AN APPRAISAL OF POLITICAL SOCIALISATION OF JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

BY

ADEKEYE, RACHEL BOLA

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE POST GRADUATE SCHOOL,
AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY ZARIA-NIGERIA,
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE AWARD OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN SOCIAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY
ZARIA, NIGERIA

2000

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the research report presented in this thesis, for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy in Social Studies is a record of my own research work, it has been written and compiled by me. All quotations are indicated by quotation marks and the sources of information are specially acknowledged by means of references.

To the best of my knowledge, this thesis has never until now been presented either partially or wholly for any other degree nor is it being concurrently submitted for any degree.

R.B. Adekeye

18/12/2000

Date

CERTIFICATION

This thesis titled: "An Appraisal of Political Socialisation of Junior Secondary School Students in Nigeria: Implications for the Social Studies Curriculum" by Adekeye, Rachel Bola meets the regulations governing the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Studies of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

Prof. Y.A. Jatto
Chairman, Supervisory Committee

20/XII/2000
Date

Dr. M. Ben-Yunusa
Member, Supervisory Committee

20/12/2000
Date

Dr. M. Ben-Yunusa
Head of Education Department

20/12/2000
Date

Prof. S. B. Ojo
Dean, Postgraduate School

24/03/01
Date

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to

My husband: Joshua Adekeye

My children: Adebimpe Adekeye

Aderonke Adekeye

Ayokunle Adekeye

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To God be the glory, who in His mercy and grace has seen me through this work successfully. I give Him thanks.

The successful completion of this work has been made possible through the support of many people. I am highly indebted to my Supervisors, Prof. Y.A. Jatto and Dr. Moh. Ben-Yunusa for their encouragement, insightful suggestions and for making themselves available for consultation at the very crucial stage of the work. I am also very grateful to Dr. F.O. Ogunlade for his advise and guidance throughout the period of the research.

I appreciate with thanks the contributions of the following: Dr. M. Musa, Dr (Mrs) A.O. Okatahi, Dr. M. Balarabe, Dr. C. Bolaji towards the improvement of the work. I am also grateful to Dr. M. A. Chado, Dr. F. D. Kolo and Dr (Mrs) O.O. Omokore for their various contributions.

My sincere thanks and appreciation go to Prof. & Mrs. J.O. Adekeye, Mr & Mrs W.O. Olasehinde, Mrs. M. Yakubu, Mrs. A. Lawal, Dr & Mrs A. Akodu, Dr. & Mrs A.L. Bello, Mrs E. I. Oshagbami, Dr. (Mrs) E. F. Adeniyi, Dr & Mrs. O. Atoyebi, Mr & Mrs O. A. Ogunmola, Akinwale Onamade, Dr (Mrs) R. Adewara, Bologi Amartey, Dr. E. N. Danladi, Mal. I. Adoke, Mrs. T. Lawal, Mrs B.T. Omooba Dr (Mrs) V. Amdi, Dr (Mrs) V. O. Ladele, Mr & Mrs. G.A. Abolarin, Mr. S. J. Abolarin, Mr. M.A. Oladunmade , Mr. A.A. Owolabi, Mrs. Y. Ogunlola, Mrs. M. D. Ogwu, Mrs B. Mangut for their encouragements and support.

I am indeed grateful to the test experts, colleagues in the Department of Education, A.B.U., Zaria, University of Abuja, Federal College of Education, Zaria and Social Studies teachers in Demonstration Secondary School, A.B.U., Zaria , for their contributions towards the validation of the instrument.

My sincere thanks to Ambimbola Kareem, Monisola Yakubu and Kunle Adekeye who served as my research assistants and also travelled with me for the field work.

I wish to express my thanks to all Social Studies teachers who responded to the questionnaire as well as the JSS III students who took part in the tests nationwide.

The support and prayers of the following people and groups are appreciated: Rev & Pastor (Mrs) A. Bakare, Prof. Duro Adegboye, Mr & Mrs J. Samchi, Area BZ House Fellowship and Flame Fellowship International, Samaru chapter.

I deeply appreciate the love, understanding and support of my family members towards the success of this work: my husband, J.A. Adekeye, my children: Bimpe, Ronke and Kunle.

I am also grateful to Messrs J. Obemeata who helped in the data analysis and U.O.Igwe who handled the computer work.

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the political socialisation of J.S.S students in Nigeria. The study focussed on the extent to which formal teaching and learning of Social Studies as provided in the junior secondary schools in Nigeria has helped to shape the political orientations and attitudes of the students for the purpose of transforming them into enlightened loyal and patriotic citizens.

The sample made of 729 JSS III students and 40 Social Studies, teachers was drawn from 18 secondary schools selected from Abia, Bauchi, Kaduna, Kwara, Oyo and Rivers states representing the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria.

Ten hypotheses were tested in the study, five for the cognitive test and five for the affective test. The statistical methods used for the data analysis were Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Scheffee test which were used for the analysis of hypothesis 2 and 7; T-test was used for analysing the other hypotheses, while percentages were used for the discussions on students performance and teachers questionnaire response.

The results of the study showed that the JSS III students in Nigeria were positive in the political development as demonstrated by their good performance in the political socialisation cognitive test (PSCT) and the political socialisation affective (PSAT) test on the basis of gender and religion, no significant difference was found in the students' performance in the two tests, thus hypotheses one and six were retained. Significant difference was found between the performance of students from private and public schools as students from private schools performed significantly better than those from public schools in the cognitive and

affective tests. Hypotheses 4 and 9 were therefore rejected.

Students from urban area performed significantly better than their counterparts from rural area in the cognitive test thus rejecting hypothesis 3. There was no significant difference in students' performance in the affective test therefore hypothesis 8 was retained. Socio economic status of parents was found to exert influence as the students of high socio-economic status parents performed significantly better than others in the cognitive test, therefore hypothesis 2 was rejected. There was no significant difference in the students' performance in the affective test, thus hypothesis 7 was retained.

A clear point in the study was that, despite all the call for new, progressive and more challenging methodologies intended to make Social Studies more distinct as a field from other areas, the traditional methods (lecture, exposition) continued to dominate the teaching of Social Studies.

Based on the findings of the study, some recommendations were made. Better learning facilities should be made available in the public schools so that the performance of the students would be improved. Social Studies teacher education should focus mainly on methodology especially on the extensive use of inquiry method as well as on construction and use of various teaching and learning resources. In-service courses, workshops and seminars should be organised for teachers of Social Studies as a matter of urgency. The various agents of political socialisation should work cooperatively with the school in order to enhance the impact of the socialisation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title page		i
Declaration		ii
Certification		iii
Dedication		iv
Acknowledgements		v
Abstract		vii
Table of Contents		x
List of Tables		xii
List of Appendices		xii
Definitions of Terms		xiii
Abbreviations		xv

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1	Background to the Study	1
1.2	Statement of the Problem	7
1.3	Research Questions	9
1.4	Basic Assumptions	9
1.5	Objectives for the Study	10
1.6	Hypotheses	11
1.7	Significance of the Study	12
1.8	Scope and Delimitation	12
1.9	Summary	15

CHAPTER TWO REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0	Introduction	16
2.1	Political Socialisation	16
2.2	Trends in Political Socialisation	19
2.3	Political Culture	24
2.4	Concept of Citizenship	28
2.5	Agents of Political Socialisation	31
2.6	Nature and Objectives of Social Studies	41
2.7	Historical Perspectives of Social Studies	45
2.8	Approaches to Teaching of Social Studies	49
2.9	Analysis of JSS Social Studies Programme	52
2.10	Empirical Studies that Have Bearing on this Study	57
2.11	Summary	73

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH PROCEDURE

3.0	Introduction	76
3.1	Research Method and Design	76
3.2	Population	78
3.3	Sample and Sampling Procedure	80
3.4	Instrumentation	82
3.5	Validation of Instruments	86
3.51	Content and face Validity	86
3.52	The Pilot Study	88
3.53	Test for Reliability	89
3.6	Administration of Instruments	91
3.7	Data Analysis	91
3.8	Summary	94

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0	Introduction	96
4.01	Data Analysis and Results	101
4.2	Discussion	107
4.3	Discussion on Students Test Performance	114
4.4	Teachers' Questionnaire Response	116
4.5	Summary	118

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1	Summary	119
5.2	The Hypotheses	120
5.3	Major Findings	121
5.31	Implications for Social Studies	122
5.4	Conclusion	125
5.5	Recommendations	126
5.6	For Further Research	129
	Bibliography	131
	Appendix I	139
	Appendix II	145
	Appendix III	147
	Appendix IV	148
	Appendix V	149
	Appendix VI	150
	Appendix VII	161

List of Tables

Table 3.01:	Schools and Students covered in the study	79
Table 3.02	Table of Specifications for Cognitive Test	84
Table 3.03	Table of Specifications for Affective Test	85
Table 4.01	Performance of Entire Sample in Cognitive Test	96
Table 4.02	National Performance in Affective Test	97
Table 4.03	Overall National Performance in Cognitive Test	97
Table 4.04	Overall National Performance in Affective Test	98
Table 4.05	T-Test in Cognitive Test According to Gender	99
Table 4.06	One way Analysis of Variance in Cognitive Test by Parents' Socio-Economic Status	100
Table 4.07	Mean Scores in Cognitive Test According to Parents' Socio-Economic Status	101
Table 4.08	Schefee Procedure Result	102
Table 4.09	T-Test in Political Socialisation Cognitive Test by School Location	102
Table 4.10	T-Test in Cognitive Test by School Type	103
Table 4.11	T-Test in Cognitive Test by Religion	104
Table 4.12	T-Test in Affective Test by gender	104
Table 4.13	Mean scores of student in Affective Test by parents' Socio-Economic Status	105
Table 4.14	ANOVA in Affective Test by Parents' Socio- Economic Status	105
Table 4:15	T-test in Affective Test by school Location	106
Table 4.16	T-Test in Students Affective Tests by school type	106
Table 4.17	T-test in Affective Test by Religious Group.	107

List of Appendices

I	Political Socialisation Tests JSS III	139
II	Questionnaire for Teachers	145
III	Summary of Item Analysis (Cognitive)	147
IV	Summary of Item Analysis (Affective)	148
V	Correlation Coefficient of Teachers' Questionnaire	149
VI	JSS Social Studies Curriculum	150
VII	Summary of Data Analysis	161

Operational Definition of Terms

Political Socialisation: This refers to the process through which the subjects acquire political knowledge, beliefs and values.

Politics: It is used in this study to refer to the art and science of government as well as participation in decision-making about public affairs.

Political Learning: Formal and informal learning experiences which promote the development of political knowledge and attitudes.

Political Knowledge: It is an index scored by the number of correct answers given to the cognitive questions.

Political Development: This is used to describe the extent of political growth or maturity of the subjects as depicted by their performance on the political socialisation cognitive and affective tests.

Political Attitude: This is determined by the responses given and opinions expressed on the attitude test.

Curriculum: All the planned and unplanned learning experiences offered to the learner under the guidance of the school in order to prepare him to participate as an effective member of the society.

Rural Area: It refers to predominantly agricultural population with low population density and lacking in some basic amenities and infrastructures.

Urban Area: An area which has high concentration of tertiary activities, basic amenities and infrastructures.

Private Schools: Schools owned by private individuals, religious organisations, corporate bodies and non-governmental organisations.

Public Schools: Schools owned by government either federal, state or local.

Abbreviations

JSS:	Junior Secondary School
N.P.E.:	National Policy on Education
N.E.R.C.:	Nigerian Educational Research Council
MAMSER:	Mass Mobilisation for Social and Economic Reconstruction
PSCT:	Political Socialisation Cognitive Test
PSAT:	Political Socialisation Affective Test
CESAC:	Comparative Education Studies and Adaptation Centre.
UNICEF:	United Nations International, Children Education Fund
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
ASSP:	African Social Studies Programme
SOSAN:	Social Studies Association of Nigeria
NCSS:	National Council for Social Studies
F.M.E.	Federal Ministry of Education

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Education is believed to be an effective instrument for socialising the young and for promoting desirable socio-political values. It has also been claimed that education is related to politics because it leads to the creation of a sense of citizenship and it enables one to perform one's socio - political functions more effectively.

It is generally believed that the school serves as a potent agent of political socialisation which helps in influencing the formation of political norms, values and attitudes in children. DuBey (1972) emphasises that educational institutions in Nigeria have been recognised as playing a very important role in the socialisation of the Nigerian school children. In a similar view, Jaros (1973) claims that "schools are specifically designed to communicate political values to the children."

There is the need for full public participation in the national political life in Nigeria, being a democratic nation. Social Studies therefore has a key role to play in the successful implementation of the nation's political goals. Many eminent Nigerians and educationists such as Adaralegbe (1980), Mafuyai (1980) expressed the optimism that Social Studies can provide students with the skills they need for articulate citizenship, participation in political democracy; political literacy and social responsibility. Adaralegbe (1980), maintains that Social

Studies has a significant role to play in the socialisation, and moral development of the youth, the enrichment of the cultural life and the skill of political participation.

There is an increasing awareness of the relationship of education to social, economic, political and technological development in Nigeria. Consequently, the government (N.P.E. F.M.E. (1981) identifies education as a dynamic instrument of change and has expressed great faith in the ability of education to transform the society and lead to quick development in the area of economic, political, sociological and human resources. Having realised the invaluable role of education, the Nigerian philosophy of education is based on the integration of the individual into a sound and effective citizen and an equal educational opportunities for all citizens of the nation. For the philosophy to be in harmony with Nigeria's national objectives, it has to be geared toward self-realisation, better human relations, effective citizenship, national consciousness, national unity, as well as social, cultural, economic, political, scientific and technological progress.

According to the National Policy on Education (1981:40), the national educational aims and objectives to which the philosophy is linked are:

(i) the inculcation of national consciousness and national unity,

(ii) the inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian society.

(iii) the training of the mind and the understanding of the world around.

(iv) the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies both mental and physical as equipment for the individual to live and contribute to the development of the society.

To this effect, the government has stressed that a conscious effort, with respect to civics, should be made to teach the tenets of good citizenship at all levels of education. The National Policy on Education (1981), sections 3 and 4 paragraph 14 C, stresses the importance of citizenship education as a basis for effective participation in and contribution to the life of the society. Also in section 4, it stresses that education should help develop in our youth a sense of unity, patriotism, and love of our country, and a sense of national belonging. The National Policy on Education therefore endorses the teaching and learning of Social Studies as the best medium of inculcating the values of the society. Social Studies Curriculum incorporates the above objectives, and in addition emphasises the overall development of a strong sense of responsibility, patriotism, and effective citizenship.

The National Policy on Education (1981) stressed that the political socialisation of citizens should not be a chance affair. This can be learnt and cultivated through classroom instruction in Social Studies. The implication is that Social Studies teaching in Nigeria should be geared towards equipping the individual to cultivate effective citizenship and civil responsibility (Okam, 1998). That means teaching and learning should stress the understanding of human relations but also should be able to produce citizens with skills, competencies, moral values, reasoned judgements to effectively live, interact and contribute to

the social, political and cultural developments of the Nigerian Society (Okobiah, 1984). The Nigeria philosophy of education regards the production of effective citizens by way of all forms of schooling as the crux of all educational programmes in the country.

The 1969 curriculum conference officially established the teaching of Social Studies in Nigeria as a compulsory subject in the primary school and Teacher Training College; as a core subject in the junior secondary school and as an option in the senior secondary school. A fundamental rationale for the introduction of integrated Social Studies was based on the contention that knowledge and experience are not in compartments. Also there was a general feeling that the discretely taught History, Geography, Economics, Government or Civics among others, were somehow not tailored to the needs of a dynamic and modernising society like Nigeria (DuBey and Barth, 1980).

Empirical works in the area of political socialisation of children revealed that an early start to political education through training in conformity would help to promote socio –political stability and generate some support for the government. Merriam (1931) in Fenton (1966) reported that there was vital influence of early life experience on later political orientations and actions. He observed that "the process of politicalization began far down, the scale both in organisation and in years. Social and political attitudes are determined far earlier than commonly supposed, many of them in fact in pre-school years. More

fundamental attitudes that determine the character of political behaviour may be reached earlier than age 8 or 10 years in many cases".

Peck and Havinghurst (1960) cited in Fenton (1966) in their study of a group of children from 10 to 17 years of age also found that political attitudes and personality were formed by age ten and change little thereafter. Allport (1960) in Fenton (1966) did not only regard political socialisation of children as very important but also suggested that "there is integral relationship of political behaviour to the total personality". He maintained that " the political nature of man is indistinguishable form his personality as a whole. The latter is not the sum total of his specific reactions but rather a congruent system of attitudes, each element of which is intelligible only in the light of the total pattern". He went further that a man's political opinion reflects the characteristic modes of his adjustment to life.

Hess and Torney (1965) in Renshon (1977) in their report on political socialisation of children during elementary years, concluded that "political socialisation of children promotes early attachment to the country and government,"thus ensuring the stability of basic institutions. Almond and Verba (1965) stressed that manifest political education increases the individual's sense of political competence; the implication however is that the content and how it is taught must be culturally relevant. Easton and Dennis (1969) reported that political awareness occurs relatively early in a child's life and varies with factors of age, gender, intelligence and socio economic status.

Jennings, Ehman and Niemi (1974) in Renshon (1977) compared political views of individual high school seniors with those of their teachers, the result showed transmission meaning that, political orientation can be communicated through formal and informal instruction in Social Studies. Similarly, Tapper (1976) stressed that schools inculcate formal and appropriate forms of political behaviour in the children. He also emphasised that students should be taught differences between theory and reality of the formal and legal aspects of the political system. He recommended that with the lowering of the voting age to 18 schools should impart some explicit political instruction, especially as some of the students will also be voters. Stacey (1978) endorsed an early start to political education as the training in school years, with regards to basic commitment to the nation, is for the majority of children , not only formative but in good measure enduring.

The experts in Social Studies education in Nigeria like their counterparts in the West and elsewhere are of the view that Social Studies, if effectively taught, can be used as a tool for political socialisation and for creating effective citizenry. These include Adeyoyin (1979), Uche (1980), Adaralegbe (1980), Okobiah (1984), Udoh (1992), Okam (1998). Adaralegbe (1980) posited that the teaching of Social Studies should be concerned with preparing the learners for the goals and purposes of responsible and effective citizenship. Adeyoyin (1979) in Okam (1998) advocated that the teaching of Social Studies in our schools should produce Nigerians who are loyal to the central unit rather than tribal groups . Social Studies should be used to Nigerianise the learners.

Okobiah (1985) observed that Social Studies in Nigeria is aimed at the mobilisation of youths, students and young learners for the purpose of helping them cultivate an awareness and understanding that would transform them into citizens with skills, attitudes, competences and reasoned judgements to effectively live, interact and contribute positively to the economic, social, political and cultural development of the Nigerian society. Uche (1980) viewed Social Studies as being primarily concerned with the development of good citizens.

Another reason for the introduction of Social Studies was that it had been identified as the subject through which the Nigerian youth can imbibe the skill of political awareness and participation (Aderalegbe, 1980, Udoh, 1992). In addition, many researchers including Peck and Havinghurst (1960) Fenton, 1966), Greenstein (1968), Stacey (1978) and Udoh (1992) were of the view that political education need to start early in the life of the child, if he or she is to function effectively in the growth, development and progress of the nation.

1.2 **Statement of the Problem**

Social Studies has been identified by the Nigerian government and many experts as the subject through which political education and training in citizenship will be carried out in Nigeria (N.P.E, 1981; Adaralegbe, 1980; Udoh, 1983; Okobiah, 1984, Udoh, 1992; Adeyoyin, 1993). In spite of two decades of the teaching of Social Studies in Nigeria, this objective remains unachieved as most Nigerians, both young and old are apathetic and ignorant politically. This lack of

political awareness has been of great concern to the researcher as this attitude has many consequences such as bad governance, corrupt public officials, police brutality, denial and violation of basic human rights, all of which lead to economic backwardness (MAMSER, 1989).

The researcher is convinced that apathy should be eliminated especially through a grassroots approach using a well-articulated Social Studies programme. As stressed by Sigel (1970) and Stacey (1978), the best guarantee for political loyalty in adulthood lies in its establishment in childhood. Thus, this study is directed towards the political socialisation of junior secondary school students. The problem therefore is to determine the extent to which Social Studies has enabled J.S.S. students to acquire the tenets of political socialisation in a bid to transform them into effective Nigerian citizens.

The concern gave impetus to this study which is designed to find out to which extent the formal teaching of Social Studies as provided in the schools has shaped the political orientation and attitudes of the students for the purpose of transforming them into citizens who will effectively embrace and cultivate democratic ideals. In addition, for the objectives of political socialisation to be achieved in Nigeria, it is important to monitor how the tenets of political socialisation are taught in our schools.

1.3 Research Questions

The problem can be reduced to the following research questions:

1) To what extent have teachers employed or dispensed the JSS Social Studies curriculum to enable students attain or acquire the objectives of political socialisation?
2) To what extent have teachers' qualifications and their employment of requisite methods of teaching Social Studies positively affected students' attainment of the tenets of political socialisation?
3) Is there any significant difference between the performance of male and female students?
4) Are there disparities in the levels of performance between students of various socio-economic backgrounds?
5) Are there disparities in the level of performance between students from the various schools?

1.4 Basic Assumptions

The following are the basic assumptions for the study.

1. Maximum participation by citizens in formulating public policy is essential for the creation and perpetuation of a free, humane and open society.
2. The ability to make reflective personal and public decisions are not inborn but can be systematically taught and people especially the young can be trained to reflect on problems before taking actions to resolve them.

3. The best guarantee for political loyalty in adulthood lies in its establishment in childhood.
4. The school is a potent agent of political socialisation which is one of the ways of propagating the age long traditions and norms of society.
5. The child is the father of the adult citizen.
6. Males are more politically disposed than females.
7. The J.S.S. Social Studies curriculum provides opportunity for political development.

1.5 Objectives For The Study

The objectives of the study are:

1. To identify competencies in the area of political education which the students who have been exposed to three years of Social Studies teaching in the junior secondary school should have acquired within the dictates of the curricular demands.
2. To identify variables relating to students' socio economic background, gender, religion, school location and type that can impact on students' achievement.
3. To find out how effectively Social Studies is achieving its political socialisation objectives.
4. To find out to what extent teacher qualification and methodology affect the students' political socialisation.

5. To examine the adequacy of the J.S.S. Social Studies curriculum in preparing the students for political participation.
6. To examine the implications of the findings for Social Studies teaching and learning in the J.S.S.
7. To make recommendations for improvement based on the findings of the study.

1.6 **Hypotheses**

Based on the problem of this study, the following hypotheses were postulated as guides to the study:

1 There is no significant difference between the mean scores of students used in the study in the Political Socialisation Cognitive Test (PSCT) in terms of the following:

a) Gender

b) Socio-economic status

c) Locations (urban/ rural)

d) School types (Public/Private)

e) Religious beliefs

2 There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the students used in the study in the Political Socialisation Affective Test (PSAT) in terms of the following:

a) Gender

b) Socio-economic status

c) Locations (urban/ rural)

d) School types (Public/Private)

e) Religious beliefs

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study is of particular importance because it investigates political development of children who are the leaders of tomorrow. Childhood and adolescence are important periods for political learning. During these periods a large portion of socialisation occurs in educational institutions. It is of great importance the study appraises the relative impact of formal instruction in Social Studies as well as various informal activities such as patriotic and extra curricular activities on the acquisition of political knowledge and development of political attitudes. A lot of research findings such as Sigel (1970), Stacey (1978) and Udoh (1992) support the claim that what children learn and do in the formative periods of their lives especially political attitude they acquire cannot be easily disturbed in later life.

The result of the study hopefully will fill a gap in the materials available for course instruction in Social Studies or Civics, Political Socialisation and related fields. There are few studies on political socialisation of children in Nigeria, this study therefore will provide vital information about a very important aspect of Social Studies education - political socialisation. In another respect, the findings of the study will provide data for comparing political socialisation of Nigerian

children with those of children of same age in other lands (America, Europe and Africa).

The result of the study will lead to suggestions on how to improve political education in the Junior Secondary School. The findings will provide feedback to lecturers in universities and colleges of education who train teachers of JSS students, curriculum planners of Social Studies and ministry of education. The findings will have implications for teachers of Social Studies at JSS, students, parents, the government and even politicians who believe that the school can be used to train children for political participation. Also, on the basis of the findings of the study, recommendations will be made to the government (ministry of education), Social Studies curriculum planners, principals of secondary schools and parents.

1.8 **Scope and Delimitation**

The target population for this study is JSS III students in the third term of the school year. The scope of this study involves assessment of the target group through political socialisation cognitive and affective tests as well as Social Studies teachers' qualification and methodology. The study focused on political socialisation as provided in the JSS Social Studies curriculum and as taught in the Nigerian schools as well as the effect on the development of political knowledge and attitudes of the students. The effect of gender, socio-economic status, school location, school type and religion on the students' performance was covered in the study.

Social Studies being an integrated and interdisciplinary curriculum is broad in scope. The curriculum at the junior secondary school level covers broad themes or units such as: social, physical, cultural, political and economic environments; institutions: - social, political educational and economic; Nigerian cultural patterns and their historical origins, common heritage and national symbols; socialisation; science, technology and society; world and its peoples, world transport and communication.

This study however did not cover the entire J.S.S. Social Studies curriculum but focussed on the political socialisation aspect. This includes units or topics such as leadership and followership, civic rights and responsibilities, common heritage and national symbols, culture and identity; socialisation; cooperation and social responsibilities, unity in diversity; institutions - structure and functions of legal and political institutions in Nigeria.

The study is national in scope, as such, all the JSS III students in Nigeria and their Social Studies teachers form the population of the study. The researcher would have loved to cover the entire population, but it was not feasible within the limited time and resources available. The study was therefore delimited to manageable sample in order to have an in-depth study of the problems being investigated. The study covered six states in Nigeria based on People's Democratic Party (PDP) six geo-political zones. Seven hundred and twenty (720) JSS III students from eighteen (18) secondary schools as well as forty Social Studies teachers were involved in the study.

1.9 Summary

The study investigated political socialisation of junior secondary school students in the selected states and schools in Nigeria. Ten hypotheses were advanced in order to investigate the relationship between variables such as gender, parents' socio-economic status, religion, school type, rural - urban differentials as well as teacher variables and the students' political socialisation. Two tests: Political Socialisation Cognitive Test and Political Socialisation Affective Test, were applied to the JSS III students in order to collect the pertinent data.

The study was based on certain assumptions among which are that, JSS Social Studies curriculum has the potential of socialising the students politically. Also it is believed that good citizens are not 'born' but can be 'made' through a good political education programme handled by professionally trained and committed teachers.

The study was found to be significant because of the educational and political values involved. Research in the area of political socialisation of children is grossly lacking in Nigeria, the study therefore has the potential of helping to fill the gap and make a major contribution to the political education of children.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This study appraised the Junior Secondary School Social Studies curriculum as it relates to its effectiveness in promoting political socialisation of the students. In this chapter, related literature on school children's political socialisation was reviewed.

The literature review contains discussions on the trends in political socialisation, concepts of citizenship and political culture. The roles of the main agents of political socialisation were highlighted. The concept of Social Studies and various approaches to the teaching of it for effective political socialisation were explained.

The JSS Social Studies curriculum, which is pertinent to this study, was examined and analysed. Specific empirical studies on school children's political socialisation in Nigeria, Africa and the world were reviewed.

2.1 Political Socialisation

The process of socialisation involves the exposure of the members of a society to those desirable attitudes, values, skills, knowledge, dispositions or actions which will make them effective and participant members of their society (Stacey, 1975). However, political socialisation is a specialised area of

socialisation, which basically involves the process of learning accepted political attitudes and behaviour in formal or informal settings.

Different conceptions of political socialisation can be identified. Almond and Verba (1965:13) defined political socialisation as 'the process of induction into the political culture, its end-product is a set of attitudes, cognition, value standards and feelings towards the political system; its various roles and role incumbent and feelings towards the inputs of demands and its authoritative outputs'. Greenstein (1968:551) defined political socialisation as "all political learning, formal and informal, deliberate and unplanned at every stage of the life cycle, including not only explicitly political learning but also nominal non-political learning that affects political behaviour; such as the learning of political relevant social attitudes and the acquisition of political relevant personality characteristics." Easton and Dennis (1969) presented a narrow but useful definition of political socialisation. They defined it as "those developmental processes through which persons acquire political orientations and patterns of behaviour." Jaros (1973) distinguished between cognitive socialisation, which is the process of transmitting political knowledge, and affective socialisation, which is the process of communicating political beliefs of values. However, the central focus of political socialisation is the internalisation of political knowledge, attitudes, values and norms as well as its transmission from generation to generation.

Role of Political Socialisation:

Promoting Political Stability

Stacey, (1978) reported that in spite of the variations in the form and content of political socialisation within and between societies over time, at least since the age of Plato, there has been some social analysts and power holders who have argued for an early start to political education for the purpose of promoting politico-socio stability through training in conformity.

Promoting Loyalty to the Nation:

Political socialisation can help to promote loyalty to the nation, foster particular values and increase support for or alienation from the system. It acts as a major means of generating a minimal level of positive support for the political objects.

Reducing Stress in the Political System:

Easton and Dennis (in Dennis,1973) viewed political socialisation as helping to reduce stress in the political system, assures the system of acceptance of decisions as binding; limits the volume and variety of demands; prepares members to understand roles that are relevant for converting inputs to binding outputs.

Reinforcing Prevailing Political System:

According to Stacey (1978) the planned use of political socialisation to reinforce the prevailing social system and political regime by governments has long had its enthusiasts. This claim stems from certain assumptions. First, that the political attitudes are in large part the end product of pre-adult learning.

Secondly, that adult political behaviour is largely shaped by such political attitudes. Thirdly, the aggregate of the mass of individual attitudes makes a tremendous impact on a nation's government, and political life, particularly in relation to system stability and instability.

The general consensus is that the knowledge and exposure of the children to effective political socialisation is of dual benefit for the individual and the polity.

2.2 Trends in Political Socialisation

Systematic thought about political socialisation first appeared in the writings of the ancient Greeks. The traditional view of citizenship training had a long history traced back to Plato and Aristotle. Plato's 'Republic' (in Renshon, 1977) is in essence a treatise on how to arrest political change through appropriate socialisation of the young. Plato consistently maintained that the 'true statesman must be thought of as the possessor of the knowledge of good and evil, an expert physician of the soul whose prescriptions for spiritually diseased men and cities carry with them an absolute and unchallengeable authority'. To him, the statesman's qualifications would consist of both science and skill, of theoretical knowledge and ability to apply it in practice. He stressed that the leaders (presidents, governors) certainly do need special qualities and qualifications, training and experience if they are to govern well or before they can safely be entrusted with high political office. Plato failed to realise that in order to have harmony and lasting peace, the followers as well need political education.

Aristotle, too, was deeply interested in political socialisation though he envisaged civic education as preparation for active participation in the city-state democracies of his time. The rise of Christianity led to decreased writings on political socialisation because the early Christians were inclined to assume that the moral man was the religious, and that politics was just a matter of morality. Stacey (1978) reported that Rousseau in many of his writings emphasised that education decisively imparts social values to the impressionable child. Once again, political philosophers began to focus attention on the connection between education, learning experiences of the child and the ordering of political life in his society.

Certain developments in modern society tend to give rise to a sustained interest in the content and consequences of political socialisation. Socialisation is no longer a primarily haphazard experience restricted to unregulated contact with parents, kinship and other diverse and diffuse community influences. Technological revolution has made formal schooling feasible, therefore, the school setting provides a limited set of manipulatable channels through which political relevant values can be transmitted to a large proportion of the young.

Symbolically, the spread of participatory ethos was marked in the shift in status of the non office holder from 'subject' to 'citizen', practically, it means that political leaders can no longer confine their attention to the orientations of an ascriptive elite comprising a small number of royal households. Political leaders of modern politics have been put under heavy pressure to derive their right to govern from the support that they allegedly enjoy from those who are bound by

their decisions. In modern democracies most notably United States of America and Switzerland, great importance is therefore attached to courses in Civics or Social Studies education and citizenship training.

According to Koff et al (in Dennis, 1973) the participatory ethos was not limited to democratic societies alone, but the totalitarian leaders even went a step further. The state controlled youth groups that were the mark of such regimes such as the 'Ballila' of Mussalini's Italy; the 'Hitler - jugend' of Nazi Germany; the Soviet Union's 'Young Pioneers'; and the 'Red Guards' of Mainland China -were testimonies to the importance that even the most tightly controlled regimes attribute to the political socialisation of the young.

These considerations apply generally throughout the modern world; but they are brought into particular sharp focus in the new nations of Africa. In many cases these nations are creations of the colonialists and so inherit national boundaries that cut across so many ethnic groupings and even linguistic barriers. To condition the survival of the nations on a complete reorientation from parochial or ethnic loyalties, require a drastic re-shaping of the orientations of the citizens. The truth that citizens are made, but not born, manifest itself clearly in African nations; hence the importance of political education.

In developed countries, there is a culture of mass participation in the political activities because the people are enlightened. Electioneering campaigns are usually well organised and well attended. Citizens come out in large numbers to vote during elections. Any decline in voter turn out receives prompt and necessary attention. Recently it has been reported that there is political

apathy in Britain, USA and Australia. People are therefore being encouraged to vote through a lot of strategies put in place by the government.

Smith (1996) reported a general declining interest in politics in Britain, especially among the youth 18 years and above; with 15% rise in those declaring no interest in politics between 1991 and 1995. Britain has institute for citizenship studies and in addition to that, in 1995 Charter 88 and the British Youth Council created Empower, a nation-wide campaign that has attracted a good deal of financial sponsorship to encourage young people to register on the electoral roll and vote.

In USA for example, in 1995 primary election for a United States senate vacancy in Oregon, a lot of measures were put in place in order to encourage people to vote. There was voting through the post (postal ballot); polling booths were placed in cinemas and shopping centres; computers, telephones and televisions were used to cast votes. Election was held over a period of one week so that people could vote at their convenience. In Australia, compulsory voting by eligible adults was reported. Many writers on politics including Stacey, (1978), Almond & Verba (1965), Smith (1996), Frank and Mckinlay (1997) Platner & Larry (1996) emphasise the importance of maintaining a virile political culture in order to bring about stability and development in any society.

Nigeria since her political independence in 1960, has had two civilian governments none of which completed the usual two terms of office allowed it, and the third being the present Obasanjo led civilian government. The military interventions have had its own bad effects on Nigeria. It is realised that military

rule is not and cannot be a permanent substitute to a good government. As a result of the recognition of this fact, that the Babangida government set up the political bureau in 1986 to conduct a debate on the political future of the country. According to MAMSER (1989) the bureau in 1987 reported that 'Nigerians want a new social and political order which will serve the needs of all its citizens'. The bureau also said that Nigeria has been the way it is because many citizens of Nigeria have low political understanding and "I-don't-care-attitude" about what happens around them. The bureau recommended political education and social mobilisation of all citizens of Nigeria.

In July, 1987, the Directorate for Social Mobilisation (MAMSER) was set up in order to promote a new orientation among Nigerians and to make Nigerians know their rights and duties as citizens. The Directorate is also to encourage Nigerians to take active part in discussions and decisions which affect their general welfare. The above situation shows that majority of Nigerians are politically unaware. Generally, a good citizen is not expected to be a mere spectator of government actions. MAMSER (1989) emphasised that good citizens must play an active role in the political affairs of their nation. They must be concerned about why or how government decides to do what it does, since what government does affects them. But in Nigeria, the masses merely show brief interest in public affairs. This is usually limited to voting during an election.

Apart from the government, there are calls from groups of Nigerians and individuals for the introduction of a new subject "Citizenship Education", "Civics" or "Political Education". A very recent call is from a retired Air force Officer in

Haruna (1999) for the introduction of a subject, "Citizens' Rights", in the curriculum of senior secondary and as a general study in the first and second year of undergraduates in higher institutions in Nigeria. It is the view of this study that political education is a must for every school child. This in line with MAMSER's (1989) recommendation that every citizen, especially public officers should be taught political education. It is therefore very important to teach the young, political education so that by the time they leave secondary school, they are fully politically socialised. Grassroots approach will avert a lot of political problems that Nigeria is passing through due to political apathy. It is believed that it will help to develop in the young political loyalty and patriotism.

2.3 **Political Culture**

In the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences (1971) political culture was defined as "the set of attitudes, beliefs, and sentiments which give order and meaning to a political process and which provide the underlying assumption and rules, that govern behaviour in the political system".

Almond and Powell (1968) described political culture as the totality of an individual's attitudes and orientations towards politics. Such orientations have three components namely:

(i) Cognitive orientation, which involved knowledge of political objects and beliefs

(ii) Affective orientations, which involve feelings of attachment, involvement and rejection of political objects.

(iii) Evaluative orientations, which involve the application of value standards to political events and objects.

Ball (1979) defined political culture as attitudes, beliefs, emotions and values of society that relate to the political system and political issues.

After a thorough and critical review of the literature on political culture, Kavanagh (1979:110) provided a comprehensive definition and explanation of political culture. He defined political culture as a short hand expression to denote the emotional and attitudinal environment within which the political system operates. He went on that "it is the particular pattern of orientations in which every political system is embedded. Orientations are predispositions to political actions and are determined by such factors as traditions, historical memories, motive, norms, emotions and symbols".

Generally, political culture can be used to describe the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of the citizens of a nation to politics. Such attitudes and behaviours could be cognitive, affective and participatory or evaluative.

Classifications of Political Culture:

(a) Finer (1962) in his classification, identified four levels of political culture, namely:

1) mature level 2) developed level 3) low level

4) minimal level

He explained that a nation is said to have a mature (high) level of political culture if there is an approved process of transforming power.

Developed level: In the developed level, the public recognises who and what constitutes the sovereign authority.

Low level: In the low level, the citizens of the nation are conscious of politics.

Minimal level: In the minimal level, the citizens are politically unconscious or unaware. Political instability and chaos which manifest especially in forms of military intervention (coup d'etat) in politics, is highest in an area with minimal level of political culture.

This classification scheme is not rigid because a nation can rise from the minimal level to the mature level, depending on the frequency of military intervention in politics or period of uninterrupted civilian rule.

(b) Almond and Verba (1965) in their classification identified 3 major forms of political culture. They are participant, subject and parochial.

1. Participant: The participant political culture is that in which the citizens of a nation are especially oriented to the system as a whole and to both the political and administrative structures and processes; that is, the input and output aspects of the political system. The members of the nation are actively involved in politics. The citizens' cognitive, affective and participative or evaluative orientations are positive.

2. Subject: The subject political culture is that in which there is high frequency of orientation toward a differentiated political system and toward the output aspects of the system, but orientations towards self as an active participant approaches

zero. The members of the nation are aware of politics, but they do not see themselves as having any significant role to play.

3. Parochial: The parochial culture is that in which the frequency of orientations to the system as general object, input and output objects and self as an active participant approaches zero. The members of the nation are not aware of politics at all and are not participating (c) Brown and Gray (1979) classified political culture into four, namely: unified, dominant, dichotomous, and fragmented. The type of political culture is determined by the extent to which the citizens of a nation participate in the political process or the level of their awareness and participation. There is unified political culture where the citizen's participation in politics is very high. A dominant political culture refers to where political participation is high. There is dichotomous political culture where participation in politics by citizens is low. Where participation is very low there is fragmented political culture.

These various political culture types or any classification for that matter, coexist even within the same society. Ostheimer (1973:79) asserted that a layer of participant citizens who possess some of those characteristics identified by Almond and Verba (1965) exist in Argentina, Chile, East Pakistan, Israel, India and Nigeria. Ofiaja (1980:3) on the other hand in his writing about political culture and unity in Nigeria described Nigeria's political culture as laissez faire. This is similar to Almond and Verba's fragmented political culture.

Though comparisons are possible and feasible, it is important to note that no society has a rigid type of political culture. Almond and Verba (1965) affirmed

that their classification did not imply homogeneity or uniformity of political cultures. Kavanagh (1972) in Renshon (1977) commented on Almond and Verba's classification that they are ideal types and that there are invariable mixes of these outlook within any political system and also within individuals.

The discussion in this section is important to this study in that it is possible in the final analysis for one to be able to categorise the students involved in the study as politically well informed or politically less informed citizens. They may also be simply described as citizens with positive or negative political orientation or culture.

2.4 Concept of Citizenship

Citizenship is a status or a relationship existing between a natural person and a political society known as state to which the person owes allegiance and the state protection. Citizenship as conceptualised by Thompson (1970) is the present and future capacity for influencing politics, and it involves active involvement in political life. It is not merely those rights possessed by a passive subject by virtue of residing under a particular territorial jurisdiction; nor is it meant mainly to connote patriotism or loyalty to a nation or state.

Nigerian citizenship can be attained in three ways. These are by Birth, by Registration and by Naturalisation. The Nigerian constitution stipulates the conditions for each category of citizenship.

A citizen is a natural person who is endowed with full political and civil right in the body politics of the state. A citizen owes unqualified allegiance to his

state and subject to certain limitations imposed by age, gender, and other conditions. A citizen's rights and duties are more extensive than those of other persons (aliens or foreigners) within the jurisdiction of the state.

According to Almond and Verba (1965) "any member who is prepared and able to partake in the administration or running of the political system, such a person sees himself as capable of influencing decisions and the course of events in the nation is referred to as a citizen".

Characteristics of a good citizen:

Characteristics of a good citizen in a democratic society as identified by Elcook (1976) are:

(i) A knowledge of certain amount of politics and a recognition that such a knowledge is important

(ii) A belief that the citizen can influence the course of political events.

(iii) A belief in the fact that the government will be fair in all her dealings.

(iv) a citizen is expected to hold both political institutions and actors in a certain regard.

Types of Citizens:

Learner (1958) classified citizens of a nation into three: (a) moderns (b) transitionals, (c) traditionals. Deutsch (1961) classifies citizens into two: namely, mobilised and unmobilised. Almond and Verba (1965) classified citizens into three, these are (a) subject (b) parochial (c) participant.

These classifications suggest that within any nation, there are citizens who are 'active' or 'passive', according to the degree of their awareness and participation in the political process. The active citizens are those whose political participation is above average while the passive citizen s'political participation is below average.

Role of Education In Citizenship Development:

It is believed that education can transform a person from a passive citizen to an active citizen. The views of Lipset (1960) in Sigel (1979); Almond and Verba (1965); Thompson (1970); Key (1979) are summarised below:

(i) That acquisition of knowledge liberates the mind and permits it to see merits to a variety of contradictory suggestions, it increases its tolerance for the unfamiliar and the unorthodox, and lessens fear of the unknown.

(ii) That the process of becoming educated has socialising effects by promoting people's interest in politics.

(iii) Education enhances the citizens ability to grapple with the social and political environment.

(iv) The more educated a citizen is, the more involved he will be in civic and social matters and he tends to approach the political process with greater sense of personal effectiveness, enhanced notions of civic duty and considerably lesser fear of political deviancy.

(v) Better educated citizens feel a strong sense of duty to participate in the political life of the nation than do people with rudimentary education.

The role of education in the development of citizenship has some specific implications for this study, which appraises the role of Social Studies education in promoting civic awareness and political socialisation of the JSS students. It is important for children to internalise the aspects of citizenship which Thompson (1970) identified as participation, discussion, voting and concept of equality in order to break the culture of silence and political apathy which had hitherto characterised the Nigerian political scene. Education is strongly related to the probability that the educated citizen will be socially and politically active. The point being emphasised in this study is that effective citizens can be 'made' through a deliberate school curriculum among other things.

2.5 Agents of Political Socialisation

The review of literature on political education point out a common consensus on the potency of the agents of socialisation in promoting the desired normative political knowledge, attitudes and values that will enhance the political culture of any nation be it developed or developing. Several agents such as the family, school, peer group, mass media and others are responsible for the promotion of the individual's political socialisation. It is believed that all the agents should work together in order to bring about effective socialisation of the child. The role of each agent is discussed below.

(a) The Family:

Everywhere the family plays a central role in socialising the child. It is in the family that the child is born, spends his early years and learns his first

language. Initial experience has an enduring impact on the physical, mental and personality development of the child. Therefore, the importance of the family's socialising function cannot be over emphasised. According to Renshon (1977) the family is universally accepted to be the primary agent of political socialisation. In part, this expectation is based upon the highly favourable position of the parents in terms of the three pre-conditions of influence, which are exposure, communication and receptivity. This receptivity is however based on strong bonds of affection between the child and parents, and the critical roles parents play in satisfying children's needs and the authority structure of the family.

Hyman's (1959 in Renshon (1977)) seminal review of early socialisation literature concluded that foremost among agents of socialisation into politics is the family, though he recognised the importance of other agents. However, both exposure and receptivity do wane as the child matures and is exposed to other agents such as school and peer group.

Hyman's viewpoint relied heavily on both the direct and indirect role of the family in shaping the basic orientations of the child whether the child is conscious or unaware of the impact, either through role modelling process or overt transmission, whether the values are political and directly usable or non-political but transferable.

Other later research works however conclude that the family is only one of the many agents of political socialisation and that its influence is not that great. Connell (1972, in Renshon, 1977) concluded that parents' role in the socialisation process is not that of directly moulding the child's views, but rather, that of

placing the child into socio-political context which resembles that of the parents and not in the parents themselves. An exception to the conclusion is party identification.

It is argued that family influence may not be so great in that politics is rarely the subject of intense interest or discussion in most families. In families where politics is discussed, it probably centres on more concrete political object such as parties and candidates, than on more abstract considerations of policy and ideology. There is indication of potential influence where the parents share political views and where these views are communicated to the child. The above represents the situation in the West. In Nigeria, where there is generally minimal political participation (MAMSER, 1989), the parents are so preoccupied with trying to make the two ends meet and so have little time to discuss politics or civic matters.

The work of Hess, and Torney, (1965, in Renshon, 1977) which was a major report about political socialisation during the elementary years seriously questioned the family's overriding importance. They concluded that the public school was the most important and effective instrument of political socialisation in USA. They saw the family's influence as age specific and restricted in its scope and promote early attachment to the country and government, and which thus ensures the stability of basic institutions. They concluded that much of the socialisation, which results in individual differentiation in everyday political system, lies outside the causal nexus of the parent-child relationship.

(b) **The School**:

Since the time of Plato the importance of school in the development of political values was recognised. Plato (in Renshon,1977) devoted much attention in 'The Republic' to the role of education and childhood training for instilling appropriate civic values in the citizens. He claimed that citizens would believe suitable things about the political order and their place in it if only they received the proper education. He concluded that the cyclical degeneration of politics is traceable to defects in political education.

The school is a recognised and an important agent of political socialisation. The school, because it embarks on a formal socialisation process, has been described as more effective agent than even the family. It is therefore a direct rather than indirect agent and as such transmits its messages in an explicit rather than implicit fashion. Tapper (1976) opined that the school is a formal agent set up by the society to inculcate appropriate forms of political behaviour in their budding citizens. Jaros (1973) viewed the school classroom as relatively susceptible to centralised control unlike other agents which do provide conservative influence and unorthodox political norms.

Almond and Verba (1965); Jennings, Ehman & Niemi (1974); Tapper (1976), support the school as the major instrument in the shaping of political education. Almond and Verba (1965) found that opportunities to participate formally and informally in school decisions led to greater confidence in one's ability to exert influence on political issues. Jennings, Ehman and Niemi (1974) in Renshon, 1977) compared the political views of the individual high school

seniors and their teachers. The result showed transmission of attitudes. However, opinions differ about the particular aspect of the school, which has the major impact. Some researchers in education argue in favour of the Civics course while others say that Civics courses do not have much importance and that the school life (teaching processes, student grouping, social climate, decision-making) is the factor of importance.

Research on influence of the school reveal that schools communicate basic political orientations through the following:

i Formal instruction through Social Studies or Civics courses designed to teach political knowledge and attitudes.

ii Informal learning through extra curricular and patriotic activities. Public holidays, national day, singing of national anthem, reciting of the pledge, saluting the flag, are used to teach respect and love for the nation. Rules of political participation are learnt through classroom discussion, school club activities, and student union activities, voting to elect prefects and class monitors.

iii Peer group interaction in the school

iv Contribution of teachers and principals through the expression of their values within and outside classroom situations, their style of behaviour and attitudes towards the students; help inculcate political values in their students as they identify with particular teachers or principal and adopt the values these significant others are perceived to hold.

The school represents deliberate, conscious attempts of society to socialise the young. African leaders tend to share with Plato the faith that difficulties of development and problems of integration in most African nations have been considered solvable at least in part, through effective, application of a large scale well planned political education. It was suggested by Udoh (1992) that any society that wanted significant changes in social, political, economic and technological values in the society would have to use the educational system.

(c) **The Peer Group**

Peer group according to Jaros (1973) is an effective communicator of traditional and political values. The peer group competes effectively with the family as socialiser to politics and citizenship roles. Due to the close contact, similar status and interest, peer group might out play the family as an agent of political socialisation. Dennis (1973) and Jaros (1973) agree that peer group offers the most influential and most intriguing challenge to the political values taught in the family.

The behaviour of a child can be easily traced to the type of peer group he belongs. This is the group which is looked upon by the individual as equal and with which one can identify oneself. It is usually upon the normal attitudes and culture of the peer group that one's behaviour is ruled. There is peer group influence in the school as well as in the home and in the community at large.

Jaros (1973) identified that peer group influence political socialisation in these ways:

(i) By instilling values particular to a given segment of the population

(ii) By acting as agencies through which the prevailing values are more effectively transmitted or reinforced.

(iii) By developing new and distinctive sub-culture of their own in the particular associated values.

(iv) By promoting non-political features of groups, for example, their authority structures may affect members in ways that have consequences for political behaviour.

The peer group becomes an effective agent of political socialisation of children if members of the group are politically enlightened and if they interact and discuss politics and also if the more politically 'mature' members of the group socialise the 'junior' members into politics.

(d) **The Mass Media**:

The mass media attempt in the main to provide information and stimulate interest, educate and entertain. Mass media present several sides for public examination but avoid taking sides. Mass media play an important role in promoting political socialisation in so far as political knowledge is concerned, but its influence does not extend to overt behaviour such as campaigning activity.

It is clear that exposure to, and some absorption of information and opinion of a political nature enters a developing child's life via the media well before there is much opportunity for overt political behaviour. This is particularly likely to be the case where television news and current affairs or political programmes are available and indeed, almost forcibly intruding into the child's daily life. As Connell (1971, in Renshon, 1973:23) put it, 'children of the

television era develop an extensive acquaintance with the phenomenal surface of politics, although few even in adolescence have any accurate grasp of real balance of political and social forces'.

The research of Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton (in Dennis, 1973) show that young people clearly attribute both information and opinion making powers to the media. Some of the students rate the media as more influential than parents, teachers or peers. The conclusion of Chaffee et.al's study can be summarised as follows:

i That the mass media constitute the principal source of political information for young people of 7th to 10th grade.

ii That the dominant media in political learning are newspapers and television. The relative contribution of the two media may vary with the age, peer group and social economic status of the sample.

iii That young people attribute to the mass media considerable influence on their political opinions in addition to informative power.

iv That intergenerational differences in public affairs, and media use persist into adulthood. The child does not adopt the political media norms of the parents.

That media influences may be to an extent modified by personal interactions, there can be little doubt, mass communication has some direct effects on the developing adolescents.

Media exposure begins at a very young age and seems to be a source of learning political predispositions. Media as a source of information and opinions

to children is brought into a sharp focus through high media use during election campaigns, which predict high knowledge relative to the children's age and peers. In Nigeria, for example, during the 1993 election campaign, the media especially the television was effectively used to the extent that people both young and old became aware. Children of about three years and above became so interested that they were singing political campaign songs. They were seen talking and discussing freely about the then two political parties (N.R.C. and S.D.P.) and their presidential candidates. Some were declaring party preferences. Though the 1999 political campaign did not have the same effect due to the short campaign period and less use of the media, there was increased political awareness.

Some students of political socialisation have tended to ignore the mass media as agent of political socialisation. Dawson and Prewitt (1969) in Schwartz and Schwartz, (1973:310) gave some basic reasons, that they believed limit the importance of mass media as socialising agent. These are:

i The media tend to be merely transmitters, not originators of attitudes, values and information.

ii The media reinforce extant values rather than challenge such values or create new ones.

iii The effect of media tend to be so strongly influenced by opinion leaders such as peer group leaders who interpret the media, and so it is the socialisation influence of these leaders which are emphasised.

iv Mass media messages are received and interpreted in a given social setting that is likely to have more important impact on people's attitudes than any given set of messages or message styles.

Before modern political parties arose in Nigeria, the press was probably the most influential agency for political socialisation among the elite. In the hands of skilful journalists and publicist like late Azikiwe for example, the press was a weapon for criticising and ridiculing the colonial administration. Also it was used for instilling confidence into Nigerians on the basis of achievements of men and women of African descent throughout the world, and for the blue printing plans on various aspects of Nigerian problems, since then, the number of newspapers, magazines in both English and Nigerian languages has grown considerably. According to Ogunsheye (1967) the vitality of the Nigerian press has been a contributory factor to Nigeria's development of a parliamentary form of democratic government during the first Republic and even the present presidential system.

In Nigeria today, the use of the mass media such as newspapers, magazines and other print media, television, radio and satellite have increased tremendously; and have become important agent through which socialisation and political learning take place. However, the mass media in Nigeria need reorientation and should be more involved in providing balanced information and opinion, which could enhance positive political orientation for the children and the public at large.

2.6 Nature and Objectives of Social Studies

There are many definitions of Social Studies, but there is a general agreement that Social Study is the study of man and his environments. The National Council of Social Studies (1916) defined Social Studies as "a field of study which deals with man, his relations with other men and his environment." The Mombasa conference (1968) defined it as "the learning of man and his interactions with his environment." The Committee on Primary Social Studies, Ibadan, (1971) defined Social Studies as "those common learning of man's interaction with his social and physical environment. It is not only study but a way of life, of how man influences and is influenced by his physical, social, political, economic, psychological and cultural environments."

In all definitions of Social Studies, three common features are stressed. These are: man himself or the individual; his relationships or interactions within the society (other men); and his interactions with the environment.

As an aspect of the nature of Social Studies, it integrates and uses knowledge of History, Geography, Economics, Political Science, Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, Science, Music, Literature, Religion, Art and Current Affairs. NERC (1980) affirmed the nature of Social Studies as deriving its knowledge, attitudes and values, skills and methods from the Social Sciences and Natural Sciences. However, Dubey (1980) explained that Social Studies is not an amalgamation of these subjects but each discipline becomes a tool in the mastery of Social Studies concepts and in the understanding and application of its method.

Okobiah (1984) described Social Studies as "an interdisciplinary curriculum that attempts to unify knowledge from the various disciplines in dealing with social problems of health, family, relations, civic affairs, community life, production, consumption, recreation, conservation, etc.

Udoh (1984) in his work enumerated that a basic principle of Social Studies is to help the individual understand his society and adjust to its problems and changes. The nature of Social Studies is that it embodies and accepts as its guiding principles, the national educational aims and objectives and the problem of human development and useful existence in the society. Udoh (1984) identified the main area of difference between Social Studies and other disciplines in its integrated concept and methodology, the objective coverage and in the scope of the curriculum. The scope of Social Studies is much broader and general while that of Social Sciences is narrow and in depth. In terms of the objectives, Social Studies goes beyond the cognitive domain but includes the affective and psychomotor domains. Social studies does not claim differences from other Social Sciences in terms of basic curriculum content since they operate within the same conceptual framework viz man and his relationships. Social Studies experts are Social Scientists who apply the necessary tools of research to make their own discoveries and to contribute to learning and knowledge.

Okobiah (1984) observed that Social Studies is the modern attempt at an integrated study of a topic, a problem, an issue, a concern or an assumption. Social Studies is a subject through which man learns about problems of survival

in his environment. While the total school programme contributes to education for citizenship; Social Studies as a subject that has citizenship as its main goal, has a particular responsibility in this regard. Also Social Studies at the JSS provides background knowledge for the study of Geography, Economics, Government and History at the Senior Secondary.

Social Studies offers the individual critical consciousness which enables him to perceive social, political and economic contradictions one has to take action against the oppressive elements of reality. Social Studies deals with important problems of national unity, ethnic tolerance, economic development and international understanding. At the same time it also prepares students for the understanding of everyday problems that they will face as adult citizens in their own communities.

Although Social Studies is not expected to make 'good citizens' out of all who learn it, it is expected that the programme will have some impact on the behaviour of the citizens as they address themselves to the civic, social and political affairs. Thus, through Social Studies, students are expected to develop perspectives, insights, understandings, values and skills necessary to the conduct of affairs in the society.

Objectives of Social Studies

The general objectives of Social Studies in the Nigerian schools can be categorised into four broad areas (Uche, 1980).

Humanistic education - helping the child to comprehend life.

Citizenship education - preparing the child for social responsibility.

Intellectual education - introducing the child to the modes of thinking and inquiry of the Social Science.

Value education – inculcating in the individual some societal expected behaviours and group activities, attitudes, values and feelings.

Based on the national aims and objectives of education, the Social Studies sub-committee of the Joint Consultation Committee (JCC) on secondary education (1982) proposed the following as the broad aims and goals of Social Studies.

A major aspiration of every country is the desire for rapid development which naturally depends on many factors. The development of Nigerian society would depend on among other things the quality of leadership, followership, resources endowments, the use of science and technology, rational utilisation of our human and natural resources, honesty and self discipline and above all unity, and stability of the nation. The committee has recognised as a fundamental problem how to integrate the above array of factors into a coherent learning structure for younger generation. It is the view of the committee that in evolving general objectives, attempt should be made to understand issues originating from evolving the above and should among others emphasize the development of a stronger sense of responsibility and effective citizenship. It should also take into account the experiences of the child from the primary school (Okobiah, 1984).

Objectives of the secondary school Social Studies:

Through Social Studies the students should be able to:-

1. Develop a capacity to learn to acquire basic skills including those of listening, reading, speaking, writing and calculation; together with those of observation, analysis and inference which are essential to the formation of sound judgement.
2. Ensure the acquisition of the relevant body of knowledge and information, which is an essential prerequisite to personal development, and to the making of a positive contribution to the betterment of the society as a whole.
3. Create an awareness and understanding of our physical environment and the evolving social and cultural processes.
4. Develop the ability for a rational utilisation of our cultural, spiritual and natural resources and their conservation for national development.
5. Appreciate the diversity and inter-dependence of all members of the local and that national communities and the need for co-operation for the unity of the country and international understanding.
6. Inculcate positive attitudes, appropriate values of honesty, integrity, hard work, fairness, justice and togetherness for the development of the nation.

2.7 **Historical Perspectives of Social Studies**

Social Studies has become a tool for national development and is used in various societies as a partial solution to some of their societal problems. Social Studies therefore has evolved out of the concern for a national purpose. According to Kissock (1981), in the USA and Canada, Social Studies' primary

function was that of preparing students for effective citizenship. In West Germany, Social Studies was initiated after World War II as a means of developing a new political order. In Great Britain Social Studies was used to prepare students for their social and political role in society. Thailand used Social Studies to foster individual and national development. In Japan Social Studies was used to build a foundation for a democratic society. While in African nations Social Studies was introduced as a corrective study to offset the colonial education which was irrelevant to the needs of the individual and the society.

The initial development of Social Studies education was in the USA and could be traced to the 1916 report of the Social Studies Committee of the Commission on the reorganisation of secondary school education titled "The Social Studies in secondary education". With this report Social Studies achieved legitimate status as a curricular subject in the school and became a required course in the primary and post primary institutions in the USA (Udoh, 1983).

The globalization of the subject led by the USA continued through the interaction between educators in different countries. The National Council for Social Studies (NCSS) in the USA had in addition to its domestic membership, members in sixty countries. The NCSS had encouraged a number of activities to share views on the subject. It organised conventions during which educators from member nations for example Britain, Japan, Thailand, West Germany and Nigeria presented papers. The schools council working paper number 30, 1971 brought a concrete improvement in Social Studies in Great Britain (Udoh, 1983).

DuBey and Barth (1980) reported that Social Studies came to Africa by the way of Britain. In 1967 at a conference held at Queens College, Oxford, England, Social Studies for Africa was first discussed. The conference was attended by a group of educators from Africa. The needs and priorities in Social Studies curriculum development in Africa were discussed. The proceedings of the conference resulted in the Mombasa conference in 1968 which planted the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP). The ASSP which began as an international organisation with fifteen member countries had its headquarters in Nairobi, Kenya. It was charged with the responsibility of encouraging the development of as well as co-ordinating the Social Studies programme in Africa.

The introduction of Social Studies in the schools in Africa was based on the rationale that its teaching would inculcate in African children the concept of Pan Africanism and eradicate the colonial legacies which were detrimental to African culture. Udoh (1984) emphasised the view that the foundation of Social Studies are the experiences of man and in his relationships with his various environments is basic of African and Nigerian Social Studies. It is not therefore surprising that all over the continent Social Studies has been defined in relation to the above concept. In the 1960's, conferences and projects were organised in the effort to forge an educational programme that would incorporate Social Studies. The collective effort pursued by the ASSP aimed at encouraging Social Studies cohesion. Consequently, it emphasized particularly the common identity, common goals and the importance of unity and co-operative group activities as

members of a group, a village, a town, a nation and Africa as well as people of the same world (ASSP Newsletter, 1976).

The activities of the member nations of the ASSP were monitored by an executive secretary at the headquarters. The ASSP organised meetings and conferences to which member nations sent delegates. It also organised workshops for retraining teachers of Social Studies and processed books for member nations.

There are similarities in the curricular (content, aims and objectives) of Social Studies in most African countries as reported by Adewole (1977) and Udoh (1983). Countries like Botswana, Swaziland, Zambia, Uganda, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Lesotho, Liberia, Ghana, Ethiopia, Tanzania and Kenya started Social Studies programmes very similar to that of Nigeria. The following are among the main aims and objectives found in the syllabi of the above countries: the inculcation of concepts of unity, nationalism, patriotism and independence; an understanding in the students of the problems of the economic, cultural, social and political development of the nation, Africa and the world as well as to show their inter-relationships; the development of positive attitudes and values, unity and integration of knowledge and life in the society; apart from the development of various skills.

Udoh (1983) stated that "the rapidly changing societies of Africa present problems which all citizens are expected to participate in proposing solutions. Only as socially intelligent and well informed citizens can such a responsibility be

shouldered." The preparation of citizens for this function is what the school is supposed to achieve through Social Studies in co-operation with other agents.

2.8 Approaches to The Teaching of Social Studies for Political Socialisation

Generally Social Studies aims at broadening the horizons of the learner by making him increasingly aware of the nature, purpose and functions of societal institutions, legislation and government. Social Studies inculcates in the learner, a deeper insight into the interrelationships between people and nations and the mechanism by which individuals and nations try to satisfy their needs in the midst of scarce resources.

According to Obayan (1985) effective teaching of Social Studies in the junior secondary school should among others enable the learner to:

(i) understand the main features of the structure of government and the economy of the society.

(ii) relate his immediate society to other societies with which it interacts.

(iii) identify alternative strategies for running both the government, the economy and social institutions.

(iv) draw appropriate lessons from other patterns of government, economic and social organisations.

(v) take enlightened decisions on social, economic and political issues.

Obayan (1985) maintained that the above could be achieved through:

(a) The training of students to observe people in action in the society

(b) The training of students to see relations between social and political phenomena.

(c) The training of the students to analyse and draw their own conclusions or make social judgement on social, political and economic issues.

(d) There should be more emphasis on the informal processes of the political system, that is, great attention should be focussed on group struggle for power within a certain institutional framework instead of simply describing in legal and historical fashion the formal characteristics of the major political institutions. The student should be given opportunity to observe, analyse and make inferences, all which are essential to the formation of sound judgement.

The actual realisation of Social Studies objectives generally and that of political socialisation in particular will very much depend on the teacher factor. The way and manner he teaches. Is he democratic or authoritative in the teaching approach? Does he allow students to practice the values taught both within and outside class? It is essential that teachers responsible for political education be dedicated and have belief in the Nigerian way and also promote loyalty by inculcating the attitudes of dedication and loyalty in their students. The total culture of the school itself must be conducive to learning of the above. For instance, a democratic or authoritarian school culture is bound to influence the students political attitude accordingly.

Okam (1998) suggested that in order to achieve the objective of political socialisation and citizenship, the effective teacher of Social Studies needs to

adopt progressive methods of teaching, such as demonstrating a high degree of professional expertise and good understanding of Social Studies content. Also, the teacher needs to closely relate the subject matter of the basic needs and lives of the students and himself or as he presents the lesson from integrated interdisciplinary perspectives. He should propagate and improve the culture of the society both within and outside the classroom. The committed Social Studies teacher should endeavour to inculcate in the students, social skills which require them to transmit values such as political, cultural, moral, social, economic and religious. In his planning and execution of lessons, the teacher should bear in mind the philosophy and objectives of the subject by motivating, managing and controlling teaching and learning situations. Apart from helping students acquire socio political values, the teacher should help them think critically.

For socialisation of the JSS students into the political culture to be effective, more is required than merely cognitive awareness of prevailing societal values. The individual student must internalise those values. That is, he must accept these values as his own because he judges them to be good and proper. Thus in USA, for example, any politician upon losing an election, still would not consider contesting the verdict by use of force because he has internalised the notion that elections must be decided by ballots and not bullets. The situation in Nigeria is different from the above. The citizens especially the young ones who are the future leaders need to internalise democratic ideals, societal norms, values and beliefs and also be prepared to practice desirable civic responsibilities.

Udoh (1992) highlighted the major problem that needs to be overcome in order for the goal of citizenship to be achieved in Nigeria as the lack of political honesty. Nigerian children from very early ages are exposed to conflicting experiences in our political behaviour. Our leaders and even teachers do not practice what they preach. Social Studies teaches the values of honesty, the child is surrounded by corruption from the classroom to the national leadership.

Social Studies in Nigerian context should assist the youth to cultivate political and social awareness, which could transform them into good citizens. In order to achieve this objective, emphasis must be placed on the techniques of inquiry and discovery methods, inductive and deductive approaches. The students need to participate in role-playing, group and panel discussions, simulations, field trips, case studies, interviews and research activities. Students should be educated to think through problems, discuss controversial current issues and arrive at judicious decisions and agreement through a rational approach to the resolution of such issues.

2.9 An Analysis of JSS Social Studies Programme

The following is an analysis of the course units that focus on the tenets of political socialisation.

Cooperation and Conflict (JSS I Unit C)

This unit deals with the importance of co-operation between individuals and the states in Nigeria. The role of cooperation and social responsibility in keeping society united is emphasised. The consequences of non-cooperation

(conflict) are to be discussed. The need for moral and social responsibility of individuals in the society is to be emphasised.

Civic Rights and Responsibilities (JSS I, Unit E)

The unit deals with various civic rights and responsibilities of Nigerians as guaranteed by the constitution. The unit focuses on the general, legal, and civic rights, and obligations of the individual which include: right to vote and be voted for; right to own property; right to live in any part of the country; freedom of association; freedom of expression; freedom of worship. The obligations include: payment of taxes; obedience to the laws of the land; settling bills such as NEPA bills, water rates, vehicle licences; reporting of thieves and law breakers to the police. The responsibilities of the individual in the social institutions are emphasised through the concepts of attitude to work; commitment, dedication, punctuality, efficiency, civility and service, helping the needy and old people and other moral obligations. The civic functions of various voluntary organisations such as Boys Scouts, Red Cross, WAI Brigade and religious organisations; consequences of non-fulfilment of the obligations are dealt with.

Culture and Identity (JSS I Unit, F, JSS II Unit, H)

The two units focus on culture and identity. The concept of culture and its aspects are emphasised. The material culture which refers to man's technology or products of man's industry or art; the non-material culture which include language, religion, tradition, music are emphasised. Concept of identity and levels of identity such as family, age group, cultural group, state level and national level are dealt with. Concept of integration especially when applied to

people and the necessity of integrating a country's people are emphasised. Reasons for unity in diversity in Nigeria are to be discussed.

Nigerian Cultural Patterns and Their Historical Origin (JSS I Unit, G)

The unit exposes the learners to the various ethnic groups of the country and their cultural characteristics as well as their historical origins, such as legends and folklore; cultural behaviours such as songs, dances, arts and crafts. The study includes why some ethnic groups are more dispersed than others. The unit is to enable the citizen to be conversant with his roots, the history and culture of the whole nation in order to appreciate the problem he is to be a part of solving.

Common Heritage and National Symbols (JSS I Unit, H)

The unit focuses on appreciation of the common traits of the various ethnic groups in Nigeria. The different traits of the people include traditional institutions like chieftaincy, religion, marriage, cultural practices and festivals. These are recognised and respected by government. The common traits include common economic experience, common citizenship, common social institutions, common historical and political experience. The unifying effects of the common traits are emphasised.

National symbols which are created to preserve or develop national and local traits include national flag, the national anthem, the Nigerian coat of arms, the pledge, the Nigerian passport, the Nigerian currency, special stamps, medals, register of heroes and heroines, national awards, national ceremonies,

N.Y.S.C., and federal institutions. The importance of each of the above is discussed.

Leadership, Followership and Consequences (JSS II Unit, C)

In this unit the qualities and types of leadership and followership are identified as well as the processes of identifying and choosing leaders. Consequences of good leadership and followership and their negation are emphasised through the teaching of: the role of co-operation and social responsibility; loyalty, obedience; self discipline; leadership and followership complementing each other in preserving the norms, tradition, regulations, constitution and recognition of the rights of others to societal goods and services.

Development (JSS II Unit, D)

The concept as well as different aspects of development are to be discussed. The study on development covers all aspects of national life including political, social, economic and cultural. Distinctions between development and growth are identified. The focus is Nigeria.

Societal Changes Over Time (JSS II Unit, E)

This unit focuses on various aspects and the factors responsible for societal changes especially in the political and economic systems in Nigeria. The emphasis is on the basic features of the political organisations, economic and socio-cultural systems in Nigeria before and after independence. Effects of British political control are to be stressed.

Social Environment (JSS III Unit, B)

In this unit, the idea of a community, processes of community development and relationship between the family and the community; inter-community relationship, urban/urban relationship, rural/rural relationship; urban/rural relationship in the economic, political and administrative realms are discussed. Inter-relationship of nations are also to be identified and discussed.

Institutions (JSS III, Unit, C)

This unit introduces the students to the structure and functions of legal (courts and police), political (the 3 tiers of government - federal, state and local); the National Assembly - Senate and House of Representatives, and state houses of assembly) and economic (markets, banks, factories) and religious institutions in Nigeria. For each institution field trips to relevant places are highly recommended.

Socialisation: Its Agents and Processes (JSS III Unit, D)

The unit deals with the concept of socialisation and role of each agent of socialisation i.e. family, school, peer group and mass media values which socialisation inculcates through its agents such as - honesty, tolerance, self-discipline, team work, moral values are areas of concern of this unit. Patterns of group behaviour - similarities and differences in group behaviour are recognised and discussed.

Lack of Co-operation and Its Effects (JSS III Unit, E)

In this unit, factors contributing to social and political instability are identified, such as crime, inefficiency, selfishness, indiscipline, bribery, nepotism, corruption. How each contributes to social and political instability is discussed.

In terms of adequacy and relevance, the curriculum content is integrative in nature as well as interdisciplinary. It uses most social science concepts and generalisations in addressing social, economic and political issues. The curriculum gives a broad exposure to the students in all aspects of political education through such units as civic rights and responsibilities, leadership and followership, national symbols, and through concepts such as: loyalty, honesty, team work, citizenship, tolerance, interdependence and group living.

Out of the twenty-four units that make up the entire JSS Social Studies curriculum, thirteen units are identified as directly teaching the tenets of political socialisation thus, contributing to students' political socialisation. In terms of coverage, that is quite good. However, the curriculum does not focus on the Nigerian constitution the knowledge of which is very crucial for every citizen. Above all, the objective of Nigerianising the curriculum may not be achieved as certain topics were omitted, such as political ideology, role of ethnic and religious conflicts.

2.10 Empirical Studies That Have Bearing On This Study

This section presents a review of empirical studies on JSS Social Studies curriculum and political socialisation of children from pre-primary to pre-university levels in different cultural settings; these are the West, Africa and Nigeria.

(a) **Review of Related Studies in USA and Europe**:

Greenstein (1965) carried out an empirical survey of the political socialisation of school children in New Haven. 659 children in Grade Four to Eight were selected from different socio economic backgrounds. He made use of questionnaires and tape-recorded interviews as his research tools.

Greenstein (1965) reported the following findings: Children became aware of national and local government before understanding the state government, also they were aware of and understood the executive before the legislature at each of these tiers of government. Children assessed political leaders (President, Prime Minister, Governor or Mayor) favourably and held them in high esteem. Children from upper socio-economic background tend to be more politicised, presented a capacity and motivation for political participation. Boys were more politically informed and showed more interest in politics than girls.

Greenstein (1965) explained that orientations learnt at an early stage tend to have reciprocal effects on adult attitudes, because early learning during the formative period affects later learning. He suggested that the inference to be drawn in the studies of political socialisation of children is that political awareness occurs relatively early in a child's life and varies with factors such as age, intelligence and gender.

The present study investigated the relationship between age, socio-economic status, gender and students' political socialisation.

Easton and Dennis (1969) carried out a developmental study on political socialisation of children by studying the year by year shift in their political

orientation, for the purpose of finding out when and under which circumstances children began to acquire political learning. The sample was made up of 12,052 urban white children aged seven to fourteen. The children were purposively selected from eight elementary schools (four large and four small) in four major geographical regions, the Mid-west, Far-east, North-east and South east.

The following are the major findings:

- 73% of the children from second grade showed an understanding of the idea of government and has an overview of structure of authority
- At the early years of primary school children had become aware of an external power that demands obedience and some respect.
- Children by the middle grades identified the congress as the chief law-making body and as representative symbol of American government.

As children matured, they got more politicised. Children's high affect for government increased with age as children had more knowledge about the political world. The President was the best-known political authority and he was described as likeable, benevolent, trustworthy and powerful.

Children had respect for the policemen but this declined as they matured. Easton and Dennis (1969) however pointed out that this does not apply where the police symbolises force, brutality and persecution.

A study that is of particular relevance to the present study is that of Torney, Oppenhelm and Farnen (1975). In their study of civic education in 10 countries sampled over 30,000 students at three age levels (age 10, age 14 and age 16); as well as 5,000 teachers in 1,300 schools. Two different tests were

applied to the students. These are: Civics Cognitive Test and Attitude Test. Questionnaires were applied to the teachers of Civics education in order to assess the learning conditions and the teachers' personal data.

They reported the following findings:

The widely - held objective of producing loyal, well informed, critical and actively participating democratic citizens was not successfully attained in any of the countries in the study. In some (USA and Israel) there was a nationalistic pattern of strong support for the central government but below - average support for democratic values. In Germany and Netherlands there was strong support for democratic values, but below average support for the central government.

There were few differences between the responses on the average, by boys and girls.

There were few differences on the average by children from different socio-economic backgrounds.

Adolescent rebelliousness was not an important factor.

Participation in civic - related activities did not seem to be very important in students' performance. Students who reported frequent participation in patriotic activities were both less knowledgeable and less democratic in their outlook.

"Traditional" schools with strong emphasis on memorising facts produced students who tended to be less knowledgeable and informed about politics.

Specific classroom practices were less important than what is often called the 'classroom climate'. More knowledgeable, less authoritarian, and more interested

students came from schools where they were encouraged to have free discussions and to express their opinions in class.

Students who reported having frequent political discussions with teachers were not necessarily more democratic in their attitudes.

Students who were interested in radio or television programmes dealing with Civics-related topics were more knowledgeable and more democratic on the scale. The question was, which came first? Did these programmes arouse students' interest, or did they become interested in such programs because of what they learnt in school?

Students' mental development was of crucial importance. Their intelligence and their command of English contributed to the level of performance.

In terms of the cognitive realm, students at all levels tested in the survey were relatively poorly informed about many aspects of their government and international affairs. Some incorrect alternatives were chosen with disturbingly high frequency, suggesting that students had some misconceptions about democracy, their government and global politics.

Teachers stressed factual learning, often from textbooks but did not encourage discussion of controversial issues in a way which would enable learners to understand and to manage beliefs, values and point of views very different from their own and to work with people holding such views.

The number of years that Civics or Social Studies was included in the students' curriculum of study did not have any effect on students' attitudes and knowledge about civic matters.

Political structures, policy decisions, teachers' educational methods all exert influence.

Torney et al (1975) cautioned that the domain of civic education is different from other school subjects and that it presents a special challenge because of its serious emphasis upon attitudinal or affective outcomes as well as upon cognitive ones.

Torney et al's work has a lot of bearing on the present study. Both are studies on political or civic education of school children mainly in the secondary schools. The two studies focus on the role of the school through the teaching of Civics, Social Studies or Political Education in producing well informed, actively participating democratic citizens. There are similarities in the research methodology and instruments. This study also used two tests: Political Socialisation Cognitive Test, and Political Socialisation Affective Test, as well as questionnaires for the teachers.

Stacey (1978) reviewed a lot of studies on children's political socialisation especially in the Western societies.

The following are the major reports:

- The young child's direct involvement with political system begins before primary school. For example, in the policeman the child encounters a power outside the family to which even parents are a subordinate.

- Children begin to acquire feelings of national identification and loyalty before they attend primary school. For example, from among about twenty flags of various countries, the United States of American flag was

liked best by kindergarten children in New York. Similarly, in England, the British flag was liked best by a greater percentage of four year olds. In both cases children said their country was the best in the world.

- Children tend to see government in terms of personalities. They first become aware of government and political authority through individuals (President, governor, Head of state...). By age twelve the typical child in the western society would have developed:

- a fairly solid world picture;

- a firm sense of nationality and race;

- some knowledge of the class structure, the prestige of occupation and which class he belongs;

- a rudimentary ideology of power and strength, "friends" and "enemies" at home and abroad;

- an awareness of the existence of political parties, elections and voting, the head of state and government; and possibly some commitment to a political party.

- Some of the more important political orientations reach near-adult levels by age 12 or 13.

During the years of primary school, the children "move from almost complete ignorance of adult politics to awareness of both the more conspicuous features of the political arena and the leading political figures." Also with regard to basic commitment to the nation, the influence of the school years of childhood are for a majority of children, not only formative but in good measure enduring.

The relevance of Stacey's work on the present study lies first on the fact that the two are surveys of children's political socialisation. Secondly, the findings and conclusion of the work are hardly surprising in view of the present study that views Social Studies teaching as an important channel for effective political socialisation of children.

b **Review of Related Studies in Africa**

The study of Koff, Mullen and Prewitt (In Dennis, 1973) was a comparative analysis of political socialisation in three East African countries of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. It was an educational and citizenship study which also represented a preliminary and descriptive presentation of data relevant to many unanswered questions about political socialisation in African nations.

A central feature of the study was the administration of an extensive questionnaire concerning citizenship and the political socialisation of more than ten thousand primary and post primary school children in the three countries.

The major findings of the survey are:

- The students generally in all the three countries showed little evidence of being highly politicised (since politics to the secondary school students is still a spectacle, not a vital determinant of their daily routines).
- About 50% of the respondents mentioned interest in government while about 90% in all the three countries seem committed to an active "interventionist" role as a citizen, that is, they were ready to make constructive criticisms about their government.
- Hard work was rated higher than political activism.

-Crucial obligation of citizenship such as paying taxes took second place for many of students to the fulfilment of specific obligations within the family (91% in Uganda, Kenya = 59%, Tanzania = 39%).

- The primary school children thought that most laws were good and that government did not often make mistakes, secondary school students were less positive in their faith in the government's wisdom; but they were neither cynical.

- The students themselves ranked citizenship training as the most important purpose that schools can serve

- The exposure to the educational systems of the three countries had not yet produced the model citizen the nations might hope for. At least a foundation had been laid.

The authors' conclusion was that the students could be rated as closer to being "citizens" than "subjects" according to Almond and Verba (1965) classification.

The study in review has a lot of bearing on this study in that both are based on African background. The focus and objectives of the two studies are similar. This study investigated the impact that the children's exposure to Social Studies education had on their political knowledge and attitudes.

(c) **Review of Related Empirical Studies in Nigeria**

The study of DuBey (1972) was one of the earliest studies on students' socialisation in Nigeria. The main focus of the study was the impact of schooling on the socialisation of post primary students in Northern Nigeria. The main

instrument used was an attitude questionnaire administered to 1,130 students in the 26 schools made up of 19 Teachers' Training Colleges and 7 secondary schools. The student respondents were stratified into middle Belters and far Northerners according to their socio-cultural area of origin. Principals of the selected schools were interviewed for additional data. 120 non-student respondents were involved through a structured interview translated into Hausa for comparative purposes.

The findings showed that teachers colleges had some positive impact on the attitudinal modernity and alienation of the students. The study revealed that generally, the post primary educational institutions helped toward the development of citizenry and the society. Other findings of the study are that students in the Middle Belt were the most modern, while the females in this area were the most modern. Students who were low in socio economic status (SES), participation aspiration were the most modern, while those who were high on the three personal variable were the most modern. DuBey observed that students who came from where schooling was institutionalised tended to be more socialised than those from where schooling was not institutionalised.

DuBey's (1972) study has a bearing on this study. First, it identified the role of educational institutions in promoting citizenry. Secondly, the study examined the role of some personal variables such as gender, geographical location and socio-economic status on socialisation. The present study also examined the impact of Social Studies education on the political socialisation of JSS students as well as the influence of gender, school type, geographical

location, SES, and learning conditions on the political socialisation of the students.

Agboola (1985) investigated the political socialisation of 1,320 primary and secondary school children in three states in Nigeria (Kaduna, Oyo, Niger). The year by year shifts in the political orientations and political developments of the children were observed through the use of a questionnaire for primary five to form five and as structured interview for primary one to four.

The major findings of the study are:

- The level of education of the respondents seemed to have an appreciable impact on the cognitive and affective, that is, those children in higher classes were more politically developed (knowledge and attitudes).

Parents' occupation had an appreciable impact on the cognitive component. The children whose parents were managers, directors or big contractors were the most politically developed and had most positive political orientations. They performed best on the cognitive test while children whose parents were small traders, messengers or clerks performed the least and were described as having negative political orientation. Rural-urban dichotomy seemed to have an appreciable impact on the evaluative component only; that is, school children in rural area tend to be more positively politically socialised than those in urban area.

Ethnic group seemed to have impact on the cognitive and affective components, that is, the ethnic groups of the respondents affected their political orientations. Gender also had an appreciable impact on the cognitive and

affective components. The male respondents were significantly more positive in their political orientations than the female respondents. Religion however seemed to have no appreciable impact on any of the three components. Children in primary one to four were more or less not effectively politically socialised. Effective political socialisation starts at about primary five and gets fully developed from primary six onwards.

Agboola's (1985) study is relevant to this study. The two studies are on political socialisation of school children in Nigeria, but there are differences Agboola's (1985) study covered 3 states and 6 schools while this study covered 6 states and 18 schools based on the 6 geopolitical zones in Nigeria. This study is more national in approach. Agboola (1985) used a questionnaire while this study used two tests (cognitive and affective) covering a wider scope of the JSS Social Studies curriculum. This study involved the Social Studies teachers through a questionnaire devise but Agboola (1985) did not involve the teachers in his study.

Madubuike (1985) investigated the impact of teaching Social Studies on the development of good citizenship qualities in students. To achieve that, questionnaires reflecting citizenship characteristics were designed and used. 120 teachers of Social Studies and 300 final year students of post primary institutions in 15 Local Government Areas in the then Anambra State were involved in the study.

The study revealed that through Social Studies education the students learned and demonstrated good citizenship characteristics in spite of the fact that

some of the teachers were not trained in Social Studies. Madubuike's work focussed on using Social Studies for citizenship training among post primary students while this study suggests that Social Studies can be used for political socialisation of JSS students. It is expected that with more trained Social Studies teachers teaching the subject, it will contribute more meaningfully to the political socialisation of the students.

Boateng (1985) evaluated the cognitive readiness of Social Studies teachers in selected secondary schools in Lagos State. The result of the study indicated that the teachers of Social Studies in Lagos State had high and strong perceptions of Social Studies. However, very few methods were used in teaching the subject, these were mainly lecture and discussion. Problems' approach or reflective inquiry method recommended as the best for teaching Social Studies were rarely used if at all. As a result of that, the objectives of Social Studies were not completely achieved.

Boateng's study is considered relevant to this study in that it focused on JSS Social Studies curriculum and the role of the teachers while this study appraised the JSS Social Studies curriculum with specific focus on political education. Also the effective teaching of Social Studies is considered important in order to achieve the goal of political socialisation.

Okam (1988) focussed on student-teachers' perception of the Social Studies programme for Teachers' Grade Two in Nigeria. 2,450 final year students and 211 Social Studies teachers in Anambra, Bauchi, Borno, Kaduna, Niger and Ondo were involved in the study. The major issues the study focussed

on were the extent to which students perceived the Social Studies content; and whether the Social Studies teachers themselves mastered the content and method of Social Studies in order to teach it effectively. Three sets of questionnaires were made use of as well as interview in collecting the data.

The findings of the study showed that the student teachers exhibited low level of Social Studies education, which consequently produced less than positive perceptions with regard to content and methods in the subject area. There were very low self-ratings with regards to the students"-teachers' classroom activities. There was a general low level of Social Studies education among many Social Studies teachers, which also produced low self-ratings of their own classroom activities in Social Studies. The study revealed that many of the students and their teachers lacked a good understanding of the subject and effective methods of teaching it.

In view of the findings of the study, it is pertinent that teachers should be academically and professionally qualified before teaching any subject. Okam's study has a bearing on this study because the way a teacher perceives the Social Studies programme, the methodology, whatever he does or does not do, affect the students, since political knowledge and attitudes can be passed on directly or indirectly.

Another related study is that of Tita (1991). He evaluated the JSS Social Studies programme in selected secondary schools in Plateau State. Tita examined both the cognitive and affective domains, which this study examined also. Tita's study revealed that students performed poorly, that is, below the

achievement levels as envisaged by the researcher. The students performed equally in both cognitive and affective tasks. There was significant difference in performance as a result of urban or rural location as students in urban schools performed better than the others both in the cognitive and affective tests.

There was significant relationship between male and female performance in the cognitive, that is, there was equal or about equal performance by boys and girls. There was a difference in performance by male and female in the affective tasks in that the females performed better. The assumption that female students internalise values and attitudes and exhibit same more than male students stands as revealed by the study. He also reported that the students taught by qualified teachers did not perform significantly better than those taught by unqualified teachers though there were slight higher performance by students taught by qualified teachers. Tita's conclusion was that the JSS Social Studies curriculum content was deficient without suggesting which areas needed improvement and recommending what to be done.

Galadima's (1991) study has bearing on this study in that it studied the impact of Social Studies education on the development of effective citizenship, while this study focused on the impact of Social Studies on the political socialisation of children. The study assumed that the Social Studies teacher has a significant impact on the development of effective citizenship through formal teaching of Social Studies. A total of 150 teachers from 15 schools in Chanchaga Local Government Area of Niger State were involved in the study.

The results of the study revealed that teachers of Social Studies assessed Social Studies education as the best medium through which the development of good citizenship could be effectively achieved. A rather unexpected finding of the study was that teachers of Social Studies who specialise in the subject did not significantly teach better than those who were non Social Studies specialists. An important recommendation by Galadima is the use of inquiry method approach, which involves the use of democratic classroom procedures. It is evident from the findings that even professionally qualified teachers of Social Studies must be ready to change over from the traditional methods of teaching to the modern approaches recommended by Social Studies experts.

Adewoye (1991) evaluated the JSS Social Studies curriculum in Zaria Educational Zone. In the study, she investigated to what extent the broad objectives of the JSS Social Studies curriculum was achieved as well as how Social Studies was being taught in the four selected schools and the classroom environment. Classroom observation as well as questionnaires for SS I students and Social Studies teachers were made use of. However, in determining the curriculum effectiveness the Continuous Assessment scores of JSS I to III was used.

The following are the major findings of the study:

-Over 60% of the student respondents expressed satisfaction with the programme and rated the programme objectives as being achieved.

- The following were identified as the major strengths of the Social Studies programme: knowledge of the environment, enhancing national

integration, appreciation of societal values, preservation of culture, citizenship learning and appreciation of political institutions.

- A number of problems were identified by the teachers; these include: Social Studies not having an identity of its own; narrow treatment of subject matter; insufficient teachers who specialise in Social Studies, syllabus being too broad, content non-challenging; a wide gap between expectations and realities in the classroom.

Another finding was that there was no noticeable difference between the trained, experienced and the untrained teachers in the teaching approach, as she put it, "each teacher was doing his or her own thing in the classroom." This has an implication for teacher educators. There is a need to focus more seriously on lesson preparation and mini teaching to try out various modern techniques of teaching as part of the training of teachers.

The study has some bearings on this study in that both studies are evaluation of JSS Social Studies curriculum. In Adewoye's study, the continuous assessment scores of the students were used to determine the effectiveness of the curriculum. This study used the scores of the students on the Political Socialisation Tests (cognitive and affective) to determine the curriculum effectiveness.

2.11 **Summary**

In this chapter the related works in the area of political socialisation of school children as well as the theoretical basis for the study were reviewed.

Particular attention was paid to the empirical studies on children's political socialisation in the West, Africa and more specifically Nigeria which is the focus of this study.

The research findings from the West show that by age twelve the typical child has developed a fair sense of nationality, race, class structure, prestige of occupations, a rudimentary ideology of power and authority; and an awareness of the existence of political parties, elections, voting, president and government, and possibly a commitment to a political party. Many researchers including Torney et al (1975) and Koff, Muhll and Prewitt (1973) reported that in terms of cognitive realm, the children were relatively poorly informed about their government and international affairs; and also performed poorly in the political socialisation or civic education tests. There were similar reports in Nigeria by Okam (1988), Ismaila (1980); Boateng (1985) and Galadima (1991) that children perform poorly in Social Studies tests.

It is generally and severally reported that Social Studies teachers in the West and Africa including Nigeria stress factual learning often from textbooks and do not encourage discussion of controversial issues. Torney et al (1975); Koff et al (1973); Stacey (1978); Galadima (1991), Boateng (1985), Abdulkareem (1986); Adekeye (1979) and Adekeye (1986) reported that majority of Social Studies teachers in Nigeria use lecture and discussion methods but rarely use the inquiry method which is recommended by Social Studies experts.

Many of the research works reviewed agree that the school through its teaching formally and through informal interactions inculcate into the children

political knowledge and attitudes which can transform them into enlightened, loyal and patriotic citizens.

According to Easton and Dennis (1968) and Stacey (1978) the inference to be drawn from the studies on political socialisation of children, is that political awareness occurs relatively early in a child's life and varies with factors such as age, intelligence, gender and socio-economic status (SES). Orientations learnt at an early age tend to have reciprocal effects on adult attitudes because early learning during the formative period affects later learning. It is emphasised that effective citizens can be 'made' through a deliberate school curriculum.

This study makes a lot of contributions to knowledge. These include the contributions of Social Studies as a core subject designed for achieving the tenets of political socialisation among young learners for the purpose of grooming them into effective citizens as envisaged in the National Policy on Education (1981).

The study endorses prevalence of positive orientation in terms of, affection regarding a commitment to the tenets of political socialisation. This is an important development.

The researcher through this study has developed two instruments to test J.S.S. III students' political knowledge, political attitudes, values and skills. These are Political Socialisation Cognitive Test (PSCT) and Political Socialisation Affective Test (PSAT).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

3.0 Introduction

This chapter described the design and the procedure that were used in this study. The areas covered include the design of the study, population, sample and sampling procedure, instrumentation, procedure for data collection and the procedure for data analysis.

3.1 Research Method and Design

A research design can be conceptualised as the way in which a researcher organises the study. It is also an organised and deliberate effort at collecting the pertinent data. It includes how samples are drawn from the population, the methods and procedures to be adopted.

This is a descriptive and analytical study. The study adopts a survey method to achieve its objectives. Ndagi (1984) described a descriptive research as that which is concerned with the collection of data for the purpose of describing and interpreting the prevailing beliefs, practices and attitudes. The main purpose of descriptive research, according to Ndagi (1984), is to describe 'what is' and to discover the 'meaning' of phenomenon. This study appraised the present condition of JSS Social Studies curriculum in Nigeria.

It is the view of Anderson; Ball; Murphy and associates (1977) that the survey method is best and the usual method to obtain information about a

population, usually human population, in the real world rather than in a laboratory. Anderson et al (1977) affirmed that a survey generally begins with explicit statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, the population of interest, the information to be obtained and the resources necessary and available to do the work. This study has put in place all the above.

Schwartz supports the use of survey and Schwartz (1975) who suggested that survey research using questionnaires or tests administered in schools has been by far the most common method of conducting research in political socialisation. They are however in favour of research in political socialisation being based on more socially heterogeneous population. This study used socially heterogeneous population.

The repeated measure design which measures the status of the group under study at a single - point in time was adopted for this study. For example, all the JSS III students in the selected class in each of the selected schools were given the Political Socialisation Cognitive Test and Political Socialisation Affective Test. The mean scores for each school and other variables of interest to the study were compared.

The survey method is flexible enough to permit the use of a variety of data collecting techniques such as tests, questionnaires, interviews and observation. The design was therefore found to be suitable for this study as it used more than one instrument.

3.2 Population

The population of this study consisted of two groups, JSS III students in the selected schools and states in Nigeria and their Social Studies teachers. The study focused on the political socialisation of students at JSS level where Social Studies is a core subject and as of now terminal at the end of JSS III. Generally Junior Secondary School (JSS) is a three-year course.

For the purpose of this study, the JSS III students who have completed the whole JSS Social Studies curriculum were considered to be the most appropriate group. The student respondents were made up of both sexes (male and female) from different socio-economic backgrounds. The student respondents were selected from both rural and urban settings. School types were taking into consideration, so students from public and private schools were involved in the study.

As it was not feasible to involve all JSS III students in Nigeria in the study, six states in Nigeria based on the six-geo-political zones were selected. The zones are: North Central zone comprising Kwara, Kogi, Plateau, Nasarawa, Niger, Benue and Abuja, North Eastern: Bauchi, Gombe , Yobe, Borno, Jigawa, Adamawa; North Western: Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Sokoto, Zamfara, Kebbi; South Western: Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Lagos, Ekiti, Osun; South South: Rivers, Bayelsa, Edo, Delta, Cross River, Akwa Ibom; South Eastern: Abia, Enugu, Imo, Anambra, Eboniyi states. The six selected states are: Kwara, Bauchi, Kaduna, Oyo, Abia and Rivers states. Three schools were selected from each state. The following are the 18 schools used for the study:

Table 3.01: Schools and Students Covered in the Study

No	Name of Schools	Tests		
		Given out	Returned	Usable
1	G.D.S.S. Tanke, Ilorin	43	40	39
2	C & S College, Ilorin	45	43	41
3	Omu Aran High School, Omu Aran	42	41	40
4	G.D.S.S., Bauchi	45	43	42
5	Command Secondary School, Bauchi	42	40	38
6	Government College, Toro	42	41	40
7	Government School, Kaduna	43	40	39
8	Therbow, Secondary School, Zaria	44	43	42
9	G.S.S., Shika	40	39	39
10	Army Barracks Grammar School, Iwo Rd, Ibadan	42	42	39
11	Methodist Grammar School, Bodija	44	42	41
12	Eleyele Grammar School, Eleyele	42	41	40
13	Comprehensive High School Okagwe, Ohafia	41	40	40
14	Comprehensive High School, Aba	44	43	u41
15	Emmanuel High School, Aba	42	40	39
16	F.G.C. Port Harcourt	43	41	40
17	Model International High School, Port Harcourt	41	40	39
18	Comprehensive High School, Ogimigba,	43	42	41
	Total	777	745	720

Table 3.01 shows the 18 schools involved in the study. A total of 777 tests were applied in all the schools while 745 were returned, 720 were usable as 25 incomplete ones were discarded as they were not usable.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Procedure

A lot of care was taken in the selection of the sample for this study. Anderson et al (1977) emphasised that the selection of elements from any given population must be done with care and should be designed to fit the specific circumstances as the kind of sample will determine many attributes of the resulting data.

In an educational research it is not always possible to manipulate a whole population especially if such a population is very large (Nworgu, 1971). The population for this study consists of all JSS III students in Nigeria. It is therefore very large. In a research like this, there is the need to have a sample size that will be a true representative of the population. It was in response to the above that Krejcie and Morgan (1970) drew up a table for determining sample size from a given population. The recommendation of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) as contained in the table was used in determining the appropriate sample size for this study. A total of 777 JSS III students wrote the Political Socialisation Cognitive and Affective Tests.

The sample used for this study was selected by using stratified random sampling procedure. Stratified random sampling involves the selection of a simple random sample from each stratum. When applied appropriately, the characteristics of the population can be estimated with greater precision than simple random sampling. The use of stratified random sampling in this study was to ensure representativeness of the student respondents. A careful consideration was given in selecting the subjects with regards to the objectives of

the study. The subjects were selected bearing in mind the following variables:- Geographical spread of the schools; School type, public or private, School location: urban or rural; Gender: male and female. The sample was selected in stages.

To have a representative sample and reflect the character of the nation, the six geo-political zones of the Peoples Democratic Party was adopted. In each zone, one state was selected by simple random sampling. The random sampling procedure allows every element of the population to have the same probability of being selected into the sample. Within each state three schools were selected to reflect type of school that is, public and private. At least one school was selected from the rural area in each state.

Each state capital was chosen as one of the urban areas, being state capitals they are 'typical' areas because educational and other forms of development in these towns follow similar patterns. The rural areas are also 'typical' because the people are predominantly agrarian and they share similar rural experience. Only co-educational schools are involved in the study because gender was considered to be important to the study.

In each selected school, one class was selected through random sampling. All the students in that class there selected. The last stage is referred to as cluster sampling which is recommended by Anderson et al (1977) to be used in educational evaluation surveys where there are natural clusters of schools and people within them. Since it is easier to administer a test to all students in a classroom than the selection of a random sample of the students

within the classroom. High quota is set in order to eliminate or reduce potential biases to very small and in order to obtain good results.

3.4 Instrumentation

Three major instruments were employed for this study. They are: Political Socialisation Cognitive Test (PSCT) and Political Socialisation Attitude Test (PSAT) and Teachers' Questionnaire. The PSCT was an achievement test constructed to find out how knowledgeable the students are about politics and public affairs. It contained 30 items. The second test PSAT, which was to assess the attitudes and values of the students towards the government, the leaders and politics as a whole. It contained 28 items. The two tests were based on the content and objectives of the National JSS Social Studies curriculum. The Teachers' Questionnaire contained 19 items.

From the extensive review of literature on political socialisation of children, a lot of useful questions were derived. It was also an opportunity to verify the current thinking in the field of political socialisation. The works of Greenstein (1965), Easton and Dennis (1969), Dennis (1978), Koff et al (1973), Torney et al (1975), Stacey (1978), Agboola (1985) all who investigated political socialisation of children were of great importance to the development of the instrument for this study. The instruments of those studies provided useful guidelines. The researcher was however very careful in ensuring that though the items follow the patterns of some of the instruments, they were modified to suit Nigerian school children as well as the objectives of this study. The Political Socialisation

Cognitive Test (PSCT) and Political Socialisation Affective Test (PSAT) were constructed by the researcher with the exception of items 12 to 23 in the PSAT which are adapted from Agboola (1985). Items on psychomotor domain were incorporated into the Affective Test. This was because attitudes, values behaviours and social skills are closely related and a times inseparable. Social Studies experts as well as test experts authenticated the tests.

The two tests were combined and were made up of three sections. Section A dealt with biographic data of the respondents such as, age, gender, religion, and parents' occupation. The purpose was to enable the personal variables to be analysed to find the significant differences if any in the political socialisation of the respondents as a result of differences in gender, religion and socio-economic status of the parents.

Section B contains Paper I titled Political Socialisation Cognitive Test. The 30 items were to test the respondents' political knowledge including information about Nigerian leaders and their roles, current and international affairs. Items 1 to 11 were simple recall questions while items 12 to19 were multiple choice questions with 5 options. Items 20 to 30 required short answers or definitions. The information tested varied from specific to general.

Section C contains Paper II titled Political Socialisation Affective Test of 28 items. Items 1 to 8 were designed along 5 point Likert scale. The frequency data was transformed into raw scores (see 'Data Analysis' for details). In items 9 to 13, the respondents were to make preferences or choose the items they mostly agreed with. Items 14 to 24 were Yes or No type, each of which required

the respondents to tick which of the statements they agreed with. Items 24 to 28 were open ended questions that required the respondents to express their opinions and make suggestions.

A lot of care was taken to spread the questions over all the units and themes related to political education. There is variability in the test items in that the tests were constructed to reflect short answers, open ended questions and various types of objective tests such as multiple choice, Yes or No, and fill--in-the blank. According to Zigler, Balla and Watson (1972), the multiple choice items which were mostly used in the tests are believed to reflect more accurate measures as the instruments offer extensive choices.

Table 3.01: Table of specifications for Political Socialisation Cognitive test

Unit/Content	Test Items	Total
JSS I Unit E civic rights	16, 17, 23, 27, 28, 29	6
JSS I Unit H Nat. symbols	11, 18, 21, 23, 24	5
JSS II Unit E Societal changes	12, 13	2
JSS II Unit C leadership & followership	1 – 7	7
JSS III Unit B Soc. Environ	8, 9, 10, 30	4
JSS III Unit C Institutions	15, 19, 20, 25, 26	6
		30

Table 3.02 shows that all the 30 test items were drawn from the JSS Social Studies curriculum.

Table 3.03: Table of specifications for Political Socialisation Affective test

Unit/Objective/Content	Test Items	Total
Objective 2 & 3	26, 27	2
Objective 6	1 - 8, 28	9
JSS I Unit E civic rights & Obj. 6	10, 13, 14 - 24	13
JSS II Unit C leadership	9, 11, 25	3
JSS II Unit H	12	1
		28

Table 3.03 shows that all the 28 test items were drawn from the content and objectives of the JSS Social Studies Curriculum.

Teachers Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire was expected to generate data on variables that could explain the achievement profiles of students in the cognitive and affective tests. The teacher's' questionnaire sought information on teacher's' qualification, experience, age group, area of specialisation; class size; instructional methods normally used; attendance of in-service courses, workshops, conferences; attitude of students towards Social Studies; availability of Social Studies textbooks by students and teachers' guide by teachers. The nineteen items questionnaire was designed and applied to all the Social Studies' teachers of the student respondents.

3.5 Validation of Instruments

It is important to underscore a point that the most crucial question about research instrument is whether or not it measures what it is designed to measure. This is an index of whether the instrument is consistent on what it measures or whether there is reliability in the measurement if so repeated. The instruments used for this study were subjected to the following processes in order to make them both valid and reliable.

3.51 Content and Face Validity

The following steps were taken to ensure the content validity of the two tests: Political Socialisation Cognitive Test (PSCT) and Political Socialisation Attitude Test (PSAT). A list of topics from the units related to political education from the national JSS Social Studies curriculum was used in the construction of the test items. See Table 3.02 and Table 3.02 for specifications for the two tests. The tables of specifications show that the test items cover the relevant contents and objectives. Test experts and Social Studies experts of high professional expertise subjected the instrument to minute scrutiny. Anastasi (1968) endorsed consultation with subject matter experts who could serve as expert judges for content validation. The experts were made up of Social Studies lecturers from the Department of Education, A.B.U., Zaria, Social Studies lecturers from University of Abuja, these lecturers provide the academic contribution. The lecturers from Department of Social Studies in Federal College of Education, Zaria train the teachers that teach at the JSS level. The Social

Studies teachers in Demonstration Secondary School, ABU, Zaria who implement the JSS curriculum were also involved. The contribution of each group was very beneficial.

An initial pool of 75 items made up of 40 items for the PSCT and 35 items for the PSAT and the Teachers' Questionnaire of 21 items were submitted to the Social Studies experts. They were requested to examine the appropriateness of the items in terms of clarity, reading difficulty level for JSS III students as well as the relatedness of the test items to the topic. The experts were asked to comment if the test items were straightforward, unambiguous, simple or difficult. The Social Studies experts were asked to put their comments in writing. Based on the comments of the experts some items identified to be inappropriate were removed. Some items were re-framed. A few new items of open-ended questions that permit the respondents to express their opinions were included in the attitude test especially on the problems of political socialisation. The tests and Social Studies experts attested to the relevance of the items.

Face Validity

This was obtained from a group of experienced teachers of Social Studies at JSS level. The contributions of the secondary school teachers were particularly valued as they have been involved in the teaching and testing of the students at the JSS level. It is believed that the level of their involvement in the teaching of Social Studies gives them a good insight into the test items prepared for this study.

The final test and questionnaire items were selected after the scrutiny and approval of the Social Studies experts. The 58 items on the two tests used for this study and the 19 item Teachers' Questionnaire were those considered appropriate by the all the validators. Nwankwo (1983) and Brown (1976) that it goes a long way in establishing the degree to which the test instruments measure the traits they are designed for recommend this method of validation.

The inputs of the Social Studies lecturers and the Social Studies teachers at the JSS level on the instrument, the modification of items, the pilot study item analysis and test for reliability ensure the validity and reliability of the instrument used for this study.

3.52 **The Pilot Study**

One of the reasons for the pilot study was to understudy any problems that might arise during the actual study that might jeopardise the validity and reliability of the actual test. It was also to acquaint the researcher with test administration procedures and possible difficulty or practical problems involved in carrying out this type of study so as to rectify them.

The pilot study was to assess the relevance and functionality of the research questions and hypotheses. It is also to assess, possibly, review the research methodology and data analysis techniques as proposed by Kerlinger (1973).

In order to strengthen the validity and reliability of the data collected for the study, it is necessary to subject the designed instruments to a pilot study

before the final use. The pilot study was carried out to identify the strengths and weaknesses in terms of the instrument for possible review and modification before the final use.

The instruments designed for this study was pilot tested on a group of students who would not be involved in the study proper. After the validation of the instruments, the pilot study was carried out in April, 2000, using JSS III students of A.B.U. Demonstration Secondary School, Zaria, and God's Time Comprehensive Secondary School, Samaru. Fifty students were involved in the pilot study.

The pilot study provided a useful insight to the whole study. As a result some modifications were made to update the adequacy of the instrument used for this study. The pilot test was carried out in order to determine the extent to which the instruments would yield the same result among the respondents if administered more than once.

3.5.3 **Test For Reliability**

According to Cangelosi (1990), for assessing internal consistency, a reliability coefficient can be computed directly from scores that have been extracted from the whole test by the use of formulas such as coefficient alpha formula or Kuder – Richardson 20 formula; depending on the test characteristic. Correlation statistics (odd-even, split-half) can also be used.

The set of data from the three instruments: - the political socialisation Cognitive Test, the Political Socialisation Affective Test and Teachers',

Questionnaire scores were used to test the internal consistency and reliability of the instruments. The purpose was to determine the extent to which the instruments would yield the same or similar results when administered to similar groups of respondents, from time to time and from scorer to scorer (Talmage, 1990).

The scores were subjected to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) using the coefficient alpha formula to compute the reliability coefficient of each instrument. The items that were internally consistent at .05 level of significance were identified. The items that were not significant were rejected, reframed or replaced.

The reliability coefficient (alpha) of the Political Socialisation Cognitive Test (PSCT) was. 6934 while the reliability coefficient of the Political Socialisation Affective Test (PSAT) was .9774. The reliability coefficient of the Teachers Questionnaire was .7611. These showed high correlation coefficients. That implied that the three instruments were internally consistent and reliable. The values were found to be good for use. See Appendix III, IV, and V.

3.53 **Item Analysis**

Item analysis examines the quality of each item of the test. It is important to ascertain how well a test discriminates between high and low scores. High reliability and validity can be built into a test in advance through item analysis. Test can be improved through the selection, substitution, or revision of items, Anastasi (1968).

Items that correlate positively with the rest of the test tend to enhance the tests' reliability.

The responses of the students to each item on the two tests were analysed using the computer. The summary of the item analysis for each test is presented in Appendix III and IV.

The result of the item analysis revealed that some questions were not suitable for the students. They were either too difficult or too easy or ambiguous. On the basis of that result, out of the sixty-one questions analysed, fifty-eight were retained, six were reframed and three were rejected.

The item analysis helped to determine whether or not the items were discriminative, whether they measured the same trait for which they were designed.

3.6 Administration of Instruments

The administration and collection of data was carried out personally by the researcher with the help of three research assistants and Social Studies teachers of the schools involved in the study. This was carried out at the end of third term in July/August, 2000, when the student respondents were finishing their final JSS III examinations.

3.7 Data Analysis

The completed questions were marked and scored by the researcher. For the 30 item cognitive test, each correct response to the recall or short answer as

well as the multiple choice items attracts one mark. The test was scored over 100.

The 28-item attitude test, each correct response for the Yes or No type and the multiple-choice items attracts one mark. The open-ended questions attract one mark for each correct statement. For the Likert Scale items, they were scored as follows:

For positive statement

Strongly agree or equivalent	= 5 points
Agree or equivalent	= 4 points
Undecided ,,	= 3 points
Disagree ,,	= 2 points
Strongly Disagree	= 1 point

For negative statements

Strongly agree or equivalent	= 1 point
Agree ,,	= 2 points
Undecided ,,	= 3 points
Disagree ,,	= 4 points
Strongly disagree ,,	= 5 points

The respondents' scores on the PSAT were later converted to percentages. The data for each test was tabulated reflecting each respondent's score on each of the tests. The researcher entered each respondent's scores into coding sheets for necessary treatment by the computer.

For the cognitive test a score of 50% and above is considered positive while those who score below 50% is considered to have negative political knowledge. In the attitude test, any score above the neutral region (undecided) or 60% and above is considered as positive political attitude while any score below it is considered as negative political attitude.

The study made use of four statistical methods for analysing the data. They are 2-tailed T-test, ANOVA (Analysis of variance), Scheffe test and percentages.

T-test: The t-test examines whether or not the mean performance of the two groups are significantly different. T-test is particularly useful for testing for equality or inequality of two group means. An advantage of this statistical method is that where the calculated t-value is large, the less the probability is that the differences between the two means is a function of mere chance. The t-test was used to test hypotheses 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 and 10.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): ANOVA is a very powerful statistical method of testing for significant differences between means of two or more groups. It is particularly useful in testing the level of differences from sample groupings. ANOVA is found to be appropriate as the data is quantitative in nature and the sample is heterogeneous. ANOVA was used to test hypotheses 2 and 6.

Scheffe Test: It is a posterior contrast test used as a systematic procedure for comparing all possible pairs of group means. ANOVA indicates there is a difference without revealing the magnitude of the difference. For further

investigation of the problem, the Scheffe test is used to identify the exact location of mean differences.

Percentages: Percentages reduce two figures to a common base so that they can be compared. Percentages have a considerable advantage over more complex statistics when making results of research known to a variety of interested readers because they are easy to understand (Peil, 1982). As percentages are unidirectional and are affected by the size of base, the sample should be representative. Also the N (number of cases) must always be shown when percentages are reported because the significance of differences varies considerably with the size of the base. The larger the sample, the more stable the percentages and the less sampling error will affect them (Peil, 1982). Percentages were used in the discussions on Students' Performance and Teachers Questionnaire Response.

3.8 Summary

The study investigated the political socialisation of JSS students in eighteen schools selected from six states in Nigeria. A validated 30-item political socialisation cognitive test and a validated 28-item political socialisation attitude test were designed to assess the students' political knowledge and attitudes.

Some measures such as validating and pilot testing were carried out to ensure the suitability and appropriateness of the instruments used for the study. Four main statistical methods were used for analysing the data. These were Percentages, T-test, ANOVA and Scheffe Test. The t-test was used for analysing eight of the hypotheses. ANOVA was used for analysing hypotheses 2 and 6.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

The political socialisation of 720 JSS III students selected from 6 states and 18 schools in Nigeria was empirically investigated in this study. The results of the findings from the political socialisation cognitive and affective tests are presented in this chapter. The chapter also contains answers to the research questions raised in the study. The hypotheses raised in the study were also tested. A discussion of the findings is also presented at the end of the chapter.

4.01 Data Analysis and Results

Table 4.01: Performance of Entire Sample in Cognitive Test

Sample Size	X	S.D	Min. Score	Max. Score
720	57.58	13.87	10	90

The national mean percent score of the cognitive test was 57.58 with a standard deviation of 13.87. The lowest score was 10 percent while the highest was 90 percent.

Table 4.02: National Performance in Affective Test

Sample Size	X	S.D	Min. Score	Max. Score
720	65.9	10.21	15	93

The national mean percent score on the affective test was 65.9, with a standard deviation of 10.21. The lowest score was 15 percent, and the highest was 93 percent.

Table 4.03: Overall National Performance in Cognitive Test

Category	N	X	SD
Gender			
Male	368	57.92	14.01
Female	352	57.24	13.74
Location			
Urban	480	60.94	12.29
Rural	240	50.90	14.45
School Type			
Public	480	55.76	13.74
Private	240	61.25	13.45
SES			
High	42	61.31	12.08
Middle	382	59.94	12.52
Low	296	54.03	14.99
Religion			
Islam	198	56.94	15.77
Christianity	522	57.84	13.09

Table 4.03 shows that the student respondents were almost equally distributed by gender with more males than females. Out of the five variables tested, three were found to be significant, these are location, school type and socio-economic status while gender and religion had no significant difference.

Table 4.04: Overall National Performance in Affective Test

Category	N	X	SD
Gender			
Male	368	65.79	11.16
Female	352	66.01	9.25
Location			
Urban	480	66.39	10.59
Rural	240	64.92	9.53
School Type			
Public	480	65.24	10.18
Private	240	67.22	10.33
SES			
High	42	68.98	10.16
Middle	382	66.16	9.63
Low	296	65.13	10.98
Religion			
Islam	198	65.69	10.61
Christianity	522	65.98	10.14

Table 4.04 shows that out of the 5 variables tested only type of school showed significant difference. There are more discussions on each of the variables in the hypotheses testing later in the chapter.

Hypotheses Testing

In order to draw reliable conclusions and recommendations which can lead to the retention or rejection of the hypotheses, the researcher subjected the data to t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Scheffee statistical analysis. Ten null hypotheses were raised in the study. The following are the results.

Hypothesis I: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students on the political socialisation cognitive test.

This hypothesis was tested with a t-test. The dependent variable used for the test was the student score on a cognitive political socialisation test. Table 4.05 shows the result of the t-test.

Table 4.05 T-Test in Cognitive Test According to Gender

Gender	N	X	SD	t-value	DF	P	Dec
Male	368	57.924	14.02	0.66	718	0.512	NS
Female	352	57.244	13.74				

t - critical = 1.96 P>0.05 (NS)

The mean score for male and female on the political socialisation cognitive test as shown in Table 4.05 is not significantly different from each other ($p<0.05$). The null hypothesis is retained. This implies that the political socialisation has nothing to do with gender of the students.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the mean performance of students of various socio-economic status with regard to the political socialisation cognitive test.

The one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was the statistical procedure used for the test. The results of the test are shown in Table 4.06.

Table 4.06: One Way Analysis of Variance in Cognitive Test by Parents Socio Economic Status.

Source of Variation	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	.6445.514	3222.8	17.51	0.000
Within groups	717	131988.4	184.1		
Total	719	138433.9			

$F_{2, 717} = 3.0 \quad P < 0.05.$

The results revealed significant differences between the achievement of students along the economic status of their parents. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. The mean scores of the students in the cognitive test according to their parents' socio-economic status are shown in Table 4.07

Table 4.07: Mean Scores in Cognitive Test According to Parents Socio-Economic Status

Economic Status	N	X	SD
High Income	42	61.31	12.08
Middle Income	382	59.94	12.53
Low Income	296	54.03	14.99
Total	720	57.59	13.87

A post hoc test was performed on the mean to determine the socio-economic status that was significantly different from the other. The Sheffee procedure for mean separation was used. The results are shown in Table. 4.08.

Table 4.08 Scheffee Procedure Result

Socio-Economic Status	F value	Decision
High vs Low	17.507	Significant
Middle vs Low	16	Significant
High vs Middle	11	Not significant

The Scheffee test revealed that students of parents with high socio-economic status had significantly higher mean score in the cognitive test than those with low socio-economic status. Students of middle socio economic status had higher scores than those with low economic status. Between middle and high socio-economic status, no significant difference was observed. The finding here is that cognitive political awareness increases with socio-economic status of the students.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement of students from urban and rural areas in the political socialisation cognitive test. Students were grouped into two according to the location of their schools, urban and rural. The t-test procedure was used. Table 4.09 shows the result of the procedure.

Table 4.09: T-test in Political Socialisation Cognitive test by School Location.

Location	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Urban	368	60.94	12.29	9.73	718	0.000	Sig
Rural	352	50.90	14.45				

t - critical = 1.96, P<05 (sig)

The results of the t-test in Table 4.09 shows that significant difference exists between the mean score in cognitive test by the location of students' schools either in rural or urban area (P<0.05). The urban based students had significantly higher achievement than their rural counterparts as indicated by their mean score (60.94). This implies that students achievement in the cognitive test was influenced by their school location. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement of students from public and private schools in the political socialisation cognitive test.

The schools were categorised into public and private according to ownership. T-test was used in testing for significant difference. The result is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 T-test in Cognitive Test by School Type

School Type	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Public	480	55.76	13.73	5.09	718	0.000	Sig
Private	240	61.24	13.45				

t - critical = 1.96, P<0.05 (sig).

Table 4.10 shows that significant difference exists between the mean scores of students as a result of their type of school. Students from private schools had significantly higher mean scores than those in public schools. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement of students of different religions in the political socialisation cognitive test.

The religious groups of the students were identified. The t-test procedure was used in determining the significant difference between the groups' mean scores in the cognitive test. The result of the test is shown in table 4.11

Table 4.11 T-test in Cognitive test by Religion.

Religion	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Islam	198	56.939	15.77	0.78	718	0.44	NS
Christianity	522	57.84	13.09				

t - critical = 1.96, P>0.05 (N.S)

The results in table 4.11 does not show any significant difference between the two religious groups. This implies that religious beliefs do not have any direct effect on students' mean scores. The null hypothesis is therefore retained.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students in the political socialisation attitude test.

Like in the cognitive test, the mean scores of the males and females on the affective test were used in the determination of significance between gender. Table 4.12 shows the result of the t-test.

Table 4.12 T-test in Affective Test by Gender

Gender	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Male	368	65.79	11.162	0.29	718	0.771	N.S
Female	352	66.01	9.25				

t - critical = 1.96 P>0.05 (N.S)

The observed t-value in table 4.12 (t = 0.29) is lower than the table value which is 1.96 and the observed p. level of P .0771 is greater than accepted level, meaning P>0.05. The null hypothesis is therefore retained. This means that affective socialisation of the students is not influenced by their gender.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the mean performance of students of various socio-economic status on the political socialisation affective test.

The results of the one way analysis of variance procedure used in the test of this hypothesis are presented in Table 4.13

Table 4.13 Mean Scores of Students in Affective Test by Parents' Socio - Economic Status.

Socio-Economic status	N	X	S.D
High	42	68.98	10.17
Middle	382	66.16	9.63
Low	296	65.13	10.99

Table 4.13 shows the mean scores of the students by their parents' socio-economic status.

$F_{2, 7171} = 3.00$, $P>0.05$ (N.S)

The results showed that socio-economic status of parents do not have any significant effect on the mean performance of students on the affective test. The null hypothesis is therefore retained.

Table 4.14 ANOVA on Affective Test by Parents' Socio-Economic Status

Source of Variation	df	SS	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	597.386	398.693	2.848	0.0586
Within groups	717	75191.414	104.870		
Total	719	75788.800			

The difference between the mean scores in the table was not found to be statistically significant at 0.05 level.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement of students from urban and rural areas in the political socialisation affective test.

The results of the t-test procedure used in the determination of whether there is a significant difference in the mean achievement of the students as a result of the location of their school either in the urban or rural area are shown in Table 4.15

Table 4.15 T-test in Affective Test Scores of Students by School Location

Location	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Urban	480	66.39	14.59	1.81	718	0.070	N.S
Rural	240	64.92	9.53				

t - critical = 1.96, P>0.05 (N.S)

The results show that no significant difference exists in the achievement of students in the affective test as a result of their school location. The null hypothesis is thus retained. The indication is that location of school either in the urban or rural area of the country does not have any effect on the students' affective political socialisation.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference between the mean performance of students from public and private schools in the political socialisation affective test.

The t-test procedure was used to determine if there was significant difference between the groups' mean scores in the affective test. The result of the test is shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 T-test in Students Affective Scores by School Type

Type of school	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Public	480	65.24	10.18	2.45	718	0.015	Sig
Private	240	67.22	10.33				

The t-test revealed that the mean score of students in private schools was significantly different from that of their counterparts from the public schools. The

null hypothesis was therefore rejected. This implies that type of school affects the students' performance in the political socialisation affective test.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement of students of different religions in the political socialisation affective test.

The students' mean scores in the affective test were used as the dependent variable. The result of the t-test is shown in table 4.17.

Table 4.17: T-Test in Students' Scores in Affective Test by Religious Group.

Religion	N	X	S.D	t	DF	P	Dec
Islam	198	65.69	10.61	0.33	718	0.738	N.S
Christianity	522	65.98	10.14				

t - critical = 1.96 P>0.05 (Not sig)

The result did not indicate any significant difference between the two religious groups (P>0.05). The null hypothesis is thus retained. Religion does not seem to have any significant influence on the affective political socialisation of the respondents.

4.2 Discussion

Hypothesis 1

The results of this study revealed that male and female JSS III students were about equal in their performance in the cognitive test, that is, there is no significant difference in the performance of the two groups. One would have

expected the males to perform better than the females based on men's dominant role in Nigerian politics with women playing a minority role at the federal, state and local government levels. One explanation may be because both are taught together by the same teachers. The male and female are equally exposed to other agents through which political relevant knowledge and information could be acquired. Also in other areas of academic work, male and female are known to compete favourably well with each other.

The findings of this study in this regard is in line with earlier observations of Torney, et al (1975) who had reported from their survey of ten countries that though there were few differences between the responses by boys and girls but was not significant. Tita (1991) reported that the performance of male and female on the cognitive test was equal in Social Studies. Adeniyi (1997) found no significant difference in the performance of male and female JSS students in Social Studies in Kaduna state.

Hypothesis 2

The results showed that cognitive aspect of the political socialisation of the respondents has a lot to do with their parents' socio-economic status. Socio-economic status of the parents was determined by the occupation of both parents plus the amount of affluence in the home, such as, possession of a car, television, video, satellite and the type of housing. It was also observed that children with both parents as civil servants performed better than those whose parents are farmers and traders. An explanation is that most of the civil servants

are educated, many are professionals and so have the capacity to personally assist their children at home towards good performance in school.

The result of this study is consistent with the findings of the studies by Greenstein (1968), Easton and Dennis (1969), Dubey (1972), Sica (1976), Torney et al (1975) and Agboola (1985) have shown that children from low socio-economic status are usually less politically socialised. Also children from high socio economic background tend to be more politicised and present a capacity and motivation for political participation. In the Nigerian situation, children from poor homes are not exposed to facilities that can help the development of their cognitive capabilities. This partly accounts for their poor performance in school.

Hypothesis 3

The study shows that there is significant difference in the performance of students. The students whose schools are located in the urban areas performed better than those in the rural areas. An explanation for this better performance by the urban based students can be as a result of their being nearer the political authorities. Many of the students reside in state headquarters and must have seen the state governor and other public officers and politicians in action. Some of their parents or relations could be politicians, all these would make them to be politically more aware. Exposure to mass media in the urban area could be another means of political learning.

The results of this study is in line with the findings of some earlier studies. Tita (1991) reported that there was significant difference in performance as a

result of urban or rural location. The students from urban schools performed better both on the cognitive and affective tests. FGN/UNICEF/UNESCO (1997) in the national report indicated higher levels of performance by primary school children in the urban area with only very few exceptions.

Hypothesis 4

One of the findings of this study indicates that students attending private schools performed significantly better than those in public schools. A lot of reasons could be advanced for this disparity in performance between students from the two types of schools. The facilities for learning such as books, library and other facilities are much better in the private schools and these would have a positive effect on students learning and performance. Another point is that private schools charge higher fees from which they can afford to employ qualified teachers and pay them even higher than teachers in the public schools. As the private schools are owned by individuals or groups, they are more able to monitor what goes on in the schools in terms of teachers' supervision and discipline in the schools. Another explanation is that of parents' socio economic status.

A similar finding was earlier reported by FGN/UNICEF/UNESCO (1997) in a national assessment of learning achievement, that the children in private schools out performed those in public schools.

Hypothesis 5

This hypothesis states that there is no significant difference between students' religion and their achievement on the cognitive test. The result of the study suggests that the religious beliefs of the respondents do not significantly

influence their political knowledge and awareness. The finding is in line with that of Agboola (1985) who reported that all the groups he worked with did not show significant difference in performance on account of religion.

The findings is relevant to the Nigerian situation where it is assumed that religion has some impact on politics, that is, whether the respondent is a Christian or Moslem has no effect on his or her political knowledge or awareness. It can be inferred that the teachings of the two religious groups covered in this study are not in conflict nor contrary to the ideals of the Nigerian nation. Other variables such as environmental or educational that are not covered in this study could probably be more significant than religion in determining the amount or pattern of political socialisation that goes on in the secondary schools.

Hypothesis 6

This hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the achievement of male and female in the political socialisation affective test. The findings of the study confirmed the statement. Both male and female performed equally on the affective test as they did in the cognitive. The points raised in hypothesis 1 is applicable here as well. An explanation why the male and female respondents are equal in their political attitudes can be as a result of the positive change in the child rearing practices in general and sex role practices in particular. Nowadays, the girls are being encouraged to become empowered in all areas including politics.

This study shows that both males and females made party preferences, indicated they like to join political parties and carry out other civic responsibilities.

Both male and female expressed positive political attitudes generally. An alternative explanation is that due to certain societal factors the interest of girls in politics may decline as they grow older. Cultural and religious factors do limit the height the female especially the married women can go. Many men do not buy the idea of seeing their wives play active role in politics, as married women need the support of their husbands otherwise it would be impossible. But for the male counterparts, the sky can always be the limit for them in politics.

Hypothesis 7

The study shows that the performance of the respondents in the political socialisation affective test was not significantly different. The finding suggests that the socio-economic status of parents do not have any influence on the respondents' political attitudes and values. Similarity of exposure in the school even in the larger society could be an explanation for similarity in performance. Evidence from the social studies teachers interviewed showed that the schools use the national Social Studies syllabus. The democratic political system that Nigeria is operating at present could be a contributing factor to everyone becoming politically more aware. Other variables not tested in this study could exert some influence apart from parents' socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 8

The result of this study indicates that there was no significant difference in the achievement of the respondents in the political socialisation affective test as a result of their school location. What this suggests is that the students from both urban and rural schools are equally politically developed in terms of attitudes and

values. The two groups of respondents have positive political attitudes with a group mean of 66.39 in favour of urban and 64.92 for the rural.

The reason for the non significant difference in the achievement of the students from both urban and rural schools could be because Social Studies curriculum is the same for both urban and rural students. The teachers that teach either in the rural or urban are similar in their qualifications, orientation, experience and training.

Hypothesis 9

The hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the achievement of students whether they are in public or private schools. The result of study reveals that a significant difference exists, with students in private schools achieving better than those from public schools. As it can be observed the students in private schools performed better than those from public schools also in the cognitive test. The better performance on both tests by students from private schools could be as a result of many factors earlier explained in this study. In addition, as Torney, et al (1975) reported, the level of command of English of the children contributes to the level of performance on both the cognitive and affective. That could be the case of the private schools which start teaching English from the nursery school and also attract children from the elite class.

Hypothesis 10

One of the findings of this study is that the student respondents were not different in their political attitudes as they were not in their political knowledge.

The implication is that political attitudes and behaviour of the respondents are independent of their religious beliefs as collaborated by Agboola (1985).

4.3 Discussion on Students Test Performance

The overall performance of the students on the two political socialisation tests was as follows. In the cognitive test, 76.4% of the total sample scored 50% and above while 23.6% performed below the 50% which was set as the minimum standard of performance. The mean score was 57.58 with a standard deviation of 13.87. The majority (76.4%) of the students could be described as having positive cognitive political socialisation. In the affective test the mean score was 65.9 with a standard deviation of 10.21. 81.7% of the students scored 60% and above which means they had positive affective political socialisation. 18.3% performed below the 60%, which was set as the minimum standard of performance. The performance was quite good in the two tests but better in the affective. On the basis of this result, it can be suggested that Social Studies has fairly obtained the objective of political socialisation. The Social Studies curriculum has been able to supply the necessary content and objectives that could equip the students with politically relevant knowledge and attitudes.

The following discussion focussed specifically on the pattern of performance of students in particular items in the two tests. About 99% of the respondents correctly identified the President and 81% was able to mention correctly one duty the President performs. 93% identified the governors of their various states correctly. The questions on the legislative arm of government

were poorly answered. This finding is line with earlier observations of Greenstein (1968) Sica (1976) and Stacey (1978) that the President was the best-known while the children did not know much about the congress.

On the international affairs, 89% of the students identified correctly the President of USA while 74% were able to name correctly the Secretary of the United Nations. 73% were able to mention one function of the Organisation of African Unity. The students were well informed about Nigerian leaders and international affairs but poorly informed about states and their capitals that were not within their locality. The international awareness can be attributed to the presence of cable satellite in many homes as well as computers in private schools and federal government colleges which has made the world a global village.

In response to the question, which asked students to choose which one they preferred, military or civilian rule, 82% preferred civilian rule, which showed that the majority of the students showed favourable attitude to democratic rule. 87.2% agreed that through hard work a person could improve his development. This means the young citizens of Nigeria would not fold their arms and wait for government to provide everything for them. 75% of the students stated that Nigeria identity should be stronger than ethnic identity while 64% would as a good citizen obey the laws of the country. At their age, one would have expected a higher percentage of the students expressing the intention to obey the laws. It is hoped that these young people will match up their words with action.

On the question about voting, 80% of the students declared that they would vote when they reach voting age. 74.4% would like to join political party while 73% indicated interest in government. 92.6% declared that they would pay their taxes regularly when they grow up. Those are good intentions, as the nation needs citizens who will be honest in paying taxes and also vote regularly. Also, 88.8% of the students identified the parties they liked. This finding is consistent with the observations of Stacey (1978) that by age of twelve, the children in the western society were making party preferences.

4.4 **Teachers' Questionnaire Response**

A total of forty Social Studies teachers were involved in the study through their response to a 19 items questionnaire. Below are the details of the findings.

55% of the teachers were males while 45% were females. The teachers were aged between 26 and 55 years with majority of them aged between thirty and forty. 22% had NCE mainly in Social Studies or a related Social Science, 33% had B.Sc Social Science or B.A, while 45% had B.Ed in Social Studies. Though the teachers were qualified not all of them were trained in Social Studies. The teaching experience of the teachers ranged from 2 to 34 years while they had been teaching Social Studies in the same school between 2 to 12 years.

96% of the teachers indicated that they used the national Social Studies syllabus. All the teachers indicated that they had Social Studies textbooks. Majority of the teachers use "Nigeria Secondary Schools Social Studies Project" (Book 1 - 3) by CESAC. The book is about the best Social Studies textbook

available and it is written from an integrated perspective. 60% of the teachers indicated that they had teachers' guide. About 50% of the students have Social Studies textbooks. In terms of textbooks, the situation was not good enough, lack of textbooks by students has a lot of negative effects on student learning and teacher instructions.

The data collected from the questionnaire shows that most of the teachers use lecture, discussion and questioning methods of teaching. The frequencies of use vary from teacher to teacher. Those trained in Social Studies are no exceptions. This finding is consistent with earlier findings. Koff et al (1973) Torney et al (1975) Boateng (1985) Tita (1991) Adewoye (1991) and FGN/UNICEF/UNESCO (1997) all reported that teachers used lecture and discussion methods of teaching. The FGN/ UNICEF/UNESCO, national report indicated that lecture was the most predominant method of instruction in the primary schools in Nigeria. The report pointed out further that teachers' highest teaching qualification and experience and possession of textbooks were among the top five variables, which were predictors of students' performance.

All the teachers expressed that two periods per week allocated to the teaching of Social Studies was very inadequate in order to effectively cover the course content. Majority of the teachers (91%) did not attend workshop, in-service course or seminar on Social Studies due to the fact that they were not organised for them. Those who attended courses were the N.C.E. holders who went for part-time B.Ed. courses at their own expense.

There is no doubt that teachers play important roles in what the students learn. In this study the Social Studies teachers were not significantly different from each other in terms of qualification and methodology. However, some schools employ non-social studies teachers to teach the subject. When such teachers were called upon to teach the subject, it was observed that students so affected performed the least in the two political socialisation tests.

The performance of the students could not be attributed to teacher factor alone in any of the schools. The interest of the students in the subject as reported by all teachers may be a contributing factor to their good performance. The leadership and availability of learning resources in each school, plus other factors not covered in this study could account for the performance of the students.

4.5 Summary

In this chapter, the report of the findings of the political socialisation cognitive and affective tests was presented. Ten hypotheses were tested and the results analysed. The implications of the findings were also discussed. The arguments were supported with empirical evidence, social or environmental factors, where appropriate.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This study investigated political socialisation of JSS III students in Nigeria. The study focussed on the extent to which formal teaching and learning of Social Studies as provided in the Junior Secondary Schools in Nigeria has helped to shape the political orientation and attitudes of JSS students. The factors that could contribute to the success or failure of political education were identified and discussed. Ways that would lead to the development of political socialisation in JSS III students were suggested.

For data collection, 2 tests (PSCT and PSAT) and teachers' questionnaire were employed (Appendix I and II). The performance of the students in the cognitive test helped in determining whether their political knowledge or awareness was positive or negative, while the affective test helped in determining whether their political attitude was positive or negative. The teachers' questionnaire schedule helped to provide data about the teachers' qualifications, experience, methodology and availability of learning materials in the school especially Social Studies syllabus and textbooks.

The population of the study consisted of all JSS III students in Nigeria and all their Social Studies teachers. Stratified random sampling procedure was adopted and 720 JSS III students were drawn for the study. The sample was

drawn from the six geo-political zones in Nigeria by randomly choosing one state from each zone and three schools in each state.

5.2 The Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested for the study:

1 There is no significant difference between the mean scores of students used in the study in the Political Socialization Cognitive Test(PSCT) in terms of the following:

a) Gender

b) Socio-economic status

c) Locations (urban/ rural)

d) School Types (Public/Private)

e) Religious beliefs

2 There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the students used in the study in the Political Socialisation Affective Test (PSAT) in terms of the following:

a) Gender

b) Socio-economic status

c) Locations (urban/ rural)

d) School Types (Public/Private)

e) Religious beliefs

These hypotheses were tested a 0.05 level of significance. The T-Test was used to test hypotheses 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10 while analysis of variance

(ANOVA) and Scheffee test were used to test hypotheses 2 and 6. These statistical methods helped to reveal the area where there was significant difference and where there was none among the tested variables.

5.3 Major Findings

1. The students performed very well in both tests. 76.4% scored 50% and above in the cognitive test while 81.7% scored 60% and above in the affective test. The mean performances in the cognitive and affective were 57.56 and 65.59 respectively.
2. On the basis of gender and religion, no significant difference was found both in the cognitive and affective tests.
3. Significant difference was found in the performance of students as a result of their parents' socio economic status; with students of high socio economic status performing best and those of low socio economic status parents performing the least on the cognitive test.
4. No significant difference was found in the performance of the students in the affective test as a result of their parents' socio economic status.
5. There was significant difference in the performance of students according to the location of their schools, with students in urban area performing better than those in rural area in the cognitive test. No significant difference was found in the performance of the students in the affective test.

6. Significant difference was found in the performance of the students from private and public schools, with students from private schools performing better both in the cognitive and affective tests.

What can be derived from the study is the fact that children acquire a lot of political concepts and values, which in the past had been reserved for the adults only. The student respondents demonstrated near adult political development. The positive political attitude they expressed is good news for the nation that is in need of a political culture that would bring about lasting solution to her many political problems. If the students' current political awareness and interest are maintained, that could lead to a virile political culture. A nation that has politically enlightened and mature citizens would not have problem of either leadership or follower ship.

5.31 Implications for Social Studies

Availability of Textbooks

The possession of the prescribed textbook by every student in the class is very essential. The study showed that 50% of the students lacked Social Studies textbooks. Parents should be urged by the state and local government as well as the school via the Parent-Teacher Association to buy copies of the required materials for their children. This facilitates teaching and learning for the teacher and students respectively. Thus, textbooks are important in the instructional process. Classroom exercises are, at most times, drawn from the pupil's textbooks. Students who lack textbooks are therefore, disadvantaged and

unable to participate effectively in class work. Homework also suffers as teachers usually give homework exercises from these textbooks. The link between availability of pupils' textbooks and their achievement can therefore be established on this basis. The possession of Social Studies textbooks was one of the best predicators of pupils learning achievement identified by FGN/UNICEF/UNESCO (1979).

40% of the teachers indicated a lack of teachers' guide. The availability of both pupils' text and the accompanying teachers' guides is of paramount importance especially to the inexperienced or non-Social Studies trained teachers. The teachers' guide usually contains relevant content, suggested methods, objectives, related activities and evaluation procedures. Teachers need to be trained on how to use the textbook critically not merely following it dogmatically, this could be during the training period in the college or university or during in-service training or workshop.

Social Studies Teachers

The teachers of Social Studies should be guided by following concerning political education:

The acquisition of knowledge does not correlate highly with support for democratic values and even less as children get older. It is therefore unwise to assume that the knowledgeable student will automatically support democratic values.

The development of a classroom climate or atmosphere in which students are encouraged to express their own opinions seems to foster several important

outcomes of political socialisation. Pre-adolescents often find it difficult to understand the purpose of political institutions because they have not yet discovered that different groups of adults may disagree about public policy. They tend to perceive adult society as monolithic and omniscient, consequently seeing no reason for pressure groups, or political parties, which serve as an arena where conflicts may be resolved or adjudicated. Schools in general and teachers in particular need to address this issue.

Social Studies Teaching

The study showed that majority of the teachers used lecture method, which requires students to memorise facts with little understanding. This approach cannot lead to the achievement of the objectives. A teaching strategy considered most appropriate for developing critical thinking skills, political awareness and participation in the students is inquiry approach. The approach involves identifying the problem to be solved, proposing possible solutions to it, searching for relevant evidence and testing proposed solutions as against such evidence, conclusions may then be drawn in the light of the results and applied to new data. In addition, the instructional setting should be conducive and effective instructional materials should be used.

Evaluation

In order to fully achieve the objectives of political socialisation, evaluation in Social Studies should be comprehensive, varied and continuous. It should focus on the process of learning. The teacher should be concerned not only with the child's progress in the mastery of subject matter (cognitive) but also with his

social and civic interests, his skills in acquiring new knowledge, his social behaviour, his ability to draw inferences and make interpretations. Thus the affective and psychomotor domains should be evaluated though they may not be susceptible to measurement through the paper and pencil tests. The teacher must use a variety of non-test devices such as careful observation, inventories, discussions, check-lists, rating scales, interview, questionnaire, sociometric, role playing and self evaluation.

5.4 Conclusion

Within the constraints of this study, the following conclusions are reached.

1. The JSS students in Nigeria are positive in their political development, that is, they are positive in terms of political knowledge and attitudes on the bases of their mean performance on both tests.
2. The objectives of political socialisation are being achieved with certain limitations.
3. Majority of the Social Studies teachers were professionally qualified and experienced but were not using the prescribed inquiry method approach thereby limiting the achievement of the objectives.
4. Socio-economic status of parents exerts influence on the student's performance in that students of high socio economic status parents performed better.
5. Students in private schools are more politically socialised than those in public schools.

6. Male and female students are equal in cognitive and affective aspects of their political socialisation.
7. Students in urban areas are more positive in their political awareness than those in the rural schools.
8. On the basis of religion, the students are equally politically socialised.

5.5 **Recommendations**

1. The issue of political socialisation should be taken more seriously in the schools since whatever is needed in the society should be included in the programme of the schools. The success of Citizenship and Social Studies education programmes in Europe, Asia and North America has been attributed primarily to the political will and financial support by the government and people of these nations (Udoh, 1992). Inducting the young into our political culture should be a priority concern for our government and people.
2. The Nigerian government should equip public schools so that the students can be taught more effectively. This will help to improve the performance of the students in the public schools. Without necessary resources both human and materials, the inquiry method recommended by Social Studies experts in Nigeria cannot be successfully used. Periodically, legislators both at the federal and state houses of assembly should be invited into the schools to speak to the students in order to make them aware of that arm of government and its functions.

3. Rural areas should be provided with basic amenities such as water, good roads and electricity so that children in these areas could have access to political information via the mass media. Field trips should be organised from time to time for especially the students in the rural area to visit state headquarters in order to familiarise them with the agents of political socialisation, which are more in the headquarters.

4. Social Studies teacher education should focus more on lesson preparation and methodology, as one of the findings of this study was that there was no difference in the methods of teaching of the teachers trained in Social Studies and the others. Teachers teach in the way they were taught (Dubey, 1980). Teacher trainers (lecturers) should therefore teach their students using the methods they want the students to use in their classroom teaching after graduation. Microteaching should be rigorously pursued during training in order to try out progressive methods such as inquiry, discovery methods and team teaching. The student teachers should learn the construction and use of teaching aids, simulation games, supplementary books, resource files, especially through courses such as Social Studies curriculum workshop.

5. In-Service Courses, Workshops, Seminars for Teachers:

No matter the quality of pre-service training a teacher has, he needs in-service courses in order to keep abreast with the latest developments in the field in this ever changing society. In-service training should be

applied at different levels. At the state level it should involve orientation for Social Studies inspectors and principals. They in turn organise and teach the teachers in their local government areas. These teachers in turn will re-educate teachers in their respective schools. Such orientation courses should focus on the concept and nature of Social Studies, the methodology, instructional material including audio-visuals and evaluation.

6 Community Laboratory Approach (CLA)

The community can be organised to involve the youth in participating and observing some public events, festivals, rallies and youth club activities where talks on political issues of national interest would be given. The youth can participate in community projects with older members of the community. Children should interact, ask questions and seek answers about their observations. Youth club activities should be encouraged. Children can ask questions, give advice and suggestions to their community and national leaders via 'Pet Letter Boxes'. This makes them feel part of government and encourages participation in the democratic process through self expression or criticism.

7 Cummulative Approach to Political Socialisation

The adults, civil servants and politicians need political education. Thus, political education should be introduced at all levels of education including adult and non-formal education. The citizens need to be taught about the Nigerian constitution, civic rights and responsibilities, duties of good citizens among others; through setting up of local political education

committees at the state, local government and village levels. This is in order to avoid inter-generational conflict of political values and confusion in the minds of the youth. Thus, Fenton (1966) remarked that "the 'best' education can be a weakness in a society that does not give the adolescent scope to put his learning into practice". He further suggested that this could lead to sullenness and frustration. Whatever effort is made in schools towards political socialisation of the children will be ineffective if the polity itself is not politically socialised. Fenton (1966), Jaros (1973) Torney et al (1975) and Okam (1998) all suggested that commulative and congruent socialisation enhances the impact of socialisation. Therefore, all other informal agents of political socialisation should combine their efforts with those of the school.

5.6 Recommendations For Further Research

1. Further research should be carried out in order to be able to identify the exact influence of parents' socio economic status on the political socialisation of JSS students, as this study and others have found that there was an influence.
2. Further research should be conducted on why students in urban areas performed better in the political socialisation tests as students in urban and rural areas are exposed to the same curriculum and teachers.

3. Further research of this nature should be carried out in the primary schools in order to find out how effective the primary Social Studies curriculum is in preparing children for political awareness and democratic attitudes.

4. Further Research should be carried out with more emphasis on the psychomotor domain of political socialisation as that is a 'strong point' of Social Studies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abdulkareem, Y.A. (1986). " A Study of Teachers and Students Perception of Social Studies and Teaching Methods in Social Studies in Selected Schools". Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, A.B.U., Zaria

Adaralegbe, A. (1980). "The Nigerian Social Studies Programme: Retrospects and Prospects", In N.E.R.C., Social Studies: Teaching issues and Problems. Benin City: Ethiope Pub. Co.

Adebayo, O.J. (1988) (ed.). Constitution Making and National Development: Directorate for Social Mobilisation, Ogun State

Adekeye, R. B. (1979)" The Problems of Teaching Social Studies In Primary Institutions in Zaria Local Government Area". Unpublished Project, A.B.U., Zaria."

Adekeye, R. B. (1986) "An Evaluation of the NCE Social Studies Programme of the Institute of Education Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria". Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, A.B.U., Zaria.

Adeniyi, E.F. (1997). " Memory Efficiency as a Function of Instructional Strategy, Test Type, Retention, Interval and Gender". Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Zaria: A.B.U.

Adewole, C.A. (1977). "Progress made on Social Studies in Africa". In: DuBey, D.L. (ed) Social Studies for the Future. National Social Studies Conference Report, pp. 66-69.

Adewoye, D.O.A. (1991). "An Evaluation of Social Studies in Junior Secondary Schools in Zaria Education Zone of Kaduna State". Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, A.B.U., Zaria.

Adeyoyin, F. A. (1993) "Developing Curriculum in Social Studies" in Ivowi, U.M.O. (ed) Curriculum Development in Nigeria. Ibadan: Sam Bookman Edu. and Communication Services.

Afolabi, M. (1998). Introduction to Research Methods for Writing Proposals, Projects and Thesis, Zaria: A.B.U.,

Agboola, J.A. (1985). " An Investigation into the Political Socialisation of Nigerian School Children at Different Levels of Education". Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, A.B.U., Zaria.

Akinlaye, F.A. (1980). "Meaning and Concept of Social Studies". In N.E.R.C., Social Studies: Teaching Issues and Problems, Benin City: Ethiope Pub. Co.

Almond, G.A. and Powell, G.B. (1966). Comparative Politics: A Developmental Approach, Boston: Little Brown & Co.

Almond, G.A. and Verba, S. (1965). The Civic Culture, Boston: Little Brown & Co.

Anastasi, A. (1968). Psychological Testing. New York: Macmillan.

Anderson, S.B. et al (1977). Encyclopaedia of Educational Evaluation Concepts and Techniques for Evaluating Education and Training Programme, London: Jossey - Bass Ltd.

Ball, A.R. (1979). Modern Politics and Government. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

Banks, J.A. and Clegg, A.A (1977). Teaching Strategies for Social Studies: Inquiry, Valuing and Decision Making. Reading: Addison - Wesley Pub. Co.

Barr, R. D., Barth, J.L. and Shermis, S.S. (1977). Defining the Social Studies. USA, National Council for Social Studies.

Beckett, P. and O'Connel, J. (1978). Education and Power in Nigeria: A Study of University Students. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Bienen, H. (1978). Armies and Parties In Africa. New York: African Pub. Co.

Boateng, S.K.(1985). " Assessment of the Cognitive Readiness of Social Studies Teachers in Lagos State". Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, University of Lagos.

Bottomore, T. (1979). Political Sociology. London: Hutchinson & Co. Pub.

Braugart, R.G. (1976). Societies and Politics. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs.

Brown, F. and Gray, J. (1979). (eds). Political Culture and Political Change In Communist States. London: Macmillian Press.

Brown, F.G. (1976). 2nd ed. Principles of Educational and Psychological Testing. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Cangelosi, J.S. (1990). Designing Tests for Evaluating Students' Achievement. New York: Longman.

Dennis, J. (1973) (ed). Socialisation to Politics: A Reader. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Deutsch, K.A. (1961). " Social Mobilisation and Political Development." The American Political Science Review. Vol. 55, No. 3(2)

Drucker, P.F. (1965). Power and Democracy In America. Notre Dame Indiana: Uni of Notre Dame Press.

DuBey, D.L. (1972). "Educational Institutionalisation: The Socialisation of Citizens In A Developing Nation" Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Standford University, Standford.

DuBey, D.L. (1985). Meeting the Objectives of Social Studies, What is left to Be Done? A paper presented at the Social Studies Seminar, A.B.U., Zaria. Sept. 9

DuBey, D.L. and Barth, J.L. (1980). Social Studies: The Inquiry Method Approach. London: Thomas Nelson Ltd.

DuBey, D.L., Onyabe, V.O. and Prokupek, P. (1980). Social Studies Methods for Nigerian Teachers. Ibadan: Uni. Press Ltd.

DuBey, D.L. (1977). (ed) Social Studies For the Future, National Social Studies Conference Report.

Easton, D. and Dennis, J. (1969). Children in the Political Process. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company

Ehman, L. (1980). "The American School In the Political Socialisation Process," Review of Educational Research, vol. 50

Elcook, H. (1976). Political Behaviour. London: Methuen & Co Ltd.

Eze, O. (1984). Human Rights In Africa: Some Selected Problems: Nigeria Institute of International Affairs. Lagos: Macmillan Pub. Ltd.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (1979). Nigerian Constitution. Lagos: Daily Times Publication.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (1981). National Policy on Education. Lagos: Federal Ministry of Information.

FGN/UNICEF/UNESCO (1997). Assessment of Learning Achievement of Primary 4 Pupils in Nigeria, National, Report.

Finer, S.E. (1962). The Man on Horseback: The Role of the Military in Politics. London: Pall Mall Press.

Frank, C. Mckinlay, R. D. (1997). Does Politics Matter. European Journal of Political Research Vol. 31, o. 1 -2 pp. 99-107.

Galadima, M.A. (1991). "Teachers Assessment of the Impact of Social Studies Education on the Development of Effective Citizenship: A Case Study of Chanchaga Local Government Area of Niger State, Nigeria." Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, Jos.: Uni. Of Jos.

Greenstein, F. I. (1965). Children and Politics. New Haven: Yale Uni. Press.

Greenstein, F.I. (1968). "Political Socialisation" In Shills, D. L. Encyclopaedia of The Social Sciences, vol. 14, London: Macmillan and the Free Press.

Gyimah-Boadi, E. (1996). Civil Society in Africa. Journal of Democracy vol. M.Ed. Thesis, Uni of Jos. 7, No. 2, pp. 118 - 131.

Haruna, M. (1999). "Beheading The Monster", Tell Magazine, No. 26, June 28

Ikpa, J.I. (1991). "A Comparative Study of Socialisation Process Among The Three Major Ethnic Groups (Tiv, Idoma and Igala) of Benue State Nigeria: Implications for Social Studies Education." M.Ed. Thesis, Jos, Uni of Jos.

Inoescu, G. (1984). Politics and the Pursuit of Happiness. London: Longman Pub. Co.

Ismaila, U.Y. (1986). "A Critical Appraisal of Social Studies Programme in Secondary Schools in Sokoto State." Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, Jos, Uni. Of Jos.

Iyortsuum, P.T. (1985). "Education and Socialisation: A study of Child Development In A Nigerian Community." Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, A.B.U. Zaria.

Jaros, D. (1973). Socialisation to Politics. London: Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd.

Kavanagh, D. (1972). Political Culture. London: Macmillan Press.

Kerlinger, F. N. (1973). Foundations of Behavioural Research. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston Inc.

King, P. (1977). The Study of Politics: A Collection of Inaugural Lectures. London: Frank Cass & Co Ltd.

Kissock, C. (1981). Curriculum Planning For Social Studies Teachers. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Koff, D.V.D., Muhll, G. and Prewitt, K. (1973). "Political Socialisation in Three East African Countries: A Comparative Analysis". In Dennis,J. Socialisation to Politics: A Reader. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Krejcie, R.V. and Morgan, D.W. (1970). "Determining Sample Size for Research Activities," Educational Psychological Measurement, 30, pp 607-610

Laslett, P. (1963),(ed.). Philosophy, Politics and Society. First Series, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Learner, D. (1985). The Passing of Traditional Society. Glencoe: Ill. The Free Press.

Madubuike, G.I. (1985). "The Role of Social Studies Towards the Achievement of Citizenship Education in Post Primary Schools in Anambra State, Nigeria." Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, Jos; Uni. of Jos.

MAMSER, (1989). Political Education Manual: Towards a Free Democratic Society.

Mafuyai, S. G. (1980). "Opening Address" In N.E.R.C., Social Studies: Teaching Issues and Problems. Benin City: Ethiope Pub. Co.

Makinde, M.A. (1980). "The Philosophy of Integrated Social Studies" In N.E.R.C. Social Studies: Teaching Issues and Problems. Benin City: Ethiope Pub. Co.

Mitchell, G. D. (1979) (ed.). A Dictionary of Sociology. London & Henley: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Ndagi, J.O. (1984). The Essentials of Research Methodology for Nigerian Educators. Ibadan: Uni. Press Ltd.

NERC (1980). Social Studies: Teaching Issues and Problems. Benin City: Ethiope Pub. Co.

Nettl, J. P. (1967). Political Mobilisation: A Sociological Analysis of Methods and Concepts. London: Faber & Faber Ltd.

Nwankwo, J.I. (1983). Introduction to Research Operations In Education and the Social Sciences. Karachi: Izharson Press Pub.

Obanya, P. (1985). Teaching Methods Across The Curriculum. London: Collins International Textbooks.

Ofiaja, A. (1980). "Political Culture and Unity in Nigeria" Daily Times, Nov. 30th.

Ogunsheye, A. (1967). "Nigeria: Role of Education in Socialisation". In Coleman, J. S. (ed.) Education and Political Development: Studies in Political Development 4. New Jersey: Princeton Uni. Press.

Okam, C.C. (1988)."Student-Teacher Perception of Social Studies Programmes for Teachers' Grade II in Nigeria." Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Jos: Uni of Jos.

Okam, C.C. (1998). Teaching Issues, Insights and Problems In the Social Studies Education in Nigeria Jos: Deka Publications.

Okam, C.C. (1998). Readings In The Social Studies Curriculum In Nigeria. Jos: Deka Publications.

Okobiah, O.S. and Udoh, E.N.E. (1984) (eds.). Social Studies In National Development and Integration. SOSAN Publications. Enugu: Uni of Nigeria Pub.

Ostheimer, J.M. (1973). Nigerian Politics. New York: Harper & Row Pub.

Oti, G. O. (1991). "An Evaluation of the Integrated Social Studies Programme for JSS In Plateau State." Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Jos: Uni. of Jos.

Peil, M; Mitchel, P; Rimmer, D. (1982) Social Science Research Method: And African Hand book. London: Hodder And Stoughton.

Prewitt, K. (1971). (ed). Education and Political Values Nairobi: East Africa Pub. House.

Prewitt, K. and Dawson, R. E. (1982). Political Socialisation. Boston: Little Brown and Co.

Oakeshott, M. (1977). "Political Education" In King, P. The Study of Politics: A Collection of Inaugural Lectures. London: Frank Cass & Co. Ltd

Renshon, S. A. (1977). Handbook of Political Socialisation: Theory and Research. New York: The Free Press.

Roach, P. (1967). Political Socialisation in the New Nations of Africa. New York, Teacher College Press.

Schwartz, D. C. and Schwartz, S.K. (1975) (eds.). New Directions in Political Socialisation. New York: The Free Press

Sica, M.G. (1976). "Political Orientations of Mexican-American and Anglo-American Children." Social Education, vol. 40, No. 6.

Sigel, R.S. (1970). Learning About Politics: A Reader in Political Socialisation. New York: Random House.

Sills, D. L. (1971). (ed). International Encyclopaedia of The Social Sciences. New York: The Macmillian Co.

Smith, T. (1990). "Citizenship, Community and Constitutionalism. Parliamentary Affairs:" A Journal of Comparative Politics. Vol. 49, No. 2, pp. 262-266.

Stacey, B. (1998). Political Socialisation in Western Society. London: Edward Arnold Pub. Ltd.

Stuart, M. J. (1985). Essays on Politics and Society: Collected Works XIX.Uni of Toronto Press, Routledge & Kegan Paul

Talmage, H. (1976) Statistics As a Tool For Educational Practitioners. Berkeley: Mc Cutchan Publishing Company.

Thompson, D. F. (1970). The Democratic Citizen. Ibadan: Cambridge Uni. Press.

Tita, J.M. (1991). "An Evaluation of National JSS Social Studies Programme in Selected Schools in Plateau State." Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Uni of Jos.

Torney, J.V., Oppenheim, A. N. and Farnen, R.F. (1975). Civic Education in Ten Countries: International Studies In Evaluation VI.

Uche, V.W. (1980). "The Nature, Objectives and Teaching of Social Studies." In NERC Social Studies: Teaching Issues and Problems, Benin: Ethiope Pub.

Udoh, E.N.E. (1974). "Social Studies and Nigerian Educational Philosophy". Nigerian Educational Forum. 1:1, p. 54 - 56.

Udoh, E.N.E. (1983) Foundation of Social Studies Education In Africa, London: Evans.

Udoh, E.N.E. (1992). "Social Studies and Citizenship Education". A Lead Paper presented at the 12th Annual Conference of SOSAN, Zaria.

Uganda Workshop (1976). "A Review of Grade II T.T.C. Social Studies Syllabus". In A.S.S. P. Newsletter, 11(4), pp. 6 - 40.

Ukeje, B.O. (1960). Education for Social Reconstruction. London: Macmillian Pub. Co.

Wheeler, D. K. (1967). Curriculum Process. London: Hodder and Stoughton

Wiles K. and Lovell, J. T. (1975). Supervision for Better Schools. New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall Inc.

Wilmot, P. F. (1979). In Search of Nationhood: The Theory And Practice of Nationalism In Africa. Ibadan: Lantern Books.

Wilmot, P.F. (1980). Ideology and National Consciousness. Ibadan: Lantern Books.

Zigler, E., Balla, D. and Watson, N.O. (1972). "Developmental and Experimental Determinants of Self-Image Disparity In Institutionalised and Non-Institutionalised Retarded and Normal Children". Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 23(1) p. 81 - 87

APPENDIX I

Political Socialisation Tests: JSS III

Time Allowed: 1 hour

Name:----------

School----------

INSTRUCTION:

Fill in the appropriate information and answer the questions in the spaces provided or tick(✓) where necessary. Answer all questions. Section A.

A Type of school: Public □ Private □

B Gender Male □ Female □

C Age

D Religion: Christianity □ Islam □ Others - specify

E Parents/Guardians' Occupation

(I) Father's occupation: (a) Civil Servant (b) Trader (c) farmer

(d) business (e) Others-specify

(ii) Mother's occupation (a) Civil servant (b) trader

(c) house manager (d) business (e) others - specify

F Write the number of the following items owned by the family

Car/Video/Satellite/Rooms occupied by the family/House helps

G Rank (arrange) from Most to Least important (Ist to 4th) the following agents through which you learn about the government and public affairs.

Family, friends, school (teachers, Social Studies) mass media (tv, radio, newspapers)

SECTION B

Paper I: **Political Socialisation Cognitive Test**

1 Who is the President of Nigeria?

2 Mention one duty of the President

3 Who is the Vice-President of Nigeria?

4 Who is the Governor of this State?

5 Who is the Traditional Ruler. Emir/Oba/Village Head/of the town or village where your school is located?

6 Mention one duty of the Traditional Ruler.

7 Who is the Minister of Education in Nigeria?

8 Who is the President of USA?

9 Who is the Secretary of the United Nations?

10 Write one important function(work) of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU).

11 What is the Nigerian National Motto?

12 Nigeria was a former colony of:

(a) America, (b) Japan, (c) Israel, (d) Britain, (e) France

13 When did Nigeria become a Republic?

(a) October, 1953, (b) October, 1963, (c) October, 1973, (d) October, 1983, (e) Oct., 1993.

14 Politics means: (a) Rules and Regulating (b) Science or Art of government, (c) Government of the people, (d) Political party, (e) Political system.

15 What is the name given to the Highest Court of Justice in Nigeria?

(a) Customary court, (b) Federal High Court, (c) Federal Court of Appeal, (d) Magistrate Court, (e) Supreme Court.

16 Laws and principles to which a country is governed is called?

(a) By laws (b) Edict, (c) Constitution, (d) Rules,

(e) Regulations

17 Which of the following is not a civic responsibility:

(a) Dedication to good work (b) Helping law enforcement

agency, (c) Payment of taxes, (d) Abuse of office, (e) Reporting offenders to the principal.

18 Which of these is a common heritage to all Nigerians?
(a) Christianity (b) Islam (c) National dress (d) National food (e) National territory.

19 A nation's law-making body is referred to as: (a) Legislature, (b) Executive, (c) Civil Service. (d) Judiciary, (e) Lawyer

20 List the three (3) Political Parties that Nigeria has at present--

21 Name three (3) National symbols of Nigeria
1----------2----------3----------

22 List 3 obligations (duties) of a good citizen:
1----------2----------3----------

23 List 2 things that the National Anthem teaches you:
1----------2----------

24 Name 2 things that the National Pledge teaches you
1----------2----------

25 Identify the 3 tiers (levels) of government in Nigeria .
1----------2----------3----------

26 Name the 3 arms of government in Nigeria
1----------2----------3----------

27 List any 3 fundamental human rights:
1----------2----------3----------

28 What are civic duties?----------

29 From the list below TICK 5 qualities of a good citizen:
1) Cooperation □ 2) Loyalty □ 3) Wealth □ 4) Honesty □
5) power □ 6) Tolerance □ 7) Obedience □ 8) Strength □

30 Name the State in which each of these towns is located:
Asaba---------- Jalingo---------- Ibadan----------

Lokoja---------- Port Harcourt---------- Maiduguri--------

SECTION C

PAPER II: Political Socialisation Affective Test

1 How often do you talk about politics and public affairs with your friends

a) Never □ b) Almost never □ c) Few times a month □ d) Several times a week □ e) Daily □

2 How often do you talk about politics and public affairs with your parents?

a) Never □ b) Almost never □ c) Few times a month □ d) Several times a week □ e) Daily □

3 How often do you read about politics and public affairs in Newspapers and Magazines?

a) Never □ b) Almost never □ c) Few times a month □ d) Several times a week □ e) Daily □

4 How often do you listen to political news on Radio and watch political talk on TV?

a) Never □ b) Almost never □ c) Few times a month □ d) Several times a week □ e) Daily □

5 How much attention do you feel that government pays to what people (the public) think of say?

a) Very Much, b) Much, c) A little, d) Not Much, e) None at all

6 How much of the time can you trust the government in Nigeria to take decisions that are in the interest of the common man?

a) Always, b) About Always, c) Most of the time, d) Some of the time, e) None of the time.

7 Do you think it is likely you will later take up a career in

politics?

a) Very likely, b) Likely, c), Can't say, d) Not likely, e) Very Unlikely

8 How important is the learning about the government and public affairs at the JSS Level?

a) Very important, b) Important, c) Little important, d) Not important, e) Very unimportant

9 Which do you prefer in Nigeria?

a) Military rule, b) Civilian rule

10 which person helps Nigeria more?

a) The person who does not pay his taxes in order, that he can use the money to pay his children's school fees

(b) The person who pays his taxes, but then he cannot pay his children's school fees.

11 Which of these statements do you agree with?

a) It is difficult for a man to improve his life unless the government makes conditions better.

b) A man who works hard enough can improve his life, even if the government does not make conditions better.

12 Which type of person do you want to be (please tick one)

a) A person who is ready to help members of his religious faith first.

b) A person who is ready to help members of his ethnic group first.

c) A person who is ready to help himself first.

d) A person who is ready to help his state first.

e) A person who is ready to help his country first.

13 TICK any one of the following statements which you mostly

agree with:

a) As a good citizen, I will know about customs, traditions and symbols of my country.

b) As a good citizen, I will be religious.

c) As a good citizen, I will be well educated.

d) As a good citizen, I will obey the laws of my country.

e) As a good citizen, I will work hard.

	TICK the one you agree with	**YES**	**NO**
14	If someone believes a law is wrong must he obey it	____	____
15	Ethnic identity should be stronger than Nigeria identity	____	____
16	Would you like to take part in electing your class and school prefects	____	____
17	Would you report anyone destroying school property to the Principal?	____	____
18	Would you report anyone committing a crime to the Police?	____	____
19	The official voting age in Nigeria is 18 years. Would you vote when you are 18 years old?	____	____
20	Would you like to join a political party?	____	____
21	Would you write articles in the newspapers in order to advise the government?	____	____
22	Would you pay your taxes regularly when you grow up?	____	____
23	When you become an adult, would you like to take part in decision making at the State or Federal level?	____	____

24 Which of the political parties in Nigeria do you prefer? Write the name

25 If the government fails to do what it promised during the election campaign, what should the people (Public) do?

26 List 2 problems facing the government of Nigeria.

1----------

2----------

27 How can those problems be solved?

---

28 Mention 2 things you would like to do for your country for which you want to be remembered.

APPENDIX II

POLITICAL SOCIALISATION OF JSS STUDENTS IN NIGERIA: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Kindly respond to every item. School:_____

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Age group: 20-25 [ ]26-30[ ]31-35 [ ]30-40 [ ] 40-45 [ ]
   46 and above [ ]
3. Qualifications: NCE [ ] B.A. [ ] B.Ed. [ ] B.Sc. [ ]
   M.A. [ ] M.Ed. [ ] Other specify [ ]
4. Area of specialisation: Social Studies [ ] Science [ ]
   Social Science [ ] Education [ ]
5. Teaching experience (in years) 1-3 [ ] 4-6 [ ] 7-9 [ ]
   10-12 [ ] 13-15 [ ]15-17 [ ]18-20 [ ]21-23 [ ] 24 & above
6. How long have you been teaching Social Studies in this School?
7. Which Social Studies syllabus do you use in the school?
   National [ ] State [ ] School [ ]
8. List the Social Studies textbooks that are used in the school.
9. Do you have teachers' guides/copies of the Social Studies textbooks
10. What percentage of the students has Social Studies textbooks?
11. List the methods that you use in teaching Social Studies.
    (a) Most of the time (b) Occasionally
12 What is the average number of students per class?
13 What is the attitude of the students towards Social Studies?

14. How many periods per week was allocated to Social Studies?

15 How adequate is the number of periods?

16 List in-service courses you attended as the expense of your employer.

1 2 3

17. List the in-service courses you attended at your own expense.

1 2 3

18. List the conferences / workshops / seminars which you attended.

a. Duration Organiser

b. Duration Organiser

19. Comment freely on the status of Social Studies compared with the other school subjects.

APPENDIX III

SUMMARY OF ITEM ANALYSIS ON COGNITIVE TEST

ITEM NO.	TOTAL SCORE	r	OBSERVED P Value	DECISION
ITEM 1	53	0.0093	0.954	rejected
ITEM 2	76	0.3049	0.053	retained
ITEM 3	63	0.3045	0.054	rejected
ITEM 4	75	0.3614	0.021	retained
ITEM 5	56	0.3507	0.025	retained
ITEM 6	76	0.3479	0.026	retained
ITEM 7	56	0.4814	0.001	retained
ITEM 8	71	0.2665	0.092	retained
ITEM 9	70	0.6730	0.000	retained
ITEM 10	72	0.4598	0.002	retained
ITEM 11	61	0.7318	0.000	retained
ITEM 12	46	0.3763	0.015	retained
ITEM 13	47	0.4751	0.002	retained
ITEM 14	59	0.5824	0.000	retained
ITEM 15	82	0.4350	0.004	retained
ITEM 16	69	0.1104	0.492	rejected
ITEM 17	68	0.5989	0.000	retained
ITEM 18	102	0.2185	0.170	retained
ITEM 19	57	0.1836	0.251	retained
ITEM 20	92	0.0532	0.741	reframed
ITEM 21	63	0.0185	0.909	reframed
ITEM 22	84	0.5201	0.000	retained
ITEM 23	68	0.2108	0.186	retained
ITEM 24	69	0.0767	0.634	rejected
ITEM 25	61	0.4457	0.003	retained
ITEM 26	56	0.4666	0.002	retained
ITEM 27	70	0.2862	0.070	retained
ITEM 28	15	0.1333	0.406	reframed
ITEM 29	60	0.5710	0.000	retained
ITEM 30	64	0.3216	0.040	retained

APPENDIX IV

SUMMARY OF ITEM ANALYSIS ON AFFECTIVE TEST

ITEM NO.	TOTAL SCORE	r	P Value	DECISION
ITEM 1	117	0.7791	0.000	retained
ITEM 2	125	0.7977	0.000	retained
ITEM 3	133	0.9219	0.000	reframed
ITEM 4	115	0.7812	0.000	retained
ITEM 5	130	0.9284	0.000	reframed
ITEM 6	117	0.7986	0.000	retained
ITEM 7	130	0.8669	0.000	retained
ITEM 8	127	0.8601	0.000	retained
ITEM 9	133	0.8851	0.000	retained
ITEM 10	127	0.8624	0.000	retained
ITEM 11	129	0.8602	0.000	retained
ITEM 12	134	0.8998	0.000	retained
ITEM 13	130	0.9169	0.000	retained
ITEM 14	125	0.9706	0.000	reframed
ITEM 15	132	0.9141	0.000	retained
ITEM 16	110	0.8089	0.000	retained
ITEM 17	123	0.9099	0.000	retained
ITEM 18	136	0.8576	0.000	retained
ITEM 19	138	0.8639	0.000	retained
ITEM 20	122	0.8379	0.000	retained
ITEM 21	94	0.0754	0.000	retained
ITEM 22	111	0.3967	0.010	retained
ITEM 23	94	0.0693	0.667	retained
ITEM 24	99	0.5059	0.001	retained
ITEM 25	140	0.9262	0.000	retained
ITEM 26	134	0.8975	0.000	retained
ITEM 27	128	0.7659	0.000	retained
ITEM 28	125	0.8373	0.000	retained
ITEM 29	134	0.8088	0.000	retained
ITEM 30	90	0.8256	0.000	retained
ITEM 31	112	0.6609	0.000	retained

APPENDIX V

CORRELATION COEFFICIENT FOR INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF 19 PROPOSED TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

ITEM NO	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT	P VALUE	DECISION
ITEM 3	0.3508	0.013	SIG
ITEM 4	0.4612	0.001	SIG
ITEM 5	0.4612	0.001	SIG
ITEM 6	0.2844	0.045	SIG
ITEM 7	0.3267	0.021	SIG
ITEM 8	0.0019	0.990	NOT SIG
ITEM 9	0.3965	0.004	SIG
ITEM 10	0.4418	0.001	SIG
ITEM 11	0.3148	0.026	SIG
ITEM 12	0.7142	0.000	SIG
ITEM 13	0.2844	0.045	SIG
ITEM 14	0.4419	0.001	SIG
ITEM 15	0.4419	0.001	SIG
ITEM 16	0.4419	0.001	SIG
ITEM 17	0.2863	0.004	SIG
ITEM 18	0.5188	0.000	SIG
ITEM 19	0.2844	0.045	SIG

APPENDIX VI

NATIONAL SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING SYLLABUS FOR NIGERIAN JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS	NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
. COOPERATION AND CONFLICT	i) explain the importance of cooperation between individuals and states in the country. ii) Outline the consequences of non-cooperation. iii Accept the need for moral and social responsibility.	a. Cooperation and Conflict b. Moral and Social Responsibility	i) ii) Discuss the various dimensions of social studies. iii) Objectives and methodology of Social Studies iv) Concept to be presented in a meaningful and relevant way in relation to the teaching materials. The role of cooperation and social responsibility in keeping society going.	Group activities like i. Scrubbing of classroom, washing plate keeping the environment tidy. ii Visit to law courts, markets, dialogues role playing, dramatisation, stories, etc to illustrate the concepts.
CIVIC RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITY	Distinguish the various civic functions of the voluntary organizations	Voluntary organisations	ii Necessity for these attitudes to be developed i. Religious and other voluntary organisations e.g. YWCA, Boys Scouts, Red Cross Society, etc. ii Discuss their various functions	iv. Encourage meaningful use of leisure e.g. hobbies, clubs etc.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS	NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
a. CIVIC RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITY.	i. identify various civic rights and obligation. ii. develop the habit of performing these rights and obligations. iii. recognise the consequences of non-fulfilment of these rights and obligations.	a. Legal and civic obligations. b. The role of the individual in the social institutions obligations and responsibilities. c. Unsolicited obligations. d. Civics rights e. Attitude to work i. commitment and dedication to work. ii. punctuality iii. efficiency iv. leisure v. civility vi. service. f. Consequences of nonfulfilment of these obligations.	i. Focus on the basic rights of the individuals. -Right to vote and be voted for -Free association -Free movement -Free expression -Freedom to worship ii. Understanding why we should obey the laws of the community including the family, school, village, etc. iii. Paying taxes and settling bills, etc. iv. Obeying traffic regulations. v. participation in stopping running tap, saving casualties, helping the needy and old people. Having considerations for other road users. i. Teachers of discuss meaning of effective use of leisure.	i. Discuss why they should fulfill their legal and civic rights obligations. ii. Collect information on traffic rules and regulations. i. Students to do voluntary activities. ii. Demonstration road use. iii. Role playing the need the old. iv. Giving instruction on First Aid. i. Assigning responsibilities to them in groups and individuals. ii. Keeping record of late-comers. iii. Rotating time keeping among pupils.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
CULTURE AND IDENTITY	i. identify the various aspects of culture ii explain the concept of identity iii explain the concept of integration	a. Culture b. Identity c. Integration

	NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
	Understanding various aspects of culture including the following: religion, arts, language literature, music and dances, dressing, technology, etc. Understanding the concept of identity and from what it derives e.g. common traits and features peculiar to the people. Understanding the meaning of integration when applied to people and the necessity for integrating a country's peoples.	I. Organizing traditional plays and dances ii Visiting traditional rulers and chiefs iii Visiting a museum iv Use of visual and audio-visual aid to illustrate various aspects of culture.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS	NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
NIGERIAN CULTURAL PATTERNS & THEIR HISTORICAL ORIGINS	i. Identify the ethnic groups of the country and their cultural characteristics. ii state the known historical origins of the various cultures.	a. Peoples of Nigeria i. Ethnic groups their locations ii Cultural behaviour e.g. songs, dances, arts, etc.	i. The location of the ethnic groups ii why some ethnic groups are more dispersed than others. State? iii Treat the ethnic groups within the states from the following Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Ibibio/Efit, Edo, Nupe, Urhobo/Isoko, Ijo, Jukun, Itsekiri, Chamba, Ogoni, Ekoi, Indama, Igala. iv Other ethnic groups found convevient.	i. Display pictures, charts, and maps, etc to be used. ii Collect information about your own and other ethnic groups iii Choose pen-pals from other states. iv. Exchange visits v. Games vi. Learn dances/music of other groups. vii. In urban areas, find out/neighbours and make friends with them. i. Collect oral tradition, folklore, legends of their own people. ii. Find out information about others especially their neighbour if they are from other areas. iii. Resource persons can be invited to giv talks.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS	NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
COMMON HERITAGE & NATIONAL SYMBOLS	i. appreciate the common heritage of the various groups ii. Explain the unifying effects of the common traits. iii. Identify & explain the national symbols iv. Honour all the Nigerian national symbols	a) Common traits i. Traditional political and economic system ii. Common economic experience iii. Common social institutions. iv. Common historical experience v. Citizenship b) National Symbols	Leadership e.g. chieftaincy & functional heads, cooperatives n farming. e.g. gathering, farming & trade. The family, religion age-groups marriage etc. The slave trade Reference to different types of citizenship and the functions of the Nigerian pass-port i. The Nigerian Anthem iii. The National Coat of Arms Brief explanation of the symbols emphasizing their importance for national unity and identity. iv. The Pledge.	i. Display of the symbols ii. Children to collect those of other countries iii Drawing and painting of the symbols iv. Singing the anthem and reciting the pledge.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
LEADERSHIP	i. identify the qualities and types of leadership ii make use of these qualities in the choice of leaders iii identify the qualities of followership	a. Qualities of leadership b. Types of leadership c. Choice of leaders

NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
i. Rulers should show discipline by respecting rules and regulations ii. The family, educational, religious, legal health, political and economic institutions	i. Students to be encouraged to be members of school clubs and associations and to respect established authority ii Discuss the need to respect these institutions iii Using the power structure in the school to illustrate these principles Use of inquiry method.
i. Processes of identification and choosing leaders ii Understanding the criteria for determining legitimacy for choice of leaders.	

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
LEADERSHIP FOLLOWERSHIP AND CONSEQUENCES (CONTD)	iv. Specify some of the consequences of a. Good leadership b. Good followership c. Their negation ii. Recognise the rights of others to societal goods and services	d. Qualities of followership d. Communication link between leadership and followership c. Social order - leadership and followership

NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
membership and commitment in terms of loyalty, self discipline and obedience. Attention of children to be drawn to contradictions in society between ideals and practices.	i. Case studies ii Biographies
Teacher to emphasize the role of cooperation and social responsibility in keeping society going. Leadership to complement each other in preserving the norms, traditions, regulations and constitutions as embodiment of social order of others. Recognition of the right of others to societal goods and services.	Sharing the products of the school farm and other benefits.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
DEVELOPMENT	i. explain the concept of development. ii. distinguish between different aspects of development	a. Development b. Growth

NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
i. Development should cover all aspects of national life including political, social economic & cultural. ii. Distinction should be made between development and growth	i. Discussion ii. Use of simulation/games, playlets. iii Use of picture for contract.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT	i. explain the idea of a xommunity. ii. Identify the processes of community development. iii. Identify modes of social stratification. iv. Explain inter-relationship of nations and community relationships	The Community i. Relationship between family and the community. ii. Social stratification iii. Inter-community relationship.

NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
Understanding what the community means. How a community develops family migration, inter-marriage, need for survival. Extend to the national level to show how a nation evolves. The process could be voluntary or imposed by external forces.	i. Discussion. ii. Collect stories of origins of communi iii. Role playing iv. Use of resource persons. v. Use of films and film strips to illustr the way of life of the various stratified social groups.
Mode of stratification (both traditional & modern) i. Political ii. Economic iii. Religious	i. Pupils to find out examples of meaningful relationship in the economic political and administrative realms. ii. Discussion.
i. Urban/rural relationship ii. Rural/rural relationships iii. Urban/urban relationships.	

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
INSTITUTIONS	i. state the functions & explain the structure of legal, political and economic institutions	a. Legal institutions b. Political institutions c. Economic institutions d. Religious institutions e. Traditional institutions.
SOCIALISATION ITS AGENCIES AND PROCESSES	i. explain the process of socialisation ii identify the agencies of socialisation iii identify human rights and responsibilities of individuals in the society iv recognise patterns of group behaviour	a. Initiation of the individual into social institutions e.g. family, peer group, age-group b. The role of the individual in the social institutions: obligations and responsibilities c. Patterns of group behaviour

NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
Structure and Functions	i. Vibists to courts, assemblies, local governments councils, markets, banks, et ii. Collect information from newspapers, magazines, posters, etc. iii. Use of visual and audio visual aids.
The teacher to emphasize among others values like honesty, tolerance, self-discipline, teamwork, etc. Human rights to be emphasized Similarities and differences in group behaviour. Identify moral values and emphasize them.	i. Role playing ii. Pupils to find out from home the ways and how of certain modes of behaviour conduct. iii. Simulation games on tolerance

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS	NOTES	RELATED ACTIVITIES
LACK OF COOPERATION AND ITS EFFECTS	explain the factors contributing to social instability	Social Instability	Discuss factors like crime, inefficiency, selfishness, etc. and how they contribute to instability	iv. Students to visit courts, observe their proceedings and report ii. Visit the prisons iii Discussion on traditional mode of punishment e.g. taboos.

Page 2 POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION OF JSS STUDENTS IN NIGERIA 9/16/2000
BY DR. (MRS) ADEKEYE RACHEL BOLA, ABU ZARIA

Independent samples of V3 GENDER

Group 1: V3 EQ 1.00 Group 2: V3 EQ 2.00

t-test for: V1 COGNITIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	368	57.9239	14.018	.731
Group 2	352	57.2443	13.737	.732

	Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.04	.702	.66	718	.512	.66	717.58	.511

t-test for: V2 AFFECTIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	368	65.7908	11.162	.582
Group 2	352	66.0142	9.254	.493

	Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.45	.000	-.29	718	.771	-.29	703.92	.770

Page 3 POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION OF JSS STUDENTS IN NIGERIA 9/16/2000
BY DR. (MRS) ADEKEYE RACHEL BOLA, ABU ZARIA

This procedure was completed at 16:26:32

Page 4 POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION OF JSS STUDENTS IN NIGERIA 9/16/2000
BY DR. (MRS) ADEKEYE RACHEL BOLA, ABU ZARIA

Independent samples of V4 LOCATION

Group 1: V4 EQ 1.00 Group 2: V4 EQ 2.00

t-test for: V1 COGNITIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error

-test for: V1 COGNITIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	480	60.9375	12.294	.561
Group 2	240	50.9000	14.451	.933

Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.
1.38	.003	9.73	718	.000	9.22	416.10	.000

-test for: V2 AFFECTIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	480	66.3896	10.592	.483
Group 2	240	64.9208	9.529	.615

Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.
1.24	.064	1.81	718	.070	1.88	525.44	.061

his procedure was completed at 16:26:32

ndependent samples of V5 TYPE OF SCHOOL

roup 1: V5 EQ 1.00 Group 2: V5 EQ 2.00

-test for: V1 COGNITIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	480	55.7604	13.735	.627
Group 2	240	61.2542	13.451	.868

Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.04	.719	-5.09	718	.000	-5.13	487.10	.000

t-test for: V2 AFFECTIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	480	65.2396	10.182	.465
Group 2	240	67.2208	10.330	.667

Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.03	.787	-2.45	718	.015	-2.44	472.04	.015

This procedure was completed at 16:26:33

Independent samples of V6 RELIGION

Group 1: V6 EQ 1.00 Group 2: V6 EQ 2.00

t-test for: V1 COGNITIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	198	56.9394	15.769	1.121
Group 2	522	57.8391	13.094	.573

Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
1.45	.001	-.78	718	.438	-.71	305.62	.475

t-test for: V2 AFFECTIVE

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Group 1	198	65.6919	10.613	.754
Group 2	522	65.9789	10.142	.444

Pooled Variance Estimate				Separate Variance Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.

1.10	.429	-.33	718	.738	-.33	341.60	.743

This procedure was completed at 16:26:33

- - - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - - - -

Variable V1 COGNITIVE

By Variable V7 ECONOMIC STATUS

Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	6445.5145	3222.7572	17.5070	.0000
Within Groups	717	131988.4355	184.0843		
Total	719	138433.9500			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 Pct Conf Int for Mean
HI-INCOM	42	61.3095	12.0860	1.8649	57.5432 To 65.0758
MIDDLE	382	59.9424	12.5218	.6407	58.6827 To 61.2021
LOW-INCO	296	54.0304	14.9871	.8711	52.3160 To 55.7448
Total	720	57.5917	13.8758	.5171	56.5764 To 58.6069
Fixed Effects Model			13.5670	.5056	56.5990 To 58.5844
Random Effects Model				2.6966	45.9892 To 69.1942

Random Effects Model - Estimate of Between Component Variance 15.4566

Group	Minimum	Maximum
HI-INCOM	36.0000	85.0000
MIDDLE	22.0000	90.0000
LOW-INCO	10.0000	88.0000
Total	10.0000	90.0000

Tests for Homogeneity of Variances

Cochrans C = Max. Variance/Sum(Variances) = .4258, P = .000 (Approx.)
Bartlett-Box F = 5.930 , P = .003
Maximum Variance / Minimum Variance 1.538

- - - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - - - -

Variable V1 COGNITIVE
By Variable V7 ECONOMIC STATUS

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure
Ranges for the .050 level -

3.47 3.47

The ranges above are table ranges.
The value actually compared with Mean(J)-Mean(I) is..
9.5939 * Range * Sqrt(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Mean	Group	LOW-INCO	MIDDLE	HI-INCOM
54.0304	LOW-INCO			
59.9424	MIDDLE	*		
61.3095	HI-INCOM	*		

- - - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - - - -

Variable V2 AFFECTIVE

By Variable V7 ECONOMIC STATUS

Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	597.3864	298.6932	2.8482	.0586
Within Groups	717	75191.4136	104.8695		
Total	719	75788.8000			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 Pct Conf Int for Mean

HI-INCOM	42	68.9762	10.1681	1.5690	65.8076	To 72.1448
MIDDLE	382	66.1571	9.6324	.4928	65.1880	To 67.1261
LOW-INCO	296	65.1318	10.9856	.6385	63.8751	To 66.3884
Total	720	65.9000	10.2669	.3826	65.1488	To 66.6512
Fixed Effects Model			10.2406	.3816	65.1507	To 66.6493
Random Effects Model				.7702	62.5862	To 69.2138

Random Effects Model - Estimate of Between Component Variance .9857

Group	Minimum	Maximum
HI-INCOM	44.0000	93.0000
MIDDLE	23.0000	93.0000
LOW-INCO	15.0000	90.0000
Total	15.0000	93.0000

Tests for Homogeneity of Variances

Cochrans C = Max. Variance/Sum(Variances) = .3809, P = .090 (Approx.)
Bartlett-Box F = 2.885 , P = .056
Maximum Variance / Minimum Variance 1.301

- - - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - - - -

Variable V2 AFFECTIVE
By Variable V7 ECONOMIC STATUS

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure
Ranges for the .050 level -

3.47 3.47

The ranges above are table ranges.
The value actually compared with Mean(J)-Mean(I) is..
7.2412 * Range * Sqrt(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))

No two groups are significantly different at the .050 level

This procedure was completed at 16:26:34

Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	16183.3000	8091.6500	47.4575	.0000
Within Groups	717	122250.6500	170.5030		
Total	719	138433.9500			

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 Pct Conf Int for Mean
Grp 1	240	60.5750	12.2506	.7908	59.0172 To 62.1328
Grp 2	240	61.3000	12.3530	.7974	59.7292 To 62.8708
Grp 3	240	50.9000	14.4511	.9328	49.0624 To 52.7376
Total	720	57.5917	13.8758	.5171	56.5764 To 58.6069
Fixed Effects Model			13.0577	.4866	56.6363 To 58.5471
Random Effects Model				3.3524	43.1674 To 72.0159

Random Effects Model - Estimate of Between Component Variance 33.0040

Group	Minimum	Maximum
Grp 1	16.0000	88.0000
Grp 2	30.0000	90.0000
Grp 3	10.0000	86.0000
Total	10.0000	90.0000

Tests for Homogeneity of Variances

Cochrans C = Max. Variance/Sum(Variances) = .4083, P = .005 (Approx.)
Bartlett-Box F = 4.266 , P = .014
Maximum Variance / Minimum Variance 1.392

- - - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - - - -

Variable V1 COGNITIVE
By Variable V9 SCHOOLS

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure
Ranges for the .050 level -

3.47 3.47

The ranges above are table ranges.
The value actually compared with Mean(J)-Mean(I) is..
9.2332 * Range * Sqrt(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))

(*) Denotes pairs of groups significantly different at the .050 level

Mean	Group	G G G r r r p p p 3 1 2
50.9000	Grp 3	
60.5750	Grp 1	*
61.3000	Grp 2	*

Homogeneous Subsets (Subsets of groups, whose highest and lowest means do not differ by more than the shortest significant range for a subset of that size)

SUBSET 1

Group	Grp 3
Mean	50.9000

SUBSET 2

Group	Grp 1	Grp 2
Mean	60.5750	61.3000

- - - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - - - -

Variable V2 AFFECTIVE

By Variable V9 SCHOOLS

Analysis of Variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	590.2583	295.1292	2.8140	.0606

Total	719	75788.8000

Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 Pct Conf Int for Mean
Grp 1	240	65.6750	11.2545	.7265	64.2439 To 67.1061
Grp 2	240	67.1042	9.8572	.6363	65.8507 To 68.3576
Grp 3	240	64.9208	9.5294	.6151	63.7091 To 66.1326
Total	720	65.9000	10.2669	.3826	65.1488 To 66.6512
Fixed Effects Model			10.2411	.3817	65.1507 To 66.6493
Random Effects Model				.6402	63.1453 To 68.6547

Random Effects Model - Estimate of Between Component Variance .7977

Group	Minimum	Maximum
Grp 1	15.0000	93.0000
Grp 2	25.0000	93.0000
Grp 3	38.0000	88.0000
Total	15.0000	93.0000

Tests for Homogeneity of Variances

Cochrans C = Max. Variance/Sum(Variances) = .4026, P = .010 (Approx.)
Bartlett-Box F = 3.784 , P = .023
Maximum Variance / Minimum Variance 1.395

- - - - - - - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - - - - - -

Variable V2 AFFECTIVE
By Variable V9 SCHOOLS

Multiple Range Test

Scheffe Procedure
Ranges for the .050 level -

3.47 3.47

The ranges above are table ranges.
The value actually compared with Mean(J)-Mean(I) is..
7.2415 * Range * Sqrt(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))

No two groups are significantly different at the .050 level

Homogeneous Subsets (Subsets of groups, whose highest and lowest means