SELECTED GEOGRAPHY CONCEPTS AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME IN JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this project has been written by me and that it is a record of my own research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree. All quotations are indicated by quotation marks and the sources of information are specifically acknowledged by means of references.

(Sgd)
Yunusa Aliyu Babando
October, 1986

DEDICTATION

This project is Dedicated to my Parents

Alhaji Aliyu Usman Babando

and

Hajiya Habsa Iya

CERTIFICATION

This project work entitled SELECTED GEOGRAPHY CONCEPTS AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME IN JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL by Yunusa Aliyu Babando meets the regulations governing the award of the degree of Masters of Education in Curriculum and Instruction (Social Studies) of the Ahmadu Bello University and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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ABSTRACT

Social Studios as a new discipline in the country is presently gaining recognition in both the policy delibrations under the new education system and in a more wider di mention of curriculum development. Going in this perspective are serious shortcomings of most materials produced for the Social Studies programme, prominent among which are the neglect of the role Geography concepts and skills can play in the attainment of Social Studies objectives and the emphasis on facts as against conceptual development.

Unknown to many Social Studies teachers, the need for grasping the concept of areal arrangements and distribution of physical and cultural phenomena in space and time as taught in Social Studies has i ts roots in Geography, The Geography concepts inevitably form a part of every Social Studies unit, for in every unit the child learns about interrelationships among a Society, its culture and its environment, and about differences and similarities between places.

Suprisingly, a limited knowledge and understanding of geography, its concepts and relationship are provided in the Social Studies programme and its activities. The teachers on the other hand are unfaniliar with the concept:; and methods of geography which reduces it to a memory exercise of loosely organised facts.

The current trends in Social studies instruction emphasises the development of concepts as against abstract knowledge. Teaching for conceptual understanding is not a vicarious informal factor in Social Studies. To teach such a goal the entire teaching process, the organisation of content and materials, the selection of problems and sequencing of learning experiences most be specifically and conciously designed to bring about conceptual understanding.

It is therefore the objectives of this project on curriculum development to provide activities that can be used for secondary school students inorder to help them develop geography concerts and skills in Social Studies programme. And to identify and describe to the teachers what they should do inorder to develop their own activities.

Inorder to achieve these objectives eight (8) concepts have been selected from the junior secondary school syllabus and developed along the unit approach to instruction. Today, the unit approach is universally acknowledged as a superior way to organise for planning Social Studies instruction.

Lastly, strategies for improving the development of activities by teachers has been provided so that they too can encorporate conceptual and geographical understanding in teaching Social Studies.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Problem.

The discipline of social studies is now assuming a major dimension in the sphere of curriculum development in this country. This is because the objectives of social studies are consistent with the national educational aims and objectives. This consistency was said to be in recognition of the potentials of social studies for inculcating the right type of skills and values, through unified and integrated interdisciplinary studies of man (Okabiah 1984:66). One of the basic rationale for social studies education as stipulated by the national council for the social studies is the "enhancement of human dignity through learning" (1971:7). Human dignity mean equal access to the rights and responsibilities associated with membership in a culture. The emergent philosophy of education for Nigeria as established in the New National Policy on Education was based on; the integration of the individual into a sound and effective citizen and equal educational opportunities for all citizens of the nation at the primary, Secondary and tertiary levels, both inside and outside the formal school system (1985:8).

A major goal of education at present is the development of critical and analytical thinking abilities in pupils. These abilities can enable children to contribute in solving

the societal problems by the time they may have become adults and to enable them keep pace with the scientific and te technological changes of modern society. The need for analytical thinking is to help our youth understand the structure and the processes of our society. With possession of analytical tools, our youth will be able to understand the dynamic changes of our society and the problems created by science and technology. In the final analysis the purpose of Social Studies education is the development of problems solving ability. By acquiring the analytical tools and the skills to apply the tools to the problems, our youth will feel that, as adults, they can participate intelligently in the decision of a free society. In the pursuance of this objective, education will serve as a process designed to produce a person who after being initiated into a number of worthwhile activities would endeavour to continue with some of these on his own. The school must play a vital role in this preparation. And in order to be effective in this, the curriculum must consist of meaningful, purposeful experiences (Shapiro etal; 1969:293).

Chase and John point out that the major objectives of education is the development of the thinking citizens who is aware of his responsibility to society, (not a dormant, uncritical, and uncaring individual to all prevailing societal problems) and who at the same time is able to fulfil his

own need as an individual in a changing world. By their declaration, "Social studies has a special role in this development" (1978:1). The present social studies programme does not offer the proper intellectual framework to develop the analytical faculties of our youth. Social studies educators who have tried to identify generalizations for the social studies curriculum have suppressed the unique characteristics of the individual social science disciplines and formulated concepts so general that they are without analytical content.

In organizing the social studies curriculum, it should be realised that the education of future citizens is at stake. But to function effectively in today's world demands an insight and knowledge of geographical concepts and the development of geographical skills including the skills of using maps and globes as well as skills in the Scientific methods as applied to geographical analysis. Geography is that field of learning in which the characteristics of particular places on earth's surface are examined. It is concerned with the arrangement of things and with the associations of things that distinguish one area from another. It is concerned with the connections and movements between areas. The face of the earth is made up of many different features, each the momentary result of an ongoing process. There are physical and chemical processe

developing the forms of the land, the shapes of the ocean basins, the differing characterestics of water, soil and climate. There are biotic processes by which the plants and animals spread over the earth in complex area relationships to the physical features and to each other. And there are the economic, social and political process by which makind occopies the world, lands.

It will however be observed that considerable emphasis has been placed on the need for grasping the concept of areal arrangements and distribution of physical and cultural phenomena in space and time in geography. The concept of place and position are of importance to geographic understanding in the context of an integrated Social Studies approach (Propenfus, 1978:110). The Geographical concepts inevitably form a part of every Social Studies unit, for in every unit the child learns about interrelationships among a society, its culture and its environment, and about differences and similarities between places. "These relationships are the nub of geography" (Preston and Herman, 1981:26).

It is worthwhile to point out that any programme in the Social Studies is worth implementing only if it helps young people become more thoughtful and intelligent human beings. The objectives of a programme such as the geographic education

in social studies are being three fold:-

1. To help pupils to develop modes of inquiry and substantive understandings which will enable them to think more critically and creatively about the world in which they live.

2. To help them attain an identification with and an emotional attachement to the ideals and values that guide men lives in an egaliterian society.

3. To enable learners to anticipate change and seek to shape desirable changes in their way of life.

A social studies programme has little value if it does not contribute to the attainment of these goals (John 1965:21).

If geography is to be incoroporated into other Social Studies course, then naturally the teacher will have to adopt a basically different philosophy from that of the specialist. He will have to acquint himself with broader knowledge inorder to be able to supply the necessary information at the appropriate moments. Next, the teacher will have to develop techniques to allow him to incorporate geographic relationships. But suprisingly a limited knowledge and understanding of geography, its concepts and its relationship, are provided in the Social Studies programme. The subject is currently taught by mostly teachers

with little or no training in Geography, and the subject matter has even been tagged 'too difficult' (James, 1959:1). Student often grumble about how difficult it is to comprehend geography and the very wide scope it endeavours to cover (Windapo; in Ango 1979: 57). In another situation scientific studies show that too many pupils and even teachers are deficient in important phases of geography (Whipple, 1959:112). Also, sometimes geography teachers suppose that their adult mature approach to the subject is necessarily the one which should be imposed on the children (Okunrotifa, 1969:158). All of the above suggest and confirm that, in Secondary Social Studies programme, there is no concious effort by teachers to build in the students such geographical concepts and skill as there are in the physical geography and map work.

To teachers unfamiliar with concepts and methods of geography the subject can easily become a memory exercise; a listing of things that occur together in an area. The teacher merely sees his task in social Studies instruction as that of guiding his students to memorize a sufficient list of facts regarding the location, physical structure, and products of this or that part of the world (Kohn, 1959:240). This is by and large the situation under which Social Studies teaching suffers due to the persistance of traditional and stereotype notions about the nature of geography.

When such teachers lack insight regarding the basic geographical concepts, skills and generalizations to be developed; Social Studies is reduced to vague description and loosely organised facts. Such descriptive teaching allow little, if any opportunity to approach geography concepts in a thoughtful and reflective manner. Because such exercises often do not constribute to the understanding of social or natural phenomena, it is not likely that geography so taught will seem relevant to young learners, (Jaromlimek 1971:197). For example, if a teacher is to teach the factors determining particular climate, its characteristics and its world distribution may be taught with no refrence to the cultural and economic developments varying within the world distribution of climate. Yet this is an unfortunate trend at a time when geographic thinking is more than ever exential to intelligent decisions on national problems. Banks argued that in order to put geography in its proper place, "the structure of the discipline and methods of investigation can be properly taught in schools within the framework of inquiry, valuing and decision making" (1977: 299).

Nevertheless, the current trend towards emphasizing concepts and generalizations in Social Studies instruction as against abstract knowledge provides much though not without problems. The trend is to equip students with

structures of abstract knowledge which have been identified by subject specialists. Such knowledge, it is held is not only more useful and longer remembered, but also provides a framework for better organising utilizing, and remembering facts (Tanck, 1968: 196). Facts must be placed in an organizational framework if they are to be meaningful, and this rarely happends without careful planning. Students quickly forget facts they have memorized when they have no structure around which to cluster the facts and no mode of inquiry that can be useful as an aid in analysing a new situation. Modern programmes in geographic education are broad in scope, with the emphasis on a few key ideas of basic concepts supported by a knowledge of significant geographic facts needed to understand major ideas.

The social studies structure is based on the spiral curriculum which is one whose subject is repeated. This in fact has relationship with the views of Bruner which helds that the foundation of any subject may be taught to anybody at any time in some form. Social studies content, developed within the spiral curriculum framework, will be on understanding the conceptual framework of each discipline. The rationale for the spiral organisation as applied by the Social Studies curriculum is that once the major concepts have been mastered, they serve as an anchorage for assimilation of knowledge and processing new information.

In this way the process of learning and training become more of accomodation rather than addictive (Okabiah, 1984:14). Conceptual learning in social studies is devoid of rote memorization. Such learning is based on the development and clarification of broad concepts. Concepts are mental constructs based on a process involving delineating specific elements, organizing the related elements, analying the results, and then re-organising and redefining the construct (Chase and John 1978:3).

As for the development of geographical skills in the social studies programme Joyce point out that, "skills cannot be isolated from the rest of the educational process" (1977:103). While they can be dealt with as discrete entities for purposes of clarity they are really Inextricably related to content and attitudes. They can be defined as tools essential in performing a physical, mental, or emotional task. If taught properly, pupils can be transfered from one situation to another. Such an approach would give a hint of an underlying philosophy, it would also for example, draw fundamental aspects like ordinance survey map study into the very centre of things instead of being largely unrelated exercises in memory.

Thus, it is our hope that success can be attained if Social Studies teachers use the conceptual inquiry based methods of teaching the geographical aspects of the Social Studies programme. Teaching for conceptual understanding is not a vicarious information factor in Social Studies. To reach such a goal the entire teaching process, the organisation of content and materials, the selection of problems, and the sequencing of learning experiences must be specifically and consciously designed to bring about conceptual understanding (Boutwell, 1972: 35). Kohn postulate that rather than teaching geography as a mass of information to memorized about one part of the world after another, teachers now consider it important to teach the structure of geographic thought, and to help the learner think geographically, that is to use methods of inquiry common to the profession of geography (Mennamer 1971: 157).

Therefore, in order to make Social Studies more practicable in our present circumstances which is engulfed by the scarcity of Social Studies materials, neglect in curricular planning in Schools in this country and teachers are not well equiped by their training; agencies, organisations and individuals should be involved in curriculum development project inorder to produce appropriate textbooks and in orientation and training of teachers. They type of activities to be organised must be related to concept goals

and conceptual organisation which will demonstrate the vast difference between the traditional and the modern social studies.

1.2 The Statement of Problem.

In view of the spread of geography concepts within the full range of Social Studies programme and its attendant contribution in the realization of the Social Studies goal, the specific problems of this research are therefore:-

1. What is the objective for conceptual and skills development in Social Studies programme?
2. What should constitute the developing of Geography concepts and skills in Social Studies programme?
3. What specific Geography concepts and skills can be developed for the secondary Social Studies programme?
4. Which learning Activities are appropriate for the selected Geography concepts and skills?

1.3 Assumption.

This project is based on the following assumptions which neccesitated the development of Geography concepts and skills in the social studies programme:-

1. That despite the span of Geography concepts within the full range of the Social Studies programme most teachers are not able to Identify or even provide for the activities that will effect achieving the Social Studies goals.

2. That the background knowledge of Social Studies teachers does not facilitate an ability to teach the geographical aspects of Social Studies for conceptual understanding and development of skills.

3. That alot of Social Studies text-materials do not provide adequate and appropriate activities for the teaching and learning of geography aspects in the Social Studies programme to allow for pupils understanding of pertinent concepts.

4. That the development of geography concepts and skills is necessary in order that both teachers and students can make a realistic study into the realms of social studies.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:-

1. To provide activities that can be used for Secondary School Students in order to help them develop geography concepts and skills in the social studies programme.

2. To identify and describe to the teacher what they should do in order to develop their own activities.

Agboola defines an activity as a participatory device in which the participant is responsible for his own behavioural change the objectives for which the activity was designed" (1979:5). The uses of activities for the teaching of social studies makes the learning process become a more realistic, practical, and meaningful venture for the students because they are allowed to take an active part in the process. Whatever type of social studies activities it should be organised to provide knowledge, process information, value and participation". Some of the activities to be developed include; observation, communication, infering, interpreting data, evaluation and Hypo Hypothesing. In developing these activities the various levels of the secondary school will be considered and also the individual differences among students, their interest and intellectual background.

All activities to be provided in this study focus on the unit approach to the social studies curricular for Nigerian junior secondary schools. In preparing a unit a teacher was to draw up a statement of understandings to be attained. The statement was to be followed by an overview of the subject, which was to be used to motivate the students. Next, the teacher outlines the content to be assimilated and draw

up descriptions of student activities, finally, the unit provide for evaluation.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Numerous instructional designs have been developed dealing with conceptual approach to the teaching of Social Studies in order to aid teachers' instructional processes. Some of the reasons have to do with the uniqueness of the field that calls for very challenging mental abilities on the part of the students, while the others are of general nature and equally apply to other disciplines (Hussain, 1985).

Even though Social Studies is taught in our schools is still not fully understood by some teachers and students alike. The dominant problems of social studies teaching are that teachers tend to concentrate on imparting factual information to students. The students only benefits form stories' or 'Lectures' that sing the messege or information. Again, most schools in Nigeria lack qualified Social Studies teachers, as most of the teachers are subject specialists who are more inclined towards either History,Geography or Economics. Above all is the teacher's lack of proper understanding of Geography concepts,apart from the few who are geographical specialized. Coupled with these problems is the diversity of student's backgrounds which prevails in the classroom. The school is always known to be comprised of many students from different

interest and intelligence background. This situation calls for the attention of Social Studies educators to ensure that appropriate materials are developed that would benefit schools pupils on the goals of the Social Studies particularly as regarding inquiry, valuing and decision making.

Another reason why concepts and skills need to be developed is the fact that concepts are the basis for the integration of the social studies curriculum. Conceptual understanding affects performance and therefore determines the extent of how much the child benefits from the school. The students by the time they come out of school are expected to demonstrate their acquired skills in analysing societal problems and arriving at a more rational decision about social issues. This is more or less so because in planning learning experiences in the social studies programme, the two most important guides for teachers and curriculum specialist are the desired conceptual understandings selected for students mastery and the inquiry or thinking processes needed for rational problem solving (Boutwell, 1972:35).

Conceptual development facilitates these processes of learning by giving those who have gained mastery a way of rationally observing, classifying and comparing human behaviour for patterns and then for hypothesising, evaluating and generalizing about social problems or issue before making personal decisions and taking actions. A generalization states

some abstract relationship among two or more concepts. It formulates a relationship which is of broad applicability. Hence it includes principles, laws and rules. A adequate or well formulated generalization is meaningful for a student in social studies to make wise judgements. A generalization that is satisfactory is one based upon reliable empirical evidence, one that provides its realibility in many texts and applications (Boutwell, 1972: 40).

The development of geography skills is to occur through the effective concept attainment in social studies. This is evident from an earlier indication that skills cannot be isolated from the rest of the educational process. They are very much related with content and are only used as tools essential in performance of certain tasks. Infact research by Chundusu (1977) has shown that geography and social studies do have certain skills which are treated as important enough to be learned formally, such as of critical thinking. Geographers, however, feel that some of these skills can be better learned in geography and the lack of these in Social Studies syllabus constitute a dilution of the subject. These include map making and interpretation, an aspect which is not properly represented in the social studies programme. Since in their life time students come across certain situations which require them to to use certain skills, it has therefore become necessary to develop these geographic skills appropriate to Social Studies. The purpose of teaching skills in Social Studies is to enable the individual to gain knowledge concerning his

society, to think reflectively about problems and issues, and to apply this thinking in constructive action.

The achievement of social studies objectives requires the organization of experience by writers and publishers in various social studies text-books. Text-books could contribute to the quality of concept formation in a variety of ways; through a verbal presentation; through omissions, through the use of illustrations, suggested activities and questions, through the frequency of mention of certain ideas; through the sequence of presentation and the organisation of material; and through the many typographical and structural techniques of indicating an emphasis. It is clear that all Social Studies textbooks could be expected to the development of some concept, whether by d design or accident. In addition, "teachers are by far more important to the development of concepts than the textbooks" (Monalake 1965). Social Studies as a new discipline in Nigeria is affected by the influx of quite a number of text-books bearing its name. The fact is that most writers and publishers of Social Studies materials in this country are unmindful or even ignorant of the need to integrate various concepts from the social science and humanities which would allow for real conceptual development in Social Studies. Lack of conceptual approach in the Social Studies programme has had the outcome of students receving the facts and not being able to apply

them to real life situation. Thus, students generally, when supplied with these materials cannot attach any meaning to it. For teachers to be effective in instructional process, they must organise their materials according to the conceptual levels of their students as well as the organisation of concepts in the material they would be using.

The need for conceptual development is even much more felt in Social Studies than other subject areas because of "its conceptual and issue oriented structure" (Linstrum, in Hussain 1985:5). Social Studies content is generally integrated from the interdesciplinary perspectives. This is an attempt to unify knowledge from the various disciplines of social sciences in order to acquire the skills of dealing with societal problems. The pupils are therefore not left with any alternative but develop these concepts and skills and specifically those of geography as integrated within the full range of the Social Studies curriculum.

Connected with the above is the fact that the spiral structure of social studies syllabus makes it imperative for attainment will be difficult as the spiralling progresses to complex aspects of the Social Studies curricula.

Lastly, Social Studies, being child centred requires the ability to conceptualize and process information. Basic to this approach to learning was the belief in self determination (Crutch-field, 1978:9). Theoretically, the environment for

Social Studies learning in the child centred approach would include a variety of problem solving materials geared to student's dependence on and continuous listening of the traditional lecture oriented method of teaching social studies.

1.6 Scope of Study.

The need for conceptual learning and understanding the relationships in the environment in which we live is not only relevant to Social Studies alone. It cuts across all other disciplines. Even within the Social Studies, the development of concepts spans within the full range of the integrated social science and Humanities that integrate to form the Social Studies. The scope of this study has been limited to secondary school level. In this respect, the Social Studies curriculum of the junior secondary school would provide a wonderful latitude for a broad based learning (see Appendix A). The relative specialization attendant on Senior Secondary School will provide an opportunity for indepth study, analysis, and interpretation of environmental phenomena, fully in their physical and cultural dimensions (Okonkwo, 1983: 60 - 63).

The materials to be developed are drawn from a wide range of sources which include; Text-books, Journals, Periordicals, Maps and Globes, Graph and Charts, Magazines and national daily papers. Due to financial and Time constrains the use of motion pictures and Filmstrips, over head projectors and bulleting boards will not be possible.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction.

The search for relevant Education the world over has been intensified in order to keep pace with the scientific and technological changes of modern society. Today, it is generally recognised at many levels that education must be more than a formalistic, theoretical and academic oriented exercise, producing the purely erudite scholar. Education must help satisfy many different needs and it must be geared to the level of development and aspirations of the particular country. It must be functional in that it helps reciepients participate effectively in the development of his own country (Napier, 1972: 7).

In the Nigerian case, the increase in the amount of knowledge that has been made available in recent years, the curriculum of the schools has not been adequate/ Satisfactory in meeting desired objectives. The question of what to teach children that will motivate their capacity as skilful citizens who can participate in the building of a nation whose objectives has been spelt out in the new Educational Policy has raised some doubts. Growing out of the dilema, new ways of organizing the curriculum at all levels of education are being worked out. The Social Studies is one important area in this new development.

Social studies is an intendisciplinary curriculum that attempts to unify knowledge from the various disciplines of the Social Sciences in dealing with the problems prevailing in the society. This claim is stressed by (NERC 1980:8).

> Social Studies, by its very interdisciplinary nature, offers an opportunity to examine, clarify and isolate the needs, assets and problems of society. Through practical implementation and utilization of the knowledge that Social Studies could provide about society or the best society, the right environment could be created for evolving the right laws, ethics and values for the society in a way far superior to what could be obtained via the application of any knowledge attainable from any one of its component subject parts.

From the above statement, it seems that, Social Studies focuses on problems and issues of man, groups in the physical and Social environment and helps to inculcate desirable social habits, attitudes, values and requisite intellectual skills in solving them. This is an attempt at making education functional to the society in which an individual operates, in relation to the environment.

In discussing the theme of 'Geography and Social Studies', it will be necessary to understand both concepts very clearly with a view to recognising the similarities and differences between them. This will shed considerable light on the implicit and explicit application of the two concepts in subsequent areas of this study.

2.2 Definition and Objectives of Social Studies.

Varous interpretations and views have been expressed as to the exact philosophical position of Social Studies by Social Studies educators. These stem from the fact that there seems to be no agreement among Social Studies educators on what Social Studies is or is expected to be (obeamata et al 1981: 8). Such problems of social studies are prognostic to the dilema of the entire field of African Education, namely the notable "lack of clearly defined philosophy" (Nyakutse, 1977:.). One fact which remains obvious is that the subject lacks a consensus on what should be its definition. This lack of a proper definition has left it in a confused state (Lyam, 1981: 15). Moreover the "current definitions of Social Studies do not properly reflect its growing global applications" (Kissock 1981:15).

However, despite the confused state of Social Studies philosophical position, attempts have been made towards more functional definition which is devoid of curriculum sequencing or content and is rooted in the true meaning and objective of Social Studies acceptable for this study.

Barth and Shermis (1970) defines social studies as a set of goals which describes how the content of citizenships education is to be selected, organised and taught.

DuBey (1980: 2) defines Social Studies as process of education which utilizes the study of human life for the purpose of giving children the opportunity to practice solving problems of crusial importance both for the individual and society.

Kissock (1981: 3) defines Social Studies as a programme of study which a society uses to instil in students the knowledge, skill, attitudes, and actions it considers important concerning the relationships human beings have with each other, their world, and themselves.

These definitions simultaneously reflect the global application of Social Studies and offers a perspective which facilitates the development of instructional programmes in any society in the world.

It is the hope of Social Studies educators that the knowledge, attitudes and skills obtained in this process of study will have transfer value to the lives of children so that the decisions they make as mature citizens will be useful to them and the society. Social Studies should aim at keeping students develop the ability to make reflective decisions so that they can resolve personality problems and shape public policy by participating in intelligent Social actions (Banks 1977) •Jamesons (1960:146) outlining of the Social Studies aim also said, it is basically that of providing children with the knowledge and skill which will better enable them to live

together more harminously to provide opportunities for the study of acceptable behaviour, to provide children many opportunities for growth and practice in specific skill, and to give children a deeper understanding of ways in which people work and live together.

In a more recent position Barth (1984: 5) point out four objectives for teaching Social Studies to achieve the goal of citizenship:-

1. Gain knowledge about the human conditions which includes past, present and future perspectives.
2. Acquire skills necessary to process information.
3. Develop the skills to examine values and beliefs
4. Encourage the application of knowledge active participation in society.

The overiding objectives of social studies have been largely identified as developing the concepts and process of inquiry, valuing and decision making (Smith 1979).

In Nigeria, the objectives of Social Studies are tied to the overall educational goals of the nation. This is, perhaps, for inculcating the right type of skills and values, through unified and integrated interdisciplinary studies of man, that the planners of the new National Policy on Education gave it a pre-eminent place within the core subject of the school curricula in the new system of education as against the

study of separate systematic disciplines of the social sciences (Okabiah 1984).

The national goals and objectives are spelt out in the National Policy on Education (1985:8) as:-

1. The inculcation of national consciousness and national unity.
2. The inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian society.
3. The training of the mind in the understanding of the world around.
4. The acquisition of appropriate skill, abilities and competeness, both mental and physical, as equipment for the individual to give and contribute to the development of his society.

Based on the above national aims of education, the Social Studies Sub-committee of the Joint Consultation Committee (JCC) or Secondary Education proposed the following as the broad aims and goals of Social Studies (Okabiah 1985 : 7 - 8).

A major aspiration of every country is the desire for rapid development which naturally depends on very many factors. The development of the Nigerian society would depend among other things, on the quality of leadership, fellowship, resources endowments and use of science and technology, rational utilization of our human and national resources, honesty and self discipline and above all, the Unity, stability of the Nation. However, the fundamental problem is how to integrate the above arry of factors into a coherent learning structure for younger generations. It is our view that in evolving the above factors ---- and should, among others, emphasize the development of a stronger sense of responsibility and effective citizenship including:-

1. Developing a capacity to learn and to acquire basic skills including those of listening, reading, spelling, 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 pre-requisite to personal development and to the making of positive contribution to betterment of the society as a whole.

3. Create an awareness and understanding of our physical environment and the envolving social and cultural process.

4. Develop the ability for a rational utilization of our cultural, spiritual and national resources and their conservation for national development.

5. Appreciate the diversity and inter-dependence of all members of the local and national committee and the need for Co-operation for the unit of the country and international understanding.

6. Inculcate positive attitudes and appropriate values of honesty, integrity, hardwork, fairness justice and togetherness for the development of the nation.

It is discernible from the above stated goals of Social Studies that it is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of man and physical environment. More emphatically, social studies, by understanding human relationships, aims at producing citizens with skills competences, moral values and reasoned judgements to effectively live, interact, interrelate and contribute positively to the economic, social, political and cultural development of the Nigerian society and the world in general (Okabiah 1985: 8).

In order to achieve these stated objectives, Social Studies content, skills and knowledge are required. Those could only be obtained through the experiences organised in various Social Studies teaching methods and textbooks. The challenge to Social Studies educators is therefore to draw-up appropriate content matter and select the proper methodology which will not only help attain the national and local educational goals but

also bring Social Studies to the states of capable of passing a change to its students.

2.3 The Place of Geography in Social Studies.

In any attempt at making Social Studies instruction relevant to the desired objectives of a functional education, so that individuals can contribute in the building up of a human society capable of changing that society the role of Geography cannot be ignored. An educated man perhaps needs to understand, as much as possible the world in which he lives. An understanding of man's distribution over the earth, his interrelationship with his environment, the different uses to which he has put different parts of it, the cultures and economics he has created, and the spatial interrelations which exist between, and have influenced these patterns-or in a word, Geography-has a fundamental place in the equipment of an educated man (Murphey, 1973:8).

Geography is expected to contribute in solidifying the Social Studies objectives in the ultimate goal of realizing the overiding objectives of Social Studies. In the words of Arnsdorf(1971: 137) the Social Studies curriculum is strengthened through Geography's contribution of an organised approach to the study of the spatial distribution of phenomena

and of man's interaction with his physical biotic and cultural environment. Quoting Edwin H. Reeder, Fleming (1963: 207) said:-

> ---the province of the Social Studies is the human drama. The plot of this drama is furnished by the operations and effects of human motivation and institutions and its stage is the surface of earth, with its plant and animal life at the bottom of its atmospheric ocean of air. Geography studies the character of this state and the ways in which it acts as both a limiting and delibrating force in the development of true plot of the drama.

Howard H. Commings the president of the National Council for the Social Studies (in the 29th year book of the Council titled New Viewpoints in Geography)also said that one of the goals elementary and secondary education is to help the pupil build the framework for a modern mind. The teacher who guides this process in the field of Geography is asked to use a store of rapidly accumulating knowledge about the surface of the earth where people live, the seas around them, the land beneath the seas, the atmosphere around the earth and the nature of outer space. But an understanding of the nature of the earth as a physical planet is not enough. The main concern of the Social Studies teacher should be the people of the earth. Those people are working to build a world cultural community which will utilize the best knowledge man has discovered to improve the quality of human living. Geography is an area where the

Sciences and the Social Sciences meet. Distances, resources, climate and rainfall must be considered with cultural traditions and institutions in all areas of living when modern problems are faced. The twentieth century mind most be able to use Geography, History and the Social Sciences when public decisions are being made.

2.3.1 Towards a Definition of Geography.

Geography comes from a Greek word meaning literally "description of the earth". But modern Geography is concerned with man as well as with the earth and with relationships and analysis as well as with description. The geographer analyses the physical world and examines relationship between places in order to throw light on the pattern and nature of human society. He investigates the interrelationship which exists between man and his physical environment. He examines regional differences, attempts to account for them, picks out regional patterns, and tries to draw regional lines and to discern regional relationships. The geographer concentrates on the study of the earth and its spatial framework, or the pattern of distribution of things on the earth's surface, toward a better understanding of the human world. He sets man in the framework of the earth which he inhabits (Murphey, 1973:3).

The study of Geography is a field whose boundaries may seem difficult to define. To many people it may appear that geographers have no coherent idea of what their own discipline encompasses and that they pursue their work by trespassing on their disciplines. It is true that the scope of Geography is extremely broad and that the nature of the discipline leads it into investigation of a wide range of matters, most of which are to varying degrees also the concern of other disciplines. But these is a clear set of concepts which occupy the core of Geography and which direct and shape all of its investigations. These are not concepts which can only be located in the discipline but are also found in other social sciences. However much the geographer may appear to be treading on other people's toes, he is in fact pursuing questions which generally no one else is asking (Murphey: 1973; 1).

Geography is concerned with understanding the location and spatial arrangement of items on the earth. Knowing the location is the spatial distribution, although important, is not enough. We also need to learn the causes and the consequences of such spatial arrangements, and most importantly, the science of areal differentiation.

Hartshorne, (1959: 13-14) presents a number of definitions which are particularly useful. One of these which he regards to be of greatest importance is that of the highly influential German geographer, Alfred Hettner. Hettner determined the basic

pattern for modern accounts of the nature of Geography with his 1927 statement:-

> The goal of the chronological (geographical) point of view is to know the character of regions and places through comprehension of the existence together and interrelation among the different realms of reality and their varied manifestations, and to comprehend the earth surface as a whole in its actual arrangement in continents, larger and smaller regions and places.

Another definition by vidal de le Blache, perhaps from a most distinguished geographer, is paraphrased by Hartshorne as follows:-

> Geography is the Science of places concerned with the qualities and potentialities of countries. The particular character of a country is expressed by the totality of its features, the social diversities associated with the diversities of places.

Hartshorne also like the American College Dictionary definition, which he describes the fields as:-

> The study of the areal differenciation of the earth surface, as shown in the character character, arrangement, and interrelations over the earth of elements such as Climate, relief, soil, vegetation, population, land use, industries or states and of the unit areas formed by the complex of these individual elements (Hartshorne 1959:13-14).

In summing up Geography according to Preston James (in Lowe 1969: 84), deals with the association of phenomena that give special character to particular places and with the likness and differences among places.

2.3.2 The Conceptual Structure of Geography.

Nishi, in his brief article 'Geographic Guidelines for Reconstructing the Social Studies Curriculum, edited by Bale (1973:267 - 269) is concerned with identify the distinctive contribution of Geography to the nature of Social Studies Curriculum, outlined the conceptual structure of the Geographic discipline which offers both breadth and depth to an evolving Social Studies framework.

1. Spatial distribution - The distribution and arrangement in the modern world of such Geography phenomena as people, physical features, natural resources, economic activities, no-cultural patterns, political systems as they are attributable to valid connections.

2. Areal coherence - Areal associations and variations of geographic phenomena as they effect the process/ processes of cause and effect relationships. Thus order and reason are observed in sets of geographic elements that coexist in an area.

3. Regional concept - The face of the earth ——marked off into areas of distinctive characteristics that are homogeneous theoretical aspects of the region.

4. Location theory - The attributes, the mode for establishing position, the significance of relative location (the situation), all of which impart uniqueness and personality to any given place on the face of the earth.

5. The cultural viewpoint - The significance of a Society's goals, technology, value system, socio-cultural-political structure in creating a perceptual framework for understanding man's impact on the physical environment.

6. The human relationship to a natural resource - The interpretation of the existance, value, and utility of a natural resource in terms of the cultural achievement of a society.

7. The dynamic nature of geographic analysis - The general principle of continual change in human affairs in the habit features, and in their interrelation which necessitates the reappraisal of the geographic landscape at any given time.

8. The importance of time- Intellectual insights into the nature of the human occupancy and trends for the future revealed cumulative knowledge of historia occupancy. The time perspective, an essential dimension of the man-land complex.

9. Spatial interaction - The connections and movements within and between regions as zones of dynamic interaction which induce patterns of migration, trade, and transportation or cultural diffusion.

10. Man -land relationship - The entire man-land complex and the understanding of every aspect of this interrelationship on a worldwide system, a unifying theme in Geography.

11. Global interdependence - Increasing interdependence on a wider and more complex scale, concomitant with progress in the industrial-urban Society.

What makes geography distinct from the most ancient times to the present was the knowledge of earth areas as they differ from each other, that man was included as an integral part of area, and that with the general advance of Science more description has been repalced in all branches of geography by search for causes (Hartshorne 1959:2). This has quite reflected the critical thinking ability that is emphasized in Social Studies instruction. Pupil should be able to develop in Social Studies what Paulo Freire (1972:15) refers to as critical conciousness in the process of 'Conscientization'. The term conscientization refers to learning to percieve social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive element of reality.

Educated citizens must understand the world arrangement of natural resources, cultures, economic and political systems, and the physical characteristics of the earth, in order to appreciate the present world arrangement of space. At the same time, citizens should be able to make decisions with knowledge

of the possible change in function of space. Knowledge of the arrangement of physical and cultural features on earth is important at all scales. For most people decisions which affect their immediate environment are of primary importance to their lives. However, without a background in geographical concepts the students will not be prepared to adequately formulate and answer to those questions that will affect his daily life. Such questions all require an ability to analyse the spatial distribution of physical and cultural features. Developing geographical skills among today's students will not provide direct answers to questions, however, students who can utilize geography skills will be able to collect, organize, and decipher the data needed to formulate answers. The purpose of Geography in the Social Studies curriculum is not only to provide Students with direct factual knowledge about places, but also to develop the skills necessary to analyse change as it relates to those places, since social studies in a dynamic discipline, geared to a changing environment.

The only way in which to train children to take worthy part in everyday affairs of life is to give them functional knowledge with which to react to daily tasks and experiences. Geography deals with relationships between people and their natural environment and functional knowledge of such relationships are necessary in everyday living. Accordingly when we center

to giving a student the functional knowledge, we are in reality centering on making the student more able to act intellegently in various everyday affairs than he or she otherwise would be.

Thus, our young people need to develop patterns of thought and acquire methods of inquiry which will help them, after completing formal education, to interpret new distributions as they encounter them, without recourse to textbook or teacher. If we fail them have, they will never become independent in their thinking later in life, and our teaching will have had only temporary results (Kohn, 1965:25 - 26).

The earth's surface is unique to our geographic knowledge as an object which consists of integrations formed by a great diversity of in animate, biological and social phenonema, varying in significant interrelations from place to place. The goal of geography, the comprehension of the earth's surface, involves therefore the analysis and synthesis of integration composed of interrelated phenomena of the greatest degree of heterogeneity of perhaps any field of Science (Hartshorne 1959: 35).

Isiah Brown (in Propenfus 1978) states that 'Geography invites exploration'. He went further to focus on the goals of the mastery process and its relation to Geography which he said; 'the key question to be delt with are the current world view via geography or to learn how to construct a world view aided by the potential of geography which spans the full range of

social sciences, and to aid the student's ability to deal with self and environment.

Only by giving students a great amount of experiences in thinking in terms of geographic relationships can they gain the ability to use such knowledge effectively to help solve individual problems, as well as problems related to the community, state and nation. Since the student cannot understand relationships without having concepts of the things related and since he or she cannot gain these concepts without being able to use pictures, maps, graphs, and reading matter (tools for geographic study) as sources of information a student's geographical experiences must include:-

1. Training in the recognition of
   (a) Cultural, or human-made features, and
   (b) Natural features, in any landscape.
2. Training in the use of
   (a) The printed page
   (b) Pictures,
   (c) Maps,
   (d) Actual landscapes, graphs etc.

The teaching of geographical concepts in Social Studies has the value for developing children's power of observation and of reasoning and to a larger extent it could help the children to understand the scientific method of acquiring

knowledge. Frair Grieves (Graves 1975:83) has pointed out that; the function of Geography is to train future citizens to imagine accurately the conditions of the great world stage and so help them to think sanely about political and social problems in world around. In Nigeria, the Social Studies progra programme is delibrately geared towards the development of 'citizens who can make reflective decisions on their own about those things that concern them and the society at large'. (Agboola, 1979:2).

It follows from the foregoing considerations that the chief aim of teaching Geography is to enable the student to master functional knowledge that concerns the responses of people to their physical and cultural environment which will help them to participate intelligently in everyday affairs.

2.3.3 The Objectives of Teaching Geography.

As has already been stated in essence, the immediate goal of Geography is to gain functional knowledge (as thorough as is practicable at any given stage of a student's development), such that the student can logically respond to the physical and cultural environment. This objective may be stated instead as "the development of the habit of geographic thinking" or "the habit of using knowledge that concerns the relatioship between man and his surroundings to help solve practical problem of life".

The habit of thinking geographically, if soundly and accurately developed, inevitably contributes towards the ultimate goals of teaching Geography. A synthesis of various sources by Okunrotifa (1977:18) revealed the following major objectives of Geography teaching:-

1. To develop in students the ability to do critical thinking by considering the relationship between diverce facts, by looking for both sides of a problem, and by the usual geographical processes of observing recording, analysing, concluding and generalizing.

2. To provide students with a body of geographical knowledge which is interesting, useful in every day life, and adequate for the School Certificate Geography examination.

3. To develop in the student's a 'geographical' imagination which is the ability to visualize with the mind's eye what conditions would be like in places to which he has never been.

4. To establish in the students, by means of field work, the habits of observation and lively attention to what goes on around aim.

5. To promote international understanding by means of knowledge of the interdependence of peoples and by a respectful acceptance of the differences among people, of the various regions.

6. To develop in Students the capacity to use and interpret maps, doing this whenever denable by training in map making.

7. To appreciate the role of Geography as a 'bridge' subject between the Science and Humanities, and by realizing the essential unity of all knowledge in chosing the widening gap withing our culture the technical and the literacy.

8. To promote a better understanding of the value of natural resources and the need for a more intelligent use of them.

9. To develop the Student's ability to make worthwile use of leisure, teaching them to derive pleasure from the beauties of nature by making local trips and excursions.

This list of objectives to which the discipline of Geography contributes is by no means exhaustive, but it is merely indicative of the type of power which the proper study of the subject helps one to gain. It is not to be claimed that Geography alone is responsible for promoting these objectives, but that it has large contribution to make towards their acquisition. Nor can it be

claimed that any one course or series of courses will lead to the attainment of these ultimate goals. Development towards these goals is a life-long educational process. The greater the abilities one obtains to maximise these goals the greater will be one's ability to intelligently respond to the world around them.

From the above Geography objective one hardly finds a substantial departure from the Social Studies objectives. What Social Studies objectives do is only to further such objectives as Geography wishes to achieve. This is evident enough since some of the many hall-marks of Social Studies are its concern with some of the phenomena which have areal differenciation and with the interdependence of the varied features of the earth's surface, be it land, man and his culture or habitat, economy and society (Ojo, 1968:81). Due to the extent of relationship between Social Studies and Geography, Ojo went further to suggest that our Social Studies programme must be "earth based". The earth provides an axis of reference and Social Studies has to concern itself with the arrangements of phenomena in the anthrophosphere. This is so whatever the objectives which we want the Social Studies to recognise its earth-bound nature as a veritable way of encouraging the human curiosity about the attributes of place and mans ubiguitous identification of his life and activity with specific places.

Another important contribution of Geography to Social Studies is that it can provide a unified structure for the Social Studies. Sometimes, Social Studies may seem to lack clear focus and to include too many apparently unrelated matters. There is the wide recognition of the need for greater unity and more structural coherence in Social Studies curricula. Actually Social Studies are needed to give meaning to Science and Mathematics; but sometimes they fail to satisfy this need because of the lack of illuminating concepts and of well-defined methods. Geography, when properly used, can provide such concepts and methods (James, 1959: vii).

The role of Social Studies teacher is to select from many areas of knowledge those findings which will help him teach his students how to understand and live in a ever-changing world. His approach to Social Studies should be to study all aspects of man's environment - physical and cultural. This has made Geography a vehicle for teaching a common subject matter as has been suggested by Shinn (Tumkins 1971: 144) the "ideal vehicle for Social Studies". It should carry the freight of concepts from other disciplines that can and, indeed, must be included to illuminate the Geographic viewpoint (spatial). In a spatial viewpoint, the geographer's interest is focused on earth-space, that is on the surface of the earth at or near which man carries on his varied activities.

This study of earth-space is carried on in a framework of regional and systematic studies. Allen K. Philbrick (in Tomkins 1971: 144) clearly explains these two concepts of earth-space which no geographic study can avoid using in some combination.

> Systematic Geography analyses the world features by features; it is the geographic study of particular types of features. Regional world geography is a region by region synthesis in which each region is characterized by a distinctly different combination of many features.

Philbrick further divided systematic geography into three aspects. Physical, Cultural and area organisation. Physical geography explains the distribution of material resources world from which man must take the material basis of his existance. He has also classified resources related to human life into three parts as follows:-

(a) The resources from which food are produced and which, therefore, indirectly sustain life.

(b) The materials from which man build or manufactures useful articles.

(c) The resources of non animal energy with which men supplement the force of their own muscles in the performance of work.

The cultural aspect of geography likewise consist of three parts.

(a) Ideas and values

(b) Ways of doing things, including customs and technologies.

(c) The works of man.

The organization of geography refers to the organized pattern that people create through their activities, that are necessary to carry on the way of life of any society. The organisation of an area forms three patterns.

(a) Economic

(b) Political and

(c) Sociological.

In organizing the Social Studies activities from the Geographical concepts the physical and human aspects should not be seccumbed to separate treatment. Wolbridge (in Graves 1975: 56) urges that the physical factors were as important as non-physical ones in shaping human activities and that since children grew up on a physical as well as cultural landscape, they were entitled to learn about the former as well as the later.

In sum, Geography cannot be considered as divided between Studies which analyse individual elements over the world and those which analyses complete complexes of elements by areas.

The former are logically a part of the appropriate systematic sciences, the latter simply cannot be carried out. All Studies in geography analyses the area variations and connections of phenomena in integration. There is no diachotomy or dualism, but rather a gradational range along a continum from those which analyses the most elementary complexes in areal variation over the world to those which analyses the most complex integrations in areal variation within small areas. The former we may approapriately call 'topical studies' the latter 'regional studies', provided we remember that every truly geographic study, involves the use of both the topical and regional approach (Hartshorne, 1959: 121 - 122).

The teacher of the Social Studies must gain the vocabulary and concepts of physical and human geography in order to give proper consideration to the physical and social settings of man's actions. The functions of physical geography are to develop an understanding of all the natural environmental conditions that give character to the face of the earth. It also provide, a unique portion for relating certain concepts from natural sciences with Social Studies (Kennarmer, 1959;). This is sequel to the recognition of the joint functions of natural Sciences and Social Science for Society's progress.

The task of the teacher has also been extended with those of identifying significant science learnings that increase the depth of understanding of students in each social studies are.

they full explore. Some of the significant learnings in Social Studies that involve Science area identified by Hetterman (Kennemer 1959:216).

1. Learning about our world, the natural setting in which human beings live, and the resources in the form of materials and energy upon and well beings depend for existance and well being.

2. Learning to think reasonably about what is learned from studying the conditions that exist in the physical world.

3. Learning to establish factual truth by observation and test conclusion by experimentation.

4. Learning to apply Scientific knowledge to the solutions of problems, the answering of questions and the explanation of occurances.

5. Learning that Science has great contribution to human welfare.

As regards human geography the Social Studies teacher should gain the conceptual understanding of the four key interesting factors indentified by Propenfus (1978:78):-

1. Study of physical habitat, the climate, topography and natural resources as they are related to man.

2. Economics the human economics of dealing with standards of living, landuse, housing and location of industry.

3. Cultural and technological including nouns, roles customes attitude, and the material creation of the Sciences.

4. The political concept that of power, decision making, leadership.

2.3.4 The Problems of Teaching Geography.

However it must be noted that inspite of the close relationship between the Social Studies and Geography and above all the important contribution of Geography concepts and skills in the main stream of the Social Studies curriculum, it is confronted with problems. One of the major problems with the inclusion of geography in social studies is the method of approach in teaching the geography concepts. This concern has often been a problem with teachers handling these geographical concepts in the teaching of Social Studies. In the past geography as a discipline has traditionally been more concerned with the development of descriptive and explanatory studies than with the formulation of emphirical generalizations of wide universality. While there has been no lack of concepts within the discipline, the concept have served principally as organising elements for analytical studies (Banks, 1977:313).

The Social Studies teachers have for long used the method of impacting knowledge through which students simply get informed about the facts and are expected to learn them with suppressed curiousity. This situation is well described by propenfus (1978: 46) when he observed that:-

> Social Studies are often taught like a daily soap opera, a nice story of constant troubles, conflict, and intrigue in which the Students is regarded only as a reactor and is intimidated to return each day for the ongoing episode, delivered in lecture upon lecture, supplemented by teacher treats of check tests, parent conferences, and unit testing.

It is also must probable that many of these teachers have not got a proper conception of what social studies is all about. The subject has also been taught by teachers with no training in geography at all. In a survey of sixth form Geography Teaching practice in North Central State of Nigeria (now Kaduna State) Okunrotifa (1973) discovered that there was unavailability of qualified geography teachers. He also pointed out that although almost all the geography teachers had requisite academic qualifications for sixth form teaching, only 35% of them had professional qualification for their job.

In another research conducted by Lyam (1979:77) on the Social Studies teacher's background in Kaduna State exposes that only 4% of the teachers who responded to the instrument had any kind of Social Studies training at all. And over half

and that instruction in the several disciplines included in the School programme should be directed to this end. The Social Studies curriculum has, as its very important component part, this development - thinking. Hence it is important to note how instruction in Geography contributes to the development of the learners ability to think. This has been presented adequately by Fenton (1966: 411 - 414).

One or more of a number of thinking processes are involved in the teaching of geography:-

1. Perception:- This process involves the ability to discriminate and differentiate the properties of objects or basic human activities and to imterpret their meaning. Learners perceive when they have sensory experiences, either real or vicarious.

2. Association:- This is the process of linking or relating symbols - words, signs and the like-with things that are experienced. For example, a learner may associate words such as "river" and "lake" with what she perceives in the real world or map symbols with actual surface features, or routes of transportation with the movement of guides or people from one place to another.

3. Concept attainment:- This includes the process of discriminating specific properties of objects and events and abstracting or generalizing common elements so that they can be classified or grouped together. As children mature, they enrich or deepen concepts developed earlier in their school experience.

Perceptual, associative and conceptual thinking process are constantly called upon in teaching Geography because much of the content of our discipline is both descriptive and analytical, and the learner must avoid the large vocabulary, concepts, and generalizations needed to understand the location and distribution of both natural and cultural phenomena. Also, he must develop concepts of location, of size and shape, of pattern of density, and of areal exent, and so on. In order to handle all these concepts teachers need to help primary and secondary school students, develop a highly specialized vocabulary based on meaningful concepts. Despite this, little has actually been attained on concepts in the study of Geography. We do know, however, that if learning is to take place, specific attention needs to be given to the detailed and precise perception of the spatial characteristics of the objectis and of the human activities that are commonly included in units of study in Geography. We also know that if students do not clearly differenciate the orientation, magnitude, and areal extent of natural and cultural objects, they will not develop a clear and

cultural objects; they will not develop a clear and accurate understanding of their areal associations or spatial interactions. Thus, these three processes are essential to learning in Geography and need to be stressed by the teachers in setting purpose, directing the learner's observation, guiding decision and evaluating outcomes.

There are other three thinking processes which are dependent on the three already discussed. They are relational thinking, critical thinking and creative thinking.

1. Relational thinking:- This includes the process of relating facts, understandings, and concepts to form generalization of one kind or another. In Geography, we recognise this process of establishing generalizations regarding the areal association and spatial interactions of place people and events.

2. Critical thinking:- Although often associated with relational thinking, it can be differentiated by suggesting that it includes the use of standards, values and puposes to evaluate the effectiveness of some action. In other words, critical thinking involves the consideration of different points of view regarding some event of activity having Geographic significance.

3. Creative thinking:- This process involves expressing thoughts and feelings in original ways. For a learner, creative thinking may be a new interpretation, a grasp of new relationships of phenomena, and original synthesis of expressing of ideas, a new proposal or hypothesis, a new way of doing something.

In the development of these six thinking processes, we need an approach that will let all of them remain naturally blended, yet one that will permit teachers to emphasize specific processes when necessary. Also, we need a flexible approach that will enable a teacher to work not only with his entire class but with groups within this class and with individual pupils.

Thus a classroom practice that might be proposed and, it is by no means a new one, is that instruction in Geography be organized in terms of problem having geographic significance that is, location and distribution. Such an approach brings together the six thinking processes that have been listed and enables the learner to use them in dealing with content that has Geographic significance. Another feature of using the problems approach is that it enables a teacher to obtain a blend of individual and group work. Through such an approach, the gifted, the average, and the tenable child can each be challenged. The amount of time needed to complete activities can be varied; individualized readings can be provided; individual preparation

of reports, maps and outlines can be encouraged; small groups of children with common instructional needs be assigned; special activities for both the academically talented and the less able children can be provided; the kind and amount of practice and direct supervision of children's work can be varied; and levels of expectancy appropriate to each child's capabilities can be more easily set.

Finally, to develop the six thinking processes and to provide for individual differences teachers need to consider patterns of organising Geographic knowledge. This calls for consideration of the scope of problems to be developed in the primary and secondary schools and the sequence or grade placement of the problems to be solved. In terms of scope, instruction in Geography should included problems in physical economic, s social and political Geography and the study areas should even eventually include all parts of the earth as well as the world as a whole. In terms of sequence there is no one pattern that can be said at this time or be more efficient than another.

Geography in Junior Secondary Social Studies.

Geography at the lower secondary Social Studies has always been part of the Social Studies programe since the inception of the discipline in this country. The need for the study of areal association and relationships of the earth surface has been a guiding theme of geography in the past and it must continue to be an essential goal of an educated man.

At the junior secondary school, Geography holds a portion of major importance within the Social Studies skill programme. A substantial part of the skill primary development in the junior secondary school Social Studies is devoted to the presentation of Geography concepts.

At the first year of the junior secondary school Students learn about the physical environment as it affects their local environment. The physical features are taught to Students in relation to the influences of these features on patterns of life of the people such as economy, politics, settlement and so on. In addition, natural resources their influence on man and his activity and how man utilizes the natural resources are also taught. Another vital aspect included in the year one Social Studies syllabus is the Nigerian cultural patterns and their historical origins which seeks to identify the ethnics groups of the country and their cultural characteristics. The spatial concepts presented at the first year should not be dismissed but should be emphasised on the students' immediate environment. Problems of a spatial nature can best be in investigated systematically within the frame work of the students' local environment. The students should be actively involved in local problems of a spatial nature. Environmental t' topics, for example, energy, pollution and use of 'Fadama (water collection for local irrigation) all take on special meaning

when they are discussed in refrence to the students home region. Other topics which leand themselves to student investigation are urban landuse, rural landuse, the development of transportation and communication system. Each of these topics is well-suited to active participation by the student and each topic involves spatial concepts which are the primary integrating link in geography.

At the second year Junior Secondary Social Studies programme the students are taught about the 'physical environment' within the climatic conditions settings such as, seasons (wet and dry), ocean influences types of vegetation, rainfal and winds. In this perspective students should be able to identify the seasons of the year, identify the influence of seasons on the human activities and state the effects of landforms on weather conditions. At this level, students are expected to use their skills on active participation through analysis and decision-making in problems of spatial nature such a drought, floods and other natural disarster. Some aspect of 'development' which covers all dimension of national life including political, social, economic and cultural are also being treated under the 'national economic life' the students will be taught the various means of transport and communication and the role in the national economic life.

At the third year of the junior secondary social studies programme an extension of the aspects of the 'National Economic life' handling the sources of basic economic commodities such as Agriculture, mineral and Energy resources, manufacture and imports. The role of human resources in economic development such as factors of population changes (e.g. fertility), sources of population data (e.g. census), the role of population and skilled manpower in economic development. The world transport and communications' provide an opportunity for students to identify the transport system, railway system, water transport, road transport and air transport and the role they play in commerce and communication. The 'world an its people' with refrence to the continents and countries of the world, the people and sources of African could be an important geographical aspect which will provide students with deeper understanding of the world. Emphasis at this level should be on active students participation through analysis and decision-making in local and state problems of a spatial nature. The students must refine skills introduced at the early grades if they are to achieve the goal of geographic literacy.

2.6 Conceptual Approach to Social Studies Instruction.

From several sources the suggestions have come for using key concepts or basic concepts of the various areas of knowledge as the organising principles of that which should be taught at all levels. The basic concepts are those big ideas

which unify a field of inquiry and give meaning to the various facts that are collected by scholars who work within the field.

It has already been known that Social Studies programme typically include an overwhelming amount of specific information. Not only in the existing fact-loaded heavy but the problem is additionally confounded because:-

i. The amount of specific information is increasing at rapid rate due to the discovery of new knowledge.

ii. Specific information is ephemeral and becomes obsolete quickly.

iii. The rate of forgetting specific information is known to be high.

iv. Unless specific are tied to larger ideas, it is impossible to establish functional criteria for the selection of facts to be taught.

In recent years, therefore curriculum workers in the Social Studies have turned their attention to the use of concepts and generalizations as organising schemes in an attempt to overcome the problems just cited. The extent of this trend in Social Studies has been expressed by Smith (1979:46) as he said:-

> Generally emphasis in Social Studies changed from learning of facts to the development of understanding concepts and values from the creation of students memory tanks and robots to the development of characteristics and behaviour in students which appeared to be essential for a fruitful life in a democracy from parroting of information to the ability to synthesise knowledge inorder to make decisions and pass judgement.

The basic idea is to focus instruction on a relatively few fundamental concepts that have high transfer value and that help to explain or predict Social or natural phenomena. Specific subject matter is selected to illustrate particularly well the concepts understudy and to permit the application of certain methods of inquiry. Harrison and Solomon's (In Humkins 1971: 127) review of Social Studies research revealed several trends in the organization of concept - Based Curricula:-

i. A trend towards the development of sequential curricula so that a year's course would be constructed on concepts and skills that had been introduced previously.

ii. A trend towards eliminating of much repetition that exists in Social Studies.

iii. The use of area-depth studies.

iv. A great employment of readings, case studies and primary souces.

v. Acquisition of pupils with social scientist's methods of inquiry.

vi. An emphasis on thinking and critical analysis.

vii. An emphasis on affective dimension of learning in addition to the cognitive.

Using concepts as categories of meaning makes it possible for man to establish order in all of the many thousands of specific perceptions and unique experience he has. Concepts provide an intellectual filing system for meaning. Concept development, then calls for the placing of information in correct cognitive categories.

The key characteristics of a concept is that there are no one-to-one reality referents. On the contrary, reality referents, specific facts, are linked together to form abstract categories. The reality of a concept, 'Plateau', for example, can only be demonstrated to a specific fact, Highland or unpland.

The strength of concepts in Social Studies rests with the fact that they have great transferability from one situation to another, once they have been learned. A young child for example who has learned to associate certain characteristic into a class called "Plateau" from observation of his and other "Highlands" will be able to conceptually recognise and discriminate among 'Plateau' Hills, Mountains etc.

In other words, concepts are mental and verbal tools that help human beings make learning out of their perceptions of the phenomena in the real world. By categoring the phenomena we beging at the same time to understand them, because by categorising and labelling them we have defined them operationally and can use the categories over when considering new phenomena.

A concept gives the investigator a handy intellectual tool by which he can immediately begin organising the data he is involved with. The more concepts he has as part of his intellectual reperture, the more sophisticated his data. A Geographer for example can 'look' at a region and begin to make senses of the spatial relationship and interaction more quickly and with greater sophistication than someone who is not a Geographer, because he sees the Region through a specialized conceptual framework.

From the foregoing analysis we can then see that concepts have dual functions as noted by the Dictionary of the Social Science (in Boutwell 1972:37). in the Social Sciences—— concepts enter as:-

i. The most general tools of inquiry and as
ii. The content or object of some specific inquiries notably in comparative studies".

A fundamental aspect of the Social Studies in that both processes and uses are included. As students manipulate information about people places and problems, they derive concepts that help them understand the data being investigated. These same concepts can then be applied to new investigation or new problems. In the process, specific facts of human behaviour serve only as vehichle for learners to or importance of their own.

Thus, conceptual understanding means in part using concepts from Social Sciences to analyse social behaviours, understanding the causes of social behaviours, and coming to more rational decisions about social problems or issues. Concepts facilitate these processes by giving those who have mastered them a way of rationally, Observing, classifying and comparing human behaviour for patterns, and then of hypothesizing, evaluating and generalizing about Social problems or issues before making personal decisions and taking actions (Boutwell 1972:37).

In conceptual approaches to Social Studies curriculum development and teaching, a great deal is made of generalizations as organising ideas from the disciplines, main ideas, key ideas and so on. A generalization is defined as a declarative statement expressing a relationship between concepts or other variables and has a more or less

universal applicability (Jarolimak 1971:124). A Social Science generalization is a statement that explains the causes of human behaviour or some other phenomena, in such a way as to show the interrelationships of several variables, by compiling several concepts into a meaning whole (Boutwell 1972:39).

The words 'adaption' 'cultural' 'man' and 'invironment' are all concepts in isolation as defined above. As concepts they can be used to guide investigations of problems and situations and to make sence out of percieved data. When they are joined together to form a statement approximating a more universal 'truth' however they become part of a generalization: Statements such as the following are generalization:-

> 'Man adapts to his environment culturally'
> 'As people interact with their physical and Social environment both they and the environment are 'change'.

A generalization is typically the product of investigation or inquiry, and results from students seeing the inter connections of the various concepts they have discovered. Just as with concepts, generalizations have further applicability in a new setting or situations. In a sence, generalizations become a kind of short hand for the knowledge that we accumulate during our life experiences. They are also useful as a means of helping us explore new situation (Banks, 1977:97).

A good generalization is meaningful for a student in Social Studies to the extent that it broadens his abilities to make wise judgements. A 'good' generalization is one based upon reliable emphirical evidence, one that provides its reliability in many tests and applications.

Some problems are bound to arise when generalization are used in Social Studies instruction. One of such problems is when they are based as objects of instruction is the tendency to ascribe too much cetainty to the generalizations. Generalizations should always be considered tentative in nature open to change or even dismissed in light of new 'knowledge'. No one familiar with the recent findings about the shape of Earth, for example would attempt to continue teaching the generalization that Earth is perfectly round (it bulges actually). Generalization change overtime and in many instances, specific aspects of human behaviour refuses to fit neately into the generalized descriptions of human behaviour.

Another danger in using generalizations as objectives is that some teachers often 'teach toward' them, making them into facts rather than linked concepts of teacher for example who has students memorize generalizations and then apply them in various setting, is treating the generalization

not as something that is a useful too, something that is changeable in light of the evidence, but as a fact to be memorized much as one memorizes and uses the multiplication table. These pitfalls can be avoided by emphasising inquiry processes.

2.6.1 Nature of Concepts.

Bruner sees any concept as having five elements (i) Name (ii) Examples (positive and negative (iii) Attributes (essential and nonessential) (iv) Attributes value, and (v) Rule. Understanding a concept means knowing all the elements of the concepts.

The name is the term given to a category. Plateau, River and so on. If a studentknow a concept, however they can easily learn the name for it and their verbal expressions will be more articulate.

Concepts appear to be learned most effectively when a number of positive examples of the concept are presented. Research evidence indicates that concepts are most efficiently learned when a number of positive examples are first introduced and the discriminating characteristic clearly established (Banks, 1977:92). For example when student are asked to think of a 'capital' they would begin by visualizing a specific capital such as Kano, Lagos, Yola,

Enugu, Maiduguri or some other member of the class of capitals. Classes are grouping of categories of things, events, or ideas. Each class includes things with the same or similar attributes and excludes things with different or unrelated attributes. Each class can be re referred to by a symbol.

The class members are referred so as positive instance of concept (Kano, Lagos, Yola, Enugu, Maiduguri). The characteristics they share which identify their membership in a class are called their common attributes. Attributes are distinguishable characteristics or properties of things events or ideas. They are features that can be noted as the same, similar, or different. For cities, their attributies include government, services, business and neighbourhoods.

Among other objects which do not share these common attributes are called negative instance (examples) or non examples are not members of a specified class; they are things that do not have the designated attributes of the class. In otherwords they illustrate characteristics that are opposite from those positively associated with the discriminating features. Non examples or negative examples are also important in concept acquisition. In addition to aiding of student in to discriminate between classes, if non

examples are not included, Students will over-generalize the concept to include closely related non examples (Mckinney et al 1983:3).

Finally a rule is a definition or statement specifying the essential attributes of a concept. A rule normally evolves at the end of the concept attainment process. The teacher often uses it as a device to have students summarize the findings of their research for attributes (Joyce et al 1973: 31).

In view of the individualistic approach to learning for each student, teachers have been cautioned to experiment before these (example and non examples) are presented to the student. So as to find an appropriate balance in their instructional strategy. Such a balance could be obtained when examples are arranged from easy to difficult. Teachers can estimate the difficulty level and that it made no difficult so as all difficulty levels were included (Mckinney et al 1983: 4).

2.6.2 Concept Attainment Process.

For anybody to be interested in Geography education as it relates to the Social Studies programme of the young School children, it is pertinent that one focuses on concept formation and attainment that holds throughout intellectual

development. In this development it may be well to give some attention to what they psychologist and educationist have in mind when they talk about concepts and the ways children develop them.

The psychologists regard concepts as systems of meanings within the mental organization of the individual. They arise as the generalizes from his experience, and serve as expectancies or hypotheses for the classification of incoming information. Conceptualization is the process of categorizing, classifying, and naming a group of objects (Banks, 1977: 90). Categorising helps reduce the necessity for constant new learning. As long as an object or event displays the defining characteristics of a class, it needs not to be relearnt at each encounter (Joyce et al 1972).

Of the many studies that have been published of children's development in general, those concerned with the development of spatial concepts probably have the greatest relevance for Geography (e.g. Piaget). Geographical investigation has long been concerned with the discription, analysis and interpretation of phenomena in terms of their spatial distribution and interrelationship, and indeed it has been argued that 'the whole practice and philosophy of geography depends upon the development of a conceptual framework for handling the distribution of objects and events in space'(Harvey 1969).

Research conducted by Piaget, who studied children cognitive process in his investigation developed a stage theory regarding the development of logical thinking. He saw the stages as variant in their sequences but not fixed in terms of specific age levels; rather, he saw them as typical within certain age ranges. Interpreting piaget theory Hunt (in Crutchfied 1978:15) described three major stages in the development of logical thinking. As termed by Piaget, these stages are sensorimotor, concrete operations and formal operations. These stages are:-

1. Sensorimotor stage (0 to 2 years)
2. Preoperational stage (2 to 4 years)
   (a) Preconceptual thought (2 to 4 years)
   (b) Intuitive thought (4 to 7 years).
3. Operational stage (7 to 10 years).
   (a) Concrete operational thought (7 to 11 years)
   (b) Formal operational thought (11 to 16 years)

The sensorimotor period began at birth and extend to approximately eighteen months. During this stage, infants engaged in experiementation and limitation to develop problem solving atituties corresponding to those of subHuman animals.

Concrete operations beging with a preconceptual phase which lasted until about age of four. In this phase children activities were dominated by imitation and play. They developed imagery which made it possible for them to anticipate consequences of events and to acquire language. Between age four and seven, there was an intuitive phase in which children gradually learned to use a trial and error process to sort objects on the basis of an attribute. A classroom example of this would be as follows: Shown yellow and red joy trucks and cars, children would group all the yellow joys together or all the trucks together or all the trucks together. They would be unable to consider both shapes and colour at the same time as bases for grouping. Piaget explained this as the inability to recognise that the whole was composed of parts.

The third phase of concrete operations began at approximately age seven when thought because independent of perception and action, and children were able to judge parts and wholes simulteneously. Thus, they could consider more than one attributes in grouping of objects and could explain their reasons for grouping. Through examination and manipulation, they would discover class associations. They would be able to apply their logic , however, only when dealing with concrete objects in the classroom, children might

examine pictures of industrial workers separate from agricultural workers, and recognise each group as part of the larger group (e.g. they are all workers but work at different sectors).

With the on set of formal operations at approximately eleven or twelve years, children would no longer need concrete objects for their classifications. They tend to concieve the relationships before hand as hypothesis to be tested and were able, as well to, consider the full set of possibilities from problem solving. Eg. when discussing geographic issues in the classroom, student at the stage of formal operations. Agricutural resources, production and utilization and the current state of technology to the broader concept of Agrarian change.

Bruce Joyce (1965:154) illustrated three levels of concepts as:-

(i) Observed concepts; those that can be perceived directly from.

(ii) Inferred concepts; those that describe unseen conditions that can only be immediate observed data.

(iii) Ideal concepts; those representing broad categories and formed by classifying large quantities of data.

Although each level in identified at a particular age. Such as observed concept in the early grades, inferred concepts in the middle grades, and ideal concepts in the upper middle grades; nevertheless, we will find students in all levels in one class. Therefore, we must adapt our teaching strategies to accommodate all three levels.

Synthesising a wealth of research conducted in the United States, Klausmeir, Ghatala and Frayer (in Crutch field 1979: have developed a four sequencial levels of concept attainment:-

(i) Concrete; Discrimination and memory of a particular thing. Evidence in children's behaviour; prefers joy.

(ii) Identify; Generalization of two or more forms of the same thing as equivalent. Evidence in children's behaviour; Identifies families dog when seen front, back or side.

(iii) Classification: Generalization that two or more instances are equivalent in same way. Evidence in childs behaviour; can sort block by shape, but is unable to explain reasons for grouping.

(iv) Formal: Definition of a concept on the basis of shared attributes. Evidence in children's behaviour: Can sort objects representing various categories and explain shared attributes as basis for grouping.

Jerome Bruner identifies critical intellectual growth patterns and the development of intellectual structures which are similar to conceptualization strategies advocated by some Social Studies specialist (Mckinney Warren C. 1983 include). He identifies three types of concepts. One is conjunctive concept which means that a category is defined by joint presence of several characteristies. All of the critical attributes in a conjunctive concept must be present in any one example. For instance, the critical attributes of arable land are(a) land that can be ploughed ,(b) land that is fertile enough to grow crops, and (c) land that has an adequate climate for growing crops. If any one of these critical attributes is missing, then it is not arable land. The key word in expressing the relationship between and among the critical attributes of a conjunctive concept is "and". Disjunctive concepts share the presence and absence of characteristics in a disjunctive concept not all of the critical attributes have to be present in any

one example of the concept. The key word in a disjunctive concept is "or". A relational concept is one in which there is a time or space relationship between the critical attributes. An example of a relational concept is the scientific method. First, a problem is identified and stated. Next, hypothesis are stated. Then data are collected, hypotheses are tested, and finally conclusions are drawn.

Taba analyses thinking from a psychological and logical point of new and concludes:-

> While the process of though are psychological and hence subject to psychological analysis, the product and the content of thought must be assessed by logical criteria and evaluated by the rules of logic (Taba, 1966:36).

She identifies three postulates about thinking.

1. Thinking can be taught

2. Thinking is an active transaction between the individual and data. This means that in the clas classroom setting, the materials of instruction become available to the individual when he or she performs cetain cognitive operations on them organising facts into conceptual systems, relating points in data to each other and generalizing from these relationships, making inferences and generalizing from known facts to hypothesize, predict and explain unfamiliar phenomena.

3. Process of thought evolve by a sequence that is 'lawful'. She postulates that in order to master certain thinking skills certain earlier ones must be mastered first, and this sequence cannot be reserved. Therefore, 'this concept of "lawful sequence" requires teaching strategies that observe these sequences'.

In other words, Taba concludes that thinking skills should be taught using specific teaching strategies designed for those thinking skills. Taba is largely responsible for popularizing the term "teaching strategy". This has infact formed the back boned of an active social studies curriculum. They developed a series of teaching strategies designed to develop inductive mental processes, expecially the ability to categories and to use categories.

Other educators have also examined the influence of children's cognitive styles on concept learning. From studies on perception Witkin et al (in Crutchfied 1978:18) described two modes which they labelled 'field independent' and 'field dependent'. They found that persons who have perceived in the field independent mode easily distinguished items apart from an organized field. For example they would readily locate 'hidden picture' in a puzzle. Field dependent persons on the other hand would find this task difficult since

they tended to new the service as a global unit. Evidence from later studies indicated that those were stylistic tendencies extending into the intellectual domain. Since the original labels were then considered two limited for the broader notion of cognitive style, they were analytic and global dimensions of cognitive functioning.

For a clear understanding between the analytic and global cognitive functioning the characteristic, of individuals having either of these cognitive syles were constrasted as follows:-

1. Analytic thinkers profited best from inductive learning (Given specific examples, they cold arrive at generalizations through self disousy). Global thinkers achieve best through deductive learning (Given generalization, they could site specific examples).

2. Analytic thinkers had a sense of separate identify. They were aware of their own feelings and needs and saw them as distinct from those of others. They demonstrated independence. Global thinkers identified with groups. They relied on outside some for their view of themselves and accepted the word of authority figures. They were seen as sensitive.

3. Analytic thinkers could separate their perceptions from emotional contexts. They did not blot out experiences from memory if they were unpleasant. Global thinkers connected perceptions with emotions. If an experience were impleasant, they would blot it out from their memories.

In studies investigating children's performances on conceptual task, Kegan, Moss and Sigel (in Crutchfield 1978: 19) found similarities in style to those of within. They also identified two other characteristics they considered related; impulsivity and reflectivity. Impulsive individuals had fast conceptual tempos which led them to respond quickly to questions, where as reflective thinkers took time before they spoke. On tests of reading and inductive reasoning given to students in first and second grades, impulsive children made more errors than did reflective. Further-studies indicated that children with global styles were more impulsive than those with analytic. The investigators saw these four characteristics as general fruits appearing early in life, revealing themselves in many differing situations, and persisting throughout succeeding age levels. They also appeared to be some what independent of intelligence.

2.6.3 Teaching Models in Concept Attainment.

A model is a representation of somethings. It is a prototype of what that something is, or was, or will be, or should be, or may be like. It might be used to help understand what the something representative model represent a way that abstract knowledge can be classified and structured so that teachers can more readily plan to teach it and students more easily to learn it.

Knowledge in Social Studies is often grouped into the following categories:) facts b) concepts c) generalization and constructs. These kinds of knowledge are eseentially a persons own internalized understanding, but each can be represented in a form of communication and demonstrated through observable overt behaviours. Each type is abstract but can be derived or learned or learned from concrete contexts. Of these three, concepts are the most basic because it is necessary that the learner understands the concepts which make up the facts and generalization. Therefore, it is necessary that teachers ensure that their students have acquired the pre-requsite concepts before attempting to teach factual information and generalizations.

This strategy (concept attainment) in useful to introduce or to develop basic understanding of a concept. It involves the following steps:-

1. Identify these cognitive elements:-

   (a) The symbol for the concept

   (b) Major attributes of the concept

   (c) Examples of the concept that have the specified attributes.

   (d) Nonexamples of the concept.

The major attributes are the basic criteria for the class of things represented by the symbol for the concept. They are those attributes the student needs to be aware of in order to distinguish between examples and non examples. They are certainly not all of the attribute of a concept.

Examples and nonexamples selected should be pertinent to the course and suitable to the students.

2. Present the examples and non examples to students and have them identity the major attributes, identifying the examples by concept symbol so that students associate attributes with it.

3. Have students define the concept by listing its major attributes. This step is not absolutely necessary but may be important to clarify and confirm attribute identification.

4. Present more examples and nonexamples and have students tell which are or are not examples and give reasons why. This step may be important to develop association of attributes the concept sysmbol.

5. Have the students find and identify new examples. This step is intended to effect reinforcement and assimilation of the concept.

6. Evaluate student learning by seeing whether students have identified examples and non examples and can find or create new examples.

These steps need not be precisely as described or follow this exact order. Identification of the cognitive elements, for example, might be followed first by definition of the concept and then by distinguishing examples and nonexamples, in effect reversing the second third steps.

However, several instructional designs have been developed to aid teachers in teaching concept (Bruner et al 1977 and Merril and Tennyson 1977) will be considered in this study.

Under the Bruner's design there are actually three variations or models, of concept attainment that have been built. Each has a slightly different set of activities

(syntax), but all are developed from a common conceptual base. These are the Reception, selection and unorganised material models of conceptual attainment. Each of these models will be discussed.

2.6.3.1 The Reception-Oriented Model.

The phases and activities of the 'Reception-oriented model' of concept attainment are outlined (see Table 1).

Phase one involves presenting data to the learner, Each data is a separate example or nonexample of the concept. The data may be events, people, objects, stories, pictures, of any other discriminable unit. The learners are informed that there is one idea that all the positive examples have in common; their task is to develop a hypothesis about the concept. The instances are presented in a pre-arranged order and are labelled yes or no. Learners are asked to compare and justify the attributes of the different examples. The teacher or student may want to maintain a record of the attributes). Finally, they are asked to name their concept according to its essential attributes. (Their hypothesis is not confirmed until the next phase, and with some concepts students may not know the name, which which can be be provided when the concept is confirmed).

In phase two, the students test their attainment of the concept, first by correctly identifying additional unlabelled examples of the concept and then by generating their own examples. After this the teacher (and student) confirm or disconfirm their original hypothesis, revising their choice of concept or attribute as necessary.

In phase three, students begin to analyse the strategies by which they attain concepts. As we have indicated some learners initially try broad constructs and gradually narrow the fields; others begin with more discrete constructs. The learners can describe their patterns, whether they fows on at attributes or concepts, whether they did so one at a time or several at once and what happened when their hypothesis was not confirmed.

2.6.3.2 The Selection Model

The second model by Bruner which is the selection model of concept attainment (See Table 2) differs abit with the Reception model of concept attainment. The major difference between the two models is the labelling and sequencing of examples. In selection model, an example is not labelled unit the student asks whether it is a yes or a no. Another difference is that student may ask about their own examples in order to attain the concept. The students also control the

sequence of the examples by choosing the ones they want to inquire about. The tracking and analysis of attributes is this not as formal in the Selection model as in the Reception model. Students may be encouraged to make notes about their hypothesis and attributes. In general, the selection model places responsibility for concept attainment and attribute tracking in the hands of the students. Its syntax is similar to that of the Reception model but its activities and role within phase one and phase two are slightly different . Students can work as individual, each person inquiring about examples, they can work as a group, making a joint decision about the examples to inquire into, working as individuals is probably desiable at first, although each person will be somewhat in influenced by the answers to some one else's inquiry.

2.6.3.3 The Unorganised Material Model.

Joyce et al (1972) contends that the real benefit of concept attainment occurs when we begin to apply it to unarranged material to help us become aware of the attributes employed. Verbal assertions of concept appear throughout written material and the attributes on which their concepts are based are not always explicit.

The proceedure for analysing concept in unorganised materials involves locating the concept, identifying the attributes used; discussing the adequacy and appropriateness of the attributes and comparing the examples for other passages using the same concept (see Table 3). Generally, progression to analysing concepts in unorganised materials is part of a sequance of instruction in concept attainment activity. This third version of concept attainment is much more a group discussion than an instructional exercise such as the reception and selection variations. The teacher's role is to facilitate discussion and ensure that it focuses on the development of a concept in the material.

2.6.3.4 Merril and Tennyson Model.

Of the several instructional designs developed to aid teachers in teaching concepts, one very effective design that has not been widely cited in Social Studies methods texts was developed by Merril and Tennyson in 1977. This design has been formed to be more effective than several other designs (Mckinney, 1983: 1). The model consists of four parts: (a) a definition (b) an expository presentation, (c) attribute isolation and (d) an inquisitory practice presentation. Each component of the model is based on research findings, (See Table 4).

Merril and Tennyson define a concept definition as a statement that identifies the concepts critical attributes (essential characteristics) and how these attributes are related. Attributes may be related in one of three ways; confunctively, disfunctively and relationally.

The expository presentation follows the definition. This presentation consist of 'matched' examples and non examples pairs that are divergent (covers the full realin of the concept) and includes easy, madium and difficult exaples and nonexamples. Examples and nonexamples are matched on the basis of the concept's variable attributes (nonesential characteristics). For example, snow is a variable attribute of arable land. That is, during the winter months arable land may or may not be covered with snow. Therefore, a picture of arable land covered with snow may be paired with a nonexample, such af a glacier covered with snow.

The third step in the model is referred to as attribute isolation. The purpose of this step is to make sure that the learner 'sees' the critical attributes in each example and that they see the absence of the critical attributes in the nonexamples. Attribute isolation can be achieve by underlining the critical attributes in written statements, then use of colour in drawings, or simply by pointing in the case of photographs. This step occurs simultaneously

with expositorypresentation and attribute isolation. The purpose of this presentation is to allow the learner to practice selecting examples from nonexamples and to receive feedback from the teacher. New examples and non examples be used so that the learner does not merely recall the instances from the expository presentation. Momorization of a definition and specific examples and non examples should not be confused with understanding the concept. Merril and Tennyson claim that these examples and nonexamples should be randomly ordered to prevent the learner from merely figuring out the presentation order. The learner is asked whether a specific correctly, the teacher asks why. The learner's explanation should include the presence or absence of the concept's critical attributes. If the learner responds in correctly, the learner's responds by starting the correct response and explains why the instance is or is not an example.

The rationale for the renew of some models for conceptual attainment in this study is that, the use of the models determine the shape of particular learning activities. For instance, if the emphasis is on acquiring a new concept the teacher will emphasize through his or her questions or comments and attributes in each example (particular the positive examples) and the concept label, if the emphasis is

on the inductive process, the teacher might want to provide fewer clues and reinforce students for their participating and perverance. The particular content (concept) may be less important than the participation in the inductive process, it may even be a concept the student already know. If the emphasis is on the analysis of thinking a short sample concept attainment exercise might be developed so that more time can be spent on the analysis of thinking.

Teachers can use the concept attainment model with all ages and grade levels. What the teachers need to bear in mind is to reflect the various levels they are designed for. For the young children concepts and examples must be relatively simple.

The concept attainment model is also an excellent evaluation tool when teachers want to determine whether important ideas introduced earlier have been mastered. It quickly reveals the depth of students' understanding and reinformces their previous knowledge. The model can also be useful in opening up a new conceptual area by initiating a sequence of individual or group inquiries.

On the otherhand critisms have been labelled against the concept attainment model. First, teachers believe that these lessons are difficult to develop. In some cases, lessons can be time consuming. A second critism is that some

concepts do not fit into some of these models. It is sometimes difficult to find non examples of some concepts such as culture.

2.7 Skills Development in Social Studies.

Among the several classifications of goal, to which Social Studies teaching is directed, agreement is general that the development of skills should receive major attention (Carpenter, 1965: 181). There are varied reasons as to the legitimacy of this accertion. One, because of the rapid rate in the absolescence of much information today and therefore, of the diminished transfer value of knowledge. Skills, however, represent more generalized learning and thus are likely to be applicable continually in all facts of an individual life. The term skill is applied to the ability to do something with some degree of experness in repeated performance. Adequacy of skill development must not only take into account the expertness of performance per se, but the age and prior background of the learner. Other reasons reflect in part the energence of new professional viewpoints more especially in the Social Studies area, mounting public concern about reported serious deficiences in skill performance, particularly in the case of the economically and culturally disadvantaged,

with growing distress concerning the average child, and the growing efforts in research in curriculum development aimed at making education 'back to basics'.

These reasons suggest that a credibility gap exists between what school say they are producing and what the public believes they are producing. School children many taxpayers believe that the school are inefficient and ineffective. They see to many pupils who have not mastered such basic skills as reading a city map. They want the school to teach such fundamental skill while developing children's capacities to be human and responsible citizens. All these circumstances are teaching to more demands for educational accountability. Certaily one aspect of instruction that can be measured is skill development. Because skills are generally concerned to pertain to process rather than to product of learning, skill development provides children with basic tools for arriving at their own values. This emphasis on skill development encourages teachers to help their students towards becoming more effective, mature adults, able to grapple with their life roles and problems inherent in a changing society. The purpose therefore of teaching skills in Social Studies is to enable the individual to gain knowledge concerning his society, to think reflectively about problems and isues, and to apply this thinking in constructive action (Nyakutse 1977: 85).

2.8 Rationale for Skills.

The rationale for increased attention to Social Studies skills in schools is based on the following assumptions as enumerated by Joyce (1979: 108).

1. In the past, too much attention has been given over to content which is very often learned at the figurative level and never made operational.
2. Skills are needed to identify, select, organize evaluate, and supply information relevent to the study of the problem.
3. Skills have the potential of producing competencies needed for survival in a rapidly changing world.
4. Skill development can help children be more responsible for their own learning.
5. Skills are becoming increasingly more important because scientific knowledge is doubling every decade.
6. The vast amount of new instructional materials available to places more demands on skills development than ever before. Yet, too, frequently we assume that kids, have already mastered such basic skills as reading and effective discussion techniques.

7. Skills are, indeed, one dimension of the Social Studies curriculum that can be measured, both formally in school, as well as informally in out-of-school real-life situation.

While educators are not at all sure what jobs will be available for the pupils of today, we are certain that skills will be essential for them to gain the minimum of economic security, social maturity, and independence. Skill competencies can do more that help an individual acquire a job-they will also become important in interpersonal relationships with the family structure as well as outside of it, in leisure activities, in citizenship roles, and in perception of self.

As mentioned earlier in the introduction, skills cannot be isolated from the rest of the educational process. While they can delt with as discrete entities for purpose of clarity they are ready inextricably related to content and attitudies. They can be defined as tools essential in performing a physical, mental, or emotional task. It thaught properly they can be transferred from one situation to another. They can be refined with practice and with the child's maturity. By the time children enter school, they already have mastered certain skills in language, reading, playing and so on. The child alone can continue to develop on these skills

left alone through constant practice and use. But the refirement of the skills the child has when he comes to school and the teaching of others that are introduced as a part of the curriculum will be greately enhenced through careful and systematic instruction, (Jarolinek 1971:174).

A common strategy has been suggested by Bayers (1977: 98) as a means of helping children learn new skills and refine existing ones. The strategy in arranged as follows:-

1. Read about, tell about or show the skills.
2. Explain the steps involved in using the skill.
3. Demonstrate the skill.
4. Practice the skill numerous times on a variety of data or examples.
5. Reflect on and summarize the skill and its component.

It should be clear from the above five steps that skills consist of organised and coordinated activities that are built up gradually through repeated experiences. There can be no doubt that well developed skill enhance the ability to do other school related tasks: Conversely, poorly developed skills result in arrested school progress. Skill competence strengthens the child positive perception of himself, an important component of school success. The child use skill

to deal with the Social world confronting him, and consequently skills contribute directly to his social competence. The purpose of teaching skills in Social Studies is to enable the individual to gain knowledge concerning problems and issues and to apply this thinking in constructive action. For our pupose we will look at Social Studies based on ones experiences, aptitude, knowledge, and practice. This in any way does not mean that there is a body of skills unique to Social Studies, rather these skills used in Social Studies cut across all content areas. The advantage of singling out Social Studies skills in the curriculum is to ensure that they are included and tought systematically. Morever, skills represented in a Social Studies context can often be tought in a more realistic and functional setting that when presented either in isolation or in the framework of another curriculum area as for example in the reading programme.

2.9 Types of Social Studies Skills.

1. Critical Thinking or Problem Solving:- In this category of skill a popular inquiry model has been adopted which include divorce learning styles consisting of the following steps:-
   1. Identification of a problem
   2. Developing a hypothesis
   3. Data collection,
   4. Data analysis,
   5. Conclusion.

2. Communication Skills:- This Social Studies skill aid much in the concept acquisition process of children. Through attentive listening to conversations, debates, discussions, explanations and reports in a Social Studies class, the child can add to this ideas and interests. By listening to directions given for reading assignments, visual aids, as well as for studying maps, landecapes and artifacts the child can improve his work in individual and small group activities.

3. Map and Globe Skills:- This is a vital area of skills in Social Studies as it relates to life in and out of School. What perhaps should be born in mind is that map concepts meant for children should initially be introduced in a concrete way and should relate to the childre experience This is due to the abstract nature of the skill and it also deals with ideas about space and symbols.

4. Groupwork and Social Skills:- The fourth category of skill includes groupwork skills, often referred to as Social Skills. Learning to work co-operating in groups is an individual process. It involves a readiness stage, continuous growth at varying rates of speed and sequential step-by-step development.

2.10 Developing Geography Skills.

In order to complement Geographic facts, concept and generalizations, teachers are encouraged to reinforce and extend systematically Geographical skills (map and globes skills) through-Planned-experience, integrating these skill fully into the instructional process. One may therefore see that Geography and Social Studies do have certain skills which are treated as important enough-to-be learned formally, such as the map and globe. As each discipline has certain tools and devices on which it depends to help further its objectives, for the Geographer and Social Studies teacher it is through the use of map and globes that they can achieve the objectives such as understanding and the ability to visualize the landscape represented by map symbols.

Geographers, however, feel that some of these skills can be better learned in Geography and the lack of these in the Social Studies syllabus may constitute a dilution of subject. These include map making and map interpretation, a aspect which is not properly represented in the Social Studies programme. Commenting on the fuctions of maps Okunrotifa (1967:137) elaborated that, from maps Geographers can gather a variety of information significant in gaining understanding not only of location, but also of the significance of location in

terms of transport, markets row materials, resort areas etc. Directions, relative distances, relief features, elevations, slopes of the land, rainfall, vegetation etc.

The Social Studies syllabus of the junior Secondary School shows the absence of content teaching for skills-such as the inter pretation of weather changes, the use of directions (North, East, etc) and the use of atlases. Yet these skills are obviously useful in everyday life.

Geography is essentially the study of distribution and patterns, and therefore lays great emphasis on the skills of practical work which involves much of map making, interpreting, reading and location etc. The inclusion of the above skills in the Social Studies programme at an early age is important from the point of view of Social Studies teacher. Perhaps the most important ideas relative to mapping is that map concepts for junior secondary children should initially be introduced in a concrete way and should relate to the child's experiences. This is a mighty big challenge because map and globe skills are fundamentally abstract, and deal with ideas about space and symbols.

2.10.1 Functions of Maps.

Maps are systematic representation of the earth or part of the earth upon a flate, or plane, surface. Upon a systematic network of lines (gnd) the map maker arranges in a meaningful pattern the does, colour lines and somethings words,

he has chosen from standard symbols. To the person who knows how to read these symbols. To the person who knows how to read these symbols, may reveal information useful for developing understanding of locational or regional phenomena. In otherwords, maps may be read and maps may also be interpreted. Map reading, like any other kind of reading, involves the ability to recognise and to understand the symbols on the map. This includes not only the symbols as such but also directions, distances, relative coations, positions on the globe, size, or any of the geographical, statistical, political, or cultural information which the map is designed to show. A major objective of map-making is to indicate all of these in so clear a manner that the map is easily and accurately read.

Maps can serve a variety of functions. They are a means of recording information for permance, for clarification, for comparison and for communications. A large scale map of small region, depicting its landforms, duainage settlement partter, roads or many other geographic and economic distributions, provide the knowledge of relationships necessary for man to carry on many of his activities intellingently. The building of a road, a house, a flood control system or almost any other construction project requires mapping.

At a small scale, Maps of soil erosion, landuse, climates, population, income patterns, etc, are necessary to understand the problem and potentialities of an area. On the smallest scale, Maps of the entire earth indicate generalizations and relationships of broad physical and cultural patterns necessary to imagine accurately the conditions of the great world stage so that we can think sanely and sensibly about social and political conditions around the world.

In Geographic instruction, maps have distinctive functions, since they present certain types of information better than any other medium. Their major functions is to show certain fact concerning place and man's relations with place and space. The most important of these facts are discussed in the following paragraphs (Kennamer 1966: 335-336).

1. Location - Through the understanding and use latitude and longilude, map and in finding the exact relative location of any place on earth.

2. Size and shape of an Area or of a Feature- Repeated use of maps gives an accurate mental image of the shape of countries, and of natural phenomena, such as continents, Islands and Seas, while exact compansons of size on equal maps are possible and do result in concepts of areas. Maps can this present true areas in perspective.

3. Distance - By use of the scale of kilometer or by use of latitude and longitude, distance between points can be read or estimated.

4. Elevation and surface - Topographic and physical maps make it possible to learn the elevation above sea level and to judge the slope and surface of the world's land areas. Facts of hydrology can also be determined by studying the patterns of river systems, lakes, oceans and seas.

5. Distribution of Natural and cultural features - The distribution patterns of many phenomena such as population density population trends, population characteristics, agricultural commodities, industrial production minerals, soil types, and climatic types can be shown on maps. In fact most aspects of human endeavour can be mapped. Often data can be compared more easily and accurately when mapped.

6. Visualization of Areas and Patterns - Small symbols on maps represent large things of man nature. Thus, the map is mandatory for visualizing large and distant lands.

7. Relationships - Another function of a map is to provide a basis for noting relationships. This is achieved by comparing two or more maps of different phenomena. For example, comparison of a rainfall and a map showing agricultural agriculture and climate.

8. Inferences - By interpreting the significance of facts shown by symbols on map, important inferences are possible. For example the location of mountains, direction of prevailing winds, number of cities, transportation networks, location of swamps or deserts, number of rivers and lakes - all help the map reader to make inferences about climate, population density, vegetation and even the dominant occupation in a region.

9. Interest- From one reading standpoint, maps can function in promoting interest in learning about other areas and cultures. They can be used to introduce unit of study, to aid in development of units, and to summarize and evaluate the units. All of use are attracted by the suggestions for learning inherent in maps, whether the maps be a common map or a set of in an atlas.

10. Change - One of the must common functions of maps in the Social Studies is to show change - geographic, economic, social, political. Maps in succession can show the before and 'after' of a pattern of change. The

movement of people with dates, can be shown as well as the changed political patterns. Exchange of goods, developments of industries, the spread of crops, the marches of armies all can be presented dramatically through mapping.

2.10.2 Role of Globes.

Globes are the only true representation of the entire, earth. And although maps, are more widely used than globes, certain geographic understandings cannot successfuly be expressed without the proper use of globe.

Understanding the globes is basic to a development of skill and abilities necessary for reading and interpreting maps. The globe must be understood by children before much can be done with flatmaps, especially world or continent maps. Even maps of the immediate neighbourhood are not so dependent upon global concepts, a complete understanding of the grid of parallels and meridian upon which allmaps are based is dependent upon globe study.

A basic function of the globe is the introduction and development of locational concepts use of the globe can illustrate must pointedly, the need for a framework by which to locate places on earth. For example, have students to locate an area using the earthisgrid, rather than memorize terminally about it which is soon forgotted.

Another important function of the globe in the classroom is its use for teaching earth movement and relationships in the solar system, something which cannot be tought well, with a flat map. An understanding of rotation (basic for understanding daylight and darkness, tides wind movements, ocean currents etc) and of revolution (basic for understanding daylight and darkness, tides, wind movements, ocean currents etc) and of revolution (basic for understanding changing seasons, varying length of daylight periods etc) requires the repeated study of the globe. Other concepts depend upon globe study include time zones, the international dateline, and great circle, transportation patterns. It should be noted that the study of the globe is rot limited to use the primary grades, since concepts just mentioned are introduced and developed at higher grade levels and need to be reviewed even at the college level.

The ability to process information requires, analyses into patterns and the concept taught. The complex world of today requires massive information to be condensed into meaningful patterns of everyday use. The practical work and map interpretation can therefore provide a useful resource for these skills. Some of the techniques that can be used for developing map skills include, trips to mountains, forest, valley use of pictures and films, and decission of observation made by pupils.

For the realization of Geography skills objectives, Social Studies has covered a substantial part of it. But in order to make an improvement in the Social Studies programme at an early stage (forms 1 and 2), it should include other esential skills of map making and interpretation mentioned above. The absence of these is probably the only complaint Geography has with regard to skills in Social Studies. Nevertheless, these skills can be tought within a programme whether separate or integrated which provides for systematic development of both skill and knowledge, and which leads to a better understanding of the world in which we live. Ideally, map and globe skills should be developed according to some scope system.

Chapter 3

TECHNIQUES FOR INSTRUCTION

3.1 Introduction.

Activities and techniques employed by teachers in the classroom may suit a variety of purposes. The same activity used in different ways may lead to a number of objectives. The purpose best served by these activities depend in part upon the personal characteritics of the teacher, the composition and maturity of the class, previous experiences of the group, the context in which the activity is employed and a number of other variables beyond the scope of the present discussion. Social Studies processes may be developed in a variety of classroom situations whether the logical design of the lesson is deductive, inductive or a combination of the two. If our aim as educators is to give students a firm grasp of the integrated Social Sciences, together with the skills and attitudes necessary for autonomous thinking and responsible action, then our classroom', whatever else it is in nature, must manifest intellectual honesty. "Critical to the development of Social Studies processes is an intellectual climate in which both the teacher and the students feel a sence of responsibility and commitment (involvement) to the process of systematically searching, weighing and evaluating" (Thompson, 1976: 123).

It is important for the teacher to understand some basic principles and strategies before teaching for conceptual and skill development in the Social Studies. Raths (in Agboola 1979: 22) asserted that one of the most important principles for teachers is that they should encourage their students to avoid those behaviours which show that they are not sufficiently equipped with experiences in thinking. Such behaviours include impulsiveness, overdependence on the teacher, inability to concentrate, missing the meaning, dogmatic and assertive behaviour, rigidity or inflexibility of behaviour, extreme lack of confidence in one's own thinking, and unwillingness to think. Each of these behaviours has some negative impact on the processes of developing the students' abilities to think critically. Teachers, having recognized such behaviours in their students, should work to control them. Infact, Raths contended that helping the students requires a continuing exposure to thinking situations. In addition it is also the thoughtful, friendly, patient, careful work of a competent teacher who identifies with the child in need of help. It is therefore expected that when competent teachers apply the principles identified above, their students will learn to think of their own before they come to any conclusion or even provide answers to simple classroom questions.

3.2 Planning for Instruction

After the study content in the school Social Studies programme has been selected, much planning remains to be done. The immediate problem confronting the teacher attempting to plan a Social Studies programme involves the internal organisation of materials and method. An attempt to device an alternative instruction design for the Social Studies as against the traditional design which favours the recall of information and facts has been formulated by the Ahmadu Bello University. This new design offers educators information that more adequately reflect the purpose of Social Studies Instruction (Kissock 1979/80).

In this design, a theme has been presented in the form of a generalization which directs attention to the purpose of studying the topic. This is followed by a list of Key concepts and skills to be studied, developed, and used in the course. The concluding section presents suggested topics through which the above purposes can be achieved. This design helps Social Studies educators by offering a means for sequencing programme elements and assessing student and programme performance on the basis of concepts, generalization and skills to be developed through instruction.

3.2.1 The Unit Approach

Today, the unit approach is universally acknowledged as a superior way to organise for planning Social Studies instruction. A unit whether for teacher or student is an organization of information and activities focussed upon the development of some significant understanding, attitude or appreciation which will modify behaviour (Hanna 1963: 118).

The unit approach in a more simplified form is not always a radical departure from the most enlightened textbook teaching, nor is it any kind of a final answer, but it does attempt to correct many of the shortcomings of narrowly concerned textbook-centred methodology (Muessing 1966: 249). Unit teaching, at its best, can be a thing of beauty, however, and has some unique properties which distinguish it from its more mundane cousin, the textbook approach. Unit teaching attempts to integrate, combine, co-ordinate, or articulate understandings, skills, attitudes, and appreciations around large significant topics. It seeks wholeness rather than fragmentation, clusters of ideas and data rather than isolated particles, more of a maitage than a series single snapshorts taken one by one. The unit approach does not avoid facts, but it does try to build facts into concepts and generalizations which may have more reasoning, may be transferable in more situations, and may be more lasting. This method recognizes

that any source of information, however good it may be, imposes unnessary limitations upon the class and the teacher. Pupil-teacher planning in the drafting of objectives search for materials, selection of methods of study and development of evaluative processes is more common. Actual interests, need, coperations, and problems of students are tapped and kept in mind, and greater student involvement and identification with objectives of learning tends to upstage intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation. The unit may deal with material similar in content to that which the textbook approach give text. Unit teaching encourages creative, independent, critical thought rather than memorization for it own sake. It relies on a variety of evaluation techniques in addition to the typical standardized and teacher made tests. We could go on, but the basic thing we shall all agree is that the unit teacher is after more meaning in what goes on in a classroom.

In preparing a unit of instruction, one should give prime consideration to incorporating unit goals, assumptions, criteria, and behavioural objectives. The first part considers the overview which takes into consideration the nature and scope of the unit. Justify the unit . Why is this an important topic for children of the age level for whom it is intended? What experience in school have they had that might have helped prepare them for formal study of this topic? What

real life experiences may they have had that would assure the topic the interest and application a unit needs for success?

The second stage deals with concept to be developed. The teacher will be expected to define what the students are to learn doing the unit. The direct statement forms is preferred. Example, in form one the students will analyse the physical environment as it affects their local environment and within the climatic settings. The following would represent clealy worded concepts; weather, Rainfall, temperature, land form, settlement and so on. Such statement of major ideas to be gained form a unit of study stated in both contract to vague expressions such as: To enable the pupils comprehend climatic conditions; to help the pupils develop the concept of landform and soon.

These latter statements prompt one to ask "what climatic conditions?" Or "which landform?" The statement do not convey a clear meaning to another person who may be using the material, rather do they formish a clear vantage point from which to evaluate student comprehension of the ideas.

The third stage deals with skills and habits to be developed. The teacher will state the skills to be fostered by work in this particular unit. Attention may be drawn to such items as maps and globe skills and others which are pertinent to this unit. The superior unit also notes such skills and habits

in the activities, thus pointing out explicitly how the learning is to take place.

The fourth stage should concentrate on motivational activities. Here the teacher will suggest for such things as films, bulletin boards, displays or still pictures, and questions to be used in begining discussions with the class, and relia brought in by student's and teacher.

The fifth stage calls for Activities. The teacher suggests projects and activities by which the proposed study concepts may be gained. This portion of a unit involves more time in its execution than any other single section. It may include both reading and non-reading activities and the use of such-visual materials as film, models, speciments and field trips. Each proposed activity should be explained in such detail that another teacher with another class could repeat it. Note that this is a resource unit and will contain more activity suggestions that might be used in teaching it to any one class. A resource unit is a collection and classification of various ideas for teaching a particular and topic. Ideally, materials and ideas which appear in a fully developed unit are considered to be a source from which a teacher may select what seems to best fit the immediate situation. Thus a teacher may not necessarly use identical elements from a given unit each time what it is taught.

Different materials and proceedures would be selected from the unit for different groups of students.

The sixth stage is the Evaluation stage. The purpose of this stage is to describe all the best ways in which the teacher and students might determine if the purpose concept were actually gained. Typical ways for assessing achievement would include formal teacher made test, checklist of attitude and behaviour aid physical survey. And lastly, bibliography and other teaching materials should be provided. The teacher should identify suitables textbooks and other materials relevant to the instructional content and methodology for the pupils to use in or out of classroom.

3.2.2 Objectives and Procedure in a Teaching Unit.

However, unit activities that are unrelated to unit objectives are unsound. At times where teachers used of activities do assist in the achievement of educational goals, chance has graciously intervened; but thoughtful and resourceful teachers must approach the task of teaching with greater promise for success than can be provided by chance.

With few exceptions, activities are not justified unless they lead rather directly to a desired goal. Activities may appear promising in theory but unless they prove sound in practice,

tie should be treated with caution. The responsiblity of selecting appropriate objectives for a given unit and determing the most efficient procedure to achieve these objectives is one of the most formidable task confronting conscientious teachers. Thus, efforts should be made by teachers to clearly focus on the importance of establishing and maintaining a psychologically sound relationship between objectives and procedures in the unit.

The meaningful differenciation of the kinds of objectives is basic to any discussion relating procedures to objectives. The teacher must be able to perceive the differences among educational objectives before he can select an appropriate objective and identify the procedures essential in teaching it. The size of the task involved in the selection and statement of unit objectives is vastly underestimated by the majority of unit planners. The most frequent difficulties encountered in evaluating unit objective have been enumerated by Callahan (1966: 61) as the following.

1. No differentiation is made between types of objectives. It is the type of objective, however, that determines the procedure to be employed.

2. Objectives are not stated in their simplest form with respect to either content or word usage.

3. Objectives are frequently too difficult or too easy for the average student at the particular grade level.

4. Minor objectives are not properly related to major objectives.

5. Concepts are listed in such away that the development of thinking from the simple to the complex is not encouraged.

6. Objectives are not meaningfully interelated.

7. Concepts to be learned are stated in topic form, thus encouraging vagueness on the part of the planner as well as the learners.

8. Objectives of limited value are often selected.

These problems should be noted by the teacher with a view to concientiously improve. The indiscriminate listing of objectives with regard to type can have a far reaching effect upon the success of a unit. Such a listing betrays the planners lack of information about how goals are best achieved.

There are several types of objectives with which all planners should be acquainted. What we are concerned with at the moment are the concept and skills in the Geographic instruction of the Social Studies programme. The concepts,

the goal sought must frequently in most units and courses, is also involved in the other types of objectives. Proper conceptualization, for example, is the necessary foreruner of the practice involved in learning motor skills.

In such a planning for conceptual and skill development Social Studies, it is wise to remember some of the problems unit planning encounters in listing concepts as objectives to be learned. Two suggestions should save the teacher much time and distress:-

(i) Concepts are most meaningful to the students as well as to the teacher when they are written in full sentences and stated as simply as possible.

(ii) An early identified relationship must be established between major concepts and supporting minor concepts.

The skill, like the concept, is another of the major types of objectives with which the Social Studies teacher must be familiar if he is to teach efficiently. It is also necessary to differentiate between skills and concepts, since the basic proceedures for learning concept are different from those required for learning skills. A skill may be developed to any desired level of proficiency, assuming that neutral and physical equipment make this possible. The learning skills requires two processes.

(i) Acquiring a clear concept of the motor action involved.

(ii) Practicing under supervision until the desired level of proficiency has been attained.

3.3 Learning Resource.

There is a lot the teacher can do in the provision for the conceptual development in the pupils, so that learning can be useful to the learners. The use of single textbook is inadequate. The inadequacy of using the Social Studies textbook as the sole learning tool in conceptual development was reported in a study by Monolakes (1965). Among the major weakness he reported were the following:-

(i) Textbooks tend to verbalize concept rather than to present materials that would contribute to the development of concepts.

(ii) Concepts are treated in such away as to suggest that they are secondary or incidental consideration and

(iii) Concept are not adequately reinforced after initial presentation.

The teacher must therefore reach out beyond the textbook and include the use of a broad spectrum of learning resources as he works with his pupils. Concept development is a continuous process that requires the pupil to analyse, synthesize, and evaluate his experiences. Ideally, a teacher utilizes varied learning resources to promote intellectual activity required for concept development. The challenge is clear. Teachers must provide contrived experiences, utilizing learning resources that are best suited to introduce or reinforce concepts essential for building generalizations.

Kendall (1971:130-132) outlines some learning resources and how best they can be utilized for concept-development. Among which are Textbooks, commercial and Reference books, Maps and Globes, Graphs and Charts, pictures and illustrations.

The textbook serves as a basic learning resources in the Social Studies curriculum. It provides the knowing pad for introductory experiences in concept development the textbooks should be carefully scrutinized to ensure that the book selected for use is compatible with the educational philosophy and approach to instruction followed in schools.

Commercial books and reference books are necessary learning resources that argument and supplement the basic text. These books extend understanding and give increased meaning to discussion of institutions, objects and experiences.

Commercial books provide the teacher with a vast reserviour from which to select material suitable for introduction or identification of concepts. Reference books, encyclopedia, almost provide pupils with a variety of 'factual information'. These sources can be used by teachers and pupils to check and verify conceptual levels of understand. Using reference books under careful teacher guidance, pupils can analyse, synthesize and evaluate understanding at the conceptual level appropriate to each individual learning.

Maps and Globes are visual teaching aids that can be used slightly or collectively to promote concept development. A guiding principle in the use of these learning resources is that of pupil participation. Pupils need many experiences in handling and using these materials on a first hand basis. Such planned experiences should begin with the child first formal educational programme in the primary school.

Geography and Pictorial concepts are utilized when presented with the use of maps and Globes. These resources may be used.

(i) To promote changes that have occurred on the earth's surface and to depict political changes that have occured in man's recorded history.

(ii) To enrich the current events programme.

(iii) To assist pupils understand the particular area under study, attitudes, transportation routes, rainfall, population density and other specifics and

(iv) To replace events in chronological order for an accurate study in history.

Graphs and charts are appropriate tools for presenting Social Studies information quitely and effectively. Children should be encouraged to construct graphs and charts to visually illustrate comparisons, trends, and relationships. Teachers are reminded to emphasize simplicity and aim at approximations when treating data. The chief purpose in using it is acquire resources in the present comparative situation and to absorb quantitative information quickly and simply.

Pictures and illustrations provide accurate and attractive visual representation to complement and enrich learning. Once children gain competence in the skill of picture reading, photographs and illustrations contained in the text or presented by the teacher take on new, added dimensions. Pupils see in pictures that they had peviously overlooked. Cultural concepts are broadened from a study of pictures illustrating

how inhabitants of an area occupy the land, how the people look, what food they eat, how they dress, and the types of homes in which they live. To present this some information in printed context alone would be a difficult task-when illustrations and photographs supplement printed materials more accorate concepts are ssured. Concepts about natural phonomena are likewise made more meaningful when illustrated with pictures. Such physical features as mountains, valleys, glaciers, and rivers are more easily understood. Children can learn a great deal about the geography of a region by utilizing their picture search skills. High quality visual materials of all types provide the teacher with an exeellent selection of learning resource for concept development.

Learning resources, however, only present opportunities for good teaching and sound learning. No matter what the quality of the material or how abundantly plentiful it may be, it has no impact on instruction unless used by an enlightend teacher. If concept development depends on breaths of experiences and if teachers apply what is known about individual differences in learners, sound social studies instruction must employ a multi-media approach to ensure adequate concept development.

3.4 Activities to Use.

Student activities are, of course, the core of the Social Studies programme. Activities are created and presented so a as to assure a wide perspective of thinking and doing. They are rather the vehicles that enable the student to reach desired educational goals. Activities (procedures) should be so organized within the unit that they perform this function with maximum efficiency.

Concientious educators have consistently sought a pattern within which unit activities could be meaningfully grouped, and, in recent years, they have tended to classify such activities under three headings: Introductory activities, developmental activities, and concluding activities (Callahan 1966: 85). Although all units activities are basically goal related, such differentiation encourages planners to consider the essential characterisitics of each classification.

3.4.1 Introductory Activities.

Introductory activities are designed to set the stage so that the learning of unit objectives can more forward with optimum effectiveness. Their common purpose in not to make a direct contribution to the achievement of unit goals

(although this frequently is one of the side effect of well planned introductory activities); rather their main pupose is to expose stucent to the nature and content of the unit inorder to awaken an intense and abiding interest.

Specifically, introductory activities follow this sequence:-

1. A highly motivating interest, arousing activity, related to the unit is conducted in the classroom.
2. A brief but interesting talk indicating the significance of the unit is given by the teacher.
3. The possible objectives of the unit are examined:-
   (a) students are exposed to possible objectives previously identified by the teacher.
   (b) student react to the teacher's suggestions and give some of their own.
   (c) under the teacher's direction students and teachers modify objectives and determine which are worthy of pursuit.
   (d) students are encouraged to determine how each adopted unit objective is of personal value to themselves.

4. The possible activities suitable for the achievement of stated objectives are discussed:-

   (a) students are exposed to possible activities previously identified by the teacher.

   (b) under the teacher's direction, students and teachers determine which activities are best suited to goal achievement.

   (c) the role that each student will play in the stated activities is determined.

The teacher must remember that the basic purpose of activities in introducing a new unit are to:-

1. Arouse student interest in unit content.
2. Relate unit content to the needs of individual student.
3. Acquaint student with the significance of unit content.
4. Identify and interpret objectives.
5. Select sound proceedures for the attainment of objectives.
6. Determine where students should with respect to the acquisition of unit content.

3.4.2 Developmental Activities

After the introductory activities have been successfuly carried out, the teacher must focus class attention on the developmental activities the major purposes of developmental activities is to achieve the goals established during the pre-planning and initiatory stages of the unit. As the name implies their chief concern is with the development of concepts and skills.

In well organised units, developmental activities are characterized by the following.

1. The activities reflect the type of objectives sought (concept and skill). The learning of a concept for example, requires that the learner proceed throu through a series of steps quite different from those required for learning a habit.

2. The activities may consist of a more variety of proceedures, but all proceedures must be appropriate to the type of objective sought.

3. The activities are designed to help the learner achieve objectives through a step by step (inductive) progression. Activities then, are arranged in a sequence that will provide for agradual unfelding of concepts. Each succeeding experiences aimed towards

a given goal expands the concept or further develops the skill.

4. Properly organized developmental activities are always directed towards a specific goal. Loosely organized activities reflect the uncertainty of the planner regarding the direction he should take.

5. The activities are planned, for the most part, in considerable detail. This is particularly important for the beginning teacher.

6. The activities continuously motivate the students. Loss of students interest in the middle of a unit can prevent goal achievement.

7. Teacher ingenuity gives rise to a proceedure or a combination of proceedures that is, in a some respect, different from any previously known to the teacher.

8. Flexibility is built into the timing of developmental activities to accomodate unforeseen accelerations or slowdowns.

3.4.3 Concluding Activities

Concluding activities are primarilly designed to clinch basic unit concept and skills. More frequently than not, this is accomplished through procedures involving practical applications of what has been learned. Concluding activities occupy roughly one tenth of the time devoted to the unit. However, the proportion of time devoted to specific kinds of activities will vary greately depending on the nature of the particular unit.

Some commonly used concluding activities are:-

1. Presentation of papers and articles.
2. Exhibits of items made by students.
3. Practical problems that call for the application of serveral unit concepts.
4. Application of newly acquired unit generalization to new situations.
5. Written or oral summaries of the unit by the student or the student or the teacher.
6. A teacher conducted review of basic concepts and important relationships developed doing the unit.
7. A class prefect extending throughout the total unit.
8. Conducting of field trips.
9. Organisation of unit Examination.
10. Invitation of Resource Specialist.

These basic concluding activities may of course be modified expanded, or combined for most effective use. When activities are used to review or synthesize the learning that has taken place, and to establish a foundation for new grounds to be covered, they are culminating activities.

During the concluding (culminating) stage of the unit, activities should compel the students to interrelate the specific concepts they have acquired. As a result, concepts should be expanded, their meanings enlarged and stabilized. This, in turn, necessitates the use of proceedures that will encourage this expansion of meanings. Concluding activities should effect a pulling together of loose ends. Only a limited number of activities are suited to this task.

The use of activities for the teaching of Social Studies makes the learning process become a more realistic, practical, and meaningful venture for the students because they are allowed to take an active part in the process. When activities are provided, maximum utilization of local resources (in terms of material and human resources) can be achieved. Infact, the students themselves can survey their own environment through field trips or visits. They will be exposed to a lot of experiences which they could not have gained in the classroom alone.

Students engage more than one biological or psycological sense when they use different types of activities; for in most cases they feel, tauch, taste, see, and hear. When these sences are employed at the touch same time, complex materials become simpler for the students to understand. As the students participate in different types of exercises, teachers can become more acquinted with the students' individual problems and it may be possible to look for solutions to these problems.

3.5 Types of Activities.

If the teaching of Social Studies is to lead to some of the desired outcomes; the use of different types of activities is necessary, as this will help students develop into inquiring, rational, and critical thinkers. And because concepts, generalizations and theories are derived by people and because people both design the observational system and select and group pertinent observations from the system, it is evident that if one is to understand and use concepts, generalizations and theories he or she must understand the processes employed in generating and testing this knowledge. Also, knowledge of these processes will aid in the development of more efficient and effective teaching learning situations.

Eleven major processes have been identified have which include the great majority of students activities appropriate for school experiences (Thompson 1976). The terms associated with these processes are; Oberveration, communicating, classifying, inferring, predicting, formulating models measuring, interpreting data, formulating operational detaintions, formulating questions and hypotheses and testing hypotheses.

OBSERVATION: Observation can be made in a variety of ways using all of the sences. Where direct sense experience is not adequate for making needed observations indirect methods are used. Objects and events may be observed with respect to many qualities and quantities. When observations are made in order to accomulate data from which inferences will be drawn, the precision of the observation is critical. Observations are influenced by the experience of the observer.

COMMUNICATING: In order to communicate observations, accurate records must be kept which can be submitted for checking and rechecking for others. Accomulated records and their analysis may be represented in many ways. Graphical representations are often used since they are clear, concise and meaningful. However, in the Social Studies, communication must encompass all the spoken and written word to physical gestures.

CLASSIFYING: Classifying is the grouping or ordering of phenomena according to an established scheme. Objects and events may be classified on the basis of observations. Classificational schemes are based on observable similarities and differences in properties which are arbitrarily selected. Classificational keys are used to place items within a scheme as well as to retrieve information from a scheme.

INFERING: Inference is drawing tentative conclusions about what is not directly or immediately observable. While it may be based on observations, inference requires evaluation and judgement. Inferences based on one set of observations may suggest further observation which in turn requires modification of original inferences. Inference leads to prediction. In the Social Studies, infering can take place when ever data are reviewed and an evaluation or judgement is requested. Inferring is necessary in any field of study because of the incompleteness of data.

PREDICTING: Measuring properties of objects and events can be accomplished either by direct comparison, or by indirect comparision with urbitrary units. However, for purposes of communication, measurement may be standardized. Measuring in the Social Studies may take many forms, such as the number of persons in Nigeria or the Gross National Product.

INTERPRETING DATA: Interpreting data requires the application of other basic skills, in particular, the processes of inferring, predicting, classifying and communicating. Through this complex process the usefulness of data in answering the question being investigated is determined. Later presentations are always subject to revision in the light of new or more refinde data. Social problem solving is dependent upon the investigator's ability to interpret data. Through interpreting data, we move to decision making.

FORMULATING OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS: Operational definitions are made in order to simplify communication concerning the event, person or group being studied. As operational definition should contain the minimum amount of information needed to differentiate that which is being defined from other similar phenomana. Operational definitions are based upon the operations to be carried out and the phenomena under investigation and thus are related to that specific investigation.

FORMULATING QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES: Questions are formed on the basis of observations made and usually preceded an attempt to evaluate a situation or event. Questions when precisely stated are problems to be solved through application of the other inquiry skills of the Social Studies. The attempt

to answer one question may generate other questions. The formation of hypothesis depends directly upon questions, inference, and prediction. It consist of devising a statement that can be tested by a prof process. When more than one hypothesis is suggested by a set of observations, each must be tested separately. A workable hypothesis is stated in such away that testing can establish its credibility. The inquirer's framework of concepts and generalizations inferences the kind and quality of the questions and hypotheses he develops. In the Social Studies, if the generalization, "if labour is divided, then work is done more efficiently", is testable, it can be called or labelled a hypothesis.

TESTING HYPOTHES: Teasting hypotheses is the process of designing and using data gathering proceedures, determining whether the data support the hypothesis. In a less formal sense, the proof process may be conducted simply by making observations. However, even here a plan to relate premises to data is inherent in the process. Among the ways that hypotheses are tested in the Social Studies are:-

1. Determine whether the hypothesis agrees with data gathered about persons, events, or situations in other times and places;

2. Determine whether the hypothesis is consistent with additional data gathered about the event or situation under study; and

3. Determining whether the hypothesis agrees with acceptable generalizations.

FORMULATING MODELS: Model, whether physical or mental are deviced on the basis of acceptable hypotheses, or upon hypotheses that are yet to be tested. Models are used to describe and explain the interrelationship of ideas. In many cases the model implies new hypotheses and if testing these hypotheses give new information, the model must be altered. Examples of model formation in the Social Studies are a map, a drawing of an economy's spending system, and a diagram of the political structure of a country.

Chapter 4

CURRICULUM MATERIALS

4.1 Introduction

In this section the materials provided for are meant to satisfy the major objectives of teaching Geography as integral part of the Social Studies programme. Students that can satisfy these objectives will have taken a major step towards achieving the ultimate goal of Geography which in turn, will help them to be responsible and intelligent citizens, a cardinal objective of Social Studies.

The materials developed are based on the selected concepts from the following sections of the Junior Secondary School Social Studies syllabus. The sections are the seasons, rural settlement, urban settlement, Resources, Development, Communication, Historical and Regional.

As mentioned earlier, the selected Geography concepts developed in this section would focus on the unit approach to instruction. This has been discussed extensively in the Chapter three. It would contain the title: introduction or theme/topic, the unit objectives, suggested content, activities (initiatory, developmental, and culminating) and finally some suggested materials, and Resources. Under this arrangement, the content material is always referred to the Appendix.

Suggesting and adopting the unit approach in this study does not prevent the teacher from embarking on some modifications of the unit plan to suit the topics under study In all, eight (8) unit activities are provided.

4.2 UNIT I

TOPIC: Seasons (of the Year)

OBJECTIVES: Identify the seasons of the year and their influence on human activity.

UNIT OBJECTIVES: The students will be able to:-

(i) Identify the major elements of climate

(ii) Classify the country according to its climatic variations.

(iii) Discuss the agricultural practice in each climatic region.

(iv) Enumerate the effects of draught on the northern region of this country.

CONTENT: See Appendix B

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) Ask the students what they normally notice of the weather daily in their environment?

(ii) What effect this will have on their daily activities?

(iii) The students can also be asked to compare the school environment and their homes (if they come from a relatively far environment), while on holidays.

Developmental:-

(i) Using a climatic map of Nigeria, help the students to classify the country according to its climatic characteristics.

(ii) Students should be able to write the distinctive characteristics of each climatic region in terms of Rainfall, Temperature, Relative Humidity and wind.

The chart below can be used to aid the students complete the chart correctly.

Characteristics:-

Climatic Regions	Rainfall	Temperature	R/ Humidity	Wind
Sub-equational South				
Tropical hinterland				
Tropical continental north.				
High Plateaus				

(iii) Students should be guided in the analysis of the data (mean monthly rainfall) given in the appendix B for the selected stations. Using the data, they should be able to:-

a - locate the given stations on sketch drawn map

b - state which stations have plenty and those deficient in rainfal

c - identify which months record much and less rainfal in each station.

d - advance reasons for b and c above.

(iv) Student can now postulate how agriculture is practised in each climatic region, and what prospects it holds.

(v) Students can derive the concept of 'drought' from their analysis of (iii) and (iv) above. They will also be able to identify which areas suffer from the problems of drought. And also to describe the conditions of life of the people in the identified areas.

Culminating:-

(i) Students should identify which climatic region does their environment fall.

(ii) Students should compare the temperature and Rainfal readings of their environment with those obtain in other areas.

(iii) Deliberate on the dangers of drought and offer suggestions on how to stop 'desert encrochment'.

Materials and Resource:-

(i) A map of Nigeria

(ii) Magazines and Journals

(iii) Data of climatic readings from the school whether station.

(iv) Newspaper articles.

(v) Students pens and exercise books.

4.3 UNIT 2

TOPIC: Rural Settlements.

OBJECTIVES: Describe the rural settlement types and differentiate types of houses and their local arrangement.

UNIT OBJECTIVES: The pupils will be able to:-

(i) Define what rural settlements are

(ii) Differentiate settlement types in Nigeria i.e. in the former Regions.

(iii) Identify the distinctive features of each settlement type.

(iv) Locate the major ethnic groups identified with a particular settlement type.

(v) Tell the functions of rural settlements.

CONTENT:

See Appendix C

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) Remind the students about their local settlement in their environment.

(ii) Ask the students to briefly describe how such settlements look like.

(iii) Read the first section of the content to tell the students what rural settlement are?

Developmental:-

Help the students fill in this chart as they are shown the pictures of each the settlement type in each region. All Students to make a proper observation of the pictures provided to help them fill in the chart properly.

Region	House Type		
	Single	Linear	Conglomerate
Kano Region			
Yoruba Land			
Middle Belt			
Ibo Land.			

(ii) Students should be able to say why they think a region is associated to any of these morphological settings.

(iii) Students should be able to fill in this chart below using the four pictures provided. This will show the characteristics of the types of houses found there.

Region	Housing Style			
	Type of Fence	Roofing	Shape of wall	Site of settlement.
Kano				
Yoruba				
Middle Belt				
Ibo Land				

(iv) Have students advance reasons why certain regions adopt a particular style of house.

(v) Students can draw the different types of housing styles they can see.

(vi) Students will be asked to describe how a person living in one region will feel and behave when tranferred to another region.

Culminating:-

(i) Using a map of Nigeria from an atlas, have the students to identify places that could be termed rural areas.

(ii) Arrange a short discussion on how the life of the rural environment can be uplifted. Students could be arranged as a policy making body that would advise the government.

Materials and Resources:-

(i) Pictures of different settlement types

(ii) Students note books and drawing pencils.

(iii) Maps and atlases.

(iv) Magazines and Journals

(v) Newspaper articles.

4.4 UNIT 3

TOPIC: Urban Areas.

OBJECTIVES: Classify different pattern of life in Urban areas.

UNIT OBJECTIVES: The students will be able to:-

(i) Define what Urban areas (settlement) are

(ii) Trace the spread of urban places or the factors behind urban growth.

(iii) Discuss the degree of urbanization in Nigeria.

(iv) Tell the consistencies and anomalies in the pattern.

CONTENT: See Appendix D

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) Remind the students about the types of settlements identified in the rural areas.

(ii) Have the students give examples of the characteristics of the rural settlement.

(iii) Read the first section of the content and ask the students what urban areas or settlement area?

Developmental:-

(i) Students should identify and locate urban areas of Nigeria from a map. A Globe can also be used to locate these urban areas using their grid locations.

(ii) Students should deduce specific reasons for the growth of some of these urban areas.

(iii) Students can be asked to complete the chart below after looking at aerial photos of some urban areas.

	Characteristics				
Urban Areas	Housing	Streets	Traffic	Population	Social life
Kano					
Enugu					
Lagos					
Zaria					
Ibadan					
Yola.					

(iv) The teacher will help students draw a sketch-map to show the position of any town and see that the map has at least four features marked which help locate the town clearly.

(v) Culminating Activities:-

(i) Students should imagine themselves asked to plan for a new capital of a state. What features will they ensure are constructed? They can in addition be asked to model out the ideal city.

(ii) Students can be engaged in some discussion on how to solve the urban crisis currently in most of our cities.

Resource and materials:-

(i) A map of Nigeria and a Globe of the earth

(ii) Aerial photographs of urban areas

(iii) Students exercise books and drawing pens

(iv) Magazines and Journals

(v) Newspaper articles.

4.5 UNIT 4

TOPIC: Resources (Mineral).

OBJECTIVES: Identify various natural resources and their uses.

UNIT OBJECTIVES: The students will be able to:-

1. Identify and locate the known reserves of the country's major resources.
2. Identify problems that result from lack of these resources.
3. Develop and explain ideas, suggest, or proposals as to how the existing resources may best be utilized so as to benefit the greatest numbers of the country's population.
4. Develop ideas, suggestions, or hypotheses to:-
   a - preserve resources in short supply
   b - make better use of all resources.
5. Identify the major regions of mining in the country.
6. Explain the influence of mining on the economy of Nigeria.
7. Explain the influence of mining on the development of transportation, manufacturing and settlement in the region.

CONTENT: See Appendix E

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) Students should be asked to identify what items bring wealth to their Fathers. Such items include land for agricultural purposes.

(ii) When students are asked to read the content they would then be able to identify what resources bring wealth to Nigeria.

Developmental:-

(i) Using a map of Nigeria help the students locate where the mineral fields of Nigeria can be found.

(ii) What specific use can each of the minerals serve?

(iii) Students will be expected to complete this chart:

Nigeria Natural Resources

Mineral Resources	Power Resources	Agricultural Resources
1.		
2.		
3.		

(iv) Students to identify specific uses of some of the mineral resources; outlined above.

(v) Students can locate on a map where intensive mining activity is carried out. What influence does this activity have on the settlement, transport and manufacturing in the region?

(vi) Select a single natural resources such as Coal, oil, and compare what resources between selected nations using the chart below.

Countries

OIL	US	IRAN	ZAIRE	NIGERIA
Quantity?				
Quality?				
Export?				
Importance?				

Culminating activities:-

(i) What would Nigeria look like if it hadn't any of these mineral resources? What mineral resources had to come from other countries?

(ii) How would your life be different if you could only use the resources that exist in your area? Write a story saying how your life would change compare it with your classmates.

(iii) Choose a resource and write a story about what it would be like if it were free and available to everyone.

(iv) What do you think is the feature and prospect of Nigeria's mineral resources in the world market. Take an example of oil?

Resources and Materials:-

(i) A map of Nigeria

(ii) Magazines and Journals

(iii) Newspaper articles

(iv) Bulletins from mining organisatio

(v) Pens and exercise books.

4.6. UNIT 5

TOPIC: Development.

OBJECTIVES: Explain the concept of development. Recognise and list the characteristics of the developed and under-developed nation of the world.

UNIT OBJECTIVES: The students will be able to:-

(i) Define what development is

(ii) Recognise and list the characteristics of the "developed" nations in the world.

(iii) Recognise and list the characteristic of the less developed nations in the world.

(iv) Isolate and identify those problems which are common to the "less developed" nations of the world.

(v) Suggest proposals to solve the problems of developing nations.

CONTENT: See Appendix P.

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) Tell the students of conditions of various nations in all the regions of the world (Europe, Africa, Asia, Latin America etc).

(ii) The content is to be read for the students and they would be able to define what development is.

Developmental:-

(i) Help the students to identify the characteristics of the developed and the less developed nations.

(ii) The students should outline what specific problems are confronting the less developed nations. These will include; drought, flood, students will also try to attach reasons why these problems occur.

(iii) Help the students to deduce what constitute the relationship between the developed and the less developed nations. The chart below will ease students difficulties.

What the developed nations give to the less developed nations.	What the developing nations give to the developed nations
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	4
5	5

(iv) The students (using a large outline map of the world) locate and name as many under-developed countries which are in receipt of aid from the United States, Europe, the USSR and China.

Countries receiving aid from:

USA	EUROPE	USSR	CHINA
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6

The teacher should guide the students in giving reasons why do these developing countries recieve aid from those nations (developed.)

(v) In the course of reading the content certain concepts need to be identified and explanation should be sought by the students. Example (a) High standard of living and low standard of living. (b) over population.

Culminating:-

(i) Using a map of the world or a Globe, have the students to identify nations that could be termed developed nations and less developed nations.

(ii) A short discussion could be organised among the students on how to solve the problems of the developing nations.

(iii) What are likely to be the consequences of the aid recieved by the less developed countries and how justified.

Resource and Materials:-

(i) A map of the world and a Globe

(ii) Magazines and Journals.

(iii) Students exercise books and pens/pencils.

(iv) Newspaper articles.

4.7 UNIT 6

TOPIC: Communication.

OBJECTIVE: State the various means of transport and communication and outline the role of transport and communication in the national economic life.

UNIT OBJECTIVE: The students will be able to:-

(i) Discuss and describe the transportation networks of the country.

(ii) Trace the evolution of the country's transportation network.

(iii) Show how transport and communication affects and is affected by the national economic life.

CONTENT: See Appendix G.

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) The students will be asked the different ways people can travel from one place to another and how to send messages to our friends.

(ii) The students will be asked the different types of transport used in Nigeria.

Development:-

(i) Using some pictures (Train in Station, Canoe transport, an aeroplane travelling, ship in a harbour, people getting on buses etc) the student will be able to discuss and describe the transport network in Nigeria.

(ii) Students can also be asked to compare the means of transport that could have been used in 1930s with that used today. From this they can be able to clearly state the advantages and disadvantages of the new ways.

(iii) Students will be provided with a physical map of Nigeria with no mark of roads. The major cities will be provided and students be asked to suggest where a good road system to this country can be constructed.

Students will be asked to explain why they draw the roads where they did .

Students will compare the class map with a real one where the actual roads are shown and to give reasons why some roads may be different from these on the map. Which is better?

(iv) The students can be able to show how our daily activities (time, money, comfort, safety) are affected by the various means of transportation. They can therefore be guided to fill in the chart below.

	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
	Bus, train, car, & aeroplane	Bus, train, car, aeroplane
Time		
Money		
Comfort		
Safety		

Culminating:-

(i) Students can delibrate on how Nigeria can best improve her communication problems.

(ii) Students can critically look at the workability of the new systems of communication in Nigeria, considering our level of technological development. Can Nigeria be able to develop its own without importing from overseas?

(iii) Students can be given an assignment to draw sketches or cut from magazines and newspapers (computer, Walkie-talkie etc.) and show them to their teacher.

Resource:-

(i) An atlas map of Nigeria

(ii) Journals and magazines

(iii) Newspaper articles

(iv) Exercise books and pens

(v) Pictures of means of communication.

4.8 UNIT 7

TOPIC: Nigerian cultural patterns and their historical origins.

OBJECTIVE: Identify the ethnic groups of the country and their cultural characteristics. State the known historical origins of the various cultures.

UNIT OBJECTIVE: The students will be able to learn how the many peoples with their varying economic, cultural and technological ways of life.

(i) Settled in their area of location.

(ii) Arrange the spatial dimentions of their lives.

(iii) Worked with and against the physical environment.

(iv) Changed the landscape of their areas.

(v) Come together and work in many institutions across the nation.

CONTEN: See Appendix H.

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) The students will be asked to give the history of their own people. The classroom can serve as a very good forum where the composition would certainly be a mixed-up one. The teacher should try to use it.

Developmental:-

(i) The student will be asked to name as many or possible people they know and where they are located across the country.

(ii) The student will be asked to describe how these people are spread across the area they occupy. Pictures can be made available so that students will give a correct account of their observations.

(iii) Student will be guided in filling this chart on the people and the kinds of activities they do in their physical settings.

People	Activities
Hausa	
Mumuye	
Jukun	

The students should be able to pin-point the similarities on the types of activities performed by each group of people. In cases where they differ reasons should be sought from the students.

(iv) Students will also have to clearly describe the types of houses, roads, and other physical structures erected by each group of people. They will also be expected to focus on the extent of effect of these structures on the physical environment (e.g. deforestation).

(v) The students should be guided in undertaken trip to various working institutions and find out the composition of people coming from different areas.

They can use the Chart below:-

Institution	People
College (Schools)	
Hospital	
Factory Workers	
Church	
Market	

What have the students observed from the above chart?

Culminating Activities:-

(i) Students can be organized in groups to come out with how national unity can be achieved. Groups reports will be compared.

(ii) Students will also be organised to debate on lingua-franca for Nigeria or any alternative.

Materials and Resource:-

(i) Their school environment and other government or private institutions in their location.

(ii) A map of Nigeria depicting ethnic composition.

(iii) Text-books

(iv) Encylopedia

(v) Journals and Magazines.

4.9 UNIT 8

TOPIC: Regional (The world and its peoples).

OBJECTIVES: Identify the continents and countries of the world. Identify the people and resources of Africa. Identify the races and major cultures of the world.

UNIT OBJECTIVE: The students will be able to:-

(i) Locate the countinent and countries of the world on a map or a Globe.

(ii) Name the various peoples of Africa in their regions.

(iii) Identify the natural resources found in the African region.

(iv) Explain the significane of these resources to the people of Africa.

(v) Explain the importance of the co-operation among the African nations (regional co-operation), and other nations of the world.

CONTENT: See Appendix I.

ACTIVITIES: Initiatory:-

(i) The students will be asked to identify the local government area in their state. A political map of the state will be useful.

(ii) The students will be asked to name the various peoples (tribes) in their local environment, the types of resources found and their uses to the people.

Developmental:-

(i) Using the world map and the Globe, the students will be able to locate the continent and countries of the world. They can be asked to compare the positions of these continents and countries an a map and a Globex.

(ii) Students can be provided with a sketch map of Africa and be asked to insert the names of the following people in their various regions.

Hausa	Ibo	Tiv
Arabs	Ashante	Nupe
Yoruba	Ancholi	Birom
Tuaregs	Masai	
Amharic	Fulani	Higgi.

(iii) Students can be guided in filling this chart, on the types Natural resources found in various regions of the African continent. What are the significance of these resources to those countries.

Country	Resource	Significance
Nigeria		
Libya		
Zambia		
Ghana		
Kenya		

(iv) Students can be guided in seeing the relationship between various regions of the world such as in the ECOWAS and UNCTAD. Students can also be guided to fill in this chart on the membership of various countries in Regional Co-operation.

Regional Co-operation	Countries
Ecowas	
Opec	
Unctad	
Eec	

(v) Students will be expected to discuss the benefits less developed countries get from belonging to this co-operate bodies. They can specifically examine the role of Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA).

Culminating:-

(i) Students can deliberate on the strategic location of continents and countries in relation to one another.

(ii) Students can critically assess the significance of natural resources obtained in the African region to its people.

(iii) Students can debate on whether Nigeria should belong to any regional co-operative body (such as the Economic Community of West African State (ECOWAS) Organisation for petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) etc or not.

Resource and Materials:-

(i) A world map and a Globe.

(ii) Journals and Magazines.

(iii) Newspaper articles.

(iv) Encyclopedia.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING THE DEVELOPMENT OF ACTIVITIES

5.1 Summary

This study has been basically concerned with the development of Geography concepts in the Social Studies programme. From what has been outlined in chapter one, the rationale for the Geography corcepts in Social Studies has been laid as primary, the fostering of such objectives as might be achieved by Geography.

In chapter two, an extensive review of literature started by substantiating the two main concepts of "Geography" and "Social Studies". The relationship between the two has also been dealt with extensively. The conceptual approach to Social Studies instruction, as opposed to other approaches which did not encourage students to be critical thinkers and responsible citizens, has been extensively explained. And lastly, the aspects of Geography skill development, which has been found to be inadequately presented in the Social Studies has also been given.

Chapter three is the discussion of the techniques used in the study. This includes what the teachers will do in planning for instruction, learning Resources and learning Activities expected to be used. The unit approach has been chosen as the model or framework of the study.

Chapter four provides specific examples on student activities. This has been based on the unit approach to instruction covering the selected Geography aspects of the Social Studies programme in the junior secondary school.

5.2 Conclusions.

The specific examples of curriculum activities provided in chapter four confirms or answers the questions raised in the statement of the problem in chapter one as regards:-

1. The objective for conceptual and skill development in Social Studies programme.
2. The development of Geography concepts and skills in Social Studies programme.
3. The Geography concepts and skills that can be specifically developed for the Junior Secondary School Social Studies programme.
4. The Learning activities appropriate for the selected Geography concepts.

5.3 Strategies for Improvement.

5.3.1 Objectives.

Teachers in their instructional or Teaching procedures perform excellent work or efforts in directing the behaviours of their pupils towards the learning purposes. It is therefore important to acknowledge that if an educational programme is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvements are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conceptions of the goals that are being aimed at. The purpose of outlining aims is to provide broad guidelines for statement of objectives for selecting curriculum content and thus for planning learning activities.

The first thing the teacher is expected to do is to suggest such objectives these activities will be used to achieve. One of the newer trends in the teaching of Social Studies is the effort to specify instructional goals in clear precise terms. It is based on the assumption that the clearer and more precise a teacher's objective, the more that student's learning will occur. Hence, it is worth doing by teachers to embark on stating their objectives while devising activities the pupils will employ the process of conceptual understanding and skill development.

These educational objectives, the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional proceedures are developed and test and examinations are prepared, calls for the name, behavioural or performance objectives. These refer to specified observable change in the pupil behaviour.

In the field of instruction, so much attention and importance has been given to statement of objectives that in recent years the quest for highly specific and even measurable objectives has at times been stretched to extremes. It is examplified in such targets as "State the behaviours in a way that somebody else could count it". It is because of this that teachers are strongly advised to state their objectives in behavioural terms (what student will be able to do).

For example, such statement of objectives will be shown as follows:-

1. At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to compare the agricultural activities practiced in the forest and the savanna regiuns of Nigeria.

2. The students will be able to describe correctly the phenomena of Desertification in the Arid Zones of (Borno State) Nigeria, following a visit to some parts of the state.

3. At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to identify five factors determining the location of an industry.

Perhaps, the clearest exposition of the behavioural objective approach is provided by Mager. He insisted that statement of objectives should conform to the following criteria (Marsden):-

1. They should be stated in performance terms that describe what the learner will be doing when demonstrating his achievement of the objective.

   'The students will be able to identify_____

   'The students will be able to analyse _____.

2. The language in which the statement is expressed should communicate the same thing to differentiate, and not be open to a wide variety of interpretation. In any statement of objectives, infinitives such as 'to unite' 'to name', 'to construct; 'to locate' are more satisfactory than those such as to 'understand'.

3. The conditions under which the behaviour is to occur should be stated. The materials to be used, and even the time allowed for the task, should be specified.

e.g. 'with the aid of an atlas _____

'using data from the 1973 census _____

'at the end of the lesson _____

4. The learning outcome or product by which the accomplishing of the objective can be evaluated. e.g., a statement of fact or generalization, a contour map, a simple guide system.

5. The criterion or standard used to evaluate the accomplishment of the performance (e.g. correct to the nearest Kilometer).

Using this format, you might state an Instructional objective in Social Studies as follows:-

> Given data from the 1963 and 1973 population cesus, the students will be able to construct a bar graph showing the differences and changes in population for the following States in Nigeria:- Kano, Benue, Oyo Anambra, Rivers, Plateau and Sokoto. Data will be correct to the nearest ten thousand.

It has to be pointed out however, that teachers dont have tc be rigid to the stated objectives. The situation a teacher will encounter might forее the teacher to modify his objectives.

5.3.2 Levels of Students.

Having stated the objectives clearly, the teacher is also expected to consider the level or grade he is designing an activity for. That is the level of student who will use the activity in order to attain the objectives already stated. As witnessed in chapter two, Piaget classified the levels of conceptual attainment process according to the age levels of the pupils. Levels of students will be used here to mean the academic and developmental maturity. This will take into consideration the totality of the students age, class or grade, interest, abilities, cognitive development, and also their environmental circumstances. Each of these has an important role to play in ensuring that a well planned activity has been constructed appropriate to the learner. At the moment the student we are dealing with are the Junior Secondary School students; therefore, they should be involved in academic or cognitive functions than those at the primary school level. There is also the need to consider the various levels at the Junior Secondary School levels while planning the students activities through the spiralling process. What students learn in form one could be laying some grounds for the gradual development of what would be obtained in forms two and form three.

It is also strongly recommended for teachers that student's interest must be taken into consideration, although this is not to suggest that purposeless activities should be designed. It will be useful if the teacher can take into consideration the different abilities that exist in the class. The teacher will have to provide simple activities for the less able students in his class, and more challenging activities for the more gifted students in the same class. It is also vital and advisable for the teacher to take into consideration the socio-economic environment or background of the students. In this respect, activities should very much reflect the immediate environment before they are exposed to wider and complex environments.

A careful teacher who designs his activities acurately will make them meaningful and related to the technological changes the child faces at home and in the society at large. A more significant advantage of considering the level of the student in that they themselves will see these activities as fruitful and helpful in making them skilful and critical thinkers. This would inevitably lead to the development of necessary abilities, skills and concepts.

5.3.3. Selection of Materials.

The teachers' task after stating the objectives of his lesson is to select books and other reading materials to be consistent with objectives. Textbooks are the most frequently used reading materials. They have certain advantages, in that they organise the subject in a meaningful way and they provide a starting place for learning. They have serious disadvantages too; students and teachers can become overly dependent upon them. The use of single textbook is inadequate and the teachers are to extend their hands to other materials necessary for working at each activity to be designed. Some of these materials include, charts and graps, journals, reference books, pamplets, periordicals, brochures, catalogues, newspapers and magazines.

Another kind of material is the instructional material that has been created by teachers for specific instructional purpose. These materials may be made primarily of paper or card and pen. They are used for such things as charts, maps, graphs, etc. They may also include such things that must be typed or specifically prepared models and construction of all kinds also require teacher input. They are best when prepared by students but it is often necessary for the teacher to produce the first model copy for students to follow.

In order that a teacher succeeds in his endeavour in selecting the best materials for his students, his skill of searching and locating for materials in libraries, and other out of school sources (State Ministry of Information, Industries and so on) should be well developed. The teacher will also be expected to provide variety of materials and information to ensure that students are not bored by repeating similar materials over and over again.

When a teacher is able to make proper selection of materials, the student will be able to tackle whatever challenges the teacher presents. It will enhance those abilities and skills the teacher wants them to develop. It can also make the students think of their own means of solving similar problems when ever they come across any. The student will also be on the alert when they realize the variety of approaches used from one activity to the other. Above all the teacher will be expected to relate to the environment of the student the fundamental aspect of instruction, the material he will be using.

5.3.4 Learning Activities

The discussion on learning activities was made in chapter three, and they(activities) have been shown how they aid learning in chapter four. What the teacher should make clear of himself is that analysically, learning activities have

two components. First, concepts and generalizations that are relevant to student. Second, there is the method and techniques that are employed so that the learning process is at a level of awareness to guarantee learning that is meaningful and long-lasting.

Content is the product we use during the process of learning. It is what we learn about, out of all the possibilities, because teachers and curriculum developers thought that these particular selection of information were more useful than others (see the Appendix A for the Junior Secondary School Social Studies syllabus). Listed there are the facts, concepts and generalizations that made up the content.

As for the selection of appropriate method and technique which is the second component of learning activities, we have already committed ourselves to the method of inquiry. Within this method there as many alternatives techniques to be used in this activity approach to learning. What this study is more interested in are those activities that are research oriented. In many ways, research is the heart of the inquiry method. Here is the opportunity for children to find out for themselves. This is a fundamental activity involving finding and organising information. We can say that these are many activities related to research. Some of these are experimenting, hypothesising, observing and generalizing.

It is expected that whatever activities are pursued, the pupils in the classroom will have a great deal of influence over the direction that these activities take. Since we have a fairly well established syllabus to work with, the flexibility will depend on how the topics are studied. The various approaches to the study of the materials should be directed in a co-operative effort by student and teachers alike. Within the limitations of availability of resources, pupils should be encouraged to play a maximum role in the direction of activities. If it is to work, inquiry expects that pupils will be motivated to want to learn because the topics are of interest to them. The teacher has to work with the interest and levels of development of the pupil in mind at all times.

In short, the teacher should have a pattern which will enable the students to differentiate an activity from another. It will also enable the student to identify each component of the structure or pattern the teacher leads to adopt.

5.3.5 Lesson Planning.

For any teaching learning process to be effective, teachers are always encouraged to draw up a "lesson plan" or to embark on lesson planning as an important activity that would ensure their success. It supplies guidance and a feeling of confidence to the teacher in the act of teaching. What is

involved in the whole process is a simple exercise once the teacher gets use to it. Eventually your planning may result in the writing of your objectives a few key concepts and ideas, and perhaps some specific questions you mean to ask students, or other reminders.

A useful habit to get into, but which does require more extensive writing is the planning of units. Once his or her units is constructed, the teacher has already in mind the major component of his or her Social Studies lessons for several weeks. However, the component of each days' lesson should be planned to assure effective instruction and meaningful learning experiences.

A favoured idea among really experienced and professional teachers is the planning of resource unit. Unlike the teaching unit, this resources unit contains all the possible alternative learning activities, resources and evaluation activities that might be used. When the time comes for planning the teaching unit, the teacher merely selects from all these alternative possibilities those which are must appropriate in terms of all existing conditions, and in keeping with the consistency principle regarding the objectives.

The lesson plan should relate directely to the major unit plan. The main component of the daily lesson plan are:-

1. List of key concepts and generalizations that are to be developed.
2. A statement of the sub-ideas.
3. A statement of objectives.
4. A list of activities.
5. Evaluation and summary activities.
6. A list of resources.

5.4. Evaluation of Cognitive Levels and Informal Classroom Observation

Evaluation is a technical aspect of Instruction. It purpose is to develop (precisely) an objective information about the instructional process in order to; assess the effectiveness of instruction, determine the accomplishment of instructional progress and to provide information on which important decisions about student's progress, curriculum changes, and instructional goals can be made (Banks, 1977).

It would therefore be seen that the main function of evaluation in Social Studies curriculum development is the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of pupils and programmes. At the beginning of any learning unit, for instance, the Social Studies teacher must be able to diagnose the relevant characteristics of his pupils. He must know the readiness of his pupils for the learning tasks, he must know the point of entry into a learning sequence that is appropriate for individual pupils or the group, and he must be able to determine what special preparation and orientation will be necessary before the pupils begin the sequence of learning tasks. Evaluation can play a vital role in providing the teacher with the information needed in these areas.

During instruction, the Social Studies teacher has to take decisions about what materials to use, what methods of teaching are appropriate, and what activities on the part of the pupil are likely to help him attain the objectives desired. Such decisions are often based on evaluation.

5.4.4 : Evaluating Cognitive Levels

We have mentioned earlier in the study that the objectives for the teaching of Social Studies has been largely identified as developing the concepts and processes of inquiry, valuing and decision making. In the pursuance of this

goal, there is a gradual emphasis in Social Studies instruction from learning of facts to the development of understanding concepts and values from the creation of students memory tanks and robots, to the development of characteristics and behaviour in students which appeared to be essential for a fruiltful in a technologically changing society, from the parroting of information to the ability to synthesize knowledge inorder to make decisions and pass judgement. Therefore, the types of questions to be used in Social Studies instruction should reflect this objective reflected in the general trends of Social Studies curriculum. In short, teachers are encouraged to use high cognitive level of questions (analysis, evaluation, synthesis, and application) than low level cognitive questions (comprehension and knowledged).

Under this category of evaluation, teachers are most familiar with objective test and essay test. It should however be expected that evaluation in this sense should be continuous, varied, comprehensive and consistent with teacher's objectives. (Bloom et al 1971).

Objective Test Item.

Objective test items can be thought of a either the supply type of item or as the selection type item. When responding to the supply type of item, the pupils must provide the needed words, numbers or symbose. Possible answers to the test items

are not listed. When responding to the selection type of item the pupils choose the correct response from those that are provided. Example of this type are the true false test item, the matching test item and the multiple choice item.

When the teacher is embarking upon constructing the objective test item,he should try to answer such questions as:- How will this item be later presented by students of different ability levels? What use are provided in the item or in other parts of the test? Is the meaning clear and precise? Is the item too easy or to difficult? Does the item deal with important skills or abilities, or only with unimportant ones? Is the item too long? Is the item clearly related to important course objectives? From these questions and many others, the teacher will realize that constructing objective test items is not an easy task. The task requires a substantial amount of time, a great deal of patience, a certain amount of creative ability, and a thorough knowledge of the mental process of the group with whom the test will be used, as well as knowledge of the constant and objectives of the course.

Eassay Test

The essay test is one of the most commonly used in the evaluation of Social Studies. The significant features of the essay test are that the student answer only a relatively small number of items, that he organises as his own answers, that he expresses these answers in his own words, and, that as a consequence of the freedom of response involved, he tends to produce answers which are neither completely right nor completely wrong.

Where the ability express thought and ideas in writing is involved, such as in the classroom evaluation, description, organisation, application and interpretation of facts, essay questions are appropriate.

The following guidelines can be considered so that the teacher can overcome some of the limitations of the questions. One be specific in slating questions so that each pupil will know what response is expected. Phrases like 'what do you think of? or 'Tell what you know about' often lead to vague and ambiguous questions. It might be better, therefore, to start essay questions with words or phrases, as 'compare' 'contrast' 'Give reason for; 'Explain how' 'predict what' would happen if' 'Criticize' 'Differentiate; and' 'illustrate' which indicate to the examinee how he is expected to apply the information he has learnt.

Two, keep the number of questions and time required to answer them within reasonable limits so that all pupils can respond to all questions. The popular idea of giving a choice of essay questions has the adverse effect of reducing the common basis upon which different individuals may be compared. It adds one further source of variability to the subjectivity and inaccuracy often with essay test. Therefore, when an essay test is being used to guage the achievement of the objectives of a common programme of instruction in Social Studies each student should be required to answer the same questions.

Evaluation can also take some other forms following the day today activities of students in the classroom. Some of these are, informal classroom observation, Role-playing and interview.

5.4.2. Informal Classroom Observation.

Though subjective direct observation in the classroom can provide two important kinds of information. First, the achievement of some instructional objectives can best be measured by means of direct observation of pupils activity. Objectives which involve the ability to perform manual tasks, for example, require that the procedures used to measure their achievement include the actual observation of the performance of these taks, For instance, students' ability to make

effective use in the field of survey equipments, such as measuring takes, ruler, compasses and chains can be discovered only by the actual observation of the student when they are using the materials.

The second use of the teacher observation of pupil classroom observation concerns the measuring of the achievement of effective objectives such as attitudes, interest, social skills and so on. In addition, to providing direct measures of such objectives, again based on teacher judgement the direct observation of pupils can often reveal causal factors related difficulties in learning academic materials. In view of this reason, teachers are normally encouraged to engage in the direct observation of pupils in the classroom. Such observation is of almost no use if done at random and without purpose. However, when conducted with specific purpose in mind and directed at specific individuals, such observation may prove to be of value in the overall assessment of pupil progress a well as in the improvement of learning experiences for all pupils.

Role-Playing.

Role-playing is an aspect of the modern techniques being used to teach Social Studies concepts in exercises involving simulation. This consists of the development of hypothetical situations in which the participants are expected to play out the

roles assigned to them. Examples of a unit that can be appropriately operated within this technique is ' 'Desertification' in the Northern part of Kano and Bornu States.

Apart from helping participants learn skills (such as decision making, resource allocation and so on), role-playing as a projective device can bring out the attitudes that many students hold. The teacher must, however, always exercise caution in the type of role he assigns, since role-playing can bring out deeply held, but previously unrevealed, feelings that many students may not be ready to face openly.

Interview.

If we wish to find out about the attitudes, interests, or cognitive functioning of a student, one obvious way to do this is to ask him questions and evaluate his answers. If the questions are asked orally in a face to face situation, we are carrying out an interview. Even though the interview has been a perennial favourite as away of studying people, its proceedures are basically subjective, variable, and heavily dependent upon the skill of the interviewed.

The structured interview has been found out to reduce the subjectively and variability of interview procedures. This interview involves three separate but related parts. These are content, Technique and Analysis. (Okunrotifa, 1979).

The content deals with the topics and subject matter which should be covered by the interview. Teachers might have drawn up a list or set of concepts involved in the pupils' work. And it is this list that will provide the basis for the content of the interview. A careful selection will have to be made, but the concepts selected for one pupils interview need not necessarely be the same as those for another.

As much as possible, the concepts selected should be broad enough to be the basis for the interviews. An example of such a broad organising concepts is that of spatial relations, which involves the subconcepts of location, distr distribution, association, and movements of things which are found on the earth's surface.

Techniques deal with the guidelines for the preparation of interviews. The preparation involves drawing up certain categories of questions. Four categories of questions, are considered here, though each type depends on the use of the others in the interview situation. The underlying assumption is that the interview should contribute as little, and the interviewer as much to the discussion as possible.

The first category is called the 'opener'. These are questions that introduce the topic or theme that is to be discussed. They are introductory in that they open up the different areas to be discussed. In a class, where topic under discussion is 'West Africa', the pupil can be asked 'can you tell me something about the region? This 'opener' in question is made quite simple and open-ended in order to provide the pupil with initial motivation.

A second function of openers is to make links between thems or topics in the interview. Thus 'we have so far talked generally about West Africa. I believe that you have studied the countries in this are can you tell me something about them? What did you find out about Ghana?

The second category of questions is known as 'prods', Prodding questions encourage the pupil to develop his initial response to an opener. It is intended that this type of questions will 'prod' the pupil into extending his previous answer. Very short interrogative phrases are good examples of 'prods' e.g. 'Anything else? Is that all you found out or were there other things? etc.

The third type of question is referred to as a 'probe'. Probe direct the pupil to a topic not spontaneously mentioned by him, but they do not lead him towards a particular answer to it. A child could be asked; I wonder whether you can tell the class the major export product of Ghana if there is any?

The fourth category is one by which the pupil is asked to give reasons for his previous answers, and to propose tentatively causal explanation. This category might be called 'explorers', since it allows the interviewer to explore potentially complex reasoning, and encourage the pupils to explore verbally the reasons for things he has found out. Explorers are probably the must fruitful questions by analysing knowledge of concepts. This is because they normally demand of the pupil some grouping towards abstract relationships between observed or discovered phenomena.

The third components of the structured interview is analysis. This involves making inferences about pupils' responses to questions. From such inferences, judgements could be made not only about whether a pupil is developing a conceptual grasp of the things he has studied, or whether he perceives his work as unrelated facts and information but also about the attitudes and interests developed.

With the interview method described above, it is not possible to draw up an order of merit or to rank the pupils, since the interview techniques and the consequent inference provide a qualitative evaluation method and cannot be quantified. On its own, the interview technique is probably but not necessarily, inadequate as a sole method of assessment in Social Studies more especially the Geographical aspect.

5.4.3 Programme Evaluation.

This section provides a convenient evaluation outline for those who want to examine their own Social Studies programme. Its use will furnish a profile of a programme as it is, although the checklist will only specify all that is needed in assessment. The outline can used for a given grade level or for a school.

When the programme profile has been made from the checklist, (See Appendix J) the tasks of interpreting and recommending begins. The items may highlight a pattern. Students are insufficiently involved, for example, or learning resources inadequate, or purposes unclear. What is learned from the information and interpretation of the checklist will be put to use in improving the Social Studies programme.

Evaluators should gather data from many sources. The letters follow each Guideline question suggest probably the readiest and the most obvious sources. The letter 'R' suggests the use of materials such as curriculum reports and plans. Student handbook, records of instructional materials available and used, formal evaluation data collected on student competencies. The letter 'T' suggests Teachers; 'S' Students; 'C' Parents and Community; 'O' Classroom and out of Classroom observation.

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TABLE 1

SYNTAX OF THE RECEPTION MODEL OF CONCEPT ATTAINMENT.

Step One: Presentation of Data and identification of Concept.

A. Teacher presents labeled examples.

B. Students compare attributes in positive, negative examples.

C. Students generate and test hypothesis.

D. Students state a definition according to the essential attribute.

Step Two: Testing Attainment of the Concept.

A. Students identify additional unlabeled examples as yes or no.

B. Teacher confirm hypothesis, names - concept and restates definition according to essential attributes.

C. Students generate examples.

Step Three: Analysis of thinking strategy.

A. Students describe thoughts.

B. Students discuss role of hypothesis and attributes.

C. Students discuss type and number of hypotheses.

TABLE TWO

SYNTAX OF THE SELECTION MODEL OF CONCEPT ATTAINMENT.

Step One: Presentation of Data and identification of attributes.

A. Teacher presents unlabeled examples.

B. Students inquire which examples, including their own are positive ones.

C. Students generate a test hypotheses.

Step Two: Testing Attainment of the Concept.

A. Students identify additional unlabeled example.

B. Students generate examples.

C. Teachers confirms hypothesis; names concept and restates definition according to essential attributes.

Step Three: Analysis of thinking strategy.

A. Students describe thoughts.

B. Students discuss role of hypothesis and attributes.

C. Students discuss type and number of hypotheses.

TABLE THREE

SYNTAX OF UNORGANISED MATERIAL MODEL

Step One: Description of Concept as it is used.

A. Locate and label concept

B. Identify attributes being used.

Step Two: Evaluation of Concept.

A. Discuss adequacy and appropriateness of concepts being used.

B. Compare examples to other data using some concept.

TABLE FOUR

THE MERRIL AND TENNYSON DESIGN FOR TEACHING CONCEPTS.

Step One: Provide a definition.

A. List the concept's critical attributes

B. State how the attributes are related.

C. Include potentially confusing variable attributes.

Step Two: Expository presentation.

A. Matched example/nonexample pairs

B. Easy to difficult pairs.

C. Divergent examples.

Step Three: Attribute Isolation.

A. Occurs simultaneously with Step two.

B. Points out the critical attributes.

Step Four: Inquisitory Practice presentation.

A. Newly encountered examples and nonexamples.

B. Randomly ordered.

C. Teacher provides feedback.

APPENDIX A

SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULAR FOR NIGERIA
SECONDARY SCHOOLS (EXTRACT)

TOPICS	OBJECTIVE	CONTENTS
1. PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	i) Differentiate the physical features explain their influences on the life of the indivual within his local environment.	(a) Physical Creatures i) What are the local physical features.
	ii) Classify different patterns of life in urban areas.	ii) The influences of physical features on patterns of life -Local economy -Politics -Religion -Communication -Settlement patterns.
	iii) Identify various natural resources and their uses.	(b) Settlement patterns i) type -rural & urban ii) houses types. iii) Local arrangement
		(c) Natural Resources: i) What are the natural resources. ii) Relationship be-natural resources and physical environment iii) Influence of various natural resources on man with referenceto local and wider content. iv) How man utilizes the natural resources.

TOPICS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
2. G.Nigerian Cultural Patterns & Their Historical Origins	i. Identity the ethnic groups of the country and their cultural characteristics	(a) Peoples of Nigeria i. Ethnic groups and their locations in Nigeria-e.g. the following, Hause, Yoruba, Igbo, Ibibio/ Efik, Edo, Nupe, Urhobo/ Isoko, Ojo, Junkun, Itsokiri, Chamba, Ogoni, Ekoi, Indama, Igala. ii. Why some thnic group are more dispersed than others. iii. Cultural behaviour e.g. songs dances, arts, etc.
	ii. State the known historical origins of the various cultures	(b) Historical origins. i. Legends and folkores ii. Expansion. iii. Migration, Trade, and Commerce

TOPICS/ THEME	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
3. A. Physical Environment	Students should be able to:-	Climatic Conditions:-
	i. Identify the seasons of the year.	(a) Seasons-Wett and Dry i. Discussion of rainful, winds (including harmattan), Temperature and their influence on vegetation,
	ii. Identify the influence of Seasons on the human activities	ii. Human attempts to combat droughts, floods and other natural disasters
	iii. State the effects of landforms on weather conditions	(b) Ocean influences -Discuss land and sea bresszes, effects of tidal waves.
		(c) i.Types of Vegetation
		ii.Relationship between vegetation and human occupations
		iii.How man adapts himself to different vegetational conditions.
		(c) Rainfall, especially in arid areas.
		(e) Winds, cyclones etc.

TOPICS/ THEME	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
4. D. Development	i. Explain the concepts of development ii. Distinguish between aspects of development	(a) Development -Development should cover all aspects of national life including political, social, economic & cultural.
		(b) Growth
		(c) Distinction should be made between development and growth.
5. G. National Economic life	i. State the various means of transport and communication.	Transport & Communication (i) Transport -Different means of transport in Nigeria E.G. railways, roads, air water, etc.
	ii. Outline the role of transport and communication in the national economic life	(ii) Communication-indigenous-modern - Different means of communications and discuss their functions and effects e.g. the mass media, TV, Televephone, radio, talking drum, smoke signal, town criers, indigenous trumpet, etc.
		(iii) The role of transport and communication in the economic life of Nigeria.

TOPICS/THEME	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
6. F. National Economic Life	(i) List the sources of economic commodities.	(a) Sources of basic economic commodities
	(ii) Appreciate the contribution of the economic x Commodities to Societal development	i) Agriculture -Major agricultural sectors to be identified.
	(iii) Explain the role of human resources in economic development.	ii) Mineral & Enerfy resources
		iii) Manufacture
		iv) Imports.
		(b) Human Resources
		i)i)Factors of population changes e.g. fertility migration.
		ii) Sources of population and skilled manpower in economic development.

TOPICS/THEME	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
7. G. World Transport and Communications	(i) Explain the world transportation system and the role they play in commerce and communication.	Transport System a. Railway system b. Water transport c. Road transport d. Air Transport.
	(ii) Explain the world communication systems and the role they play in rapid communication and commerce.	Communication System a. Telecommunication E.G. Telephones, telex cable, and satellites are to be studied as means of rapid communication.
	(iii) Explain the consequences of the lack of effective communication between nations	b. Postal system - Cover Universal Postal union. c. Mass media e.g. Radio, TV., Newspaper and Magazines

TOPICS/THEME	OBJECTIVES	CONTENTS
8. H. The World and its Peoples	(i) Identify the continents and countries of of world.	(a) Continents & Countries World Location of continents and countries in a continent.
	(ii) Identify the people and resources of Africa.	(b) The people and resources of Africa. i) Agricultural ii) Major food production plains and other areas.
	(iii) Identify the races and major cultures of the world.	iii) Agricultural features iv) People and resources of Africa.
	(iv) State the contributions of the black race to the world civilization.	v) Minerals. (c) <u>Races and Cultures</u> i) Location. a. Africa b. World ii) Physical Characteristics iii) Cultural Heritage (d) Cultural cooperation. (e) International Trades and economic cooperation (f) The place of Black man in the world community, his contributions to world civilisation. (g) FESTAC-its meaning and message.

APPENDIX B

SEASONS OF THE YEAR

The Dry and Rainy Season.

These two topics, can be treated in one section, because in dealing with them we are considering how all the climatic elements, put together, differ from month to month and from place to place. Some elements, of course, vary more than others. In a tropical country like Nigeria, where temperatures do not fluctuate greatly, we rely heavily on the less constant elements like relative humidity and rainfall in demarcating the seasons and climatic regions.

The seasonal pattern of southern Nigeria is different from that of the north.

In the south there are four seasons:-

1. The long set season. This starts in mid-March and lasts till July, It is the season of heavy rains and high humidity. Plants look fresh and green weed grow rapidaly, flowers are in bloom and gardens look attractive. This is the planting season.
2. The short dry season. This is the August break to which reference has already been made. It starts in July-August and laste for about a month.

3. The short wet season. This follows the August break and lasts from September to October. The rainfall is not usually as heavy as during the first wet season and the total amount is also less.

4. The long dry, or harmattan, season. This season follows and continues from November to mid-march. Harmattan mornings are cool and misty, but the mist disappears with the rising of the sun. Afternoons are full of haze, becauses of the dust particles in the air brought down by winds from the north. The air is so dry that wet washing dries almost as soon as it is put out. Grass dies off and lawns look patchy. Flowers wither, and some leaves turn brown and fall from the trees.

<u>The Seasons in Northern Nigeria.</u>

In the north, the long dry season starts earlier and lingers on later. The August break does not exist, and so the two wet seasons become one. We are therefore left with two seasons - a long dry one from October to April, and a wet one for the remaining five months.

1. The long dry season. During this time, the lack of rainfal and the dry atmosphere develops cracks on clay soils. Untarred roads are full of brown dust. The dust rises behind every moving vehicle in a cloud of millions of suspended particles, to be deposited in thick layers on the vegetation at the sides of the roads. Dust settles on everything - furniture, clothes and housetops. This season is, however, a welcome one because the nights are cool and the afternoon haze helps to ward off the sun's heat.

2. The wet seasont. This season is unshered in by frequent storms. Laterist - surfaced roads are gullied and become progressively worse with the subsequent heavy rains. This is the planting season in the north.

Climatic Regions

The country is divided into its four climatic regions as follows.

1. The sub-equatorial south,
2. The tropical hinterland,
3. The tropical continental north, and
4. The high plateaus.

The sub-equatorial south extends from the coast to roughly 130 to 160 kilometres inland. It has over 150 centimetres of rainfal per annum, double maxima rainfall, and no month has less than 2.5 centimetres of rain. The total annual rainfall increases from 150 centimetres in the west to more than 300 centimetres in the delta area. Relative humidity is normally over 90% in the early morning, but falls to between 60% and 80% in the afternoon.

The tropical hinterland comprises a strip of country approximately 240 kilometres wide in the middle of Nigeria. It is bounded in the north by the double maxima rainfall line. The total rainfall is between 100 and 150 centimetres and the region has up to four months of dry season. Relative humidity is over 80% in the morning and falls to between 50% and 70% in the afternoon.

The tropical continental north consists of the remainder of northern Nigeria, where the annual rainfall is between 50 and 100 centimetres. The 50 centimetres isohyet lies just outside the country. The region has between four and eight dry months. The relative humidity is always low; between 200% and 40% in January, rising to between 60% and 80% in July.

The high plateau of Jos, Adamawa and Obudu belong to a class by themselves. The temperatures are lower and more equable than in the areas around. Their rainfall records show multiple peaks and the total is higher than in other places on the same latitudes. The mean monthly temperature for Jos (9^{o} 52'N) ranges from 20^{o}C in August to 25^{o}C in April, and the rainfal in 140 centimetres per annum; while Yola (9^{o} 13'N) has an annual total of only 100 centimetres.

(Ojeoje (76) Geography of Nigeria, Longman).

MEAN MONTHLY RAINFALL FOR SELECTED STATIONS (INCHES)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
Port Harcout	1.2	2.3	5.0	7.5	9.8	13.3	12.3	12.3	15.5	10.7	5.5	1.8	97.0
Lagos	1.1	1.6	3.8	5.6	10.8	18.1	11.1	2.7	5.5	8.1	2.7	1.0	72.0
Enugu	0.7	1.1	2.6	5.9	10.4	11.4	7.6	6.7	12.8	9.8	2.1	0.5	71.5
Ibadan	0.4	0.9	3.5	5.5	5.9	7.5	6.3	3.4	7.0	6.1	1.6	0.4	48.4
Yola	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.9	4.9	6.2	6.8	7.7	7.8	3.2	0.2	0.0	39.0
Jos	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.5	7.9	9.1	12.9	11.6	8.4	1.6	0.1	0.1	56.4
Sokoto	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	2.0	3.5	5.8	9.3	5.7	0.5	0.0	0.0	27.3
Kano	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	2.5	4.4	8.0	12.4	5.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	33.3
Maiduguri	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.6	2.7	6.9	8.8	4.1	0.8	0.0	0.0	25.2

Reuben K. Udo (1970) Geographical Region of Nigeria, Heineman Educational Books Ltd., P.3.

Rains Worsens the Famine.

Famine in Africa will become more acute with the rains of the wet season making supply routes unusable, the FAO has said in Rome. In an update of its special report on Africa, the UN agency said that the situation was still critical in Ethipia, Mali, Niger, the Sudan and Chad.

In Ethiopia, 79m people are in need of assistance including 800,000 who are down to their last food rations, and in the Sudan, supply tiesups caused by rains, transport problems and petrol shortages have left 300,000 tonnes of food lying undelivered in ships, it said.

While the rains would also help the planting of new crops-the FAO said that most of the 21 African countries hit by famine, especially those in the east and west, have fairly 'favourable' harvest conditions-"it is too late to deliver the needed extra seed to those countries it said adding that some of the hardst hit countries, such as Bukina Faso, Ethiopia, Mali, Nigeria the Sudan and Chad, will have to cut back on planting as a result. (West Africa, 19th August, 1985, P. 1713).

"Nigerian farmlands have suffered from the ravages of draught as in Sokoto State where sand an windsforms reportedly caused damages to the tune of ₦4.5 million early last year. According to the state Governor Brigadier Garba Duba the disaster would cost the Federal Government some ₦3,000.

A call of 10 northern State governors of November 29 for effective solution to drought disaster puts that part of the country identical tribulations with Sokoto. Indeeded the federal government should in collaboration with affected States, embark on cost-effective programmes aimed at preventing and minimuzing natural disasters.

The support of international organizations should be enlisted to reafforest desert encroached areas through irrigation projects. Farming should be made worthwhile through provision of social infrastructural facilities in the rural areas". (West Africa, December 1985).

Drought in Africa: Case Study.

"The hot wind blows over the bare farmland, and town appeared empty as dwellers have either moved in protest or been killed of hunger.

Kobo is the name of the small town in centrals Ethiopian province of Wollo. It hadn't rained for a year, and the previous year's harvest was a failure.

During the year's planting season, farmers could not plant because of low rainfall. worst, still, desperate peasants have eaten their seed stock and sold their oxen that have not died for lack of food and water.

No sufficient water to grow the seeds, no sufficient seed to keep the farm and no sufficient oxen to pull the plough.

When the rain finally came after an endless drought, it made the catastrophe worse.

The parched slopes could not absorb the suden downpour, huge forests formed sweeping away fertile topsoil, and cutting deep gullies in the fields.

For farmers who still had some seeds the rain came at a wrong time and the resulting drop in temperature brought sickness to many whose resistance was badly weakened by hunger". (Times International, November 19, 1984).

Crating Famines.

"The problem resides injust how far this stirring of public awareness has actually managed to change fundamental ideas about drought and famine. Pointing the finger at government, many suggest human failings as contributing to the dimensions of the crisis".

"The genesis of the Sahelian drought/famine of 1973 is seen to begin in the colonial era with the pressure for the introduction of Cash crops, principally cotton but also groundnuts. This commercial exploitation at the behest of.

Industrial economics meant the best land was used for non-edible local consumption crops while subsistence agriculture went on to more marginal and yet the cheapness of both labour and cash crops depended upon the existance of the subsistence sector. It was an outright exploitation of both land and people. Both taxation and commercial cropping were intended to make the colony 'pay'. They led to the over exploitation of land by increasingly subsistence activities and commercial growing into marginal lands." (Inquiry Vol. 3 No. 3, March 1986, P. 34 and 36)

Afforestation in Arid Zone.

Federal Government has provided 14.5 Million Naira from the Ecological Problems Fund for the implementation of forestry programmes in the arid zone, President Ibrahim Babangida announced yesterday in Gubio, Borno State.

Launching the 1986 national tree planting campaign named "Mass Mobilization Phase", the President said 12.45 Million Naira of the money approved was already on the way, adding that this was over the above budgetary allocation. The campaign was also launched in the affected states.

He said about 20,000 square kilometers of land in Borno Sokoto, Kano, Kaduna and Bauchi States were severely affected by drought and desert conditions.

He said to check abuses of forestry resources and desert encroachment local and state governments should evolve a compremensive grazing reserves to control over grazing and also enforce the various legislations against bush borning.

He said as an oil and gas producing nation, the country had no excuse to depend on forestry resources for fuel, adding that the NNPC was envolving a programme to encourage the use of kerosine and gas as alternative source of energy for cooking and heating. (New Nigerian, No. 6311 July 8, 1986 Page 1).

APPENDIX C

RURAL SETTLEMENTS AND RURAL LIFE

No generally accepted definition of a rural settlement can be given. Various countries have adopted different criteria and used indices reflecting their local concepts of rurality. In some instances, administrative centres are classified as urban and all other settlements as rural. Countries which have used this type of classification include Brazil, Colombia, Honduras, Peru and Guatemala. In other cases, a minimum population is adopted for urban centres and all settlements with smaller populations are classified as rural. The dividing line varies widely from country to country. For instance, it is 250 for Denmark, 300 for Iceland, 1000 for Chile, 2000 for Argentina and Portugal, 2500 for Mexico and Venezuela, 5000 for India and 20,000 for Nigeria. However, it is now widely accepted that rural settlements house relatively small numbers of people, whose dwelling places may be sited either singly or in small groups.

Rural settlements may also be usefully defined as villages and hamlets normally inhabited by people engaged mainly in primary production. A typical rural settlement

could thus be easily distinguished from an urban settlement with its much larger number and complexity of functions.

However, all over the tropical world, there are settlements which in certain respects answer the description of rural settlement, while in others they are more like urban centres. First, there are small settlements whose populations are not engaged in primary production, but in those occupations and services more usually characteristic of towns and cities. An example of such a settlement is a road junction village whose inhabitants earn their living by servicing vehicles and seeing to the needs of travellers in transit. At the same time, such a village may serve as a collection point for the produce of the srrounding countryside and also as a distribution centre for consumer goods imported from other areas. Second, there are relatively large settlements whose inhabitants engage chiefly in primary production. Very good examples of such settlements are the 'agro towns' of Western Nigeria which, in pre-colonial times, functioned solely as sleeping places for farmers cultivating the surrounding countryside within distances of up to eight kilometres. Thus here is a case in which the concept of rural population must be separated from that of rural settlement.

In the face of the bewildering array of classifications of rural settlements, the United Nations has suggested that no attempt be made to distinguish between rural and urban settlements. Indeed, there is a growing body of opinion suggesting that the urban and rural worlds are not dichotemous but form a continuum. However, the view adopted here is that there are urban and rural landscapes, each having their own distinct set of characteristics and affording different environmental support and opportunities for individuals. Human habitations in each lanscape exist in different environmental, economic and sociological settings. The problems of human existence and living a full life in an urban area are also different from those of a rural area. Despite the problems of definition and demarcation, there is therefore the need for separate consideration of rural and urban settlements. (J.O. Adejuwon, 1979).

The Kano Region.

The population is predominantly Hausa but there is a considerable number of Fulanis and strangers from other parts of Nigeria. In the past, the Hausas were usually identified as settled cultivators in contrast with the nomadic Fulani, but today such a distinction can no longer be accepted because many Fulanis have since settled down as farmers.

In an area which has been many periods of unrest, the tendency was for people to flock to surroundings where they were sure of protection from attack. This is one reason why the Kano District in particular has had a large concentration of population for many centuries. Recent developments in industries and agriculture have created employment opportunities for seasonal labour in the farms as well as skilled and semi-skilled labour in the city of Kano. In addition the Kano District has always been a rich agricultural district, and the fact that much of it is cropped permanently makes it possible for the high population density of over 500 persons per square mile to survive. This is the so-called Kano close-settled zone which consists of a near circular area of radius thirty miles from Kano City.

Two types of rural settlements may be recognized. These are dispersed compounds, and old nucleated villages. Dispersed compounds which may consist of a few huts or several huts and granaries are found scattered about the landscape. They are usually enclosed by a fence with a single entrance. The population of the compount varies from one or two persons to over thirty persons for the large extended family compounds. Around Kano City the dispersed compounds which remaind one of parts of Iboland are of considerable age and appear to have been made possible by the fact that for a long time Hausa rulers and later the

Fulani Emirs able to maintain peace in the Kano area.

The old nucleated settlements with over one hundred persons are walled, and remaind one of the traditional settlement in an area where defence was a major consideration in the past. Formerly, each settlement had some cultivable land within its walls and was more of a miniature sudanese town. Today, there has been an overspill of compounds beyond the walls, and available land within or between the compounds is usually cropped.

Yoruba Land.

In 1952, about four million or ninety per cent of the Yorubas of Nigeria lived in the forest region, but today, the figure is about seven million. Such a rapid increase within a period of just over ten years appears unusual, but may be accounted for partly by the undercount of the 1952 census and partly by large numbers of immigrants from other parts of Nigeria.

The Yorubas live in large towns and the cocoa belt is the most urbanised region of its size in Nigeria. In 1952, Forty-Eight per cent of the population lived in settlements with over 5,000 persons compared with twenty-eight per cent in the north and east, while twenty-three per cent of the

total population lived in towns with more than 50,000 p persons (compared with three per cent in the east and two per cent in the north).

Urbanisation amongst the Yorubas dates from the remote past, but apart from such ancient towans as Ife and Ijebu-Ode, from where pioneers clonised such part of Yorubaland as Ekiti, Ondo and Ijebu sub-tribal areas, most of the other larger towns are a product of nineteenth-century warare in the area. Abeokuta and Ibadan for example were founded as camps for the army engaged in, and for refugees fleeing from, nineteenth-century wars with Dahomey and the Fulanis respectively. The Warriors of Dahomey and the Fulanis approached Yorubaland from the west and north, hence the general shift in the centres of concentration of people towards the east and south.

One interesting fact about the distribution of Yoruba towns is that all the five indigenous towns with over 100,000 persons are located in the derived savannah or open forests of Oyo and Ibadan Provinces, while towns in the high forest zone have less than 50,000 persons. Yet the forest offers a natural defence against the mounted Fulani from the north. The main reason for this avoidance of the forest appears to lie in the fact farming is more tedious under forest conditions.

Middle Belt.

Excepting the southern part of Tivland, which has a fairly dense population of about 500 persons per square mile, the Benue Valley is very sparsely settled, vast areas such as the central part of the Great Muri Plain being virtually uninhabited. Outside Tivland settlements are few and far between, and consist of small compact villages located near the main streams draining into the Benue. The Tivs livs live in scattered homesteads, although nucleated villages were the rule in the past when Tiv settlements were fortified with strong mud walls or pallisades and ditches. East Of Lau the number of villages increases amongst the hills which close in on both sides of the river. Hill settlements still exist although many of the hii sites, with their terraced gardens, have since been abandoned for more accessible and productive sites on the plains.

It is usual to explain the sparse population of the Middle Belt, of which the Benue Valley forms a part, by reference to extensive slave raids during the eithteenth and nineteenth centuries. But slave raiding does not offer an adequate explanation for the whole of the Benue Valley. Rather there are large tracts of the plains where

there is no indication that the indigenous population has even been larger than it was at the time of the British occupation in 1907. Examples of such areas include northern Tivland and Adamawa west Of Jalingo where settlement has always been restricted as a result of swampy conditions during the rains, lack of water in the dry season and the ravages of the tsetse fly. Yet these empty lands are very fertile, particularly along the fadamas or river flood plains, which are well cultivated in the vicinity of the few settlements. Distance from settlement rather than availability of suitable farmland sets the limit of cultivation in much of the Benue Valley.

Tiv compounds and that of most other tribal groups in this region consist of the usual round mud-walled huts with conical roofs of thatch. The sleeping huts are generally raised on short stilts to keep out water. Each compound, which consists of a group of sleeping huts reception huts and granaries of members of one extended family, is referred to by the name of its headman.

The growth of satelite settlements is a recent and wide-spread development in the food surplus district of sourthern Idoma. With the growing emphasis on cash crops of which swamp rice, yam and soya beans are the most important,

it has become necessary to cultivate larger acreages. This has led to the cultivation of lands which are very distant from the nucleated villages of the local people. Hence the need to establish farm huts where farmers spend most of the farming season, at which time many of the villages are partly deserted.

Ibo Land.

The greatest concentrations of population in the region are found on the plateaux, where the soils appear to be easier to cultivate than the heavier soils of the river flood-plains. The oldest settlements are located on the Plateaux which, in addition, provided easily defensible sites in the hills and ridges which occur all over the uplands.

During the last fifty years, however, there has been a marked tendency for groups of people to break away from their parent villages to set up daughter settlements on the relatively sparsely settled lowlands, where crop yields are much better.

In the plateau area lying between Udi and Ukehe, the distribution of daughter settlements indicate an east to west movement of population towards the vast Mamu Lowlands but nearer Nsukka migration has been primarily eastwards in the direction of the Cross River plains. Most daughter settlements

started as temporary farm hamlets, which have since become permanent villages. The parent village is often easy to trace particularly in Nsukka area, where the name of the daughter settlement consists in attaching the suffix Agu (=farm) to that of the parent village. Thus Eha Ndiagu was founded by farmers from Eha Alumona, while Ibagwa-Agu and Nkpor-Agu were founded by migrants from Ibagwa and Nkpor respectively.

A similar arrangement of settlement is noticed in Awka Division, where the majority of present day settlement divides into two parts, usually Eziama and Ifite or with suffixes such as Enu (=on the hill) and Ani (=farm). In all such cases, Eziama, which literally means the true or real villages, refers to the parent village, which is generally located on the upland or Agba Enu zone of the Division, while the Ifite half, which is of more recent age, is always located on lower ground.

A few hill settlements persist in Nsukka area to remaind one of the periods of insecurity when harassed villagers retreated to the hills for protection. At Aku, the contrast between the congested hill village and the newer, but scattered settlement at the foot of the hill is striking.

Increasing population, which has resulted in extreme fragmentation and scarcity of farmland in the upland areas of Awka and Udi Division, has led to a complete scatter of compounds over the landscape of districts like Agulu, Ogidi and Ozubulu. The main farmlands in such districts have been almost completely replaced by compoundlands which are cropped yearly.

Each compound consists of one to ten houses and is completely surrounded by a wall of mud or concrete and the land around it is cropped with yams, maize and greens. The farmer therefore lives in the mids of his land, but the problem here is that the holding, which rarely exceeds half an acre, is too small to be economical. (Reuben K. Udo).

The Function of Rural Settlements

The rural settlements and their inhabitants in each tropical country have played a significant role in the preservation of cultural heritage. For instance, political and social organization, ritual practices, marriage customs, and layout and architecture of dwelling places have in most cases been preserved from the pre-colonial era.

Rural settlements are identified not only by the function they perform, but also by the functions they do not perform. In general, service units which cater for large populations are

absent, while those which cater for a few people may be found. For example, primary schools may be located in rural settlements, but Colleges and Universities are never associated with them. Dispensaries and rural health centres may be found in the villages, but hospitals are usually associated with towns and cities. Organized places for buying and selling in rural settlements are usually restricted to periodic markets, with shopping centres made up of departmental stores a rarity. Certain types of service units are almost never found in any form. Recreational and entertainment facilities such as stadia, cinemas, theatres and various administrative institutions are outside the rural landscape. Thus rural settlements are almost always places where facilities are inadequate for satisfying human needs. People must travel to towns and cities to make use of facilities not available in their own villages. Especially in underdeveloped tropical countries, rural settlements are harly ever provided with modern amenities such as piped water, electricity, good connecting roads, hospitals, good schools and so on.

On the credit side, the primary function of rural settlements is to house the rural inhabitants. The villages and farmsteads, in addition, are the sources of all the inputs of labour, capital and materials which are applied to the countryside for purposes of production; they are also the

initial destination of all rural outputs. Rural settlements should therefore not be regarded merely as elements of the rural landscape, but should be seen as the vital geographical hubs of rural economy. Just as administration, manufacturing, wholesale marketing, banking etc. constitute the functions of urban centres, so do the functions of rural settlements encompass farming, mining, lumbering, fishing and hunting. Thus the main economic function of these settlements is primary production, in which as many as 80 per cent of tropical rural inhabitants are engaged.

APPENDIX D

FACTORS IN URBAN GROWTH

The growth in the number of people who live in cities and the diffusion of urban life to every part of the habitable world is one of the characteristic features of twentieth-century life. Although there have been towns in some restricted parts of the earth since prehistoric times, the modern situation, in which a substantial part of the population of many parts of the world has become urban dwellers and in which cities increasingly dominate social and economic life, had is origins in Western Europe only two centuries ago since then few cultures have resisted the trend towards city life and the results that this has had on the organization of society and production. What were the technological, economic and social changes which allowed this development to take place?

It is not easy to produce a clear definition of what constitutes an urban settlement and the usual approach is to define a settlement of a certain size, density of population and structure of occupations as being "urban" (with population living outside such settlements being taken as "rural"). Implicit in the recognition of urban places by esily-observable geographical phenomena is the idea that these physical criteria reflect certain underlying economic and

sociological qualities, although in practice the precise limits adopted are usually arbitrary. The only functional definition that appears to be generally agreed and applied is a simple one based on the residence of a substantial proportion of non-rural workers in a nucleated settlement (with agriculture, forestry and, sometimes, fishing being considered distinctively "rural" occupations).

A factor encouraging modern urban growth is the increasing proportion of the population of the technically adanced countries employed in tertiary occupations. The tertiary sector of the economy includes a wide diversity of jobs, which involve the provision of services and which, as a result, tend to be found in urban settlements. Partly this change has been associated with rising standards of living, partly with the increasing participation of government in national life, and partly with the increasing number of clerical works required to service modern industry. The largest urban centres tend to have a larger proportion of tertiary w workers because of their greater centrality, which allows their more specialized services to be used more easily. But tertiary activities are found in towns and cities of all sizes; hence the increase in service activities has also stimulated the growth of smaller urban settlements as well as encouraging the extension of the great metropolises.

Social factors, although not always easy to distinguish separately, have also encouraged urban growth. In no sense are these non-economic factors a recent addition to the range of city-building forces, but in the modern world they are particularly influential in encouraging the growth of the largest settlements, particularly if these are capital cities.

Natural increase of population is another non-economic force which is now playing a more important part in urban growth. Again, this is particularly influential in the largest centres where there is a grater absolute number of people and where, because of recent in-migration the population contains a higher than average proportion of people of fertile age. Until relatively late in the nineteenth century large urban centres experienced natural decrease-that is, more people died in them than were born there.

The impact of motor transport on urban form is a theme to which it will be necessary to return later. Here it is sufficient to record that the motor-car and the lorry have encouraged urban dispersal, not only of residential areas, but also of other urban functions, in particular manufacturing industry.

As a result, journeys to work can extend over longer distances from large cities, since can increasing proportion of workers do not have to travel right into their central areas. Hence there is an encouragement to the growth of more loosely structured urban areas, which can attain a larger total population than has ever been previously encountered.

The second recent development, the spread of large cities to the tropical lands, has been particularly important during the last three decades and especially since the end of the Second World War. Urban growth is now taking place at a much faster rate in the tropical lands than in Western Europe or North America, largely because these areas have considerable leeway to make up.

An important factor in the growth of very large cities in the tropics is the political awakening of may former colonial territories, with the stimulus which this has for urban growth Many of these countries still depend on the increasing export of raw materials and the import of manufactured goods: hence may of these "Million" cities are ports. Finally, many newly independent countries are encouraging local manufacturing, which, for the same reasons valid in Western countries, tends to be more profitably located in the larger cities, however, is not always the result of the attraction of urban employment.

Even in the underdeveloped countries natural increase is how an important element in the expansion of some cities, particularly as medical treatment is most readily available in urban areas. Although immigration from rural areas still remains the dominant factor in urban growth, even this is partly the result of the "push" administered by the economic state of the countryside rather than of the dynamic attraction of the town. Often the migrants are unskilled and uneducated, so that they form a very poor substratum of urban society, dependent on casual work. In other words, rural-urban migration partly depends on the general economic situation in the underdeveloped countries, in which the superficial attraction of a small, unreliable cash income in the city has more appeal than a life of sub subsistance farming, often yielding only a starvation diet. For many people migration must be a choice between evils, rather than stimulated by clear economic and social benefits. (James H. Johnson (1972) Urban Geography, 2nd Edition, Oxford Pergamon Chapte 1 P. 1 - 2, 15 - 21.

Urbanization in Nigeria.

It is difficult to discuss the degree of urbanisation in Nigeria. In part the difficulty arises from the deficiencies of the statistical material, which have already been discussed; in part from the character of the "towns" themselves.

Many of these lack the basic services and functions which constitute the criteria of an urban area in the West, and their population is often dominantly agricultural, working in the surrounding countryside during part at least of the year. They are, in short, more closely related to the "urban villages" of the Spanish meseta or the Hungarian plain, than to the normal Western European urban area. The qualification is especially true in the Eastern Provinces in Ibo land and the Cameroons-where settlements much as Otuocha-Aguleria or Baili are scarcely more than five-figure clusters of population with little functional significance; it applies even in the urban zones of Yoruba land and Hausaland, with their long tradition of compact settlement; and perhaps the only exceptions are centres such as Lagos or Jos which owe their development largely to European influences.

In, however, the term "town" is defined statistically and applied to all compact centres of over 10,000 inhabitants, the Territory contains a total of seventy-three towns, eleven of which have populations of over 50,000 and one of which, the great Yoruba Centre of Ibadan, ranks as the

biggest city in Tropical Africa, with a population, according to the 1952-3 census, of some 2½ million or One-Nineth of the total population.

There are great contrasts between the Regions in degree of urbanisation, thus in the Western Region 35% of the population is town-dwelling as against 7% in the Eastern Region and 4% in the Northern. The greater proportion of the Western Region's town-dwelling population 1¾ million or one half of the total town-dwelling population of Nigeria is accounted for by the greater cluster of towns in the Yoruba Provinces.

Yorubaland has ten cities of over 50,000 inhabitants, and the high proportion of townd wellers to the total population is probably une ualled in Tropical Africa; in Ibadan Division the figure is 68%; in Oyo Division, 64% in Ijebu Division, 40%.

Outside Yorubaland the degree of urban concentration is much lower; in the eastern provinces, if the anomalous Calabar Division is excluded, the highest proportion is 23% in Onitsha Division; in the urban zone of Hausaland, classes by Leo Frobenius with Yorubaland among "the three great municipal territories of West Africa", the proportion seems to be between 5 and 7.5%. Comparision of the Yoruba and Hausa municipal territories reveals clearly the unique

position of the former; in a zone, some 30,000 square miles in extent are to be found twenty-six towns with an aggregate population of 1,250.00 inhabitants; the Hausa centres, by contrast, contain only one-quarter of this population, but are diseminated over five times as large a territory.

From the broadest possible point of view the towns of Nigeria fall into two generic groups; those that are largely European created, and those in which the urban nucleus is basically indigenous. The former are atypical and contain only a fraction of the country's urban population, though, since they include serveral important administrative centres such as Minna, Jos or Kaduna, they possess an importance out of proportion to either their numbers or their alien origin, but this external and visible design contrasts sharply with their formlessness from the human standpoint; only too often their populations consist of a loose aggregate of peoples drawn from a great diversity of tribes by the needs of administration or transport, and with the slenderest of ties with the neighbourhood.

Nor, indeed, can it be said that the fullest use has always been made of the opportunity afforded by the development of these centres to raise the level of housing standards in the Territory. The corrugated-iron slums of

Lagos or the more spacious drabnes of Minna give a measure of the lost opportunities.

In contrast to the European-inspired centres are the older indigenous settlements, such as the Yoruba or Hausa town, whose closely packed, closely peopled houses of red mud seem to spring organically from the landscape. Here, as in the tropical forest, is a perpetual cycle of decay and renewal, houses crumbling down into red laterite mud after a short, crowded life and others springing up incessantly to take their place. The complex intermingling of housing, small-scale industry and shops, the labyrinth of unpraved roads and alleyways, closedly confined between high compound walls, and the frequent absence of any domination feature, convey an impression of shapelessness to the Western observer. But it is a shapelessness in appearance only; as Frombenius observed with reference to the towns of Yorubaland: "Every one of these towns resolves itself into a definite number of astonishingly large compounds, all of which are severally built on a clearly organised system, and in themselves again give expression to an extended, powerful, systematic and social ideal."1. Half a century of European administration has not greatly

modified the internal structure of these towns; it has, however, led to the grafting on to the indigenous nucleus of a new commercial and administrative zone where the Eurpean trading concerns are established, along with the offices of various Government departments, the Police-Station, and, where present, the railway-station and the cinema. This newer zone will also contain the new and betterclass African housing and the settlements of non-native Africans, such as the Hausa and Nupe settlements in the southern city of Ibadan or the Yoruba settlement in the northern city of Zaria. Still farther out and isolated from the indigenous city by a broad belt of bush is the Government Reservation, where most of the European population and the higher rank African officials live. K.M. Buchana (1955) Land and People W. Nigeria, London, Howder and Stoughton, Chapter 11, P. 63 - 67.

The Nature of Nigeria's Urban Problems.

Urbanization as a process of human agglomeration in multifunctional settlements of relatively substantial size is not a new phenomenon in Nigeria. For some parts of the country, it can be traced to the last millennium. What is new, however, is the growing failure of these centres to

fulfil much of the expectations both of those who live in them and those who have to depend on them for services. This failure of Nigerian urban centres can be categorized under four heads; employment, liveability, manageability and serviceability.

With respect to employment, it is now common knowledge that the rate of urban unemployment in Nigeria has been increasing at a rather alarming rate. A Labour Force Survey of 1966/67 showed that whilst the overall unemployment rate for the country was only 1.7 per cent that for the urban areas was as high as 8 per cent. A further disaggregation reveals that among these cities the varied from under 5 per cent to well over 20 per cent. Nearly 70 per cent of the unemployed had no previous working experience, and one can assume that most of them are young school leavers in search of new employment opportunities. In the context of Nigeria, it is always important to stress that urban centre with these high rates of unemployment include not only the rapidly growing industrial centres but also the stagnating pre-colonial traditional cities which are even now only me marginally integrated into the spatial economy. Such cities have no viable economic base and, although they have already lost much of their youthful population, they still contain a sizeable proportion of people who are unemployed or those who have to ake out a living.

The issue of liveability has become very pressing of late, especially with the increasing environmental deterioration in the large, matropolitan centres. It involves not only living conditions but also ease of circulation in the city. Both in the rapidly growing industrial centres and the stagnating traditional centres, living conditions have been worsening over the years. In the former, there is a tremendous pressure of population on limited facilities and this is manifested in the growth of squatter settlements, overcrowded habitation, breakdown of waste disposal arrangements, inadequate water and power supply and generally poor environmental sanitation. In the latter, the reverse is the case. Massive emigration has meant excess capacity in housing, resulting in a high rate of disrepair and dilapidation. However, it is only in the larger metropolitan centres that circulation is becoming a serious problem. By world standards, Lagos, the largest of our metropolitan centres, with its two million odd people is relatively small. But its traffic problems are greater than those of cities many times its size. The traffic situation is already making Lagos almost an unliveable city, apart from gradually raising its level of air pollution.

The low level of liveability of many Nigerian cities attest to the poor quality of their management. Management in this connection comprises two elements: the administration of city activities, the ability to anticipate future changes in their scope and magnitude. For any Nigerian city, it is clear that the conception of urban management functions has hardly gone beyond routine administration of the city. The consequence of this shortcoming is today obvious everywhere. Faced with the rapidity and magnitude of change, especially in our metropolitan areas, the overwhelming impression everywhere is as if these centres are not being managed at all. Indeed, the deplorable conditions in all our cities underline the fact that we are still to develop appropriate institutional and legislative machinery for managing them efficiently.

The worsening of social and economic conditions in Nigeria's rural areas at a time when all indications are that the economy is growing at an unprecedented rate is also a measure of the failure of our urban centres to adequately "service" the rural population. Such servicing goes beyond mere welfare functions of making educational, health and other social amenities easily accessible to people living

in rural areas. In particular, it includes the function of stimulating increased rural production through creating a constantly expanding market for agricultural products and inducing farmers to greater productive effort through making easily available to them a wide range of consumer goods.

Any review of current urban situation in Nigeria will note the failure of the urban system on these two counts. The emphasis on import-substituting industrialization has meant that, with few exceptions, industries in our cities do not derive their raw materials from the rural areas. On the other hand, although a high proportion of food consumed in the cities are drawn from the rural areas, it is worth bearing in mind that as of 1972 the country spent over ₦90 million importing food from abroad. In short, the productive impact of our cities on the rural areas has been less than it needs be. The same is true of their impact on rural consumption. To date, little attention has been placed on the spatial distribution of urban centres in the country. Yet a cursory examination of a map showing the urban centres in Nigeria will show that some areas are very well served, while others are poorly served. That the creation of a rational spatial system of cities can be critical for development is something hardly appreciated by the present generation of national planners. If we were to borrow a leaf from our former

colonial masters who used the strategy of founding new towns to stimulate development in what are now the eastern states of the country, we would not underestimate the vital role of such new creations in a strategy of stimulating increased production in our rural areas.

The problems of our cities today have arised in response to the processes of our development. They reflect a growing disequilibrium between these processes and our capacity to manage them. What is clear is that for good or bad these processes have been unleashed and must proceed inexorably on their course. But they will do this only within the structural framework defined by the the existing system of cities, the various public sector institutions that govern the effectiveness of functioning of these cities and the private sector organizations that actually determine the level of urban activities. The main leverage for influencing this framework comprises various policy decisions of government. Therefore, before advocating the need for a clearly articulated urban policy for the country, it would be worthwhile to evaluate the adequacy or otherwise of current policy measures. Akin L. Mabogunje (1981), "Towards an Urban Policy in Nigeria" in P.O. Sada and J.S. Oguntoyinbo, Urbanization Processes and Problems in Nigeria, Ibadan University Press. Chapter 2, P. 8 - 10.

APPENDIX E

NIGERIA'S MINERAL FIELDS

Nigeria has made several new mineral finds in various parts of the country, including gold deposits in the west, Mines and Power Minister Rilwanu Lukman announced. He told reporters over 200,000 ounces of gold had been found in Ilesha, Western Region and trial exploitation begun, while preliminary results has also indicated reasonable quantities of the mineral in the northwest.

The discoveries follow what he called an agressive campaign mounted by the Military Government last year to explore and exploit minerals for exports in order to diversify sources of foreign exchange earnings dominated by crude oil exports.

Lukman said large deposits of phosphate had also been found in northern Sokoto State and would be exploited to feed the country's fertilizerd industry. Nigeria currently imports the mineral from Togo and Senegal for a huge state-owned, superphosphate fertilizer plant in Kaduna in the north.

The Minister also said the state was moving to exploit a proven reserve of over 700,000 tonnes of lead and zinc in Abakaliki in the ast, while a joint firm had been formed to exploit a tin-zinc lode on the Jos Plateau in the north. When fully in production, the mine would produce 900 tonnes of tin and zinc ores per day.

Lukman said drilling had turned up signs of uranium in the northest, but an economic deposit had yet to be found. Nigeria has 16% equity shares in a uranium project in neighbouring Nigeria where a reserve of 5,000 tonnes was proved during exploration in 1981. Prospecting had since been suspended because of Military installations in the area but the two states were negotiating to resume exploration.

The Government has also taken bold steps to reactivate its coal industry and for the first time in a decade Nigeria last year exported 11,000 tonnes of coal.

On the country's steel project in Ajaokuta being under undertaken with Soviet technical help, Lukman said it would be completed in 1988-89 with an output capacity of 1.3 million tonnes per year. (Africa Number 166, June 1985.)

NIGERIA IMPROVES POWER SUPPLY.

The National Electric Power Authority (NEPA) has completed the rehabilitation of the Sapele gas and steam power stations, resulting in an improvement in grid generation by a daily average of 1500mw, up 300mw from the April – June period. Actual daily generation totalled 1,494.6mw while the generation capacity stood at 2,118mw, according to a NEPA spokesman.

He said the Sapele steam station, with an installed capacity of 696mw, generated 534mw with the gas section generating 286mw adding that NEPA had taken delivery of adequate spare parts to ensure steady power supplies and that work on the second 220mw unit of the 1,320mw Lagos thermal station was in progress. (West Africa, 19th August, 1985 P. 1712.

Coal Utilisation

Nigeria's coal deposits total about a billion tonnes according to estimates presented by the General Manager of the Nigerian coal corporation at a seminar to organised to discuss coal utlization in the country. The General Manager said the corporation hadextracted about 50m tonnes of coal to date with the Nigerian Railways corporation consuming over 55 percent and the National Electric power Authority consistently taking about 15 percent through 1970s.

In 1984 Nigerian exported 11,080 tonnes of coal at a price of £140,500 which is the highest for a decade. Current export demand is estimated at more than 5 million tonnes.

The General Manager called for a review of the government's energy policy to ensure effective utilization of coal reserves through the diversification of Nigeria's energy base and the setting up to a coal carbonisation plant to produce the necessary by -products. (West Africa, 21st October, 1985 P. 2232.)

Resources

Oil Reserves

Nigeria's crude oil reserves of about 16.7 Billion barrels could last for the next 37 years, according to the Western Divisional Manager of the shell petroleum Development company (Nigeria), Dr. Emmanuel Daukoru. He told an oil seminar at Warri, organised by the company for senior journalists, that Nigeria's role as an oil producer was secored far into the next century.

Daukoru said that of Nigeria's abundant gas resources, shell held about 6.3 million cu.ft in reserve within its Western division. Work on a 45 million dollar gas plant was

underway at utorogu in Bendel State to supply the 660 million dollar thermal power station in Lagos, he said. (West Africa, 9th December 1985, P.)

Nigerian LNG Progress.

The Nigerian government is to push ahead with a scated down liquified natural gas (LNG) plant while its private sector partners Shell, Agrip and Elf have formed a marketing team to regotiate sales with a number of European gas companies. The whole project, which industry sources stimate will cost between 5 billion Dollars and 7 Billion Dollars, depends on successful sales negotiations, after which the oil companies together with the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) will have to start putting together a financing package.

"The NNPC will take 60 percent of the equity in the INB company, while SPCDN will take 20 percent, and Eif and Agrip will take ten percent each. (West Africa, 18 November, 1985, P. 2433).

The Significance of Natural Resources.

Even the most cursory glance at natural resources-water, forest, soils, minerals or power-reveals that there is indeed little correlation between the occurrence of these resources and the level of economic development in

any particular tropical country. The presence or absence of naturally occuring material resources in no way immutably determines the economic development of a country. 'Since the changing fortunes of many countries and regions have not been connected with the discovery or exhaustion of natural resources within their territories, the fortuitious distribution of these resources certainly does not provide the only and probably not even the principal, explanation of differences in development and prosperity'. High productivity and prosperity can be achieved without abundant natural resources. While their possession may give certain initial advantages, plentiful natural resources are not necessarily associated with properity, nor are they a precondition for economic development.

Thus while the relative lack or abundance of natural resources is never a determining factor in economic development; and while the natural endowment is usually less important to this process than is the human contribution; natural resources may constitute an important factor in planning and decision-making a far as economic development in low-income tropical countries is concerned. This at least, is the standpoint taken in subsequent chapers. The importance of natural resources to developing countries to developing countries is

relatively greater than to the developed countries of the world. In low-income tropical countries rich natural resources can have great significance as sources of exports and firoign investments, while poor resources may form some limitation to growth. The quantity and character of natural resources may well have an important initial effect on patterns of production and levels of income.

Yet while it is clearly convenient for the purposes of analysis to treat particular natural resources separately, it is perhaps worth pointing out that this is a somewhat arbitrary and misleading procedure. In any particular applied problem of economic development the interdependence of natural resources may be so closs that it is impossible even to single out any one factor or element as the crucial one for study. Water supply and hydro-element power; forests, soils and vegetation; these are particularly obvious cases wh where the various kinds of natural resources are intimately dependent pn one another. Furthermore, in any consideration of the applied problems of development of any of these natural resources, nor-physical elements-human resources, economic factos or political considerations of one kind or another- are necessary to any full understanding. While it is convenient to write of the natural environment and natural resources

associated with that environment as being quite dist not from the non-physical environment and resources, the truth is that all applied problems of economic development demand the examination of the 'total' environment, with its complex of resources and factors - natural, human and capital.

The problem of natural resources is not that they are especially poor or inadequate in tropical countries but rather that the facts about these little known and that their significance for economic development in any specific area is not fully understood. Any realistic analysis of an applied situation in tropical economic development, must start from the assumption that the natural resource base is potentially adequate for substantial development, given sufficient knowledge about these resources and a ready adaptation of planning to the opportunities and limitations set by them. B.W. Hodder (1971) Natural Resources and Tropical Development in Alan B. Mountjoy Developing the under Developed Countries Mcmillan.

APPENDIX F

What is Development?

Development in human society is a many-sided process. At the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline responsibility and material well-being. Some of these are virtually moral categories and are difficult to evaluate depending as they do on the age in which one lives, one's class origins, and one's personal code of what is right and what is wrong. However, what is indisputable is that the achievement of any of those aspects of personal development is very much tied in with the state of the society as a whole. From earliest times, man found it convenient and necessary to come together in groups to hunt and for the sake of survival. The relations which develop within any social group are critical to an understanding of the society as a whole. Freedom, responsibility, skill, etc. have real meaning only in terms of the relations of men in society.

More often than not, the term 'development' is used in an exclusive economic sense - the justification being that the type of economy is itself an index of other social features. What then is economic development? A society develops

economically as its members increase jointly their capacity with the environment is dependent on the extent to which they understand the laws of nature (Science), on the extent to which they put that understanding into practice by devising tools (technology), and on the manner in which is organised (Walter Rodney (1982) How Europe underdeveloped Africa) Ikenga publishers P. 9 & 10.

The Development Dilemma

As the economic crisis in the neocolonies deepens, three main tendencies are emerging among the economists, intellectuals and development theorists, each of which claiming to have the right perspective and solution to our problems of underdevelopment. These tendencies were of course, present throughout the "era of development studies", from 1947 onwards; but they were not as distinct as they now are. As our "problems of development" become more or less a permanent feature in current affairs occupying our minds almost totally, it was to be expected that various trends and tendencies in the strategies for development would emerge, sooner or later.

The first of these tendencies is the usual, run-of-million thesis of blaming all our development problems on the industrialised countries with their recession, but at the same time seeking salvation from the same source. This thesis is

too familiar to need much elaboration, except to put its essential elements in perspective to avoid mis-understading.

This position is brielfy as follows: The "Third World" crisis is primarily the result of the ongoing recession, or stafflation, which has engulfed the entire industrialise countries whereby both stagnation and inflation are present in their economies at the same time (this is unusual because in normal circumstances one negates the other).

The recession aggravates the crisis in the "Third World" because the prices of our primary products continue to fall while those of industrial goods from the West are steadily rising, thus "widening the gap" between North and South. This situation is further aggravated by the diminishing flow of aid, credits and investments from the West.

The wayouth, according to this thesis, is to appeal to the rich donor-countries to be "less mean" and come forward with generous aid for the poor countries. Furthermore, it is urged, this gestured of good-will is not entirely self-sacrificing because by helping developing countries to develop, millions of jobs would be created in the West and thus alloviate the unemployment problem there.

This has come to be known as the "Brandt Thesis" which is passionately advocated by the liberals and social democrats in the West and their counterparts in the Third World. Their clarion call is summerised in the demand for the New International Economic Order (NIEO).

The second tendency which emerged at the Seminar and which is increasingly gaining support in the Third World can probably be described as "Gandhian", for went of a better term. It comprises all those trends in both North and South variously known as the "Greens" or"Ecologists" or advocates of "Appropriate Technology", "Small is Beautiful", "Food First" "Basic Needs" and such like.

According to this thesis, colonialism has so distorted our societies that our way of life, our culture, our economies and social aspirations have been almost utterly destroyed and that all we have left if to ape the Western outlook which because it is usuited to our needs, has automatically led to our current moral and material bankruptcy. The solution is therefore to be sought, first, in rediscovering our own roots, and then, modify them where necessary to suit our modern situation and needs. We must not rely on modern technology which has become so perverted that "it has become a major tool of exploitation and repression" as one participant put it.

It is not "neutral" as claimed in some quarter, but it is actually propelled by the motives of control and profits, and it leads to technologies which often disregard nature, culture, society and even human lives.

There are, according to this thesis, appropriate and inappropriate technologies in both modern and traditional ones and the issue is therefore not a choice between modern and traditional but between appropriate and traditional but between appropriate and traditional technology. And in choosing appropriate technology the issue of ownership and income distribution becomes paramount. For it must be appropriate in both production and the enjoyment of the fruits of production. In the final analysis, as one participant pointed out, the "basic premise for any solution must be a conception of man as primordially a cooperative creature and not one of a glorified animal given to selfishness and unrestrained greed". This view should be a "strarting point on a path that will increasingly diverge from the presently unviable pattern of existence, based on a deviated concept of man's very nature".

The third tendency in the development strategy which revealed itself at the seminar is rather radical but it has not yet gained wide support among Third World intellectuals and economists. This is the thesis for 'de-linking', according

to which our countries are seen as not being able to extricate themselves from external dependency as long as they are "linked" to the West by the umbilical cord of aid, credits, investiments and trade. This link moreover, has integrated our economics to the metropolitan countries in a way that we have not been able to develop "national economics" and we have remained only as extensions of the metropolitan economics. As a result, our nations are not properly integrated internally, culture and social aspirations, our entire outlook is consequently linked to the West in a sort of master/slave relationship.

This lack of internal integration is characterised by (a) the dualism of capitalist and pre-capitalist socio-economics sectors, (b) the wide and long-lasting co-existence of export economies and subsistence economies side by side, and (c) the distortion of the sectoral pattern of the econmy and the weaknes of inter-sectoral links. The theory of econimic dependence as outlined by Philip Ehrensalt, one of its exponents, emphasises that penetration of foreign capital into our countries gave rise in certain spheres to the capitalist mode of production and linked the economies in question to the world market. This foreign captal comes in the form of direct investments, bilateral and multilateral loans, aid and grants.

Consequently the changes in development which would in normal circumstances have been positive, could not be determined by internal laws of development, but instead by an external factor, is, the interests of foreign capita capitalists.

But foreign capital can in no way help to transform our economies because it obeys laws which are independent of such transformation. For instance, it does not help to develop the "home market" which is essential for any development to take place; in fact it obstructs the expansion of the home market because, firstly, there are no internal linkages in the economy since consumption (of our primary products) is external. Secondly, there is no indirect linkage-effect via the spending of personal incomes of those engaged in the sect sectors concerned, because expatriates repatriate their personal savings, workers, wages are meagre, and the consumption of foreign good by the higher income officials (the Wabenzis). Thirdly, the insecurity of the urban working class due to the threat from the rural mass helped to keep wages as low as possible.

Another major obstacle to internal integration of our economies is a major precondition for development. This is hampered by (a) repatriation of profits, interests and personal savings; (b) misallocation of resources between productive and unproductive investments; (c) the non-existence of economic

facilities necessary for industrialsation; (d) the resultant political and economic instability which encourages local to save abroad instead of locally for productive investment; and (e) the externally oriented infrastructure transport, marketing Banks, Insurance, energy, electricity supply, water which preclude internal development.

To correct this situation we must, according to the "delinkers", embark on a "surgical operation" in order to attain the necessarily drastic structural change, which will lead us step up step to reverse the present trend and reorder our economies to serve our own internal interests.

This view obviously departs from the earlier two by de-emphasising the role of external donors as the necessary complement to our development as envisaged by the first tendency in their NIEO strategy; it departs from the second tendency in that it recognises the importance of modern technology in our development, although it cautions against its indiscriminate, free-for-all application. Above all, although this tendency departs from the major assumptions of the earlier two, it does not reject some of their more positive aspects and its because of this broad outlook that it seems to be the likeliest tendency which will influence the revolutionary future of the Third World. (Culled from Africa Events Vol. 2 No. 1 January 1986. Abdul-Rahman Mohammed Babu.)

Growing Without Developing

The question of the possibility of transfering technology from one country to another has long been settled. It is not possible. We can't do it in Nigeria either. On the other hand, looking around, we have not developed any. "national technostructure"of our own. Virtually everything we boast is 'modern' has been imported. Can we forever be able to develop technologically? Has our development been permanently arrested? Assuming we can develop, where do we being? Suppose we can't where do we go from here? To these and other questions I will attempt to give a personal opinion.

Our desire to better our living circumstances has always been excruciatingly strong. One wonder though, whether this desire has been balanced by a comensurate effort in that direction. If there has been any efforts, these efforts and their results are not observable by untrained eyes like mine. I would like to hide behind this alertlessness to say infact no efforts have been made.

Improving our living conditions implies economic growth which in turn implies and is intricately interconnected with technological progress. The reality of our situation however, is that we again, do not have any technology of our own. Of course, we had local looms, farming implements etc.

but we dropped all of them along the way. From then on to date, we have always imported technology and import-subst substitutes. The importion has not been into a vacuum. It has been into a whole system. It has gradually and systematically interfered with our entire institutional and cultural values.

To talk about developing our own technology is to talk about going back some two centuries and forgetting about all we have so far in the name of technology, and removing without any traces, it's effects on our way of life. Call me a pessimist if you like but I certainly do not see the possibility of this happening. We have been let into the 'goodies' of life by people who had them in excess to sell and we are lucky to have the money to buy. Having been used to these goodies, I do not see us forsaking them in favour of indigenous development. Perhaps it is a natural law we are obeying the human being is curiously inclined towards the path of least resistance. He just will not go into any hussle if he can get things the easy way. This could explain the resistance I foresee.

Like Prof. Olufeagba said in a Radio Kwara interview. We are developing from top to bottom, in his own words "from the roof down-wards". This is what I like to call growth without development. We were made to jump important stages of our development. This has been the most disastrous

effect of the invasion of our economy by foreign capital. To start developing from bottom to the top is now difficult. It has complications that we may not be able to cope of with. In summary, it requires some messiah to excite a revolutionary violence in the process of which the capitalist setting is eliminated. The cost of this in lives will definitely be too high, although the critiques of capitalism will say it is a worthwhile sacrifice.

Before that materialises however, we have to handle our dilemma. We don't want a transferred technology (whoever said it can be transfered), we have hitherto always imported technology, our technological development was arrested ages ago, we would not like to go back to where we were before exposure to a 'superior' technology and yet we want to develop along our own lines. We want to do this in the face of a very powerful capitalist world system that has always determined our development pathways. Our national independence in decision making on development strategy means cutting off with the international capitalist (and even socialist) systems-to us, both of them are capitalists. Can we beat them? Can we beat a system that must expand and for which ours is one of the most profitable markets for it's capital?

Right now, we have very immediate pressing problems. We persistently cry out for improvement of our living conditions. This generally means availability of the basics food, water shelter, and health. The solution, if it has to be immediate as well, will depend entirely on foreign technology. There we are. Big problem on our hand. Where do we go from there? Nowhere significantly different from where we are as long as want continue to enjoy the Jooties.

Now, inherent in this desire to enjoy the 'good things', is our inability to support any effort towards borrowing and modifying technology to suit our purposes. This is besides the fact that these technologies are never lent out in wholesome pieces. The lenders just cannot afford to let us into the secret of several years of hard research. The message is clear we must develop our own technology or we keep up on buying it. Relevant message per excellence.

Why have we not been able to do just that? The fact that we were colonised does not seem to be a sufficient explanation. This is because there are many countries that were subjected to similar colonial tortures but do not display our kind of attitude towards self-advancement. Countries like Japan, Pakistan, Taiwan and even United States of America were colonised but the effects on them are dramatically different from what we see here. It would appear like there is an inherent aspect of our life style

that is anti-development. Or are some people correct in saying that we do not have the brains? I tend to think so too. Yes, if we have the brains we would not have fallen into the easy-way trap; we would have foreseen the disasterous results of colonialism and resisted it. We would also been using our brains for the best possible benefit of our community. Instead, the use of these brains have always been diverted to salfish activities nothing for the long term benefit of the society is given any emphasis. Well meaning philosophers always say brins incapable of communal perspective are as good as no brain in development terms.

We have always blamed our situation on colonialism. We should know by now that we are being insincere because other colonies have out-grown the effects of this at least they are well ahead of us. Some of us might also say that the West must invest their capital here in order to survive economically and so we will forever be victims of exploitation. I vehemently disagree. The west is rich and will continue to be rich because of their superior productive system which is almost autonomous now. It's expansion is in fact, largely internal. The internal market may be overstocked but even so, trade with the third world (forget Nigeria) is vanishingly insignificant relative to Europe and Japan. As a matter of fact, these people boast that the whole of the third world can

be closed up to them but there will not be tool long before economic readjustments, are completed in the West. They trade with us because we want to an international trade is a fact of any nation's life.

So you see, we have to find the answer to our development problem from within ourselves. To develop (I mean development properly so called), we have to start from the beginning which is the equal of a violent revolution and which we need a gift from heaven for. Otherwise, we will have to stay where we are growing without developing. Clearly, this is a no-choice situation for the time being.

Therefore, for the time being if the ideal is not possible, we have to make the best use of the unpleasant option we are left with. We must concentrate on the things we have for example land, oil, and import those things we don't have but are essential. Borrowing technology and using it effectively to make the best use of what we have will definitely make sense. (Culled from New Nigerian, Thursday, September 26, 1985 Page Five). By Dr. Sani Udu.

Aid t' Developing Countries

Case Studies. Italy Increases Aid.

In 1989 Italy expects to spend 0.7 percent of its GNP on aid to developing countries - an increase from the 0.06 percent in 1979.

"In addition, Italian industrialist recognised the economic potential of developing countries to which vorghly 30 per cent of Italy's export were directed." And geographically Italy was close to the third world and knew a great deal about practical development, for it had been able to transform its southern regions with government money. (West Africa 17th March, 1986. P. 579).

Chinese Loan for Serraleon.

The government of China is to provide Serraleone with an interest free loan of £50 million to cover the short fall in expences in project convently underway under the economic and technical co-operation agreement signed between the two countries in 1984.

Part of the loan will also be used for other project "According to the government daily news bulleting, the agreement that we signed in freetown for Chinese assistance in large scale rice production in Serraleone and the resuscitation of the Chinese agricultural experimentation farms was also confirmed."

President Momoh is reported to have described his visit to China as "most productive", saying that the Chinese people remain in the vanguard of economic social progress among third world countries. Mr. Momoh added that his visit had further strengthed his commitment to the pursuit of South co-operation. (West Africa 10th March, 1986. P. 529.)

French Aid

The Gausse central de Co-operation Economique (GCCE), the French government agency has approved the following loans:-

- 62m FF to Ivory Coast for stock-raising project in the North.
- 300m FF to Gabon, for tele - communications, especially in the field of extending the coverage of radion and TV stations.
- 77m FF to Ghana state Hotels Co-peration for a new 200 - room hotel in Central Accra.
- 80.1m FF to Guinea for an industrial fishing project with soguipeche.
- 44m FF to Mali for a reatforstation project in cercles of Fana Dioula andKolikoro.

- 200m FF to Zaire to a project for the improvement of installations at Gecamines, the State mining Company.
- 180m FF to the Council of the Entente for village water projects in Bor Kina, Benin, Ivory Coast and Nigeria. (West Africa 10th February, 1986. P. 309).

UN Grant to Nigeria.

The UN has approved a grant of 750,000 US dollars to Nigeria to sink 25 bore holes in Borno State. According to a statement from the UN information centre in Lagos, the project will be funded by the UN Emergency operation Tust Fund (UNEOTF), which finances projects in the food and agricultural sectors of areas affected by prolonged drought The Borehole programme, which will complement an on-going programme under the Chad Basin and Rural Development Authority, will be implemented in Gadam, Damaturu, Bedde and Nguru Local Government Area of the State. (West Africa 20th January, 1986. P. 141.)

US AND AFRICA

Cooperation of Unequal Partners.

Africa's states believe that the continent's way out of the economic crisis is through the elimination of commercial and economic inequality between them and their Western partners. The point has been repeatedly stressed by their representatives at recent international economic forums.

The Western nations, too, say they "want" the Third World countries, including the African ones, to benefit more from their involvement in the global economic exchange than they do now US has been particularly outspoken on the subject. Washington has advanced numerous "initiatives," endorsed by the federal government and by US-controlled international financial institutions, to allegedly solve the economic problems faced by the African nations.

Many wonder, however, if these initiatives really hold water, because in spite of all declarations by Washington, Africa's economic plight continues to deteriorate.

Everybody knows that whether a new international economic order is established or not largely depends on the establishment of fair prices of primary materials and goods which make the bulk of the Third World's exports. And this is precisely what the West, led by the US, stubbornly opposes. Having accumulated vast reserves of many strategic raw materials, the US prefers to rely on these reserves, and on those of its Western allies, to sabotage all Third World proposals to introduce fair prices of primary materials.

By whipping up discrimination in trade, which it does by skillfully employing the so-called "price scissors" (the goosting of corporate-controlled prices for Western machinery and equipment and the deliberate downing of prices for primary

materials, minerals and other goods imported from the developing nations), the US pumps enormous resources out of Africa.

While in 1960 the money paid for tonne of coffee was enough to buy 37.3 tonnes of chemical fertiliser, during the 80s it would suffice to buy less than half of that amount. So to import US-made machinery and equipment the African countries have to sell three to four times more of their traditionally exported goods than they did 25 years ago. In doing so they yearly lose about 10 billion dollars due to the worsening trade conditions.

Now the US wants to translate into reality another important precondition of a new international economic order, i.e. alleviate the burden of Africa's debt which has topped 170 billion dollars, the fact vividly manifest at the last joint session of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund in Seoul. The US delegate rejected out of hand the Third World's idea of holding an international monetary and financial conference, and instead insisted, together with other Western spokesmen, that loans must be granted to the developing nations on tougher terms.

This policy drives the Third World into a vicious cycle; to pay back its swelling debt it has to borrow and borrow more. While earlier loans were to a certain extent channeled into various projects, today they are increasingly used to offset balance-of-payments deficits.

With foreign loans used to unproductively. Africa's external debts continue to pile up to an extent that many African nations face a financial catastrophe. Since 1977 the share of Africa's export earnings used to repay old debts has doubled to reach 27 per cent, with the continent's aggregate external debt making 54 per cent of its GDP more than even in Latin America.

It would also be in place to recall here that Washington is going out of its way to encourage American business activity in Africa through all kinds of transnational corporations, whether trading companies or commercial banks. The White House bluntly demands that the African governments promote a legislation encouraging foreign investment, offering easier terms for transmationals operating in their territories and - what is most important-allowing an unrestricted transfer of profits overseas.

What it may actually mean for the African states is that transnationals expand the scope of Africa's plunder. About two-thirds of profits on overseease investment, external loans and exported services is transferred to the United States from the Third World countries, including the African ones. According to some estimates, the African subsidiaries of US - based transnational corporations send in home a yearly amount of profit worth 8 to 15 billion dollars.

Which brings me to saying that US - African co-operations is co-operation between unequal partners, something that Washington puts to its advantage and passionately wants to perpetuate. (Daily Times 7th March 1985).

APPENDIX G

COMMUNICATION

Getting Better

Visitors to Lagos soon learn that Nigeria's telephone and telex services are unreliable and that traffic jams often make it impossible for businessmen to reach their offices in time to conclude important deals. Lagos businessmen sometimes prefer to fly to Kano in northern Nigeria rather than use the telephone, which could be out of order for weeks and even months. But although the services are still poor, Nigeria's communications systems are improving.

Post and Telecommunications.

The Buhari government split the posts and telecommunications department - and most Nigerians consider that this reorganisation greatly improved both services. Although the mail may not be moving significantly faster, they say, cases of dumping or stealing of mail by postal staff is becoming a thing of the past.

In 1984, according to official sources, domestic and international telephone calls rose by 8.7 per cent to 5.8-million, from 5.4-million in 1983. The increase was wholly due to a sharp rise in domestic trunk calls which recorded an increase of 42.5 per cent.

The number of telephone sets increased by 11.9 per cent to 244.000. However, there was a drop of 4.6 per cent in the number of international calls. Virtually every business house in Lagos and most other cities now has a telephone. All the liness use the direct dialling system and in theory calls could be put through in 20 seconds to two minutes, depending on the distance and the age of the exchange service in the area. Local calls are perhaps the cheapest in the world at US9c per call of any length. What has also become a popular means of communication is the use of radio phones. Most firms operate radio phones between their offices.

Road.

In the past 10 years, a network of roads has linked all the major cities in the vast hinterland. Road transport dominates inter-state commerce. In addition to the major roads, several new trunk roads are being constructed. From the main industrial economic nerve centre of Lagos to the rapidly growing petroleum city of Port-Harcourt, a traveller is now assured of a smooth drive, most of it on a dual carriage ecpressway, on the 700km journey. Among the 19 states in Nigeria, Bendel probably has the most efficient road network. This is largely due to intensive petroleum mining and exploration in the state and government policy to open up the area to non-oil economic activities. Bendel also attracts a growing number of foreign investors because of its three seaports.

However, with the economic recession and the dramatic fall in oil revenues, some of the older roads in the country are now in a state of disrepair.

Railway

Nigeria's rail network runs through 17 states and covers about 3,505km linking virtually all the major commercial centres to Lagos. The rails are still single-tracked and plans to introduce 1.43m standard gauge and other measures to improve the effiency of the network have been shelved due to the country's economic problems.

But last year the Nigerian railway corporation did improve its operations, especially its passenger services. According to government sources, the number of passengers carried increased by 19.5 per cent to 15.6 million and the revenue earned from passenger services rose slightly from US 27.8-million in 1983 to US 30.1-million in 1984.

In contrast, the freight services were seriously affected by the recession. With the expansion of the road network, rail haulage has declined in importance, in transporting exports to the ports. As a result, the volume of freight carried fell by 6.7 per cent to US 29.6 million.

Ports

Nigeria has also expanded its seaport facilities. Apart from the main petroleum ports of Bonny and Buratu, Nigeria has expanded and improved the port facilities in Calabar, Port-Harcourt, Sapele, Warri and Koko. With tighter controls in the issuing of ship entry permits and the slowdown in the volume of imports, port congestion in Lagos, which reached its peak in 1979, has now eased considerably. Total port capacity has risen from 41 ships in 1976 to 142. However, with the continued restriction on imports, activities at Nigeria's ports have slowed declined by 31.4 per cent to 2,512 in 1984. The volume of imports handled fell by 28.1 per cent to 10.8million tonnes compare with a rise of 12.1 per cent in 1983. Exports feel by 48.9 per cent to 234,500 tonnes in 1983. Nigeria has also developed the Nigeria Shipping Lines, which now boasts 62 ship, or 2.7 per cent of the total number of ships which enter the country.

Air Transport.

The 15 state capitals have been linked by an extensive air network used mainly by the national carrier, Nigeria Airways, and a host of private charter firms. All 15 airports are equipped to handle night flights and most are

capable of taking large commercial aircraft. The nation's oil producing areas are regularly serviced by charter airlines that use a number of airports built to factilitate the operations of the oil companies and the support firms whose activities keep the wheels of Nigeria's economy going. But due to financial constraints, airport development stagnated in 1984. Numerious projects were shelved and maintenance of existing facilities was limited. Nevertheless, the Nigerian Aiports Authority completed two new projects in 1984 costing US 9.5-million terminal buildings at Yola and Sokoto airports.

The projects that were suspended include the building of the control towers at Jos and Benin airports as well as the proposed airports at Ajaokuta, Akure,, Bauch, Katsina, Makurdi, Onitsha and Owerri. (South, the Third World Magazine, October.) 1985, No.60 P. 69 - 73.

APPENDIX H

NIGERIAN CULTURAL PATTERNS AND THEIR HISTORICAL ORIGIN

Fulani

The Fulani people live in a great area of West Africa between Senegal and Northern Cameroon. Traditionally they do not live in towns, but more about with their herds of cattle, according to the season where there is a good pasture. Many 'cow Fulani or bororje still live like this. In the Northern parts of Nigeria they exchange their cattle milk and cheese for example, for agricultural products from other people. The Fulani in this way supply 90% of Nigeria's Northern States and of other surrounding countries, and they have mixed closely with the Hausa and other peoples there.

The original home of the Fulani may have been the Senegal River valley and the Eastern Guinea area, and they expanded eastwards from about the 12th century. Many Fulani people become Muslims at an early date, and they played an important part in spreading Islam by teaching and by war over West Africa. The most famous Islamic war or jihad was led by Usman Dan Fodio.

It was against traditional rules who failed to follow and support Islam in the North of Nigeria and surrounding areas. Between 1804 and 1812 the Fulani established control over Adamawa, Bauchi, Daura, Gombe, Hadejia, Ilorin, Kano

Katsina, Kazaure, Misau, Nupe, Zaria, and later Jama'are and Kontagora. Fulani Emirs replaced the former rulers of the emirates, and they were all united for a time under the rule of Shehu Dan Fodio from his capital at Sokoto. Islam was more firmly established, but the political power of Sokoto had become weak by the end of the 19 century. Between 1900 and 1910 the former Fulani empire was conquered by British colonial forces.

The oral (unwritten) literature of the Fulani includes legends, traditional stories, and historical records, which are all regerred to as taali. There are many types of songs for leaders, Love sons, and songs in praise of cattle for example. Professional singers also perform songs about topical events.

There is also a strong tradition of Islamic verse, written in the Arabic script. A number of verses in praise of the great 19th century Muslim leader AL-HAJJ UMAR is one of the best-known pieces of literature in Fulani. (African Encyclopedia,' 1974). Oxfore University Press Page 216-217.

Hausa:

Hausa is one of the most widely-spoken languages in Africa. It is the main language of the Niger Republic and of the Northern parts of Nigeria, and is commonly spoken in other parts of West Africa where groups of Hausa people have

travelled for trade. It is often used as a common language by groups of people in these areas whose first language is not understood by other local communities.

The early city-states of the Hausa in what are now the Northern States of Nigeria, were established by about the 13th century. The traditional story of Baya Jidda explains how the original 7 States (the Hausa Bokwoi) were established. Baya jidda, a prince from the middle East (according to some local traditions) arrived in Daura and killed a snake which had stopped people drawing water from the well. The green of Daura married Bayadidda, and their 7 sons became rulers of Daura, Rano, Gobir, Zazzau and Katsina.

Beyond the original Hausa Bokwoi were other states and regions Gwari, Kebbi, Kwararafa, Nupe, Yauri, and Zamfara.

In the early 19th century, most of the Hausa states were captured in the jihads of Usman Dan Fodio. Fulani rule was established. Soon after the end of the 19th century, the Fulani emirates were conquered by the British forces of Lord Lugard, and became part of the British protectorate of Northern Nigeria.

Hausa has a rich tradition or 'oral literature' There are many animal stories and fables, and there are also myths - which give explanations of historical events. Written literature began about 200 years ago, with the use of the Arabic script (ajami) especially for religious writing.

There is much modern writing in Hausa, such as the well-known novels of Alhaji Abubakar Imam, and historical and political works. Many modern writers use the Roman alphabet called Boko in Hausa, but must religious writing is done in ajami.

Poetry in Hausa is often called waka, this can also refer to songs. Oral poetry is a very old tradition of the Hausa people. It is performed with music by professional singing poets (mawaka). The poems either contain praise (Yabo), or they can mock and make fun of their subjects, in (Zambo). The subjects of poetry may be great men and rulers who pay the poets and performers. Poems may also be about farming, hunting, polities and wrestling, and are sometimes specially made up for religious ceremonial occasions.

The most important musical instrument used with oral poetry is the talking drum (Kalangu), which can imitate the different tones of the human voice.

Stringed instruments such as the molo and garaya also provide music with the poetry. (African Encyclopedia Op. cit,) Page 243-244).

Igbo

The Igbo (Ibo) people are one of the 3 main peoples of Nigeria. Most of them live in East-Central State, where the density is the highest in West Africa. There are also many Igbo people in the surrounding states. They have occupied the areas since before A.D. 800, and the acheological remains

at IGBO UKWU show that civilized societies have existed in the region for many centuries.

The Igbo people are mostly farmers, who grow yams, cocoyams, maize, and cassava. They also produce and market oil palm products, and are energetic traders. There is also a tradition among the Igbo of skilled wood-carrying and pottery. Many Igbo groups are well known for their music, dancing, the tradition of painting their bodies, and their sports such as wrestling.

In general, Igbo society was not controlled in the past by any central authority. Political decisions and public affairs were discussed at village meetings where all people were free to speak. Men who were respected because of their abilities, wealth, or wisdom had particular influence, and such men held staffs of authority (ofo).

Traditional religion included belief in a great 'creator God', Chukwu Okike; respect for dead ancestors (mmuo); and belief in other spiritual forces. Ancient Igbo rituals included the ceremonies connected with yam production (Ifejioku).

The Igbo people can be divided into various groups. The Southern Igbos of the Owerri-Ngwa region have strong traditional mmuo societies and a system of titles in their community. They live in scattered homestead or compounds, which make up villages, these are grouped together under the names of towns.

In the North, the communities of the Nnewi-Nsukka area have distinctive Ozo titles. The region was probably dominated by the Eze Nri (rulers of Nri). Their political and ritual authority was probably greatest by the 13th - 14th centuries.

In the East, the Aro Igbos developed a great commercial empire based on the Atlantic slave-trade with Europeans in the 18th Century. Their famous oracle, the 'long Juju' of Aro Chukwu was used to promote the trade as late as the 19 century. Later, trade in oil-palm products replaced slave trading.

West of the Niger, some of the Igbo groups (for example at Agbor) have a tradition of more centralized authority of 'kinship' than most others.

The Igbo language is slpken by the Igbo peoples of the East Central State of Nigeria, as well as in parts of the mid-Western and Rivers States. People in different areas speak slightly different dialects of the language. However, the language is generally grouped together with the 'Kwa' family, which also includes the Yoruba and Akaw languages.

Not much Igbo literature has been written until recently, but there is a very rich oral literature including proverbs. People who can use proverbs shilfully and wisely in various situations are respected for it.

On special occasions, such as the traditional second burial of an important man, singers perform song which are usually made up specially for the occasion. These are combined with music and dancing, and are called nkwa.

The folk stories of folk songs (called Ife) are traditionally told and performed on moon lit nights. Many of these traditional stories are about animals and birds. The hero is often the clever tortoise, and his enemy is often the leopard. (African Encyclopedia Op. cit, Page 260).

Kanuri:

The Kanuri people live mainly in the region of Lake Chad, in the North Eastern State of Nigeria, and the Eastern part of Niger Republic. They are mostly farmers, and depend traditionally on crops such as guinea corn and groundnuts. The farm land is cultivated with large iron hoes, and its fertility is improved with animal manure and by irrigation where possible. Cattle, sheep, and goats are also kept, and fishing is important in Lake Chad. Trading and crafts such as making cotton cloth and pottery are also a part of the traditional economy.

The Kanuri people live in small agricultural villages, but there are also larger market centres and commercial towns. The traditional political authority in the village is the Chief with a Council of elders, but the Kanuri have

also had a strong tradition of contralized political authority and state organisation. The great empire of Bornu was a major power of the sudan region of West Africa in the 14th - 16th centuries, and again in the 19th century, and had a strong army of horsemen and a well organised system of administration by government officials. Islam has for many centuries been the religion of most of the people, and its laws and customs have influenced many aspects of their life. (African Encyclopedia Op. cit Page 286).

Yoruba:

The Yoruba people are one of the 3 largest groups of people of Nigeria, and live mainly in the Western, Lagos and Kwara States. There are several different groups, such as the Oyo, Ekiti, Egba, Ijebu, and others in Dahomey, but they all speak versons of the same language. There are also some Yoruba people in Western Brazil, where their ancestors were taken as slaves in the 17th and 18th centuries. According to a local myth, the ancestors of the Yoruba people were sent down by God of IFE, which is the traditional religious centre of the Yoruba. The Oba (Kings) of the other main Yoruba towns and states all owe respect to the Oni (ruler) of Ife.

The Yoruba people are traditionally farmers who grow yams, cassava, maize, and cocoyams, oil-palm products are also important. Cattle are not generally kept in the forest area. Many farmers live in large towns and travel to their

farms in the surrounding area each day. Trade is important and there are many great markets where local products such as cloth, pottery, and leather goods, as well as agricultural products, are sold.

During the 17th century the leading Yoruba state was Oyo. Its empire was destroyed by the rise of other Yoruba States in the South, and by attackes from the Fulani in the 19th century. This caused many Yoruba people to move southwards into the forest areas. Then, by the middle of the 19th century, competition for trade with Europeans at the coast caused wars over the Yoruba areas. At the same time, the powerful new towns of Ibadan and Abeokuta developed.

The Yoruba language is spoken by more than 10 million people. It uses tones, and is generally grouped as one of the 'kwa' languages of West Africa. There are regional dialects of Yoruba, which vary, as between Egba in the West and Ekiti to the East, but there is also a 'standard' Yoruba which is generally taught in schools, and which is used in books and on the radio.

Yoruba culture is rich in poetry. Most of it has survived by oral tradition. It has not been written down until recently, but it has always been learnt for use on traditional occasions.

One of the must important forms of this poetry is the Oriki (praise Song). Oriki are used on various occasions, such as the naming of a newly-born child, in traditional religions ceremonies, or even to describe animals and plants. Many Oriki are performed on the Yoruba 'talking drum'. These drums do not simply accompany the human voice, they can be made to 'speak' by imitating the complicated tones and mythms of Yoruba speech.

Oriki are often used as parts of Ijala, which are traditional Songs of the Yoruba hunters. Ijala may be song during festivals in praise of Ogun (the traditional Yoruba God of war and iron). or they may be chanted by farmers while they work on their land. Ijala are also used in social traditional festivals. Another form of traditional verse is rara which are generally recited by women on occasions of such as wedding.

Iwi are traditionally sung by masked dancers at festivals for ancestors. Nowadays, Iwi may also include humorous comments on facts, events, and people, and may imitate different animals. Odu are verses learnt and recited by the priests of Ifa for the purpose of DIVINATION. OFOR and Ogede are songs used to produce magic. Ege are songs of lamentation for famous men.

Yoruba poetry in basically social and ceremonial, unlike much European poetry which is written down and read

privately, and deals with private feelings and problems. Yoruba poetry helps to bind together society as a whole, joining people together to celebrate and confirm theor common experiences, responsibilities and traditions.

Written literature in Yoruba has developed since 1852, when Samuel Ajayi Crowther produced the first Grammer and Vocabulary of Yoruba. To show differences in sound, marks are put under certain letters, as in the nord Oko. (African Encyclopedia Op cit, Pages 548-549)

Efik

The Efik language is basically one of a group of languages of the Efik and Ibibio peoples of South-Eastern Nigeria. The other local languages include Anang, Eket, Ibibio, and Oron. Efik has become the most important language in the area because it has been widely used for trade along the Cross River, and also because it has been important in Education since the establishment of the presbyterian mission in Calabar in 1846.

In the Efik language there are many traditional stories, proverbs, and riddles, which are referred to as Ke. Stories called mbuk concern Efik history, religious traditions, and also fables in which the tortoise often tricks other animals. There are also different types of songs, such as the ase which is a praise song for a dead person. (African Encyclopedia, Op. cit, Page 182).

APPENDIX I

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

ECOWAS Milestone

From May 27 to 29 the leaders for the 16 member countries of the Community of West African States, better know by the acronym of ECOWAS, will be meeting in Cotonou, capital of the People's Republic of Benin, for their annual summit. Officially it is described as the fifth summit since the formal establishment of the organisation in 1978, but it is the seventh time the ECOWAS heads of State have met, and this is the seventh anniversary of the signing of the Treaty of Lagos on May 28. 1975. Stocktaking would thus seem in order.

This magazine has therefore collected a number of articles on ECOWAS, including vital problem areas like trade and monetary co-operation, as well as an extended interview with one of the "founding fathers".

The question of trade is clearly the most sensitive (see article on page 1369) and one by which ECOWAS could still stand or fall. The Calendar for the implementation of trade liberalization has already been delayed, and could meet with new objections in Cotonou, particularly from those smaller groupings within ECOWAS, especially the CEAO

(Communaute Economique de I'Afrique de I'Ouest) but also the Mano River Union. Much will depend on the goodwill of member states and their real desire to over come obstacles in the wider interest of West African co-operation. Another issue which has been causing difficulties in the vexed issue of free movement of peoples. The alleged influx of ECOWAS citizens has been the subkect of a certain popular outcry in Nigeria at the movement, and although there is some confusion about who is who (Chadian refugees, for example, are in no way due to ECOWAS), and it can be argued that many of those coming in, and all the illegal entrants would have been ther anyway; if this is all ECOWAS means to the man in the street or the field, disappointment is understandable.

It may be helpful to indicate that there are also large Nigerian Communities in places like Ivory Coast, to illustrate that such movement has mutuel benefits. But the deeper point is that ECOWAS needs to be looked at in a much wider context, and until that context is visible, the friations over a relatively limited area like freeing movement are bound to continue.

For the last month, a whole series of Commission in different subjects, for example, such as transport and telecommunications, energy, industry, trade and agriculture have been meeting in Cotonou, followed by a meeting of

Ministers of Agriculture, and prior to the summit, the ECOWAS Council of Ministers is finalising proposals for the summit.

None of this is headline catching. But when we learn that in the transport field a system of ECOWAS "brown cards" for motor in insurance is to be approved, to give drivers sub-regional cover: and that other conventions regulating and harmonising transport arrangements in the sub-region: (such as size of vehicles): that in the area of telecommunications a large contract is in the process of being put out to tender, with all the funding already organised and that this will be the first major utilisation of the ECOWAS Fund (see article on page 1369): that the assembled agriculture Ministers have drawn up a framework-agreement on regional strategy in the field of agriculture, with a particular objective of self-sufficiency: add to that, the first important initiatives being taken in the field of energy co-operation after last year's adoption of an energy programme, as well as the proposed adoption of a mineral programme.

The obstacles are still profound. The linguistic barriers, relics of the colonial past, have been from the beginning as General Gowon points out in his interview on page 1369 one of the main challenges to the organisation, and one of the main reasons for its existence. The jigsaw

of monetary systems in West Africa, are still major obstacles to real economic co-operation in the sub-region.

What seems to be important at the moment is the creation of the right kind of psychological climate in which co-operation can flourish. This is where the economic approach seems to be the only one that can pay dividends, regardless of politics, as Gowon stresses. There is considerable satisfaction in ECOWAS circles that the new government in Ghana, politically uncertain and economically distressed as it is, should choose this time to pay all its backlog of contributions to ECOWAS, thereby indicating its order of priorities. The ECOWAS Defence Pact, the purpose of which some have questioned, is best seen in this psychological context, as are subsidiary groups such as the West African Chamber of Commerce and other professional organisations, helping to make people ECOWAS-minded.

Thus, mindful of the difficulties currently before the organisation (not for the first time) and conscious of the continuing hopes attached thereto in the sub-region, an unusual and possible uncharacteristics quotation from President Houphouet-Boigny of Ivory Coast, who, as Gowon makes clear, has a remarkable commitment of ECOWAS, from his speech at signing in 1975, seems suitable: "It (ECOWAS) has ended the era of bellicose nationalism and verbal

warfare and ushered in a new era of regional groupings, fruitful with clairvoyance, highlighting the desire of Africa to liberate herself from colonial yokes".
(West Africa, No. 3383, May 24th 1982, P.1359).

BADEA: The Challenge of the Eighties.

The Priority for Farming and Rural Development

LAST YEAR was memorable for the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (Badea). It marked the completion of 10 years of financial assistance to non-Arab African Developing countries, in the course of which the Bank had committed nearly $900 million for a large number for projects and programmes as part of the Arab contribution to Afro-Arab solidarity.

For external donors, including the Arabs, the disturbing fact had to be faced that the present plight of the African continent could not be prevented even though massive funds had been spent on development of the region since the countries had acceded to their independence.

Much of the Arab aid to Africa has been humanitarian, with a large proportion of funds going towards helping crisis stricken African countries overcome balance of payments and other immediate problems. A great deal of the rest has been for long-term development projects, especially transport and communications project.

It is now widely agreed by the African Governments themselves as well as by the Community of donors that what African most needs is the kind of development which would in future prevent such a crisis as was witnessed last year. Assistance towards improved food production is now seen as vital. It is now seen as particularly important to assist more significantly projects which are likely to prove of direct and immediate benefit to the ordinary people in African countries, especially in rural areas. At the same time, technical assistance must be strengthened to enable the Africans themselves to improve their project appraisals and economic management.

Badea's loan and grant allocations in 1985, which benefited 18 countries and were worth a total of $73.78m, endeavoured to reflect these new orientations. A total of six project-aid commitments will directly assit farming, food supplies and rural development.

A loan of $6m to Zimbabwe has gone towards building seven grain silos throughout the country, giving a total capacity of 300,000 tons. Zimbabwe is one of the few African countries achieving surpluses of cereals, especially maize, for export to other African countries. But post-harvest losses (which can be prevented by better storage) have been serious, particularly in the Communal Areas where anything up to 40 per cent of the crop can be lost.

Niger received a loan of $4m for animal husbandry, designed to substantially increase the country's meat and milk production and create permanent employment for hundreds of people. As part of the project, new irrigation wells will be sunk, something of particular significance to a country which is exceptionally prone to drought and desertification.

In Guinea, small-scale fisheries and fish farming will be helped by a loan of $10m. The project, to the cost of which Badea is contributing one third, is expected to result in a nine-fold increase in fish landings, as well as improved fish handling and preservation. A new boatyard is among the items included in a long list of project components, whose implementation is expected to bring an economic return of 44 per cent a year.

Madagascar was allocated a facility of $3.5m for palm plantations and a construction of a palm oil factory for direct benefit to about 35,000 people. The loan will also improve the country's balance of payments, presently burdened by high edible oil imports.

In Congo new rubber plantations capable of yielding 7,500 tonnes of latex a year for export will be set up by a project to which Badea is contributing a loan of $8.5m. Creation of up to 1,000 new jobs and resettlement of up to 750 families in three new villages are among the other

benefits of the loan. It will also boost the economy generally in Nakoua, a particularly disadvantaged region in the North of the country.

In Senegal, rural electrification will be assisted by a loan of $4m to install transformer stations and stations and transmission lines serving the supply of current to four villages while improving electrification in other areas. The electrification programme, which is co-financed by Badea, will reduce reliance on imports of kerosene and the use of wood as fuel. Development of agricultural and agro-industrial pursuits will be stepped up as more electric energy is available.

Also of benefit to the agricultural sector (as well as small-scale industries) will be a credit line of $6m which was extended to the Uganda Development Bank to be re-lent to production units throughout the country.

Three road projects are featured in Badea's 1985 lending portfolio; in Rwanda ($7.6m), Kenya (6.82m) and Benin ($8m). In all cases, agriculture and food security are among major considerations for the allocations, as well as the urgent need to build or reconstruct nationally and regionally important communication arteries.

One $4.7m loan to Guinea-Bissau will, in conjuction with money supplied by other sources, enable the rehabilitation and expansion of the thermal power station in the country's capital, Bissau. This will have spin-off economic benefits, including the promotion of small-scale industries and improvement of living conditions and security in the area.

A record sum of $1.640m was approved for technical assistance grants. These will benefit six countries and institutions. In Togo and Cape Verde, pre-investment studies into agriculture and fisheries projects will be fin financed, while the International Crop Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics is to receive a grant of $500,000 to establish a centre in the Sahel to promote local agriculture. A grant of 250,000 dollars has also been made for a pre-investment study on river transport in Niger, while $100,000 has been allocated to Zimbabwe and $190,000 to the National Bank of Angola to provide expertise in road management and investment administration respectively. In the latter two cases the agreements stipulate that preference should be accorded to Arab experts.

Finally, 1985 saw for the first time - and exceptionally - aid being extended to a country which is member of the Arab Community, Sudan. The country has been helped with a grant of $3m to buy transport equipment needed

to carry relief supplies to drought and famine-affected areas and populations, including those from neighbouring countries.

A feature of last year's commitment was its concessionality, with the average terms for loans being the softest for five years. This is despite the fact that loan conditions have been stiffened elsewhere on international financial markets. Badea's loans in 1985 had an average maturity of 16.1 years (14.4 in 1984), grace periods of 4.5 years (3.6 years in 1984) and an average interest rate of six per cent (6.6 per cent in 1984).

New African No. 223 April, 1986, pg. 37-38).

Whatever Happened to the Common Fund?

Nothing is more fundamental to the creation of a New International Economic Order than workable commodity pacts. Binding agreements to stabilise commodity prices and regulate international trade should, in theory, benefit producers and consumers alike.

The greater part of the developing world's export earnings come from commidities, usually exported unprocessed. All too many countries are heavily dependent on exports of just one commodity. There are many examples of such dependency in Africa: Zambia is reliant on copper exports, the Gambia's economy is based on ground nut sales, and most of Chad's export earnings come from cotton.

Developing economies are vulnerable to the notorious instability of commodity markets. Prices of crop commodities such as cocoa and coffee are affected by weather and by consumption patterns. The fortunes of those commodities used as industrial raw materials - rubber, and base metals such as copper - are crucially dependent on the economic well-being of the industrialised countries. Trends in commodity markets are further complicated by speculators, who buy and sell on futures markets.

Commodity-producing countries have a lot to gain from a programme which could guarantee agreed prices for their exports. Their terms of trade would improve, and stable foreign exchange earnings would facilitate greater economic planning. This is the general idea behind the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) Common Fund.

But progress on the Coomon Fund and on the terms of various International Commodity Agreements (ICAs) is now hamstrung by policy differences between consuming and producing nations, between North and South.

The Fourth Session of UNCTAD in Nairobi in 1976 adopted an Integrated Programme for Commodities. The ambitious aim of this exercise is, to quote the resolution, "to eliminate economic imbalance between developed and developing countries".

Under the Integrated Programme, ICAs are to be concluded covering, in the first instance, eighteen key commodities; coffee, tea, cocoa, sugar, rubber, jute, hard fibres, cotton, copper, tin, manganese, phosphates, iron ore, bauxite, tropical timber, vegetable oils, meat and bananas. A Common Fund will finance commodity buffer stocks which can intervene on commodity markets to keep prices within an agreed range - buying to stop prices falling below a certain level and selling when prices rise too steeply.

UNCTAD originally estimated that Common Fund of US $6,000m would be needed. In fact, the Fund's initial capital will be much more modest - roughly $400m to finance price stabilisation measures, and some $350m in a second account to promote commodity - related research and development projects in producing countries.

This shrunken Common Fund, and technical limitations on its credit - raising powers, have cast doubts on the success of the Integrated Programme. These doubts have been intensified by the over-ambitious ratification requirements. To get off the ground, the buffer stock financing fund needs to be ratified by ninety countires who would contribute two-thirds of its planned capital. This goal is not yet within sight of realisation - though the prospects for the second account are brigher.

It is an irony that International Commodity Agreements are perhaps faring less well now than they were at the time of the Nairobi Conference. Four ICAs - those for tin, cocoa, coffee and sugar - predate the Integrated Programme. All these are facing troubled times, and negotiations for the revision of the time and cocoa pacts have seen sharp divisions among the producing countries and between producers and consumers. (Africa Now, August 1981, Pg.86).

APPENDIX J

EVALUATION CHECKLIST:

Directions:

This forms is an evaluation checklist for a programme. Place a tick ⁄ in the column (whether strongly, moderately, or hardly at all) that best answers your questions (as provided under the specific Guidlines). After all questions are classified total the number of ticks in each column and determine the percentage of each type of response. How did you find the programme?

S/No.	SPECIFIC GUIDELINES	RATING		
		Hardly at all	Modera tely	Strongly
1.	Are Students involved in the formlation of goals, the selection of activities, and the assessment of curriculum out comes? S. T.			
2.	Are objectives carefully selected and formulated? R. T.			
3.	Are knowledge, abilities and social participation all represented in the objective of the programme? S. T.			

S/NO	SPECIFIC GUIDELINES	RATING		
		Hardly at all	Moderately	Strongly
4.	Are general statement of goals translated into specific objectives concerned in terms of behaviour and content? R. T.			
5.	Are classroom Instruction and materials objectives R. T. O.			
6.	Does Classroom instruction enable students to see their goals clearly in brief instructional sequence and lengthy unit of study? T. S.			
7.	Are objectives reconsidered and revised periodically? R. T.			
8.	Do Students hava a wide and rich range of learning activities appropriate to the objective of this programme? R. T.			
9.	Do activities include formulating by Hypotheses and testing them by gathering and analysing data? R. T. O.			
10.	Do activities involve students in their communities? S. T. C.			
11.	Are learning activities sufficiently varied and flexible? T. S.			

S/NO	SPECIFIC GUIDELINES	RATING		
		Hardly at all	Moderately	Strongly
12.	Do students perceive other students as follow inquires? S. T.			
13.	Are activities carried on in a climate which supports student's self-respect and open opportunities for all? S. T. C.			
14.	Are activities supported by a wealth of appropriate instruction resources? R. T. O.			
15.	Do activities use the school and community as a learning laboratory? T. C. C.			
16.	Are activities organised in such fashion that students learn how to continue to learn? R. O.			
17.	Is evaluation based primarily on the school's own statement of objectives? R.			
18.	Does assessment include progess in knowledge, abilities, and participation?			
19.	Does evaluation data come from many source inside and outside the classroom? R.			