with and accept the colonial masters. By it, they were told that they were better than the other colonial subjects in terms of grades and marks.

Some of the major weaknesses of examinations include the fact that they often do not adequately measure even the present status of the learner and therefore cannot accurately predict future performance. The child attempting the examinations performs not necessarily according to his ability or degree of preparation he has made but often according to what mood or condition of health he is in at the time of writing the examination. The various well know merits and demerits of the subjective and objective tests, which do not deserve repetition here, indicate the inability of examination to accurately measure the learner's present achievement and predict future

performance. The accusation that no two examiners will always award the same mark, in fact, the same examiner marking the same paper at different occasions may award two different marks, further emphasises the ineffectiveness of examination as a tool in measuring educational achievements (Lovell 1969:156).

Lovell (1969:156) makes a list of the following as some of the weaknesses of examinations:

(a) changes in the mental and physical states of the pupils which affect their performance;

(b) incomplete sampling of the candidate's knowledge;

(c) inconsistent... standards of marking adopted by different examiners, or by the same examiner at different occasions;

(d) the difference in opinion among examiners about the value of the candidates answers.

In his book, Educreation, Ritter (1966) sees education as a means of encouraging creation but that the present system in which "examination being, the tail wags (education being) the dog", makes it impossible for education to play that role. He writes:

> Examination makes one feel funny all over and hot and cold. It gives instant tummyache, leads to rushes, stops sleep and appetite - reactions run the full gamut of psychosomatic possibilities. The sheerhypnotic.. snake and rabbit variety-demonstrated (Ritter 1966:124-125).

And Marris (1964) who did an extensive research in university examinations and their effects on students confirmed that the general experiences of students are that

> Examinations... do great harm... They alienate the student from his interests in the subject he studies, rob him of initiative and encourage whatever kind of learning is easiest to examine, irrespective of its relevance. The student is inhibited from seeking guidance for fear of being judged... (Ritter 1966: 124).

In a study to determine the examination performances of distinguished members of the British Society, Hudson (1966:90-94) found that if examination results were to be used for **predicting** their abilities, we would now regard "their university careers" as calamitious". MacKinnon (1962) found the same thing in America. In relying on examination, particularly that of the West African Examination Council, in which little relationship with classroom teachers exists, we had led our secondary schools to neglect even the objectives for teaching the subjects. The stating of objectives in history is crucial. That may be why the Historical Society of Nigeria declared in 1971 at Nsukka that "the teaching of a nation's history is a training in citizenship" (RSC, HSN 1973).

Citizenship is essentially a matter of attitude. What concerns history most is change of attitudes. With this emphasis on the quantitative aspect of evaluation, the training in citizenship has the least attention paid to it, since effort is mainly being spent on gathering facts to write answers for not only "the period chosen but for the one preceding and the one immediately after". This is what the syllabus emphasises, facts appropriately chosen to answer the question set. This sort of history teaching cannot educate anybody for citizenship, for when objectives are not stated, it is difficult for history to do that. Unless behaviour change is focused by objectives, the learner's attitude may take many forms and shapes. It should be repeated here that the business of objectives is to select the important behaviour changes that are likely to occur in class. Our resources cannot afford to allow the development of all behaviours including undesirable ones. We have to specify what we want and when we want it (Bloom 1969:26).

The colonialist found measurement a very useful tool because it was a means of getting people to

accept the type of education that they wanted the colonised to have. It is no wonder that a colonial country like Britain would price examination so highly. There were school report cards published usually in Britain, now published in the country, which conditioned parents to accept that examination is the most important aspect of education. The colonial subject is told that he is better in quantitative terms - eighty percent. Since one of the basic human psychological needs is social approval, (Edwards 1968:69) being told that one was better than others in such quantitative terms is appealing. A teacher was reported attached by parents for punishing a child for wrong doing in Kachia. If the child had reported that the teacher was liberal in marking and gave the child his highest marks in class, the parents would have sought to make him gifts. The reports asked for grade (A) marks (90%) position in class (1st out of 40). The very many short-comings of measurement were never put to question. Most of the uses that examination has been put to may still be valid if they are used along with stated objectives.

The British emphasised examination further by setting up a body to set examination questions. It is noteworthy that just as Nigeria gained its independence from Britain, so the West African Examination Council also gained its independence from some British School Examination Boards. Up till now the council still conducts examinations in Nigeria for the University of London (NN July 10, 1975:4, July 16, 1975:4).

Other factors that have made this examination problem now so complex are the various commercial correspondence courses which organise for the sole purpose of cramming into their "victims" head facts to enable them pass examinations. They advertise asking prospective victims to "stand out in the crowd and get bigger cars."

The most valuable use that examination should be put to is to tell the teacher what his pupil can do at certain levels in order that he might employ the other techniques of evaluation to asses his method, techniques of teaching, materials used and how they are used. It is good to know that a child can do better but it is better to know why he is not doing better now. Examination does not tell us that. It is through

total evaluation including systematic assessment that educators can know why a child is not doing better than he now does. Taba (1962:318) sums up the role of examination as being "the diagnosis of levels of attainment".

For the diagnosis to be of any use to the teacher and the child's education, Taba (1962:317) asserts that it must be comprehensive. By that she means it must test the attainment of all objectives and the extent to which they are being attained. Therefore, if the curriculum objectives include the development of important concepts, relevant patterns of thinking, extensions of sensitivities and feelings, and a range of academic and social skills, then the diagnosis of attainment should cover all these in order to be valid. Even all these are not enough for in addition, the test has to "provide information on all areas of growth... and" provide it "in sufficient depth to reveal not only gaps and difficulties, but also their causes" (Taba 1962:313-315). Since the history syllabus for the School Certificate Examinations has not stated objectives, examination in it is obviously not testing any stated objectives. It can be said that

it merely tests the memorisation of a bunch of dates, names forgotten a long time ago but found in dusty files and sooty books and in the memories of nearly dead centuranians. The Nigerian Government has every right to ask why its citizens should waste public money on learning the names of chiefs, and how human beings were sacrificed. This last bit is a horrifying experience to keep alive in the memory of our citizens if one nurses the feelings that such a memory might have been responsible for the deaths of people as reported by the August 1974 issue of the Drum Magazine on pages 6,7,9, and 10. Facts gathered from the stories of empires, kingdoms and caliphates are of no use unless they are learned in terms of today's problems. We cannot learn history just for the sake of learning it because the money used is not got for the sake of wanting to get it. It is worked for. Clearly defined objectives make history teaching a worthwhile, purposeful experience.

The declaration that "the teaching of a nation's history is a training in citizenship" is grossly inadequate (RSC, HSN 1972:1). It is a simple claim that has to be supported by clear statement of

objectives for each topic of national history taught.

Taba (1962:315) is of the opinion that education is a process of changing student's behaviour and that the changes are the objectives of education. But while the changes include mastery of content through the study of some subject, they also include the reactions of students to the content, their way of thinking and skills in knowing how. She then asserts that evaluation comes in as the process of determining what these changes are and appraising then against the values represented in the objectives, to find out how far the objectives of education, not just the mastery of content, are being achieved. Methods of evaluation include any way of securing valid evidence on attainment of objectives. This is categorical enough (Taba 1962: 321). Wheeler (1967:269) adds that "the aim of evaluation... is to produce evidence about the nature, the direction and extent of behavioural changes".

Fafunwa (1974:193) deplores the practice whereby he who controls examinations controls the curriculum. Such a control is very unfair because, as we already know, examination is not even the most effective way of evaluating attainment of objectives available. And

as we have earlier shown here, the examiners are supposed to be people who test levels of attainment of objectives. The fact that they are very few in comparison to the large body of people who are engaged in the educational process makes their control of education unfair. Examination is just a small aspect of the educational process. For it to be allowed to control the whole process while remaining a part is unreasonable. As Fafunwa (1974:194) accepts, our educational system has not changed in spite of the Tananarive conference of 1969 which urged all African countries to change their curriculum and stop educating Africans away from their culture. While Taba feels that there has been too many changes in the American School Curriculum without real assessment of all the innovations so that the changes have been a question of replacing one scheme with another, in Nigeria, the problem is the slow rate by which changes in the curriculum are taking place in the country. The 1969 curriculum conference and its 1973 sister are all good in the pages of books and government publications. They are yet to be implemented.

If Cave (1971:100) is to be believed, the British,

having lost their colonies, are changing from their excessive dependence on examination to reliance on all the three aspects of evaluation. In Nigeria changes too long overdue are not effected. One only hopes that the suggestion to abolish common entrance examinations by the Lagos conference of June 1973 will be accepted. One also welcomes very much the petering-out of the Higher School Certificate Examination. One agrees entirely with the Lagos conference that continuous assessment of students be made and recognised in the overall assessment of students' performance. By doing that, excessive reliance on certificate will be reduced. If the West African Examination Council's examination results are accompanied by the assessment made by the teachers over a long period, certificate racketing will have been on its way to being a thing never to be a threat to any university admissions panels in Nigeria any more.

We can now examine the relationship between objectives and examinations. Examinations, as the measurement aspect of evaluation, cannot test the attainment of all objectives. It is in fact, not expected to do so since it is only one of three techniques of

valuation. Each of these three techniques of evaluation is suited for a particular job which the others are unsuitable to do. Informed "informal judgement" is the most suitable tool for evaluating affective objectives. Its being informal is in the sense that the evaluator records his impression without necessarily making the student aware that he is doing so. This has to be so in that once it is known for example, that the attitude of students to group work is going to be assessed, students are bound to put up a show in two diverging directions with a number of possibilities in the middle. For example, at Gindiri Mission schools, in 1964 where church attendance was accepted as an indicator of one's religiousness, some students attended not because they were religious. Others refused to attend not because they did not like to attend church services but because they wanted to appear defiant. The researcher noted with surprise at Dekina in 1967, that students went out to morning prayers with loud hymns at about five O'clock everyday.

In contrast, students at Gindiri, where the college provided light for morning devotion, only the fellowship of Christian Student Officials in most cases, would be

up praying quietly in their rooms. We know this because the researcher was in charge of electricity in Gindiri Teachers' College from 1963 to 1964. It may not therefore be useful to sit students for examinations in evaluating the affective objectives. Informed informal judgement is the best tool for that.

The chief defect here is that such an informal assessment leaves much room for bias. This may be neutralised when the assessment is spread over the whole school life of the individual with many teachers assessing him. For if two teachers do not like him, the next three may like him or may be indifferent. In this way, a check is made and a pattern of the student's attitude can be evolved. Since it is impossible to sit students in an examination room to assess attitude, it must be assessed somehow. This is because everybody agrees that acquisition of skills, facts, and techniques are not the only things that make a person educated (Wheeler 1967:49). An educated person must be one who can adjust to new situations in the society to which he belongs. This adjustment is essentially a question of attitudes, social values, and character building which the school must assess.

In declaring that the teaching of history is a part of citizenship education, the Nigerian historians are taking upon themselves to indicate clearly by listing specifically stated affective objectives for history as is done here on page . In that case, certification in history should not only be by passing the West African Examination Council's examination but by a combination of that and other evaluating techniques to ensure that the student has benefited from the citizenship education that history offers. This may be too hard a condition but is a possibility.

Assessment, the second aspect of evaluation, deals with the effectiveness of all that is used to help the student achieve the objectives. This means that the content, method and materials including facilities will have to be assessed. In doing this, we may ask two questions: Have these things been able to help students make the right behaviour changes? Are the behaviour changes expected attainable? That means that not only equipment, facilities, techniques and methods would be assessed but also that the objectives for which all these are employed will be assessed. It is here that examination really comes in. We want to know whether

behaviour has changed? If it has, to what extent has it changed? Examination tests what the present status of certain behaviour is. This is helpful to assessment which needs to know what the present status of behaviour is in order to check the effectiveness of the things that brought about the present behaviour. Even in the testing of the present behaviour, examination or measurement can only be used for some aspects of the behaviour changes required such as the acquisition of facts, laws, understandings and principles. It is informal judgement that supplies the information on the attainment of affective objectives.

So far we have shown a system of relationship among the three aspects of evaluation. Informal judgement supplies information about the present state of affective behaviour changes. Measurement supplies the information on the state of cognitive behaviour changes. Assessment then goes into action to check why these behaviour changes are in that state. Do the learning experiences possess any inherent faults that are responsible for noted undesirable behaviours? Was the teacher personally effective or ineffective? Why did the child not do better? When this relationship is understood,

the relationship between examination and objectives becomes obvious.

How are these done in practical terms? Now say that the objectives for teaching the effects of the second world wars on colonial countries of West Africa is "to enable students to accept the equality of men the world over and reject the situation in which some men impose their rule on others for claims of racial superiority based on technological achievement."

The cognitive behaviour involved here is knowing the relationship between white colonial rulers and their black colonial subjects before the war, the shattering of the myth of white superiority as a human being during the unique situation of war, and the claims for independence after the war. Measurement will tell us whether the student knows these facts or not through an organised test at the end of the course. Informal judgement tells us whether the student has rejected racial superiority by the evaluator observing the learner at places where, for example, queueing is involved, say in the post office or student dining halls. Does the learner resent black students jumping the queue and tolerate white students who jump the queue?

Does he give preference to some people because he feels they are not of the status of the other people with whom he interacts? Does he respect people of all status equally? Does he use such privilege of being in the top class, for example, scruplously or does he take it for granted? These questions can be answered only through a careful observation.

If these two techniques of evaluation indicate that the desired behaviour change has not occurred as specified by the objectives, then assessment comes in. Why has it been so? Does the method used have any fault? How was it used? Were the facts suitable for this objective? Is the objective itself attainable?

Teachers cannot do these if examination is organised from outside, unless the objectives are clearly stated and the examinations set are to test only the achievement of the sort of behaviour outcomes expected in the stated objectives. This can only be done when content is not selected because of any value that the content has in itself but that it is useful for attaining the stated objectives. It does not matter whether the objectives are stated before the content is selected or not. The point is that whatever

content is selected, and whenever it is selected, it must be so selected because it can lead to the attainment of the stated objectives.

We have attempted to show how minor a part, though an important one, examination plays in the total educational endeavour. But it has assumed such a dimension that Crookall (1972:49) laments that the history teacher has "to face the fact that these (external) examinations are often a determining factor in the syllabus to be followed". The examination consciousness makes the pupils insist on "covering" the syllabus (Odunsi in JAHTN, Vol. 1, No. 1 1971, pp 54 - 60). One asks the question "is this justifiable?"

The Relationship Between Objectives and Methods

The curriculum experts claim that when objectives are formulated, it becomes easier to select learning experiences (Cave 1971: 83, Bloom 1969, Wheeler 1967: 34 and 35). This is quite different from saying it is easy. It is said here to be "easier" in the sense that the selection will be made in terms of specific behaviour outcomes to be attained. The problem can be looked at by saying, these are the behaviour changes we want to

effect, which is (are) the best way (ways) to bring these changes about? It can be likened to the saying that if one knows one's enemies, one is on the way to defeating then - a saying the idea behind which forms the basis for all spying activities - an attempt to know the enemy. So when the desired behaviour changes are known, it would be much more easier to decide what learning activities would lead to effecting the changes stated.

The stand of this researcher is that method as such is an attitude of the mind. Ottaway (1968: 6-18) describes a technique of university tutoring in which he advocated allowing students absolute freedom to discuss matters of their choice. Even in this technique, however, such aspects of it like drawing attention to what the group has discussed may often become the chance for the tutor to instruct and inform rather than draw attention to matters of interest to reinforce what has reflectively been learned by the students. In other words, the teacher must have to make the decision as to whether he will employ techniques to accelerate reflective learning or to increase the rate of acquisition of knowledge and comprehension of facts and principles.

Once this crucial decision has been made, a method can then be said to have been chosen. What remains is to decide what technique would best assist the teacher to adhere to this chosen method to attain the objectives. This will very largely depend on the nature of the objectives. If the overall objective of teaching national history is offering citizenship education, the specific objective for teaching the political organisation of the Oyo empire may be "to enable the students to accept civic duties". This can come through describing in detail any five ways by which each Oyo citizen, be he an official or not contributed to the existence of the empire.

It can be seen that a technique for achieving this objective has been suggested, here. That is, the students will be engaged in describing in detail the situation in the empire as it affected civic duties of all the citizens of the empire. This description may be possible after some research into how the empire was politically organised, a lecture by a guest speaker, a visit to the present Alafin's palace, where possible to see the remnants of what used to be the political organisation of old Oyo, a discussion in groups on the

objectives stand out in the student's answers. For example, list the things that are likely to happen when citizens care only for what interest them personally. In what ways did the installation of an Alafin, after the death of one, served the interest of an Oyo farmer living eighty kilometres away from the capital? In what ways was it in the interest of any Oyo citizen that the priest of the mother-earth goddess served the goddess sincerely? Was it of any interest at all to the Oyo palm wine tapper if the Are-Ona-Kakanfo refused to obey the Alafin? If yes, in what ways?

Since this is specifically a citizenship issue, answers arrived at from a group discussion are most profitable because citizenship is a matter of group life. This could then be related to national issues like, in what ways is it of interest to the palm wine tapper in Abala in the East Central State that the President of Nigeria is an honest person? In what ways does it matter to him if the police in Abeokuta take bribes and allow overloaded vehicles to ply the roads to Lagos? Does it matter to him if the post office clerk comes late to work in Sokoto? If yes,

in what ways? In what ways is it of interest to an Ogoja yam farmer that the custom men check every passenger that disembarks at Ikeja airport?

The central thing here is that the teacher knows what behaviour outcome he wants to effect. Each teaching technique he adopts, each question he asks, each activity the children engage in, all will be done in terms of achieving the desired objectives and any others associated with it. Evaluating the techniques will be in terms of their effectiveness to bring about the desired behaviour.

Another thing that is important is that once the behaviour expected to be brought about is known the teacher has unlimited techniques to choose from. Should the teacher decide on exposition in this case, his duty will be to tell the students what was expected of each Oyo citizens, why and how that linked on to the interest of the individual. His technique may be to tell the story, get students read the story, let them dramatise some parts of the story, answer written questions on the story and so on.

If he decided on the reflective method, he could still use the technique of remote questioning,

dramatisation, discussion and any one of the techniques available to the teacher that can be usefully employed in the existing resources of the school and its environment. Without objectives expressed, the teacher now faces the problem of what to teach in the vast history of Oyo. He will very likely be concerned with getting enough information transferred to the students to enable them to answer question on Oyo.

He must have to look at the past questions on Oyo in order to help him decide what aspects of Oyo history are important. The clear example of this was seen in Queen Amina College, Kaduna where a history teacher told the researcher that she wrote to the West African Examination Council requesting for past questions to enable her teach her subject in a way that will help the students feel confident in writing their papers.

In Gindiri Boys Secondary School, the Principal had been collecting the yearly questions set by the Oxford and Cambridge Examination Board published both by the Oxford University Press and the Cambridge University Press as from 1955 (PABAL 1955). This state of affairs in which objectives are not expressed is

also responsible for excessive dependence on question and answer books commonly found more with private students than students at school. The stand of this researcher in this matter is that once detailed objectives are stated for each subject matter selected, the teacher is left in no doubt as to what topic is important and what is not important. Therefore, since his concern will mainly be on how to attain the objectives, he will have plenty of freedom to choose what method to use and what techniques to employ to operate the content in order to attain the behaviour change.

The example given above about Oyo shows how this principle works. If the content in the syllabus had appeared as "the empire of Oyo" the teacher would face the problem discussed above. If it came under an objective, citizenship education, the teacher knows right away those aspects of the story of Oyo empire that are important.

The complaint that came over and over again is that the subject history for the School Certificate is too wide. A teacher at Kagoro told the researcher

that she felt the amount of work involved in that syllabus is just enough but that her students complained that the content of the syllabus is too wide. Here is a case where the teacher feels the work given is just sufficient, her students feel differently.

If the syllabus had been organised around objectives, there would have been no need to cover as wide an area as now required. For the teacher can teach his lesson round objectives. The various aspects of the topics that help to achieve the objectives will be the only ones she will select.

The Examination Bodies and Teachers

The West African Examination Council is a body that may be tied down with administrative problems. Their headquarters is in Accra, Ghana. Each member country has a national headquarters and administrative bodies that deal with its own need and problems. The energies of the council are likely to be spent on the administrative problems. The many complaints against misadministration of the examinations now so common in Nigerian daily papers indicate clearly its administrative difficulties. One of the most serious problems

has been the allegation that examination leakages are done through the connivance of the members of its administration. That a member of the council was connected with the certificate racketting in our universities also shows these problems (D.T. April, 1975:3).

The teachers whom the researcher met in all the schools he visited, confirmed that they have little contact with the West African Examination Council apart from the annual examination questions they receive from the council. This is a very unsatisfactory affair.

It is known,that when curriculum conferences are held, the council often sends representatives. But this is not enough. The point is that the council should not only write annual reports on students' performance in the examination, but also find out the problems of the teachers. The council cannot test achievement of objectives if it has no direct contact with teachers in the classrooms. For an effective examination system to work, a closer link with those who operate the syllabus must exist. Bloom and his co-workers who have been quoted here so often were psychologists interested in examinations in America who were dissatisfied with

the lack of common frame work for setting examinations. (Bloom 1964:3) Their work indicates that other than marking and administration, an examination body can be really involved in the day to day running of educational affairs. In this way, it makes sure that both itself and the classroom teachers pursue the same objectives.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Table 4.2 shows that the school certificate history syllabus for the schools studied has no objectives. Appendix I does not only confirm this but also show that the syllabus in all Nigerian secondary schools presenting candidates for this certificate examination has no objectives.

If it is true that governments are not keen in awarding scholarships to people reading history, then it is clear that the value of history is being questioned. As we have earlier indicated on page 10, Bruner (1960:8) asserts that once people begin to question the value of any specific courses, they are asking about the objectives of education. In this case, one of the things the governments are saying is that they would like to know the objectives of history. This is more clearly seen when we know that history bureaux are being set up by the governments of the

country. There is the Northern Nigerian History Research Council. There is one for the North West and the North Eastern state has just established a history bureau (NN October 14th, 1974:9). This just means that the governments are specifically questioning the value of history now taught in our schools. That means that they would like to know what the objectives are for teaching the present syllabi.

Children are allowed to read history in secondary schools although their syllabus has no objectives. This may be because the governments, even though they may have their doubts about the history taught in the schools, still believe that it is important enough to remain on the time-table. When it comes to further reading of history, they may be doubtful because the objectives are not clearly stated to convince them.

One is not saying that the lack of stating clear objectives is the only reason. There is the wrong notion that if we can have ninety percent of our students reading the physical sciences, it will be better for us. Governments have made statements to the effect that they will deliberately decrease the number of students reading the social sciences in order

to develop technologically (NN 1966 May 25). Professor Chike Obi in a lecture entitled "The Struggle for Liberation after Independence" in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, accepted this notion by saying if he were to decide, he would discourage the reading of the social sciences by giving bonus to those who read the physical sciences.

It would be proper to point out here that rather than claim that we are underdeveloped because we have more social scientists, it would be better to study the claim now rampant in newspapers that we hesitate to use our scientists. The claim has been that Nigerian engineers cannot construct and that the foreign constructing companies do not usually have degree holding engineers though their constructions are preferred. In other words, the problem lies with our inability to use our available man-power resources.

If our inability to fully use our man-power resources results in our over dependence on foreign experts, then this is a clear case of neo-colonialism and colonial mentality.

Secondly, a syllabus that has no objectives leads to worthless exercise. Bloom (1960:26) asserts that

behaviour changes of very many kinds can take place. Some of them may not be desirable. To prevent wastage, therefore, Bloom emphasised, we must have to define the behaviours we want to see developed. Bruner (1960:25) rightly states that since the society finances education, it has the right to determine what behaviour changes it wants to see effected in schools.

Thirdly, it is noted in psychology of learning that purpose aids learning (Wheeler 1967:130, 140, Lavell 1969:140-141). The absence of objectives means that our history lessons are often held without a purpose other than to know dates, names generalisations, principles and facts. It is here being assumed that because of that history lessons must have been boring and difficult exercises.

Again, since there are no objectives, every fact becomes important not because it is worth anything but because it is a history piece which happens to be within the period selected. In that case, the history syllabi for secondary schools must have been too wide as the Kagoro Secondary School students complained. The inclusion of every fact is "covering the syllabus". The teacher must be uncertain as to what to teach and

what to leave out. This confusion was demonstrated by that Queen Amina College teacher who wrote to get the past questions to guide her.

Without objectives, the teaching of history in these schools has not been for citizenship education. The issue has been to know facts for their own sake. This is made worst by the fact that the history of Nigeria is an incidental part of the syllabus. It was this fact which led the Historical Society of Nigeria to insist on a pure national history. As has been asserted here, however, national history topics do not give citizenship education unless treated well under the guidelines of clearly defined objectives.

The absence of objectives has a limiting effect on the teachers' selection of techniques of teaching. to use. The fact is that if we know the objectives for which any period in history has been chosen, we will be in a clear position to know what topic to leave out. We will know that a topic is worth teaching about because it will help to achieve the objectives. In that case, the concern of the teacher is not in knowing facts by his students but in what ways the facts will help achieve the objectives. He may not have to include

all facts as that may not be necessary to achieve the objectives. Honest historians know that even in the university, there is always no time to cover all the periods and regions mentioned in university syllabi. It is not surprising that the university lecturers are beginning to doubt whether there is any wisdom in continuing to run history in this regional sense (Afigbo 1973). For there is no time to cover all regions. It is being suggested therefore that specialization be introduced. If this happens, the university students will have been saved the problem of having too much to cover in too short a time. What will save the secondary school children and the teacher is to have clearly stated objectives. The business of history lessons will then be to achieve objectives and not to cover the syllabus for the sake of covering it. The teachers will then have time to use the techniques they know can best achieve the desired behaviour changes. The School Certificate Examinations if they are to remain, may in this way cease to be the terror they are to teachers and students.

Recommendations

If this study has discovered anything at all, it is the lack of concern that has been shown in the teaching of history. It appears that there is a strong belief in the power of history topics to mould behaviour to what the society wants. The belief may be that each history topic has that magic power. This may be the interpretation one can give to the fact that in spite of teacher's cries against the history syllabus, it continues to be entirely for acquiring facts. This fact is ably described by Odunsi when he likened the syllabus to "Mumbo Jumbo" and added that it is worshipped openly for preparation against external examination. The joy of evey pupil is to discover that at the end of the session they "have covered the syllabus" (HM - Vol. 1, No. 1, 1971: 54, 55). He emphasised that all history syllabus must be planned in such a way as to give expression to the aims of history (1971:58). This is the crux of the matter. No history syllabus is therefore good enough if it does not lead to giving expression to the aims of history. By giving expression to aims of history, one presumes that Odunsi means helping to

realise the aims of history.

It is therefore recommended that not only general history aims should be hoped to be realised but that specific objectives in terms of each syllabus should be stated particularly that of the secondary school in which the children's sensitive mental growth is at that time in dire need of reason. At this stage of development, the child is questioning things. If he finds no reason for history, he will have no interest and if history gives citizenship education, then such disinterested students will have lost the chance of proper citizenship education.

However, history objectives cannot be separated from national objectives. It may be unfortunate that while we are trying hard to evolve a nation, our history syllabus is based on international interest. This may be a good thing in that the claim now is that our balkanisation by colonial masters was a means to weaken us. Side by side with this is the fact that our new nations were drawn up for the convenience of the colonial governments and not the people concerned. This division has created tensions usually called tribal tensions. This tension is a reality. Since this is so, all newly

our history is now made up of the histories of the various former nations which now form Nigeria. While the story of Inikpi was told to Igala nationals to evolve loyalty to the Igala nation and possible hatred to their enemy neighbours, the story cannot play that role now. For the enemies of Igala then, are now partners within the greater nation - Nigeria. We cannot teach the story of that legendary woman without properly defined objectives. For if we do it may continue to have the message it had before now to all Igala people. This we do not want. We want it to have a message for all Nigerians. That message should be one that will build the nation.

When the objectives are stated, they must be attached to the syllabus and made available to all teachers.

Objectives, when drawn up, should control the selection of all history topics. We can no longer afford to teach historical events because they happened. If every citizen lives in the country by contributing to national needs, history should not continue to be studied for the sake of knowledge only. The issue is that knowledge is attained through the use of public

money. So much is our national needs now that we can no longer afford acquisition of knowledge for the sake of knowledge only. Knowledge itself is not disfunctional.

Our society has never known a situation whereby certain of its members do nothing but pursue things for the pleasure it gives the pursuer. It is much less so now since our schools are run with public funds. That means that no period of history should be taught in school because it has so been taught. It will have a place in the syllabus because it has a role in achieving the objectives the school is striving to attain.

One of the implications of the approach here advocated is that chronology will cease to be the thing that decides what topics to teach. That is a period is only important if it contributes to the achievement of the desired behaviour changes. Time is useful only as it helps to locate the event that is helpful to achieving the objectives. The claim of objective history was rejected because there is no such thing as objective history. History will continue to be interpreted according to the roles of the people

interpreting it. Holloway quoting Becker declared that 'Every generation... must inevitably play on the dead, whatever tricks it finds necessary for its own peace of mind" (Holloway 1967:142). There are no apologies for repeating this.

Since there are three aspects of evaluation enumerated elsewhere in this study, examination (measurement) should not be allowed to continue to control the conduct of education. As it has been shown in this work, for history, informal judgement is very important and for all subjects, assessment is also important. We have seen that these last two are most useful in the educational process than measurement. Therefore, if history teaching is to be based on objectives, use of all the aspects of evaluation must have equal emphasis. In fact, for history, an affective subject, informal judgement and assessment should be more emphasised than measurement.

What these lead up to is that the relationship that should exist among history objectives, content and examination should be one in which objectives come first. Content becomes the tools to use to achieve the objectives and examination goes to check if after using

the tools which are the contents, the objective have been realised. Which of them have not been realised? Then informal judgement should be used to test the desirability of the ones achieved and assessment should help find out why things went wrong or well?

Then the role of the West African Examination Council in measuring the achievement of history objectives should be reviewed. Questions should be set on objectives not on acquisition of facts. In this case, its international structure must be reviewed. We have many more useful areas of cooperation than setting up an examining body. The acceptability of any certificate awarded should be the performance of the holder and not necessarily the internationality of the body awarding it. As has earlier been stated, there is nothing special about the internationality of the council. It was organised by Britain for its colonies. After independence, the former colonies were encouraged to keep the council. Britain failing to have political control over the colonies, had a strong weapon to control the formative minds of the former colonial pupils by getting the former colonies to jointly run that body. Through it, Britain also got a lot of foreign exchange in terms of

tuition and examination fees. It is time national examination bodies, if we need any, emerged. If knowing the events of the past does not amount to knowing history (Danto 1965) then examination based on knowing facts as is now being run should cease.

When examination has taken upon itself to measure only the extent to which objectives have or have not been achieved, method of teaching will be concerned with achieving specific objectives. This will give teachers the chance to ask, if the objectives is so and so, what method is most suitable for achieving it? What techniques will best bring about its realisation? The syllabus may no longer be too wide. For the teacher will select the events he knows will best help to achieve the objectives.

In that case, therefore, there must be a closer interaction between the teachers and whatever examination body or bodies may operate in future. This is because, according to Taba (1962:313) the way students are examined determines the way teachers teach and the students learn.

APPENDIX I

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Assessment - A process in evaluation which makes judgement on the efficacy of techniques, method, learning experience, use of content and the manner of use (Wheeler 1967: 268).

Content - The broad or specific subject matter for the history curriculum. It can either cover only the broad topics suggested for a school programme or the specific topics listed for each. It is the ideas, facts and knowledge of subject as distinct from the discipline involved, its activities and methods (Good 1959). It is the substance of any subject.

Content Unit - The subdivisions of the subject matter into smaller areas for the purpose of teaching. For example, if an item of the content for history for West Africa is West Africa and European Imperialists, some probable units may include the British Consular system, Chartered Companies, Exploration of the Niger etc.

Curriculum - Good (1959) defines the curriculum as a "body of prescribed educative experiences under the school system designed to provide the individual with the best possible training and experiences to fit him to the society which he is a part as to qualify him for a trade or profession".

Egalitarian Society - A society in which a certain degree of control normally stating some limits to what wealth individuals can acquire in order to ensure equal opportunity for personal development and fair access to and use of national resources.

Evaluation - The process of effecting judgement on the efficacy of materials, techniques, methods used and use in attaining educational objectives. It includes assessment and measurement.

Judgement, Informal - The making of "judgement about the nature and desirability of any demonstrated changes (Wheeler 1967:269).

Method - The overarching attitude that the teacher takes towards knowledge. There may be only two which are explained below (Massialas 1966 - 62).

Method Acquisitive - That process of teaching which emphasises the acquisition of finished knowledge. The process which assumes that the teacher has a reservouir of this finished knowledge which it is his duty to transmit to the recipient (Massialas 1966:62).

Method Reflective - That process of teaching in which the teacher assumes the position of a manager in a factory of knowledge; the learners are co-workers for the production of knowledge; they together seek, discover, reorganise and test knowledge (Massialas 1966: 62-63).

Measurement - The use of some scale on which individuals can be ranked in respect of what they can or cannot do (Wheeler 1967:268).

Objective, Ultimate - The sum-total of educational behavioural outcomes which are expected to be realised after the learner has gone through all the levels of the educational system. They are partially achieved by a vast majority of learners.

Objective, Mediate - The intended behaviour outcomes that are stated for the various levels of the educational system. A set of these are expected to have been achieved by a learner who completes a given level. For example, a form five student is expected to exhibit certain behaviour as a result of the work he has done towards achieving the mediate objectives set for form five. A form two student is not expected to exhibit these behaviour outcomes because she has not gone through the form five learning situation (Wheeler 1967: 32).

Objectives, Immediate- Each topic, say in history that is selected is expected to be taught for a particular behaviour outcome in mind. Such an expected change for a particular content unit is referred to as immediate objectives. The idea is that a set of immediate objectives lead to mediate objectives a set of which will in turn lead to the ultimate objectives.

Subject Matter - The essense or ideas that constitute a subject. For example, marriage is not a subject matter but the ideas and practices involved make the subject matter of marriage.

Subject Matter, Normative - The idea of any discipline which deals with rules, norms, and value judgement. For example, one does not say no to a brother in need.

Subject Matter Descriptive - The aspect of any discipline that states facts, or principles. An agricultural revolution occured on and around the Jos Plateau when acca was domesticated - fact. Whatever causes a profound change in the life of a people is considered a revolution - principle.

Techniques - The various devices teachers use in the class to interact with their students in order to effect learning. For example, a lecture, dramatisation, demonstration debate, discussion, visits, film show, questionning, brain storming, attribute listening, stimulation, and many more are **teaching** techniques (Massialas 1966:62).

APPENDIX II

HISTORY SYLLABUS (ORDINARY LEVEL)

Candidates will offer one of the following 2½ hour papaers.

1. History of West Africa, A.D. 1000 to present day.
2. History of Africa in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries.
3. World History circa 1950 to date.

Candidates will be required to answer five questions.

The questions set will be designed to test a sound knowledge of historical facts, a reasonable power to select such facts as are appropriate to the questions set and some ability to adapt the matter so selected to the requirements of the questions.

Candidates must bear in mind that a proper understanding of the period selected for special study is impossible without some outline knowledge of developments which led up to and immediately followed it.

Candidates offering Government may not offer either History of West Africa or History of Africa in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries.

1. History of West Africa, A.D. 1000 to present day.

The paper will be divided into three sections. Candidates will be required to answer five questions, at least one from each section.

DETAILED SYLLABUS

Section A. West Africa, A.D. 1000 to 1800

1. Peoples of West Africa about A.D. 1000.

2. The early states of the Western Sudan: Tekrur, Ghana, Kanem and Mali.

3. Islam in West Africa: Introduction, spread and influence.

4. The states of the Western Sudan between the fifteenth and eighteenth centuries: Songhai, the Hausa States, Bornu, Nupe, Jukun, the Mossi-Dagomba States, Gonja, Segu, Futa-Toro and Futa-Jalon.

5. The Guinea States: Benin, Oyo, Dahomey, the Ibo and the Niger Dealta communities and principalities, the Akan States, Denkyira Akwamu, Fante, Sante, Ga, Ewe States, Bolon the Temne and Mende States, the Wolof empire and the Bambara States.

6. European activities and their political and social effects in West Africa.

7. Internal and external trade and its effect e.g. gold, Kola, Slaves, Ivory, Gum.

Section B. West Africa, A.D. 1800 to 1918.

1. The West African states at the beginning of the neneteenth century.

2. The Islamic movements: the Sokoto, Masina and Tijjani Jihads, their interprelationships and impact; Bornu under tne shehus The empire of Samory.

3. Political and economic development of the coastal states; The Gambia, Sierra-Leone, Liberia, Asante, Fante, Dahomey, Yoruba states, Benin, the Niger Delta.

4. The Growth of European influence: European exploration, suppression of the Slave Trade, Christian missionary activity.

5. The Scramble for and the Partition of Africa.

Section C. West Africa 1918 to present day.

1. Period of direct colonial rule.

2. Economic and Social development.

3. Nationalist movements in Common-Wealth and French-speaking West African States.

4. Attainment of Independence.

5. West African states since independence: economic, social, cultural developments.

2. History of Africa in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries.

The paper will be divided into four sections. Candidates will be required to answer five questions, but not more than two questions may be answered from any one section.

DETAILED SYLLABUS

Section A. West Africa

1. A survey of West African peoples and institutions at the beginning of the nineteenth century (Upper and Lower Guinea, Western and Central Sudan).

2. A study of some important states in West Africa: Wolof, Mandinga, Bolom and Sherbro, Temne, Nai, Asante, Fante, Dahomey, Oyo, Benin, Niger Delta City-States.

3. The nineteenth-century jihad movements in the Western Sudan: their significance to the Northern states and Forest Kingdoms.

4. Changing patterns of trade and their significance.

5. Portuguese activity in the Congo and Angola.

6. Exploration and missionary activity in West Africa.

7. Foundation of Freetown, Bathurst and Monrovia and the influence of the Creoles.

8. The European partition of West Africa.

9. Economic, social and political developments in West Africa in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

10. Nationalist movements and the emergence of independent African States.

Section B. Southern Africa.

1. The different racial groups in Southern Africa in the beginning of the nineteenth century (Bantu, Hottentots and the Bushmen: the white-settler communities - Dutch at the Cape and Portuguese at Mozambique).

2. The nineteenth-century Bantu folk movements. The rise of the Zulu and movements of Ngoni, Matabele, Makololo, Shangaan and Swazi: foundation of the Basuto state of Moshesh.

3. Bantu/Boer land competition and its extension: the Great Trek.

4. Bantu, Boer and Briton in South Africa from the Great Trek to the eve of the First Boer War.

5. The 'scramble' in South Africa (Germans in South-West Africa: Rhodes and the North).

6. The Boer War and the unification of South Africa.

7. Significance of industrialisation. Growth of apartheid. African nationalism in South Africa.

8. Evolution of the Rhodesias, Zambia, Malawi (Nyasaland), Mozambique; economic and social developments.

9. The Central African Federation and African nationalist movements.

Section C. Eastern Africa.

1. The main ethnic groups and important Bantu states at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

2. The Omani Empire and its impact on East African societies.

3. Abolition of the Slave Trade; British Consular authority in the Omani Empire.

4. Exploration and missionary activities in Eastern Africa.

5. The partition of East Africa.

6. Economic, social and political developments and African resistance in East Africa after partition.

7. Tangayika under the Mandate and Trusteeship systems.

8. Problems of the 'plural' society in East Africa.

9. African nationalism and the emergence of independent African states in East Africa.

Section D. North Africa.

1. Egypt, the Nile Valley and Ethiopia, and the Maghreb in the nineteenth century.

2. Career of Muhammed Ali.

3. European intervention and nationalist reactions in Egypt.

4. The Mahdist movement in the Eastern Sudan and the establishment of European authority.

5. Morocco and Libya, Ethiopia and her neighbours. Survival of Ethiopia as an independent state to the twentieth century.

6. Italian occupation of Ethiopia.

7. French occupation of Algeria and its consequences: European occupation of the Maghreb.

8. Twentieth-century nationalist movements in North Africa: the emergence of independent North African states. Ethiopia after liberation.

3. World History circa 1750 to the present day.[1]

One paper, of 2½ hours, will be set. There will be three sections. Candidates will be required to answer

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1. Specimen question papers will be available on request from the Registrar, West African Examination Council, Headquarters Office, Private Post Accra.

five questions attempting not more than three from any one section.

DETAILED SYLLABUS

Introduction

The World in 1750: A broad and general survey of the world by regions with special reference to Africa, the Ottoman Empire, India, China and Japan, Europe and European overseas settlements especially the American colonies.

Section A.

1. The Scientific and Industrial Revolutions - A continuing World Process: The application of Science of Industry, Agriculture and transport with particular reference to Great Britain between 1750 and 1830.

   Development of new forms of power and new techniques: industrialization; development of canals, roads, ports and shipping; the beginning of railways: social and economic consequences (e.g. growth of new towns and health problems).

2. The American and French Revolutions: New ideas of Political Organisation. Cause: course of events; consequences.

3. The Independence Struggle in Latin America;

   Causes of discontent; the main wars of independence; the careers of leaders; social and economic problems of the new states with special reference to Brazil.

4. Change in the World Pattern of Population (about 1750--1850).

   a. European migration and population growth in the Americas, Australia and New Zealand.

   b. The Atlantic Slave trade and the growth of Negro populations in the New World.

   c. Chinese and Indian labour migrations.

5. Some nineteenth-century Movements for Political and Social Reform.

   a. The Parliamentary reform movement in Britain.

   b. The Abolition of the Atlantic slave trade and slavery in West Africa and the Caribean.

   c. The emancipation of slaves in America and the American Civil War.

Section B.

1. Nationalist Movements in Europe, with particular reference to:

   a. The unification of Germany.

   b. The unification of Italy.

2. The Partition of Africa: an illustration of the development of European imperialism.

3. Old and New in the Far East: China and Japan from the mid-nineteenth century to 1914.

   Nature of society and government in China and Japan, relations with Europe and America; modernization in Japan the Russo-Japanese war.

4. The First World War.

   Causes: outline course of events; consequences.

5. The Russian Revolution.

   Causes: the Czarist regime and background of socialist thinking.

   Outline of main events: major consequences.

6. The Era of the league of Nations.

   a. The league of Nations - its structure and aims, success and failures.

   b. The World Economic Depression.

   c. Mussolini's Italy; the Italian-Ethiopian War, Hitler's Germany.

   d. Japanese imperialism and the war with China.

Section C

1. The Second World War.

   Causes: outline course of events; consequences.

2. Nationalism in the Far and Middle East.

   a. The struggle for and the attainment of independence in India, Pakistan, Burma, and Ceylon.

   b. The Communist Revolution in China and the emergence of China as a World power.

   c. The Arab nationalist movements; the problem of Isreal.

3. African Nationalism and Emergence of Independent African States.

   a. Causes: economic, political and administrative.

   b. Role of political parties with particular reference to parties in the candidate's own country.

c. Economic and political problems of the new states.

d. The problem of surviving settler-governments.

4. The Era of the United Nations Organization.

a. The United Nations Organisation - its structure, aims and agencies with special reference to FAO, WHO, UNESCO and UNICEF.

b. The Cold War; NATO, SEATO, Warsaw Pact, Neutralist countries.

5. Other International Associations.

a. The British Commonwealth and the French Community.

b. The European Common Market.

c. The Organisation of American States.

d. Pan-Africanism and the OAU.

UNIT PLANS - CLASS III

HISTORY OF WEST AFRICA A.D. 1000 - 1800

DETAILED PLAN	1st Term	Duration
1.	People of West Africa about A.D. 1000	2 wks.
2.	The early states of Western Sudan: Tekrur, Ghana, Kanem, Mali	5 wks.
3.	Islam in West Africa: - Introduction; the spread and the influence on the people	3 wks.
4.	The states of Western Sudan between fifteenth and eighteenth centuries:- (a) Songhai, (b) the Hausa States, (c) Bornu, (d) Nupe (e) Jukun, (f) the Mossi - Dangomba states, (g) Gonja, (h) Segu, (i) Futa Toro (j) Futa Jalon	10 wks.
	Second Term	
5.	The Guinea States:- (a) Benin, (b) Oyo, (c) Dahomey, (d) the Ibo (e) Niger Delta City States, (f) Akan States, (g) Denkyira, (h) Akwamu (i) Fante, (j) Ga (k) Ewe States (l) Bolom and Temne Mende States, (m) Wolof empire, (n) The Bambara States.	14 wks.

Third Term

6. European activities and their political and social effects in West Africa. 4 wks.

7. Internal and external trade and its effects.
(1) The effect of the trade in gold, Kola, Slaves, Ivory and gum on the people of West Africa. 4 wks.

HISTORY SYLLABUS CLASS IV

SECTION B. HISTORY OF WEST AFRICA A.D. 1800 - 1918

Item.	DETAILED SYLLABUS	1st Term	Duration
1.	The West African States at the Beginning of the nineteenth century.		2 wks.
2.	The Islamic movements: (1) The Sokoto, (2) Masina (3) Tyjani Jihads, (4) The inter-relationship between the Jihads, (5) Bornu under the Shehus, (6) The empire of Samori Ture.		7 wks.
3.	The political and economic development of the coastal states of (1) Gambia, (2) Sierra-Leone, (3) Liberia.		3 wks.

Second Term

4.	Item 3 continued:- Political and economic developments of the coastal states of (1) Asante (2) Fante, (3) Dahomey, (4) Yoruba States, (5) Benin, (6) Niger Delta.		6 wks.

5. The growth of European influence: that is: (1) European exploration, (2) Suppression of Slave Trade, (3) Christian Missionary activity in West Africa. 5 wks.

6. The Scramble for the partition of Africa. Its significance, and effects in West African Politics. 2 wks.

Third Term Sec. C. West Africa 1918-Present Day

1. Period of direct colonial Rule: i.e. (a) French rule - Assimilation (2) British rule - Indirect - Rule in French and British territories respectively. Its effects on West African politics. 5 wks.

2. Economic and social developments in West Africa. (1) Construction of Roads and Railways in West Africa, (2) The African political perspective and its result. Trade - Internal and external. 4 wks.

3. Nationalist Movements in Commonwealth and French - speaking West African States. i.e. in Ghana, Sierra-Leone, Liberia, Nigeria, Dahomey, Mali, Gambia. 4 wks.

HISTORY SYLLABUS CLASS V

Item	DETAILED SYLLABUS	1st Term	Duration
1.	The attainment of independence in (1) Nigeria, (2) Ghana, (3) Sierra Leone, (4) Gambia, (5) Dahomey, (6) Senegal and other French speaking countries.		7 wks.
2.	West African States since Independence:- (1) Economic development (2) Social development (3) Cultural in all the states of West Africa.		6 wks.

Second Term

3.	Military rule in West Africa and the European world.	4 wks.
4.	Revision in all past works from class III.	

Third Term

Revision and W.A.S.C. Examination.

School II

MOCK AND W.A.S.C. HISTORY SYLLABUS

Page 1 of this syllabus is mainly for Form III students. Mock syllabus starts from page two. However there are some topics on page one that will appear in your Mock and WASC papers e.g. "Formation of tribes."

1. the Hausa states, Bayajidda legend, the Yoruba states Oduduwa legend, etc.
2. the first Kanem Bornu Empire.
3. the Rise of Oyo Empire.
4. the coming of Europeans to Nigeria.
5. Slave trade and
6. all topics of the 3rd term of your year III are all important.

You should note that no student has the brain to accommodate and absorb all these history topics in her head. Thus students are strongly warned to study wisely for their Mock and WASC papers.

Above all you should admit the fact that your teacher does not teach all you want for your examinations. He only throws light on certain facts to you while you dig the whole show yourself. Because of shortage of teachers I feel that such student in Forms

5 and 4 should possess the copy of this syllabus which can keep you busy all the time when there is no teacher around.

Study hard and wisely and God will bless you fruitfully.

WEEK	TOPIC NIGERIAN HISTORY	REFERENCE M.C. ENGLISH
1.	Sources of Nigerian History	Page 1 - 10
2.	The Nok Cultural and Influences on other Nigerian Cultural Developments	Page 22 - 24
3.	Formation of Tribes - Oral Traditions about Origin	" 26 - 34
4.	The Hausa states - the Bayajidda legend about the origin of the Hausa States.	T.A. Osae & S.N. Nwabara page 74 - 83
5.	The First Kanem/Bornu Empire	" 66 - 70
6.&7	The Rise and Development of the Oyo Empire	" 91 - 97
8.	Political Organisation and its Fall	" 97 - 101
9.	The Benin Empire	" 101 - 106
10.	The Ibo Society	" 137 - 141

TERM II

WEEK	TOPIC	REFERENCE
1.	The Niger Delata State House system- Bonny, Warri, Calabar Brass and Okrika	Page 141-15

2.	The Coming of the Europeans to Nigeria	M.C. English Page 77 - 87
3.	The Yoruba States: Ibadan, Ijaiye, Abeokuta etc.	M. Croder Page 108-124
4.	The Niger Delta at the coming of Europeans	Crowder page 79 - 89
5.	Slave Trade and its suppression in Nigeria.	" 124-133
6.	Colonisation of Lagos C.T. Quin Young & J.E.H. White.	page 48-52

TERM III

WEEK	TOPIC	REFERENCE
1.	Explorers in Nigeria.	Crowder page 134-149.
3-4	Colonial rule in Nigeria	Fajana & Bings page 191-199
5.	Missionary Activities	N.C. English pp. 123 - 136
6.	Nationalist Movements in Nigeria	Crowder page 253-272
7.	Nationalist Movements in Nigeria	" 253-
8.	The Achievement of Independence	Crowder page 289-314

MOCK AND WASC HISTORY SYLLABUS SCHEME OF WORK

FORM 4 AND 5 — 3 PERIODS A WEEK

WEEK	TOPICS	TEXTBOOK
	Western Sudan Empires 1000-1800	History of West Africa.
1.	Ghana Empire	
	(a) Origin and Rise	1000-1800 B. Davidson and F.K. Bush page 35 - 44
	(b) Political Organisation	A Thousand Years of West African History.
	(c) Decline of the Empire	J.F. Adi Ajayi p. 55
	(d) The effects of its fall	
2.	Mali Empire	
	(a) The Rise of Kangaba State.	History of West Africa 1000-1800 pp. 46-52
	(b) Foundation of Mali Empire by Sundiata	A Thousand Years of West African History p. 55
	(c) Expansion of Mali by Mansa Musa	
3.	(d) Political Organisation of Mali Empire, same book.	
	(e) Mansa Musa's Pilgrimage to Mecca and its effects.	
	(f) The Decline of Mali Empire.	
	(g) The Consequences of the Fall	

4.	The Songhai Empire.		
	(a)	Origin and Foundation of the Empire	History of West Africa 1000-1800 page 103-113
	(b)	The Rise of the Songhai Empire (Sunni Ali)	
	(c)	The Establishment of the Dia Dynasty. The decline and fall of Songhai and its effects.	A Thousand Years of W. African History page 65
	(d)	Songhai Kingdom under Mali Empire	
5.	(e)	Founding of Songhai Empire by Ali II	
	(f)	The Expansion of Songhai Empire by Askia the Great	Ditto
	(g)	The Political and Economic organisation of the Songhai Empire	
6.	(h)	The Decline of the Songhai Empire	
	(i)	Morrocan invasion of the Empire and its effects	Ditto
	(j)	The Fall of the Empire and its consequences.	
7.	Islam in West Africa.		History of West Africa 1000-1800 page 244-253
	(a)	Introduction	
	(b)	Spread	
	(c)	Influence and pagan reaction	Trimingham page 34-151.

8.	The Trans-Saharan Trade	A Thousand Years of W. African History p. 233
	(a) Origin and routes, article of trade.	
	(b) Uses of the routes to Western Sudan	
	(c) Decline of the routes, why and results.	
9.	Islam in Western Sudan, spreading - Trade and Jihad.	
10.	Europeans in West Africa.	History of W. Africa pp 177-181
	(a) The Portuguese	
	(b) The British	A Thousand Years of W. African History p. 160
	(c) The Dutch	
11.	The Asante	History of West Africa 1000-1800 page 216-228
	(a) The origin and the Rise of Asante Kingdom	
	(b) The Formation of Asante Union under Osei Tutu	A Thousand Years of West African History p. 160
	(c) The Expansion and Political organisation of Asante.	

TERM II

WEEK	TOPICS	REFERENCE
1.	Islamic Movements; their inter-relation and impact.	The Revolutionary Years West African since 1800 J.B. Webster and A.A. Boah p. 18-28.
	(a) The Jihad of Seku Ahmadu	
	(b) The Jihad of Al-Hajj Umar	
	(c) Umar and the French	A Thousand Years of West African History pp 271-276.
2.	The Empire of Samori (1870-98)	Revolutionary Years since page 16-54.
	(a) Rise of Samori	
	(b) His political Organisation	A Thousand Years of West African
	(c) His War against the French.	History pp 178-83.
3.	The Political and Economic Development of Coastal States:	Revolutionary Years W. African since 1800
	(a) Sierra Leone	page 278-283.
	(b) The **Liberians**	A History of Sierra Leone pp 114-115.

(2) *Founding of slave settlement (Freed Slaves)*

TERM III

WEEK	TOPICS	REFERENCE
1.	The scramble for and the partition of Africa	Revolutionary Years W. Africa since 1800
	(a) Power in Europe	page 230-238.
	(b) Need for raw materials	
	(c) The Partition of Africa.	

2.	The Mossi State	West Africa 1000-1800 p. 64
	(a) Social Categories	
	(b) Economy	W. African Kingdom in the 19th century
	(c) Administrative system	Daryll Forde
3.	Wolof Kingdom of Kayor	West African Kingdom in the 19th century page 260
	(a) Origin	
	(b) Social structure	
	(c) Conversion to Islam	
4.	Dahomey	Revolutionary Years W. African since 1800 pp 110-118
	(a) Government	
	(b) Social classes	
	(c) Economy	W. African Kingdom 19th century p. 70
5.	Periods of Colonial Rule	Revolutionary Years West Africa since 1800 pp 157-166.
	1. Nigeria	A Thomas Years of W. African History pp 403-423
	2. Ghana	
6.	3. Sierra Leone	Ditto
	4. Economic and Social Development	

7.	(b) French Rule	Revolutionary Years West Africa since 1800 pp. 267-276
	(1) French Policy of Assimilation	
	(2) African Reaction	W.A. The French speaking Nation pp. 125-182
8.	The Colonial Economy	Revolutionary Years West African since 1800.
	(a) Harbours, railways and Roads	
	(b) Export Crops and Food Crops	
9.	African Merchants	Revolutionary Years West African since 1800 pp 283-290.
	(a) Land and Labour	
	(b) Economic Slump	

10. Its effects on West Africa (Pop, Economic and Social) consequences.

    1. French and British

    2. French and British Administration of West African Colonies.

    3. West African Education in Nigeria:-

    (a) Contribution of the Missionaries

    (b) Contribution by the Government

    (c) Success and failures of Missionaries.

TERM I

WEEK	TOPIC	REFERENCE
1.	Nationalist Movements in West Africa	Nigerian Background to Nationalism James S. Coleman
	(a) Commonwealth Countries	pp 63-141.
	1. Nigeria (British Territories)	
	2. Western Impact and the Roots of Nationalism, Political Parties e.g. N.C.N.C., A.G., N.P.C. etc.	Revolutionary Years West African since 1800 page 326
2.	Rise of Nigerian Nationalism	Background of Nationalism page 169-251
3.	Post War Development in Nationalist Movement.	
	(a) Richards Constitution and the N.C.N.C.	
	(b) The Regionalisation of Nationalism	
4.	Self Government Region	Ditto page 353-409
5.	2. Ghana	Revolutionary Years West Africa since 1800 p. 324
	(a) Towards Independence	
	The Convension People's Party 1949	History of Ghana W.E.F. Ward p. 322
6.	Development of Local Government	" " 351
7.	French Territories R.D.A.	Revolutionary Years West Africa since 1800 p. 332.

8.	West Africa since Independence	West Africa. The French speaking Nations. pp 191-5, 198-200.
	(a) Nigerian Developments	
	1. Political	
	2. Economic	
	3. Social	
9.	Ghana	
	Ditto	
10.	Dahomey	West Africa: The French speaking Nations pp. 205-207, 250-290-1.

TERM II

WEEK	TOPIC	REFERENCE
1.	Peace Organisations O.A.U.	
2.	U.N.O.	
3.	Term III Revision and Examinations.	

DETAILS SCHEME OF WORK - FORM IV

HISTORY OF WEST AFRICA School III

Item	Detailed Syllabus 1st Term	Duration
1.	The West African States at the beginning of the Nineteenth century	2 wks.
2.	Massina (3) Tyjani Jihads (4) The Inter-relationships between the Jihads, (5) Borno under the Shehus (6) The empire of Samori	7 wks.

3. The political and economic developments of the coastal states of (1) Gambia, (2) Sierra Leone, (3) Liberia — 3 wks.

2nd Term

4. Item 3 continued - Political and economic developments of the coastal states of (1) Asante, (2) Fante, (3) Dahomey, (4) Yoruba States, (5) Benin, (6) Niger Delta — 6 wks.

5. The Growth of European influence that is:- (1) European Exploration, (2) Suppression of Slave trade (3) Christian Missionary activities in West Africa. — 5 wks.

6. The Scramble for the partition of Africa:

   Its significance and effects in West African politics — 2 wks.

3rd Term

Section C. West Africa 1918 - present day

1. Period of direct colonial rule (1) French rule - Assimilation (2) British rule - Indirect Rule in French territories and British territories respectively. Its effects on the West African politics. — 5 wks.

2. Economic of Social Developments in West Africa. (1) Construction of Roads and Railways (2) The African political perspective and its result.
   Trade internal and external — 4 wks.

3. National Movements in Commonwealth and French speaking West African States. i.e. in Ghana, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Nigeria, Dahomey, Mali, Gambia. 4 wks.

Textbooks: (1) Topics in West African History - Adu Boahen.

(2) A history of West Africa 1000-1800, Basil Davidson., etc.

APPENDIX IV

From a Teacher

1. I feel that I have been unable to fill this questionnaire adequately as in most instances it does not really apply to the situation in our school.

2. Syllabus: As stated on the questionnaire Forms 1 & 2 take social Studies. This includes some History, of a very general nature and mostly orientated to the way in which Nigeria is governed, etc.

3. After this students study for W.A.S.C. for a period of three years. We have to do this since the WASC syllabus is so wide. If the W.A.S.C. syllabus was narrower we should be able to experiment more in year 3; without a rigid syllabus and exam. structure one could be more adventurous - with perhaps more emphasis on projects, topics, field trips, etc.

4. The WASC syllabus does not state objectives.

5. We are also limited as regards teaching techniques because of the poor grasp of English of many students. As this stage students find it difficult, if not almost impossible, to make their own notes. Without very definite guidance, they find it hard to select important points from their textbooks.

6. We have none of the facilities mentioned. Certainly no History Room. Field trips have not been possible because of lack of money.

7. The History Department has been conscientious in ensuring an adequate supply of textbooks. We have aimed to introduce our students to different authors, to understand different presentations and hopefully, to learn to compare and contrast.

8. This is a brief, and hasty, summary. Hopefully, it will help to give a clearer picture of the History teaching situation in one school at least.

APPENDIX VI

LESSON PLANS

SCHOOL IV

Ghana - Cooper p. 185.

- Constitutional Development leading to independence.

1916 - Legislative Council of 1897 reconstituted - African membership from 1-6, 3 chiefs, 3 educated Africans.

1925 - Governor Guggisburg Constitution.

- African member from 6-9 in Legislative Council of 30, 3 provincial Councils.

1946 - Burns Constitution (Gown Alan Burns 1942-7) - A step towards self-government.

- Gave Gold Coast a representative assembly with elected unofficial majority in Legislative Council.

- United Gold Coast colony of the Asante Protectorate. But no representative from Northern territory and Togo.

1951 - Coussey Constitution.

- Legislative Assembly established with 84 men. 75 elected members, 9 unofficial members.

1952 - Dr. Kwame Nkrumah Prime Minister, Leader of Majority Party CPP.

- Won 34 out of 38 seats.

- Executive - selected from legislative by Governor and responsible to him and not to Assembly - Gov. powerful.

1954 - Nkrumah Constitution - full internal self-government under C.P.P. Government. But opposition continued against the Government by Asantehene and other Asante chiefs.

- They wrote a petition for regional Assemblies with greater powers.

1955 - Unitary System of Government and regional assemblies with great powers.

- Independence to be granted at the request of great majority from Legislative Assembly.

1956 - General Election.

C.P.P. won 72 out of 104 seats in Legislative Assembly.

- Nkrumah requested for Independence.

Feb.1957 - Independence Act passed by British Parliament.

6th March
1957 - Independence Granted.

AL- KANEMI

1780 - Kanembu - born in Fezzan

- Brought up as an Arab 30 years at the time of the rising.

- Later settled in Kanem.

- A Scholar after studying and performing pilgrimage.

- Supp. of the Shua Arabs - S.W. Chad and Kanembu tribesmen.

- Experience - widely travelled. Egypt, Fezz, hajj.

1806-12- Government of Bornu and Rising of Kanemi.

Economics

Trade routes to Hausaland threatened by Felata.

Politics.

1. Mandara Fulani.
2. Baghirmi, Kotoko Independence.
3. Emergence of Wyday (East).
4. Turkish interference to Fezzan - Rulers Weak - Pious.

1809 - Gazargamo Saved.

1812 - Gazargamo Saved.

USMAN ZAKI

Kanem's Activities and Achievements became real ruler, he saved Bor.

- Mai Ahmed (blind) weak dynasty.

- Ahmed abdicated after and flight.

1809 - Dunama succeeded - Young inexperienced, unpopular because not the choice of the people.

1811 - Mai Ngileruma deposed.

- Changed Capital to Birnin Jedid.

Near Ngarma (Kanembu and S. Arabia).

1814 - Became real power old Mais deposed (figure eads) by 1820.

Achievements

1824 - East - Baghirmi defeated and married from one of their tribes.

- Unsuccessful attack on Hadejia (Sokoto)

1825 - Katagum devastated.

1826 - Kano invaded - Muhammed Bello rallied Emir of Bauchi etc. to check Kanemi.

- Bauchi captured royal crown.

- Boundary between Bor. and Caliphate stabilised - Jamaare, and Misau carved out.

1830s - Kanemi henceforth tried to prevent further raids by Sokoto.

Student Notes Form

4/10/74- Trans Saharan Trade Routes.

Meaning - notes.

Development - notes.

Export of West African Notes.

22/10/74 - Decline Trans Saharan Trade Routes

Invasion of Songhai

Discovery of Sea routes.

26/10/74 - Importance of Trans-Saharan Trade Routes

Trade to the People of West Africa.

SCHOOL (V)

Prince Henry: He was a great Portuguese politician, geographer and religious leader: He was ancious and active on geographical know, and exploration:
He sent out explorers to find out knowledge of the unknown world for trade and expansion of power:

His aims:
To find wealth and power - e.g., gold from Sudanic people by sea:

To find sea way to Far-East, to trade in spaces, silk-

Muslim States dominated land route and trade on Mediterranean -

To spread Christianity: to heathens of gold bearing areas of Sudan: to crush Islamic and break Muslim monopoly of trade.

Prince Henry's work:

1. Set up observatory at Sagres: gathered geographers, map makers, astronomers: employed and sent out captain to explore and study - the sea-currents, tides, stars, employed ship builders; employed men who had knowledge of Arabs, Jews, cartographers. collected and recorded discoveries All was to be secret to other European nations.

Sent explorers: to Atlantic Ocean
discovered Azores, Madeira, Canary Islands.

1434 - Cape Bojador discovered by Gil Earnes.

1441 - Antan GanClave - met Barber traders with Camels.

12 people taken to Portugal.

1443 - used as future interpreters.

(29) Tristman expanded to Cape Blanco.

Knowledge of commer, religion, government in interior collected.

1445 - Diniz Diaz - discovered Cape Verde.

1455 - Cadamasto - Venetian Captain: explored Senegal River Valley: reported to Prince Henry on trade and closeness to West African main markets.
Sailed in Gambia.
Gomez exchanged Port goods along Gambia and Senegal.

Results:

Successful Navigation - by Portugal.

More knowledge on sea and land.

Established contact with West Africa from Cape Bajado to Sierra Leone. River Gambia and Senegal explored. Collection of data on astronomy charts, and maps for future use. Developed ship building e.g. Port Caravels and sails. Portugal continued with exploration. Built trading ports along coast of West Africa: e.g. Elmina sea Route to India discovered.

After Prince Henry's death:

Gomes - explored Elmina

Fernand de Po discovered.

Began exploration of sea Route to India:

1481 - Diego: Congo Kinshasa.

Bartholomew Diaz: Cape of Good Hope.

Vasco Dagama: India.

Portuguese established - trade centres along the coast of West Africa ports, collecting points ports of call e.g. Arguein and Elmina.

Portuguese named areas according to leading commodities: e.g. Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, Slave Coast, Oil Rivers).

SCHOOL VI

Causes of European Colonialism in Africa

1. Industrial Revolution - increased productivity and created the demand for more raw materials for the machines of Europe. The European countries had very little or none of raw materials like iron, coal, copper, tea, coffee, rubber, spices, oil, etc. Therefore, the industrialist of Europe had to go somewhere else to get these raw materials. They went to Africa, Asia and Latin America - and started colonies from which to get these raw materials.

2. Foreign Markets - over-production, because of the Industrial Revolution resulted in too many things, not all of which were needed in Europe. Therefore, the European industrialists began to look abroad for new markets for their industrial (manufactured) goods. This led to colonies for this purpose.

3. Investing Surplus Capital (wealth) abroad - The accumulated wealth from raw materials and foreign market had to be used in such a way as to produce more profit. Undeveloped regions of the world promised larger profits than Europe. Therefore, the

European "captains of industries" invested their money in foreign lands and developed or built things like factories, roads, railroads, bridges, opened up mines, plantations, and many other things which yielded more profits.

4. Overpopulation in Europe - too many people, unemployment and too many mouths to feed led to too many people in Europe to leave in search for better "pasture lands" in the thinly - populated regions of the world.
5. Nationalism - European politicians or nationalists argued that colonies or empires added more to the wealth, strength and prestige of the nation. Colonies - source of raw materials, military manpower and national honour.
6. Christianity - the urge (desire) to spread Christian religion had been influential in colonial expansion. In some cases, the missionaries prepared the ground for the European soldiers to take over a hostile pagan natives' country in the name of Christianising or civilising the heathens.
7. The "Whiteman's Burden" - that people of advanced nations (whites) had a duty - or a 'burden' - to

transmit Western ideas and techniques to more "backward" peoples of the world, who were referred to as "primitive", "savage", "uncivilised", "ungodly", etc. (Opponents of this theory argue that the only 'burden' the whiteman wanted to carry was the burden of colonial wealth, which he wanted to take back to Europe).

APPENDIX VI

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name of the School .....

2. What degree or/and certificate do you have in history?.....

3. How long have you taught history?.....

OBJECTIVE

In the following questions, circle the letter that has the correct statement:

1. The general objectives for the history syllabus are:
   (a) Clearly stated on the first page.
   (b) sent to us separately.
   (c) stated somewhere in the middle of the syllabus.
   (d) not stated at all.
2. Each class has its own objectives stated.
   (a) on the first page.
   (b) and separately set to the teacher concerned.
   (c) somewhere in the middle of the syllabus.
   (d) nowhere at all.
3. I read the class general objectives
   (a) every time I plan.

(b) once a week

(c) once a term

(d) at no time at all.

4. I type out the objectives and give them out to the students.

(a) at the beginning of session.

(b) at the beginning of each term.

(c) at the end of session.

(d) at no time at all.

5. As a history teacher, I

(a) state my objectives in terms of what the students can do.

(b) was badly taught how to state objectives.

(c) have never been taught how to state objectives.

(d) never state any objectives.

6. If I have no time to write out any lesson plan, I

(a) just write out my objectives for the lesson

(b) read the class general objectives.

(c) use the previous lesson's objectives.

(d) state no objectives at all.

In the following, tick the column that describes what happens in your school against the teaching techniques that are listed on the left.

	USED	
	Often	Never
Lecture		
Visits, field trips, films, slides etc.		
Projects		
Class discussion through question and answer		
Debates		
Assignments		
Dramatisation in groups		
Dramatisation by individuals		
Full note taking from the chalkboard		
Note taking based on chalkboard summaries		
Dictation		
Note making under teacher's guidance		
Note making from books		
Note making through completing sentences		
Group work		
Exchange visits		
Problem solving		
Outsiders talk to students		
Demonstration		

7. If the lecture method is the most popular in your school, which of the following gives the fullest reason for that:

   (a) The WAEC never asks for our feelings about the syllabus, so I lose interest.

   (b) the syllabus is too wide to be covered by using any other technique.

   (c) it is the easiest teaching technique

   (d) children like to listen.

   (e) it is the best technique for teaching history.

Facilities and Equipments

In the following list tick the ones that your school has:

1. Film projector
2. projection screen
3. window blinds
4. cards for drawing
5. modeling facilities
6. notice and display boards
7. portable chairs and tables
8. duplicating facilities.

The Library

1. Encyclopeadia
2. Good dictionaries
3. History Atlases

4. Books on Nigerian history published 1964-1972.
5. Books on African history published 1964-1972.
6. Journals of the Historical Society of Nigeria.
7. Journals of African History.
8. Tarikh
9. History Method books.
10. Newspapers.

The History Room

1. Storage for history materials
2. Display galliary for history materials
3. Teachers' Cupboards.
4. Diorama Boxes.
5. Notice and display boards.
6. Wall maps
7. Periodicals
8. Portable chairs and tables
9. History Atlases.

Others - Tick the one that applies.

1. Is the present history syllabus for the school certificate
   (a) too wide?
   (b) adequate?
   (c) a little bit inadequate?
   (d) very inadequate?
   (e) completely unsuitable?

2. Is the present system of communication between the WAEC and teachers

   (a) very thorough and satisfactory?

   (b) satisfactory?

   (c) rather inadequate?

   (d) bad?

   (e) very bad?

3. How does your school receive the examination reports?

   (a) Directly from WAEC

   (b) Through the Inspector of Education

   (c) None at all

   (d) I do not know.

4. Who receives the reports?

   (a) the principal only

   (b) the head of department through the principal.

   (c) all the teachers through their heads of department.

   (d) I do not know.

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