

**EFFECT OF A PARTICIPATORY VOTER EDUCATION PROGRAMME
ON SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' POLITICAL KNOWLEDGE
AND ATTITUDE IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA**

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Education)
University of Fort Hare

By

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2018

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my Darling wife, Mrs. Kehinde Adepeju Dada for remaining my inspiration and guiding star.

And

The memory of my ever studious Late Father, Chief M.J Dada whose dream for my life became fulfilled after his demise, may his soul; peacefully continue its resting in the Lord.
(Amen)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I give thanks to the Almighty God for His mercies that endure forever throughout the course of this study. The Holy one of Israel, who promised that I will not be stranded during the programme in a foreign land and brought it to past, I return all the glory, honour and adoration back to a God of fulfillment and covenant keeping.

I am extremely grateful to my Teacher, Mentor, Pastor and Supervisor- Professor Emmanuel Olusola Adu for the role he played throughout my academic pursuit in life. I reminiscence into my days at the prestigious University of Ibadan where I had my Bachelor (Honours) and Masters' degrees, he has wonderfully guided and imparted on me immensely even outside the scope of just understanding the subject matter. He was my Teacher and Project Supervisor during my Bachelor's degree, nature brought us together again, he supervised my Master's Dissertation. He has finally completed the circle through his painstaking guidance, scholarly and timely reading of the manuscripts from conceptual stage till completion as Supervisor of my Ph.D. Thesis at the University of Fort Hare, East London. Mere words cannot express my appreciation. Thank you for your interest, time, consistence, understanding and support, and for sharing your deep wealth of knowledge.

In the same vein, I cannot but appreciate the woman who sees our success as her own and always ready to share all she has in making us comfortable. She is the heart of my supervisor, Pastor. (Mrs.) Olukemi Adu. I sincerely thank you for your prayers and the words of encouragement I received from you, no doubt, it has formed the bedrock for the attainment of this feat for me, I will be eternally grateful to you Ma.

I also wish to express my profound gratitude to my dear Wife and Mother- Mrs. Kehinde Adepeju Dada for her prayers, love and affection, moral and financial support and more importantly, for holding forth while I was away on this programme. Love you plenty.

My warmest appreciation goes to my wonderful Children "The Triple Joy" for their prayers, understanding and cooperation during my stay outside home in the course of the programme. The Lord will keep and grant your desires.

I cannot but appreciate the audience and support I received from Professor Samuel Oye Bandele and Bar. Akin Arogundade, the Vice-Chancellor and Registrar of the Ekiti State Universty, Ado Ekiti, Nigeria respectively. I'm indeed grateful and loyal sirs.

I wish to acknowledge my friends and colleagues who supported me in one way or the other in the journey of attaining this feat, Mr. Wole Durodola, Mr. Dapo Ilori, Hon. Gbenga Ogunmoroti, Mr. Kunle Balogun, Mr. Bayode Olowolagba, Mr. Remi Akilapa, Mrs Victoria Adebayo, Alhaja Eunice Badmus, Mr. France Falade, Comrade T.A. Aguda, Mr. Dayo Awe, Mr. Olaniyi Dada, Mayor. Ola Ogunkolade, Chief. Lawson Olabode, Otunba B.A Ajayi, Mrs O.O Famiwole, Comrade. Deji Oso, Dr. O.A Ige, Dr. Afolabi Olubela, Dr (Mrs) Ekima Salako and also to my respected senior professional colleagues, High Chief B.A Adeoya, Mr. T.O Fagbemi, Mr. Bodunrin, Sir. W.O Adebayo, Miss. M.B Oritingbeni, Mr. A.O Falade, Mr. A.R Babatunde, Mr. S.O Afolabi, Mr. Akin Adeniji and Mr. J.O Afolabi for their encouragements and support at all time.

My relatives were not left out of the appreciation, Chief. S.O Dada, Engr. Dayo Dada, Hon. Ropo Bamisaye, Mr. Bolaji Awomolaji, Mr. Taiwo Dada, Mr. Kehinde Dada. My siblings; Mrs. Ayodele Matthew, Mrs. Bolanle Abolade, Mrs. Titilope Ogunbayo and their spouses. I thank you all.

I express my gratitude to my colleagues in the University of Fort Hare, East London. These are messrs A.B Titus, Ropo Alalade, Kayode Akadiri, Yinka Falore, Moshood Issa, Alhaja Adeleke, Mrs Eesuola and my Senior and Pastor- Dr. O. Ojo who read through this work and made useful contributions.

I owe my church, the Redeemed Christian Church of God (RCCG) Mercy house, East London and Solution Chapel, Zonal Headquarters, Odo-Ona kekere, Ibadan immense gratitude. I want to specially thank Pastor & Dr. (Mrs) Titus Olaoye (EL) and Pastor and Pastor (Mrs) Abiola Adio (Nig) for their supports and prayers during the period of this programme. I also appreciate every member and the leaders of our local church in Queen's Town and Nigeria who supported me with prayers throughout the course of my programme.

My thanks also go to the staff and students of the various schools involved in the study, also to all the Facilitators and Research Assistants whose efforts are not in small measure in making this work a success.

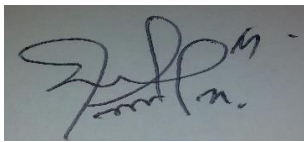
Finally, I am grateful to my in-laws, Igo Estate, Ido Ekiti and Ifegbewasokan Landlord Associations, Odo-Ona kekere, Ibadan. for providing the enabling environment

throughout the period of the programme, I particularly appreciate the chairman of my Faculty defense, Prof. C. Macphosa,

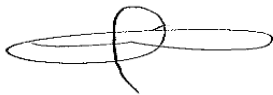
To all, I say thank you and God bless.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis, submitted for the degree Doctor of Philosophy (Education) at the University of Fort Hare, has not previously been submitted to any other university. I further declare that it is my work both in conception and execution, with the exception of quotations and references which have been duly attributed to their authors and sources.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Dada, Adekunle Babatunde', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Dada, Adekunle Babatunde
Student

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Prof Emmanuel O. Adu', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Prof Emmanuel O. Adu
Supervisor

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACCRONYMS

CESAC	- Comparative Education Study Adaptation Centre
FEDECO	- Federal Electoral Commission
FLE	- Formal Learning Environment
ICT	- Information Communication Technology
IIDA	- International Interior Design Association
INEC	- Independent National Electoral Commission
MDG	- Millennium Development Goal
NCSS	- National Council of Social Studies
NEC	- National Electoral Commission
NEEDS	- National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies
NERDC	- Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
NGO	- Non-Governmental Organization
NSSSCP	- Nigerian Secondary School Social Studies Project
SAP	- Structural Adjustment Programme
UPE	- Universal Primary Education
UBE	- Universal Basic Education
UNESCO	- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNDP	- United Nations Development Programmes
VE	- Voter Education
VECKT	- Voter Education Concepts Knowledge Test
VEAS	- Voter Education Attitudinal Scale
WEAN	- Women Education Association of Nigeria

ABSTRACT

Nigeria has been besieged by an array of political, economic and social problems. This became obvious as many Nigerian youths that are said to be future leaders, because of the crucial role played in political and social development of the nation are derailing politically. These young leaders don't just wake up to become leaders in a day; they need to be empowered and their minds need to be redirected through appropriate civic and electoral education in order for them to be strong enough to play their inevitable roles in sustainable national development and electoral processes. The continuous use of teacher-centered strategies portends retardation in teaching-learning processes; as learning outcomes are largely reduced to mere passing of examination; leaving out the essential knowledge, attitude and practice which are required for enhancing responsible citizenry and active political participation of students. The use of conventional method has also led to poor attitude of students to socio-political issues. This study therefore determined the effect of a Participatory Voter Education Programme on Secondary School Students' Political Knowledge and Attitude. It also investigated the moderating effects of location and gender on the dependent variables. The pre-test, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design with a 2x2x2 factorial matrix was adopted for the study. One hundred and fifty-four secondary school two students from the three senatorial districts of Ekiti State were randomly selected for the study using multi-stage random sampling and assigned to experimental and control groups. An intact class sample selection was also employed for the study. Seven null hypotheses were generated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. Four instruments were developed. These were Voter Education Concepts (Political) Knowledge Test (VECKT), Voter Education (political) Attitude Test (VEAS) Instructional Guide for the Participatory Teaching Strategy and, Conventional Teaching Method Guide. The study lasted for ten weeks. Data collected were analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), Estimated Marginal Means (EMM) and graphs. There was a significant effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 1026.945$; $P < 0.05$). The Secondary school students exposed to the participatory Voter Education programme performed better ($\bar{X} = 29.17$) than those exposed to the conventional Method ($\bar{X} = 6.65$). Also there was a significant effect of treatment on Secondary School Students Political Attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 98.970$; $p < 0.05$). Those exposed to participatory Voter Education programme performed better ($\bar{X} = 63.97$) than those in the conventional Method ($\bar{X} = 56.27$). Also, those in the Urban area obtained higher mean Political Knowledge score ($\bar{X} = 19.78$)

than those in the rural area ($\bar{X} = 16.78$). While there were no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. The participatory Voter Education programme is effective in impacting Secondary School Students' political knowledge and attitude. It was, therefore, recommended that the Participatory Voter Education programme be adopted by the Social Studies/ Civic Educators for presenting the political concepts to students in their classroom.

Key Words: Participatory Voter Education Programme, Political knowledge and political attitude Secondary School Students.

Word Count: 483

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background to the study

Ever since democracy came into existence, there has been a tension between consulting all citizens, and the capacity of those citizens, to make properly informed decisions. It is always assumed that one of the most important requirements for the functioning of representative democracy is the existence of knowledgeable citizens. Social Studies as a problem-solving discipline equips an individual with the knowledge, attitude and competencies needed to make meaningful living in the immediate environment, and also to solve the problems of human survival globally (Dada, Titus & Adu, 2016). Swan & Hofer (2013) opined that since human beings live in reality of interdependence principles, social studies programme is therefore, local in content but global in context. The National Council for Social Studies (NCSS, 2010) described Social Studies as an integrated study of many academic disciplines which promotes civic competence in the learners at all stages of education, ranging from Pre-primary to Postgraduate levels. Olubela (2014) explained that the purpose of Social Studies is to help young people (and adult at large) develop the ability to make informed and reasonable decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse and democratic society.

Ajiboye (2010) emphasized that social studies' capacity to absorb new and emerging trends in the society has placed the subject at an auspicious position in accommodating those emerging social, political, economic and other global challenges. Since human nature and problems are not static, so the dynamic approach of social studies education enables it to be used as a carrier subject for integrating most emerging trends such as population and family life education, environmental education, civic and citizenship education, drug abuse education, multicultural education, HIV/AIDS education, peace and security education, legal and law related education, gender-sensitivity and gender-mainstreaming. Olubela (2014) affirmed that social studies does not only provide an education that will meet each student's personal needs, but also will include the study of problematic areas of our society and the perpetuation of democratic values. In view of this, Ajiboye,

Ajitoni and Olubela (2010) and Ogunyemi (2011) asserted that citizenship education is integrated into the social studies curriculum to specifically inculcate national consciousness and unity, as well as the appropriate values and attitudes in the Nigerian citizens.

Citizenship Education as one of the emerging trends in Social Studies curriculum occupies a prominent position in solving the problem of incivility and political ignorance being perceived in the society. (Lee, 2010). In her own submission, the American Sociological Association (2009) describes citizenship education as the teaching of knowledge, skills and dispositions needed to become a responsible and effective citizen of a Country. Citizenship Education is specifically designed in content function to produce, healthy, good and active citizen, wherein a good citizen is seen as patriotic, responsible, disciplined and conscientious, morally sound with love for his/her country.

The politics of a Nation is the sum of the character and attitude of a given people to national life (Magstadt, 2009). In essence, democratic practices and good governance flourish in an environment where political elites possess the required leadership skills anchored on the tenets of democracy and constitution (Bropy & Alleman, 2008). Therefore, whichever form of government is practiced in a country, whether presidential or parliamentary or any other form, government exists for the protection of the rights, liberties and sovereignty of its citizens. Government also entails the creation of an enabling environment for prosperity, as well as the control and distribution of state resources. To attain political development therefore, it is imperative that citizens participate in government's decision-making processes. This presupposes that the citizens are politically informed, enlightened and proactive. The needed citizenship knowledge, values and skills are undoubtedly transmitted through social studies programme.

Whereas, in situations where the population is ill-informed or disenfranchised to productively participate in socio-political activities, it is certain that such a country would be retrogressive or backward among the comity of nations. This situation could be said of the present political dispensation in Nigeria. Interaction with students reveals a growing sense of disenchantment with all levels of government and distrust in government's policies and programmes (Ijalaye, 2009). Onike

(2013) explained that a majority of students would not want to participate in politics, while those who even participated in electioneering activities are used for electoral fraud and violence. Many of the youths who would not compromise are either harassed or marginalized. Iyamu & Otote (2008) observe that, while many of today's political leaders were elected as youths into various positions in the past, the Nigerian youths are now marginalized and deprived of political appointments and electoral positions. Even upon graduation, there is little or no hope for gainful employment for them, and this contributes largely to youths' restiveness and national insecurity.

Youths in Sub-Sahara Africa are said to constitute an important constituency for electoral mobilization in spite of the fact that African youth make up 70% of the region's population; they are still found to be less engaged in partisan politics for a variety of reasons (Olubela, 2008). This is evident in the presidential poll conducted in Zimbabwe, Kenya and Cote d'ivoire where the electoral violence was perpetrated by the party youth groups. (Olubela, 2015)

There has been growing anxiety within government circles that people in Britain are becoming increasingly disengaged from formal political process and from democratic institutions (Ministry of Justice 2007). This concern became noticeable largely in the recent decline in voter participation rates where the election turnout has taken a steep downwards, and this is noted at the landmark general election of 2010 where only 65% of the eligible electorate voted, comparing this figure with the previous general election outcome where electoral participation was 75% in 1987, 78% in 1992 and 71% in 1997 (British Electoral Commission, 2005). As a result of the foregoing, Franklin (2012) conducted an extensive international analysis of electoral trends and found that age in Britain like other countries is a significant predictor of turnout.

Henn and Alviar-Martin (2008) in his attempt to differentiate the involvement of young people from older contemporaries in election turnout discovered that the young people have comparatively lower level of political knowledge than their older contemporaries. Also, Sloam (2007) and Tilley (2013) in their studies found out that young people's level of political participation is declining at a faster rate than the case with older adults. Furthermore, there is evidence that young people's

disengagement from politics is more pronounced than it was for previous cohorts. Young people between ages of 15 and 25 constituted a fifth of the world's population who are often involved in informal, politically relevant processes such as activism or civic engagement (Henn & Alviar Martin, 2008). Tilley (2013) concluded that instead for the youth to actively participate and be relevant in elections which would have improve the quality of their democratic governance they were busy with activities that were capable of throwing their political system into oblivion.

The United Nations Development Programmes sees youth as a positive force for transformative social change and therefore of the opinion to help enhance youth political participation, I guess, this is what prompted the former Secretary General of the United Nations to submit that;

No one is born a good citizen; no nation is born a democracy rather, both are processes that continue to evolve over a life time. Young people must be included from the birth. A society that cuts itself from its youth severs its life time; it is condemned to bleed to death (Kofi Annan 2013:4.)

In international arena, the civic engagement of youth and youth friendly political parties are considered to be important building blocks, that is, if education for active citizenship will be most effective, then students should not only read about it in textbooks, but also try it out themselves. (Participatory)

From the foregoing, the inclusion of youth in formal politics is considered imperative based on the encouragement demonstrated by the international community through its several international conventions organised to improve the youth participation in politics and civic education in schools and Universities.

In Indian, students were allowed to directly participate in school affairs while in Kyrgyzstan, a democracy camp was arranged to re-orientate High School students from rural area about their democratic values, leadership skills, teamwork, roles as citizens and how to advocate for change in their society. In Turkey, supports were also given to youth in a disadvantaged neighbourhood of Istanbul to be active and awake to their responsibilities. In the same vein, the Civil Society Organizations (CSO) initiated the use of resources available such as teachers, students and public policy process to teach lessons on civic participation and give the young

people the opportunities to become change makers. Also in Switzerland, the National Youth Council organised a multi-partisan mentoring training for her youths, Cambodia was not left out as it embarked on an ongoing multimedia civic education campaign as a result of youth's political derailment in Asia (IIDEA, 2013).

In USA, the combination of the limited civics knowledge by the nation's students and the low overall rates of voting and civic disengagement by the American youths were reported by Williams (2011) who submitted that the most serious danger Americans may likely face is that the country's future may not end up well in the hands of those citizenry who are capable of sustaining the liberty that has been their most precious legacy if the attention of the nation's young people are not as a matter of urgency redirected through classroom civics instruction that would lead to the acquisition of greater political knowledge.

In South Africa, Tracey (2013) reported that South Africa's youth is seen as a lost generation, one with no cause or political purpose, an apathetic generation. In the same vein, he found out that young people make up a large proportion of voters in South Africa, understanding their feelings about voting will provide insight into the way the youth feel about democratic participation. South Africa is endowed with a very young population with approximately 73 percent of its inhabitants under the age of 39. (South Africa Statistics, 2013), however, the little or no interest of South Africa youths was noticed barely nine months to the conduct of national elections where about 4million first-time potential voters were yet to be registered as voters (Lauren, 2013).

Nigeria has been besieged by an array of political, economic and social problems; such as ethnic crises, loss of value, negative attitude to national issues, lack of patriotism, political gansterism, immoral conduct and so on (Iyamu & Otete, 2008). In line with this, Fabiyi (2009) stated that there is a general neglect of civic duties by citizens and public officers, dishonesty, unpatriotic and disloyal practices among the rank and file of Nigeria citizenry. He added that many Nigerians are not law abiding, not honest and not dedicated to their duties. Kehinde- Awoyele & Jekayinfa (2012) also perceived that Nigerian youths had been fingered to be at the nerve centre of the social, economic and political problems facing the country. Fabiyi (2009) opined that Nigeria is currently facing the problem of incivility and

immorality. Mofoluwawo, Jarimi & Oyedele (2012) observed that youth incivility has become the order of the day, while civic virtues in all spheres of life have totally declined. The incessant cult activities in the country and the recent menace of 'Boko Haram' are the attested facts. More so, Fabiyi (2009) stressed that experiences have shown that students are finding it increasingly difficult to live and lead desirable ways of life, particularly in the areas of human relationships, responsibility, respect, obedience and orderliness. Generally, their level of civility has remained low, a phenomenon attributable largely to the lapses of school and home.

Events of the recent past have indicated that Nigeria is facing the trend of losing its much cherished sense of nationhood, cultural identity and indeed, hospitable spirit (Agu, 2009). There is the need for urgent value re-orientation and engagement of the youths in a more articulated way through civic education because of the far reaching impact of these negative trends on national development. Azebamwan (2010) noted that the need arises for Nigeria to seek solution to pressing problems of national importance. The solution is to create a society where there is unity, peace, tolerance, honesty, respect for human dignity and patriotism (Mofoluwawo et al, 2012). More than ever before, Nigeria as a nation now needs democratically experienced and matured youths who will be leaders of tomorrow with much credibility, strong in character, ready to discharge responsibilities, defend their rights, and understand the country's constitution, politics, ethics, religion, and economy (Kehinde-Awoyele & Jekayinoluwa, 2012). In order to do these, there is the need to prepare learners, who are the leaders of tomorrow for the nation building. Azebamwan (2010) opined that citizens need to be taught in order to achieve lasting solution, because this solution may not be developed without stimulus or unaided. Kehinde-Awoyele & Jekayinoluwa (2012) buttress this view, by noting that there is an urgent need to create in learners, knowledge, right attitude and skills needed to be good citizens for a better Nigeria.

In Nigeria, education has been adopted as one of the instruments with which to effect national development; instrument that is usually employed in seeking lasting solution to pressing national problems. In 1977, the Federal Government issued a National Policy on Education, which was reviewed in year 2004. This policy clearly

stated the role education was expected to play in national development. It was believed that one of the objectives of education is to achieve democratic goal of the society (Ajiboye, 2008). This was the reason for the introduction of civic education in Nigeria. Civic education is one subject that specifically aimed at inculcating national consciousness and unity as well as the right type of values, knowledge, skills and attitudes in the Nigerian child (Ajiboye, 2008). This also collaborated with Akinjide (2008), who stated that the prosperity of a country depends not on the abundance of its revenue, or on the strength of its fortification, nor on the beauty of its public buildings, but it consists in the number of its cultivated citizens, in its men of education, enlightenment and character, hence a need for a programme of school curriculum for the development of desirable citizenship. Moral values and beliefs are generally accorded a higher order of importance in civilized societies such as America and Europe, and civic education has been seen as an option for promoting civic consciousness among the youths (Blowgun, 2008).

It was in this context of developing long-term solutions and addressing the roots of the social, economic and political problems, that the civic education curriculum for the Universal Basic Education (UBE) levels (Lower, Middle and Upper primary, as well as Junior Secondary), has been developed (Adeniyi, 2007). Civic education is a subject that deals with socialization or training of the mind of citizens in respect to their daily relations with government and other citizens (Mofoluwawo et.al. 2012). Ajiboye (2008) defined civic education as explicit and continuing study of the basic concepts and values underlying our democratic community and constitutional order. It remains an important means of teaching the populace about individual rights and what duties and responsibilities the governed and leaders should have. The introduction of civic education as a subject to be taught at the primary and secondary schools in Nigeria is expected to further deepen democratic culture and encourage qualitative participation of the average Nigerian in the governance process (Jekayinfa, Mofoluwawo & Oladiran, 2010). It could be argued that there were already some subjects in the school which teach aspects of civic education, but it was observed that these subjects placed emphasis on the theoretical learning, whereas in the teaching of civic education, students should be able to put what they have learnt into actions through various activities (Ajiboye, 2008). Before now, elements of civic education were being taught as part of social

studies, but these contents were disarticulated from their “homestead” in order to provide operational definition of civic education that will enable the nation to determine and achieve its objectives in concrete and measurable terms (Adeniyi, 2007).

Adeniyi (2007) stated that the essence of civic education is to train individuals to be proper members of the community. The education of the citizens about their place in nation building is, therefore, very important as it enhances political literacy among the Nigerian people. This process will in turns promote national integration and facilitate effective development through the creation of a strong desire and feeling for patriotism as well as loyalty to the political system. According to Adeniyi (2007), objectives of civic education are; to enhance political literacy among the Nigerian people, to create a deep sense of awareness of the fundamental rights of citizens, to expose students to the knowledge of the Nigerian constitution and its operations, to provide essential knowledge on democracy, to sensitize the people to the role of government as well as citizens’ obligations and duties, to enhance human development and promotion of reasonable self-assurance among the citizens through the teaching of good values and morals in order to become responsible people of the state and to serve as a reversal of the colonial situation where Nigerians were compelled to accept European values, preferences, and world views.

There has been a growing concern that schools are not doing enough to foster civic competence in students. Studies of recent generation of students suggest that learners are less informed about public affairs and are generally less interested in participating in politics than the generations before them (Falade 2007). They also displayed a lack of understanding of what it means to be a citizen in a democratic society, emphasizing the rights of citizens rather than the responsibilities. Our concern today therefore should be to fill the gaps by exposing Nigerian students to appropriate learning experiences and activities that would help to develop appropriate civic competence for effective citizenry in the society (Falade, 2007). Civic competence is knowledge, attitude and skill which build students’ abilities and make them to be participative and responsible citizens in societal and national levels (Bryony, Villalba & Michaela, 2012). National Council of Social

Studies (2013) sees civic competence as the possession of required skill, knowledge or ability to engage in active participation in societal life, school and local community activities. Civic competence is combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which enable a person to perform real world tasks such as active citizenship (Bryony et.al, 2012).

Olubela (2008) stated that a majority of students in Nigeria schools are unable to make connections between what they have learnt and how the knowledge will be used. He added that this was because the way the students process information and their motivation for learning are not touched by the conventional methods of classroom teaching. Students have difficulties in understanding academic concepts as they are commonly taught (that is using lecture method), but they desperately need to understand the concepts as they relate to the workplace and to the larger society in which they will live and work. Traditionally, students have been expected to make these connections on their own, even outside the classroom. Learning has not been able to develop civic knowledge, civic attitude and civic skills comprehensively. It happened because teaching of civic education did not correlate the materials with the students' realities and gave more abilities to memorise, but not to think creatively, critically and analytically.

Agu (2009) stressed that citizenship learning cannot be achieved through rote learning, memorisation and recitation of civic or political concepts or values. It has been observed that there are deficiencies in the current way civic education is being taught in schools, as documented in literature are: passive learning, lack of training in thinking and process skills, lack of focus on right, teacher control, text bound instruction and low quality curriculum. Generally, researchers and other writers also express considerable dismay over the inadequate preparation of teachers for civic education teaching and the insufficient support provided by schools (Ajiboye, 2008).

Conducting elections in Nigeria may be about the most contentious issues in the Nigerian political system; this is supported by the desperation which many political seekers exhibit in their bid to win elections. The youths are said to be future leaders, because of the crucial role played in political and social development of

the nation. They serve as building blocks that link the past with the present, and the youths also represent the future and the hope of every society. These young leaders don't just wake up to become leaders in a day; they need to be empowered and their minds need to be redirected through civic and electoral education in order for them to be strong enough to play their inevitable roles in sustainable national development and electoral processes. The importance of the place of youths in any country's development becomes imperatives for any reformation of electoral process to begin with the youth (Kahne & Sporte, 2008).

In a situation where youths don't know their rights in political processes, they are misled to engage in terrorism, employed as political thugs by the political class who only use them to promote their selfish interests. It was also gathered that Nigerian youths have been marginalised, under-represented in the country's democratic processes and institutions because they have not been effectively participating in elections as voters, party officials and candidates due to lack of civic education (Akinsola & Agoro, 2013).

The shortfall in students' citizenship knowledge, values and practices according to Ogunsanya, Ajiboye and Olubela (2010) contributed largely to an unending gap between the aspirations and dreams of the founding fathers of the nation and the current socio-political realities. Lamenting this trend Dada et al (2016) remarked that many Nigerians exhibit unethical attitude in every aspect of life. To them, indiscipline is common in the country and it is exemplified by riotous behaviour in public places, recklessness in driving, violent crimes, lack of respect for law and order, rampant avarice, exploitation of fellow citizens, poor attitude to work, lack of commitment to sound ethical values, cheating, cybercrimes, and fraud including the notorious advance fee fraud (419). Amosun and Ige (2010) indicated that, youths in Nigeria like many countries of the world are developing addiction to psychoactive substances, which has significantly increased the number of accidents and untimely deaths. More worrisome, according to Egegbulem (2013), is the situation whereby students are finding it increasingly difficult to lead desirable ways of life, particularly in the areas of human relationships, responsibility, respect, obedience and orderliness. Oyeleke (2011) observed that students' level of civility could be said to be low, a phenomenon attributable largely to the lapses of the school and home. Students show political lassitude and obvious flagrant display of

indifference to voting and electoral matters in Nigeria. This trend must be discontinued if Nigeria is to experience a transformation from the current socio-political oblivion.

Moreover, due to large classes and infrastructure failure in schools, most teachers employ teacher-centred methods instead of innovative strategies. Kerr (2009) reiterated that students who possess knowledge, skills, and values are prepared to take appropriate civic action as individuals or as members of groups devoted to civic improvement. Aremu and Salami (2013) asserted that in the teacher-centred classroom instruction, knowledge primarily comes from the teacher while in the learner-centred paradigm; knowledge is the combined efforts of the teacher and students. Parker (2008) observed that in teacher-centred methods, students work primarily alone; and learning is achieved through repetition, the subject contents are strictly adhered to and guided by old foreign-cultured textbooks. In such methods, Hess (2009) observes that teachers are the all-knowing and all-talkers, while students only sit-down-look, or at best, copy notes which are dictated by the lesson-centred teacher.

Adedoja, Abidoye and Afolabi (2013) reported that despite the importance and relevance of social studies in the school curriculum, it has been observed that the teaching of the subject has been characterized with the use of conventional teaching method where the teacher alone does the talking while the learners remain passive. As a result of the poor teaching strategies, students are less interested in the social and political issues in the country. Bellanca and Brandt (2010) also affirmed that poor teaching strategies of citizenship education concepts also make students to show little or no concern about the welfare of others, and many would not even participate in communal tasks. Therefore, in order to inculcate desirable socio-political values in the students, especially those at tertiary level, there is need for teaching strategies that would re-orientate and re-focus students' thinking pattern, such that they will see the need to change positively and live as well-informed and responsible citizens. Olagunju, Bolaji and Adesina (2012) emphasized that in teaching-learning condition, teachers and learners should interact mutually to exchange ideas, knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, skills,

competencies and abilities to the extent that the teacher facilitates and enhances the learning outcomes among the learners.

Before now, many scholars in different fields, places and at different times have researched into innovative strategies that are learner-centred. In social studies, many strategies have been adopted by many researchers. Such strategies include concept-mapping (Hilbert & Renkil, 2007), simulation (Witson, 2007), group learning (Olubela, 2008), inquiries (Oyeleke, 2011), service learning (Gbadamosi, 2012,) appreciative and reflective (Olubela, 2014) amongst others. However, notwithstanding the effects of these strategies in improving the teaching and learning processes as found by the various studies highlighted above, there is still lag in students' understanding and dispositions of citizenship (voter) education concepts. The fact that the socio-political problems earlier mentioned are still on the increase in Nigeria today also attest to the need for application of more innovative and transformative strategies in the teaching of citizenship education concepts. Thus, the disconnection between what is taught by the teacher and what is learnt by the students has obviously created the need for more innovative strategies which can change students' thought patterns (Fakeye, 2012). In view of this, the effect of a participatory strategy of learning is examined in this study. It is on this note that Ogunyemi (2011) opined that Voter Education should be made part of school curriculum so that youths can be inculcated with such knowledge right from a very young age (Catch Them Young)

Gender has a pervasive influence whether we like it or not. If we see gender as socially constructed attributes of an individual, related to his or her sex, there is almost always gender differentiation in any given context, where one is seen as either male or female and treated as such (Jeffery & Mary, 2017). Such differentiation of course does not necessarily always translate into discrimination or disadvantage. Gender inequalities and sexism in education are now known to continue to play a significant role in the slow development of African economics. Disregard for and discrimination against 50% of the population (females) contributes to slow and poor performance in most African countries

Gender also contributes a serious issue in voter education programme. A consultant for Women Education Association of Nigeria (WEAN) has advocated

the sensitization of voter education for women to ensure their greater participation in politics. This was also supported by a two day workshop on Gender Policy Sensitization and Voter Education for women that were held in Port Harcourt in 5th July, 2011. It was affirmed that women make up the largest percentage of voters, in fact they constitute 50% of the Nigerian Population and yet, they are not well represented in the current Political setting (Oyeleke, 2011). Orbih (2013) comparatively noted a gender audit of voters in various countries and found that majority of voters are women. He maintained that the voters' apathy among women was due to domestic workload, lack of time and insecurity around polling centres during elections. Even Orbih (2013) regretted that despite those women in Nigeria were formidable parts of the past socio-economic and political development of the country; they have been relegated to the background in issues of politics. Few of them who dare enough to pursue politics are labelled as promiscuous or lazy.

In the same vein, male students have been observed to be more alert to political activities than female students. This is also the case in the nation's political terrain which shows the gender inequality in political participation of men and women in elective positions (Ogunyemi, 2011). Heafer (2008), Nichol and Sim (2008) and UNESCO (2012) did not observe significant gender difference in learners' knowledge and dispositions to democratic, civic and citizenship issues respectively. This thus calls for the need for empirical evidence to determine whether there will be any significant difference between male and female students' citizenship (political) knowledge and attitude.

Political knowledge varies across groups, with studies finding that women consistently score below men in knowledge tests (Halin & Alviar 2008; Ajiboye, 2012). In the same vein, male students have been observed to be more alert to political activities than female students. This is also the case in the nation's political terrain which shows the gender inequality in political participation of men and women in elective positions Ogunyemi, (2011); Heafer (2008); Nichol & Sim (2008) and UNESCO (2012) did not observe significant gender difference in learners' knowledge and dispositions to democratic, civic and citizenship issues respectively. This thus calls for the need for empirical evidence to determine whether there will be any significant difference between male and female students'

political knowledge and attitude. Hence, the study determined the effects of a participatory voter education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitudes in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The study also determined the moderating effect of gender and location on students' learning outcomes in voter education concepts.

We make haste to clarify the two concepts: Feminism and Gender, before proceeding with discussion that connects the two, and their application to Nigeria situation. Feminism is here considered as “both a critique and an ideology” (Udokang & Awofeso, 2012). As a critique, feminism opposes patriarchy, that is, “a system of male authority, which oppresses women through the social, political and economic institutions”. As an ideology, feminism is a belief system which preaches equal rights for women and their emancipation from all forms of domination exerted by men. Feminism has equally been regarded as both an intellectual commitment and a political movement that seeks justice for women and the end of sexism in all forms.

Gender on the other hand, “is not a synonym for women” (Osezua & Osezua, 2008), neither is it a derogatory stigma for the male opposite sex. Although, ‘sex’ is a biological terminology – “an anatomical distinction between being a male and a female” (Aina, 2012 pg 12.), gender is a more or less a social construct – a socially constructed inequality between women and men. To be academically meaningful, gender is better understood as a product of the way a particular society views and analyses the relationship between male and female, which again are determined by a number of factors, especially, the cultural values of that society. This presupposes that perceptions on gender are not immutable; they vary from one society to another, and change from time to time. For better clarification of the concept of gender, the distinction between sex and gender provided by Aina (2012) is very instructive and highly illuminating: Sex attributes are universal and are often not adaptable to change, whereas gender attributes are culturally specific, and are subjected to change across cultures and historical epochs. Each cultural system creates a set of beliefs and practices for men and for women that define the relationship between them. Thus, the definition of gender insists that the situation of men and women must be analysed in relationship to each other, and not in isolation.

Although, feminists thought vary, feminism and feminist movements and ideas cut across national boundaries and cultures with common agitation for the social reconstruction of the society that made women permanently subservient to men domination sociocultural, politically and economically. To this end, feminists, the world over, reject gender inequality and oppose discrimination policies against women in both public and private spheres; they seek for equality of women in all ramification-political, economic, educationally and opportunity wise” (Udokang & Awofeso, 2012).

Gender according to Falade (2010) described it as socially constructed roles and expectations for male and female in a society. In the same vein, Nwagbara (2008) expressed that gender mean socially and culturally constructed characteristics, roles or behaviours which different societies ascribe to females and males. Gender is socially constructed because of the fact that it is not biologically determined. It is determined by the social and cultural system of a society. This is the reason why the roles expected of male and female at any point in time may differ from one society to another. This informed Falade (2010) to point out that gender constructions are flexible and differ from place to place. Gender roles and relationships evolved out of interactions among biological, technological, economic and societal constraints. Gender norms are not static they changed in response to socio-economic conditions. Gender, a central facet of human identity, is politically significant because ideals about gender have been used to justify various unequal treatments between men and women. Falade and Ekundayo (2008) observed that gender stereotypes concerning the roles of male and female in Africa have great impact on the participation of women in the political issues or processes. Gender issues particularly as it affects political participation have become global issues of discussion at different fora in the recent time.

Besides gender, another learning characteristic that can influence students’ learning outcome in Social Studies is school location. In related studies, Falade (2007) contended that schools located in urban areas have recorded better performances than those in the rural settings. Falade, 2012 reported that school location in favour of urban centres has significant effect on student attitude towards mathematics and chemistry and any other school subjects. Urban students’ positive attitude towards science and any other school subject may be due to the

fact that more opportunities are given to them in life, compared to students in rural schools.

In the same vein, Odumosu (2015) also observed that students schooling in the urban areas are more likely to be more competent in civic education concepts than those schooling in the rural areas. It is believed that those students in the urban are exposed to social and infrastructural amenities; they have access to good roads, ICT, television and conducive environment, while those in the rural don't have the opportunities. Akintunde (2007) also indicated that urban students had better performance than their peri-urban counterparts in concepts attainment. The availability of learning facilities and the relatively better school buildings in the urban centres, perhaps, contribute positively to the learning outcomes of the urban students. Students in urban centres experience complex socio-economic and political interactions. This seems to assist them to have more concepts attainment than the rural students. Consequently, students in rural areas have low attainment of civic and political concepts. This limits their participation in the political process and it has negative effect on their attitude to the civil society. Falade (2010) argued that when an individual whose rights have been violated does not know his right much less that it has been violated; the process of asserting the rights cannot begin. Civic education for rural areas is essential to enable the students to acquire the traits of effective citizenship.

Ajiboye (2010) found out that secondary schools students exhibited poor knowledge of some political concepts. This poor knowledge had led to a great aversion in politics. If the students are expected to effectively function in a democratic environment in future, there would be urgent need for a deliberate intervention in the provision of civic education for them. Ajiboye (2010) was also of the opinion that education in civics must not only address the acquisition of knowledge and intellectual skills, it also must focus especially on the development of those skills required for competent participation in the political process. This is where the researcher considers desirable to bring the classroom teacher and students into the study process with a view to identifying problems and finding solution to them.

Hence, it becomes imperative to investigate school location and gender as they affect civic competence of Senior Secondary Schools. Hence, the study determined the effects of a participatory voter education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The study also determined the moderating effect of gender and school location on students' acquisition of knowledge and attitude in political concepts.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the potential contributions of citizenship/civic education to nation building, it has been observed that the teaching of the concepts has been done largely through conventional methods (Aremu & Salami, 2013). The continuous use of teacher-centered strategies portends retardation in teaching-learning processes; as learning outcomes are largely reduced to mere passing of examination; leaving out the essential knowledge, attitude and practice which are required for enhancing responsible citizenry and active political participation of students. The use of conventional method has also led to poor attitude of students to socio-political issues (Jekayinfa, 2009). Previous researches by (Ajiboye, 2008; Gbadamosi, 2012) have contributed to making learning more real, interactive, and impactful, yet the socio-political challenges highlighted in the study are still on the increase in Nigeria. Perhaps, many of these strategies have been limited to primary school level, with little attention to secondary school students.

Furthermore, the alarming increase in youths' derailment in the country may not be unconnected with the fact that classroom teaching largely concentrate on the use of poor teaching methods where the teacher alone does the talking while the learners remain passive (Adedoja, Abidoye & Afolabi 2013). Research evidence have also shown that the use of participatory learning strategy could enhance students' propensity to vote, re-orientation and learners' competence and participatory skills of democratic citizenship (Kerr, 2009; Amosun & Ige 2010; Olagunju, Bolaji & Adesina 2012). This strategy also has the potentials of increasing students' capacities to analyze public issues and to cooperate with others in group activities. This study, therefore, determined the effect of a participatory voter

education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. The study also determined the moderating effect of school location and gender on students' learning outcomes in voter education concepts.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance

Ho1: There is no significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

Ho2: There is no significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

Ho3: There is no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

Ho4: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and location on secondary school students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

Ho5: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and Gender on students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

Ho6: There is no significant interaction effect of the location and gender on students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

Ho7: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on the students' political

(a) Knowledge

(b) Attitude

1.4 Objectives of the Study

In light of the research hypotheses, this study seeks to:

1. examine the main effect of a participatory teaching strategy of voter education concepts on students' political knowledge and attitude;
2. determine the main effect of location on students' political knowledge and attitude;
3. investigate the main effect of gender on students' political knowledge and attitude;
4. explore the interaction effect of treatment location on students' political knowledge and attitude;
5. ascertain the interaction effect of treatment and gender on students' political knowledge and attitude;
6. find out the interaction effect of the location and gender on students' political knowledge and attitude;
7. identify the interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on students' political knowledge and attitude.

1.5 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of a participatory learning programme of voter education concepts on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would enable students to move from passive to active citizens, thus making them to become well-nurtured and well-informed citizens who are also caring, responsible and reflectively skilful. The study would expand the existing body of knowledge on participatory voter education programmes, knowledge of citizenship education concepts and students' attitude to their rights, obligations and political participation. It would also familiarize both students and teachers to the meaning, characteristics, models, types and effects of participatory learning technique. The findings would assist the classroom teachers to select the appropriate method of directing the learners in the classroom so as to make them active participants.

It would also help them to acquire necessary skills at using the participatory approach in teaching citizenship/civic education concepts. The teachers would be conversant with various ways of motivating students to be committed to social values in particular, which would improve performance of students in citizenship/voter education concepts. It is anticipated that this study would assist them in acquiring specific skills that would make them to be active learners, constructors of their own knowledge, rather than regurgitating the teacher's viewpoint and become passive learners. Findings of this strategy would empower students to participate in society effectively as active, informed, critical and responsible citizens. Government, curriculum developers and publishers would also find this project very useful as the findings would provide research based solutions to civic problems and issues, and this would enhance their educational decision-making and curriculum planning, accordingly. Finally, the findings of this study would serve as a reference point for further researches in citizenship/civic education in Nigeria and other parts of the world.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study would determine the effect of a participatory Voter Education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria. It covers a class level (senior secondary school 2) in each of the six (6) secondary schools sampled.

1.8 Operational and Conceptual Definitions of Key Terms

The following terms have been defined in the context in which they have been used in this study. To avoid clouding the study with superfluous terminology, only those concepts that the researcher deemed to be central to the discourse of the thesis have received attention hereunder.

1.8.1. Voter Education Concepts: This refers to contents of study designed to ensure that voters are ready, willing and able to participate in electoral politics while it is conceptually defined as those things that are capable of informing the electorate about the conducts, and to empower the voters to clearly understand their rights and responsibilities in the electoral process (David, 2016).

1.8.2. Political knowledge: This refers to the students' level of acquired information, facts and ideas about the concept of Voter Education. Conceptually, it is defined as the acquisition of a sense of political efficacy and civic duty that facilitates participation (Pew Research Centre, 2011)

1.8.3. Political attitude: This refers to the students' level of favourable or unfavourable disposition towards the concept of Voter Education. It is defined by Kelvin Wandrei, (2016) as spectrum that characterizes what someone believes about social issues and government's role in the society

1.8.4. Participatory Learning Strategy: This refers to the learning method which utilizes a structured, educative and active learners' participation in teaching/learning process as a means of educating the secondary school students. While Ajitoni, (2009) defines it as activities with peculiar thread that allows learners to play an active and influential part in decisions which affect their lives.

1.8.5. Conventional Teaching Method: This refers to the teaching of voter education concepts where teacher has full control of the lesson with little or no learners' participation. This would be used to teach the control group of this study. It is conceptually defined by Nkire (2011) as a teacher-centre method in which the learners only listen as teacher discharges the fact without giving them the opportunity to participate in the lesson

1.9 Thesis outline

Summary of Chapters in the Study

There are five chapters in this study and all the chapters contain the following:

The purpose of this chapter was to highlight the background and general overview of the study. Displaying the purposes, objectives, statement of the problem, the significance of the study and the hypotheses the researcher tested at 0.05 level of significance. Terms were defined according to how they have been used in the current study so as for them to be easily contextualised by readers. The chapter two provides information on the theoretical framework on which the current study is anchor and the in-depth review of related literatures that are of immense importance to the study. Chapter three explained the methodology the researcher used in actualising the study i.e. the sample and the techniques that is adopted, the variables in the studies, the instruments use to collect information/data and the validity and reliability coefficient that confirmed the consistency and accurateness of the research instruments and the method used to analyse the data in the study. The chapter four provided the data presentation and results analysis on the tested hypotheses and summary of the findings, tables, graphs and figures were used to explain the findings of the study. Finally, chapter five presented the discussion of results, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

The previous chapter and its contents gave an insight into the blue print that spelt out the basis for which the study was construed. This leads us to the chapter two where both the theoretical and literature frameworks are dealt with in depth with a view to providing relevant discourse for this study.

This chapter, therefore, examines previous works that are relevant and related to the present study and the various variables used. The review is organised along the following sub-headings.

- 2.1. Theoretical Framework
- 2.2. The concept of Voter Education
- 2.3. Democracy and Elections
- 2.4. Social Studies and Civic Education
- 2.5. The history of Social Studies Education in Nigeria
- 2.6. Concept of Citizenship
- 2.7. Meaning and Level of Civic Responsibility in Nigeria
- 2.8. Meaning and Purposes of Civic Education
- 2.9. Curriculum Model for Participatory Voter Education Programme
- 2.10. Participatory Action Research
- 2.11. School Location and Achievement in Civic and Political Concepts
- 2.12. Gender and achievement in Civic and Political Concepts
- 2.13. Studies on Knowledge and Attitude to Civic and Political issues

2.14. Research on Participatory Civic Education Package.

2.15. Summary of Chapter Two

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This framework is purposely reviewed for this study in order to provide a basis for the work under review.

2.1.1 Learning

2.1.1.1 Meaning of Learning

The word 'learning' is etymologically derived from the old English/German word *laeran/lehren*, which means to teach. But this definition obviously gives an entirely deficient understanding of the term and this is one of the problems of language.

It has been said that, linguistically, words have uses, not meanings. This is another way of saying that words are used as labels or symbols. Symbolism, the use of something (e.g. a sign) to represent something else, is another distinguishing and important aspect of human behaviour. For example, reading is a process of interpreting written symbols to fairly well specified rules. So is the mathematics, music, art, geography (map reading), etc. In fact, it can be said that a person's potential for becoming fully human lies significantly in his or her capacity for extension of experience to a world of symbolism. i.e. the ability to operate on an imaginative level of reality (Akomolafe, 2011).

At the same time, it should be borne in mind that although language symbols serve as a form of shorthand and therefore permit faster communication, they may also obscure thought or comprehension of reality. In the cynical words of Talleyrand, "God gave man language so that he can conceal his thoughts." This way of thinking is fact not new. For example, Thucydides (3BC) once said that in crisis time's words tend to change their meanings. St Augustine in "De Magistro" (395 AD) also discussed this concept of "semantic transfer". Wittgenstein (1934) cited in Akomolafe (2011) said humans are constantly being surprised "how words change their meanings from one person to another. In other words, it is important to

remember that language alone cannot afford us an adequate medium for understanding/expressing all phenomena or experience.

The fact is that, in any language, a word can convey an almost infinite elasticity of meanings which may or may not be related, depending on the context of use. For example, the English word *education* can have the following connotations: “culture, training, discipline, indoctrination, brain-washing, information, instruction, coaching, drilling. Development, maturation, leaning, growing, scholarship, know-how, adaptation, mental set, conformity”. Ad infinitum (Roget’s Thesaurus, 1852). Similarly, in the Igbo language, the word *akukwo* may be taken to represent “leaf, book, leaning, scholarship, school education”, etc. The same is true of the English word *learning* with which we are concerned in this contribution.

A plethora of definitions of learning abound in the psycho-educational literature. Seven of such sample definitions are given here.

1. A relatively enduring change in behaviour that is a function of prior behaviour (usually called practice) (Marx, 1997).
2. Learning occurs whenever one adopts new or modifies existing behaviour patterns in a way which has some influence on future performance or attitudes (Child, 1981).
3. A relatively permanent or persistent change (usually but not always an increment) in behaviour patterns of the human organism which occurs as a result of (previous) practice, training or experience (King & Robinson, 1979).
4. An enduring change (in insights, behaviour, perception, motivation, or a combination of these) in a living individual that is not heralded by his genetic inheritance...and that occurs as a consequence of experience in some specified situation (Bigge, 1982).
5. A relatively permanent or enduring change in one’s potential for seeing, thinking, feeling and doing, through experiences partly perceptual, partly intellectual, partly emotional and partly motor. (Morse and Wingo, 1962)
6. A change of state of the human being that is remembered and that makes possible a corresponding change in the individual’s behaviour in a given

type of situation. This change of state must, of course, be distinguished from others that may be affected by innate forces, by maturation, or by other physiological influences. Instead, leaning is brought about by one or more experiences that are either the same as or that somehow represent the situation in which the newly acquired behaviour is exhibited. (Gagne, 1984).

7. Learning encompasses all forms of relatively permanent modifications of behaviour resulting from experience, expert sensory adaptations and fatigue – where “behaviour” includes a very wide spectrum of phenomena such as attitudes, motives, affective and emotional responses, mental sets, simple and complex discriminative acts, serial verbal and motor acts, motor and perceptual skills, meanings, concepts and abstractions, and various cognitive capabilities that go under such names as ideational problem-solving thinking, reasoning, decision-making, and even creative invention. (O’Neill 2010).

For the purpose of this study, the following operational definition of learning is adopted: Learning is a highly general term for the relatively lasting change in behaviour (i.e. thinking, feeling and acting) that is induced directly by practice or relevant experience.

Stemming from this definition, the following caveats need immediately to be entered:

1. Learning itself (like hunger or intelligence) is a construct which cannot be directly observed – it has to be inferred from the changes in the behaviour, as well as in the cognitive and affective states, of the organism; we can see performance but we cannot see learning as only one of the many variables influencing behaviour.
2. The distinction between learning and performance should always be borne in mind; lack of performance does not necessarily indicate lack of learning; in fact, overt action or performance (i.e. behavioural manifestation of learning) requires some degree of motivation or incentive.
3. Learning is not necessarily synonymous with improvement, or even with survival, of the individual. It is indeed an everyday observation that the

presence cases ensure successful adjustment to the world-since undesirable, maladaptive and neurotic behaviours are also often consciously acquired, e.g. drug abuse, alcoholism, over-eating, smoking, licentious sex, etc.

4. From the purely psychological viewpoint, what is learned does not necessarily imply any ethical (right/wrong) or conative (deliberate/unconscious) considerations. But from the educational point of view, ethical considerations become relevant; i.e. learning does imply lasting change in behaviour in a desirable direction due to experience.
5. Learning excludes changes in behaviour due to maturation (or growth), fatigue, drug and dietary effects, bodily injury, disease effects and adaptation.

Adaptation may be of two types – sensory or motor. Sensory adaptation (or sensitisation) refers to the progressive loss in sensory effectiveness suffered by stimuli over time, e.g. olfactory adaptation in which one sort of ‘gets used to’ (i.e. ceases to notice) an unpleasant or noxious odour. Motor adaptation, commonly called habituation refers to a decrement in motor response to a particular stimulus that occurs merely from the repeated presentation of that stimulus, e. g. getting used to loud noises by people living near airports.

Distinguishing learning from adaptation is difficult. In fact, it is a contentious point among some psychologists whether adaptation in the form of sensory or motor habituation can be considered learning. The non-reductionists argue that since such behaviour does not arise from conditioning, they cannot properly be termed learning, while others argue that since the adaptation behaviours are relatively permanent, even if very stimulus-specific, they are part of learning. However, most psychologists would exclude sensitisation and habituation from learning.

As can be already gleaned, the diversity of behaviour processes that can be subsumed under the rubric ‘learning’ is almost as great as the diversity of behaviour itself. Learning properly speaking, includes any instance of experience – induced change in behaviour – whether that change in behaviour occurs in amoeba, salmonella, flatworms, mosquitoes, rats, pigeons, dogs, monkeys, human

children and adults; and whether it occurs in the speed of running a maze, discrimination learning, nonsense syllables learning, language learning, acquiring the concept of 'dog' or doctrine' or an Archimedean 'eureka' experience.

2.1.1.2 Why do we learn?

It is well known that the behaviour of all organisms is a function of heredity and environment in an interactive/integrative relationship, the proportion of contribution of the two factors being in inverse ratio to the hierarchical level of development or complexity of the organism. For example, lower organisms are clearly more-instinct-bound than higher organisms, especially man whose behaviour is preponderantly a function of learning to adjust to, and even control, the environment.

An *instinct*, according to O'Neill (2010 p.26), is "a pattern of behaviour, usually complex in nature (to distinguish it from a reflex e.g. the knee jerk or eye blink), which is found universally among the members of a species, occurs without the need for prior learning or experiences, is relatively invariant in form, and is reliably elicited or released by a particular and usually very simple stimulus. "The drives connected to instincts generally have survival value. Some examples of instinctive behaviour include web –spinning by spiders, net-building by birds, the sea-going instinct of newly hatched turtle eggs, and sexual and maternal behaviour (especially in the lower animals).

Imprinting is a kind of unlearned instinct reaction that capitalises on a tendency which appears at a 'critical' maturational point in time (i.e. when the time is ripe) e.g. the 'following-behaviour' of goslings, chicks and other birds, or the ability of human infants to crawl and walk at the appointed time. In the well-known Lorenz experiment, it is the duckling's 'following' behaviour that is innate; the choice of what is followed is a result of imprinting.

Although instinctive behaviour is found in all living species, human behaviour, because of our much more complex brain, is more variable and more easily and profoundly affected by learning than the behaviour of lower organisms. Physiologists tell us that our greater function of our larger neo-cortex (the newer part of the brain, in evolutionary terms) which can process vastly more complex

information imprinting on us from all the primary qualities that separate human nature from the nature of other animals in the development of a detailed, adaptable language system which is itself learned although the ability to acquire language is innate. `

It should perhaps be re-emphasised here that animals also learn, as indeed do all other organisms. Indeed, there is considerable evidence that instinctive patterns are modified by learning. Most animal behaviour is a complicated interweaving of instinctive and learned components. Nevertheless, built-in instincts, or hereditary mechanisms, seem to dominate the behaviour of lower organisms in contrast to man who is almost entirely by definition a learner. For example, human neonates are relatively bereft of ready-made mechanisms or instincts to ensure survival. They have to learn, by a long process of socialisation, how to survive. In fact, the long gestation and dependent period of the human baby/infant testifies to the adaptive-survival nature of learning in human behaviour. According to Hillix (2007), very fragile organisms and very critical behaviours would probably be programmed genetically. This is because the fragile organism cannot afford mistakes that accompany learning, for such mistakes would kill it. Likewise, a critical behaviour, such as sucking in infant mammals, cannot be left to chance, for it must occur swiftly and certainly. However, sturdier organisms protected by parents or by other circumstances and living under a variety of conditions that may each require different behaviours, are more likely to be programmed during their individual lifetimes. Man is a prime example of such an organism.

Put summarily and simply, it may be stated that human beings learn not just to be able to survive but also, importantly, to gratify other non-survival propensities like plain excitation, imagination, curiosity to understand phenomena, the urge to change, improve or control our environment for greater effectiveness in and even mastery of that environment, and so on.

2.1.1.3. How do we learn?

Because the human being is distinctly a curious animal, we not only want to learn, but also want to know why and how we learn. The latter is in the realm of theory.

A theory, simply put is a general conceptual background by which we can attempt to explain any phenomenon or activity. Its *alter* ego is practice. The paradigm of all theories is the scientific theory which is characterised by:-

1. A hypothesis (a kind of informed guess of some unexplained event) that can be verified by experiment or observation.
2. A logically inter-connected set of such hypotheses, and
3. A rational explanation of events from hypothesis to validation. i.e. how the theory works, in short. In other words, the purpose of a scientific theory is to make available a system of abstract concepts and relationships that will guide the scientist in making predictions. A theory is good if it facilitates prediction; better still, a theory is good if it leads to the formulation of hypotheses that are both testable and worth testing (Creswell, 2009).

A theory may be explicitly formulated or it may be implicit in the principles derived from empirical study. Specifically, a 'learning theory' may be more or less comprehensive it may be designed to account for a particular kind of learning outcome or it may attempt to cover several kinds. At the present time, however, there is no unified 'theory or science of learning, and it is doubtful if there ever can be. What we have are pockets or islands of knowledge and understanding within the science of learning. Differences in fundamental approaches to human learning involve such issues as empiricism versus rationalism, contiguity versus reinforcement, gradual increments versus all-or-none jumps, cognitive versus behavioural learning, whether animal learning can be extrapolated to human learning, and whether learning a task in one situation is relevant for other tasks situations (Krasner, 1985).

From a historical perspective, human psychology as a behavioural science has naturally drawn from a variety of sources. In fact, it has been said that "psychology thrives on polygamy" (Olubela, 2014). Her marriage with kindred disciplines like philosophy, literature, sociology, theology, linguistics, political science, biology, anthropology, psychiatry, etc. has been highly productive and enriching of knowledge of the phenomenon known as man. Most especially, modern human psychology is a direct offshoot of philosophy.

The classical philosophical method of studying human beings consisted mostly of intuitive and searching self-explorations, as well as thoughtful consideration of the behaviour of others. Adopting Descartes dualistic notion about the separation of mind and body in the human being, early psychological students of human behaviour restricted their attention to an analysis of the “conscious contents of the mind learning the body to physiology. In the first half of this century, however, a group of charismatic psychologists in America (who called themselves ‘behaviourists’). Led by James B. Watson, Spence, Skinner and Premack, aggressively rejected any attempt to study such nebulous and esoteric things as mind, thoughts or feelings, being rather obsessed with making psychology more ‘scientific’ they set out, self-consciously and quite deliberately to “build” a science of psychology. And so they limited themselves to the study of tangible events that could be seen and measured. For example, they argue that thoughts are not tangible or easily measurable, but a rat’s speed of running a maze is. If a rat is thinking while running down a maze, at least it cannot embarrass us or complicate the situation by telling us about it! (Mednick, 2007). In fact, the way the behaviourists accepted the methods of Pavlov and Thorndike but stripped their systems of adaptive biology is somewhat reminiscent of the way in which the empirical philosophers created the mind by stripping the soul of its medieval metaphysical rationalisations.

Historic-philosophically, seven principles (theories?) of learning that have endured over the last five centuries of psychological thought and study can be identified.

1. **Empiricism:** Juan Luis Vives, an early 16th century Spanish Catholic philosopher and educator which taught at Oxford wrote that “the senses are our first teachers in whose home our mind is enclosed”. (Dada, 2008 p.29). The first principle of learning, according to him is that empirical analysis beings with the observations of nature by the senses and proceeds to explanation by inductive logic, then returns to nature for verification – in sharp contrast to St Augustine who talked of the soul-like nature of the mind and excluded any contribution of the physical senses to the acquisition of knowledge.

2. **Associationism:** Vives, long before John Locke, also said that there is a continuity of mind and behaviour among living organisms, so that information obtained in observing one organism can be generalised to other organisms. The mind, according to him, is a recording system that stores and integrates mental elements. These mental elements are integrated or associated by the factors of
 - (a) contiguity in time and space
 - (b) similarity to each other, and
 - (c) their cause, and effect relational sequences – i.e. the ‘modern’ laws of contiguity, discrimination and generalization and the ‘law of effect’
3. **Stimulus Response:** John Locke in 1690 delineated two sources of knowledge from which this principle is derived:
 - (a) “the sensations induced by external objects and events are transmitted by the nerves to the sensorium; and
 - (b) the innate connections and operations of the body give rise to the reflections of the mind..... (And that) the external world is constructed for each organism by the organism itself”

In other words, Locke knew that the body and the mind are inseparable. But he went on to caution that in this vast universe there are many mansions occupied by different organisms, of whose mental faculties we have as little knowledge “as a worm shut up in one drawer of a cabinet hath of the senses or the understanding of man.” Therefore, generalisation from one organism to another must be preceded by a comparative analysis of their sensory systems and their brains.

4. **Space and Time:** Bamisaye (2007) posited that “a prior appreciation of space is a necessary representation in the mind that precedes perception of external objects.” While it is possible to imagine space without objects, it is impossible to imagine objects without space. Therefore, most organisms seem to be able to remember spatial arrangements of objects as if they

acquire a cognitive map of their territory. Similarly, he urged that “although it is possible to imagine time without events, it is not possible to imagine events without time”. Therefore, and a priori appreciation of time is a necessary representation of mind that precedes perception of external events. If two objects are close together in space or if two events are associated in quick succession (e.g. lightning and thunder) it is safer to assume that they are connected than they are separated. The same applies if two objects look or feel the same.

5. **Apperception:** in the early 19th century Europe, learning was associated with educational theory of the German philosopher Friedrich Hebart who was a disciple of Immanuel Kant. According to this theory the mind (of the human baby at birth) is a *tabula rasa*, a blank slate, a complete cypher an arena or receptacle within which events fought and jostled for a place. The processes involved in learning he grouped into five formal steps of preparation, presentation, association, generalisation and application. The steps were based on his theory of “apperception” i.e. the process by which new ideas were brought into a relation with previous experience and thus gain significance. Education to him, therefore, was something happened to the essentially passive and receptive learner, a methodical stamping in or imparting of information from one who knows to one who does not know.
6. **Develop mentalism:** in sharp contrast to Herbatian apperception was the child-centred, problem-solving, activity theory of learning, running from Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel and Montessori in the 19th Century through Dewey, Piaget and Tagore in this century. In this perspective, individuals are not passive recipients of learning; they operate actively on the learning situation. The mind is not just a receptacle of ideas but an active processor of events impinging on it. Learning is a dynamic situation and knowledge which is acquired by the learner himself sticks much more than received knowledge. The main thing in learning is motivation or interest.
7. **Currently** from an experimental-psychological standpoint, the way human beings learn has been broadly categorised in three theoretical frameworks:
 - (a) Stimulus-Response (S-R) theory

- (b) Cognitive theory, and
- (c) Motivation and Personality theory

Stimulus-Response, also called simple learning or Conditioning, may be either

- (a) Classical (or respondent or automatic) Conditioning' or
- (b) Operant (or instrumental or voluntary) Conditioning

Classical Conditioning, first systematically investigated by Ivan Pavlov in Russia in 1896, requires the association of two stimuli, with one of them gradually acquiring a repeatedly pairing a neutral stimulus (e.g. light) with another stimulus that invariably elicits a positive or negative response (e.g. food which produces salivation, or electric shock which produces contraction or withdrawal in the dog) until finally the neutral stimulus elicits the same response.

Operant Conditioning (whose main proponent was B.F. Skinner) on the other hand, involves the selection of a specific response from among a repertoire of responses inherent in the organism, and then gradually reinforces (reward) that response, in a process called “shaping” to increase the probability of the response or behaviour occurring in the future. The difference between classical and operant conditioning lies in the fact that whereas classical conditioning involves a change in the stimulus that elicits a particular response, operant conditioning involves a selection, from many responses, of the one that habitually will be given by the organism in a stimulus situation. In other words, in operant conditioning it is the organism's behaviour that brings about the occurrence of the conditioned stimulus.

Cognitive (field or gestalt) theories, popularly associated with Wertheimer, Koffka, Lewin and Tolman, stress “cognitive structures” (or cortical mapping”) instead of habits in learning. According to these theories, learning does not simply depend on the S-R connections, but on perceiving and reacting to the whole learning situation or environment (on the principle that the whole is more than the sum of its parts), after reorganising the stimuli into a meaningful (holistic) pattern by an active mental process in the perceiving organism itself. Cognitive theories are based on a “life-space” model, and emphasize problem-solving, and to some

degree insight (i.e. the sudden perception of new relationships resulting in the prompt solution of a knotty problem).

Social learning theory, identified mostly with Albert Bandura, is factually a blend of stimulus response (reinforcement) and cognitive (purposive) theories. According to this theory, people do not indiscriminately absorb the influences that impinge upon them; neither do they exercise absolute freedom. Instead human beings are thinking, information-processing and interpreting animals that possess powers of self-direction. Human beings do set goals and targets for them and for this purpose learn to shape their environmental conditions by a process or “reciprocal interaction of external circumstances with personal determinants including endowed personality structure, thinking, acquired competencies and a high level of self-imitative”. Associated with this theory is the concept of modelling or observational learning i.e. learning through observation and imitation of significant others (otherwise called “vicarious conditioning”?)

In summary, the principles reinforced with S-R theory include the need for

- (a) Activity rather than passivity, i.e. “learning by doing”
- (b) Frequency of repetition (“practice make perfect”)
- (c) Reinforcement, especially positive reinforcement in form of rewards and successes.
- (d) Generalisation and discrimination i.e. the importance of practice in varied contexts.
- (e) Novelty in behaviour through imitation of models cuing and shaping,
- (f) Drive conditions or motivation, and
- (g) Resolution/accommodation of conflicts and frustrations which inevitably arise in the process of learning.

Principles emphasised within Cognitive theory include

- (a) Perceptual features (proper structuring) or a problem e.g. to show figure-ground relations, directional signs etc.

- (b) Proper organisation of knowledge from simplified wholes to more complex wholes.
- (c) Learning with understanding which is more permanent and more transferable than rote or formula learning.
- (d) Role of feedback in confirming correct knowledge and correcting faulty learning.
- (e) Goal-setting as motivation for learning, and
- (f) Encouragement of divergent thinking which leads to inventive solution of problems or to the creation of novel and values products.

Principles inherent in Motivation and Personality Theory include

- (a) Importance of learner's abilities, e.g. the need to take account of slow and more rapid learners as well as those with specialised abilities;
- (b) Influence of postnatal development, in addition to hereditary and congenital determiners, on ability and interest;
- (c) Cultural relativity of learning in terms of both the wider culture and the sub-culture of the learner;
- (d) Role of anxiety-level in learning in determining beneficial or detrimental effects of certain kinds of encouragement to learn;
- (e) Differential motivation affecting learning behaviour, e.g. affiliation versus achievement motivation).
- (f) Organisation of motives and values within the individual (e.g. long range versus short-range goals);
- (g) Group atmosphere of learning (e.g. competition versus cooperation).

2.1.1.4. Types of Learning

Many kind or forms of learning have been distinguished, but the classical enunciation of types of learning may be taken from Salako (2013) cumulative paradigm. According to Salako (2013) eight major types (or categories) of learning arranged in a hierarchy from the simplest to the most complex can be differentiated:

1. **Signal Learning:** under this type, the individual learns to make some kind of general or diffuse response to a signal or stimulus. This is the classical

(Pavlovian) conditioned response e.g. the dog salivating independently to a bell or light originally paired with meat. There is some of this type of learning everyday life, e.g. the baby learning to say “da-da” to repeated verbal cuing (Skinner’s echoic or shaping behaviour) or the student learning to write shorthand characters, or the motorist learning that green light means “go” etc.

2. **Stimulus Response Learning:** This is basically equivalent to Thorndike’s instrumental conditioning. I.e. the process of gradual change or shaping of response until the desired specific response to a stimulus is achieved. What is learned is a connection or a discriminated operant, sometimes called an instrumental response. For example, in the Skinner experiment the sight of the red disk leads the pigeon to peck at it in order to procure food. According to Gagne, this type of learning is really “a matter of discrimination of correct and incorrect stimulation, of discrimination of that set of stimuli which produces reward (reinforcement) and that set of stimuli which does not”. A simple everyday example of this learning type would be eating (or thinking of food) as a response to the stimulus of hunger pangs or drinking to quench thirst.
3. **Chaining (or Motor Learning):** this is the process of linking a series of previously learned S-R connections in a sequential manner. What is acquired here is a chain of two or more stimulus-response connections, e.g. a child linking the word or label “mother” to a “familiar, female, caring (i.e. feeding, loving, warm) adult or a baby learning to tilt a feeding bottle to drink milk. Other examples would be the process of opening a door, starting a car etc. In normal chaining, the terminal response is the reinforcing one (e.g. opening the door), but in backward chaining the newest elements of the chain come first (e.g. reading or saying the alphabet (ABC backwards).
4. **Verbal Association Learning:** this is the second type of chaining learning in which the chain consists of words or syllables. Basically, the conditions resemble those for Type 3 learning (i.e. motor chains) except that the chains are verbal. The presence of language in the human being makes this a

special type of learning because internal links may be selected from the individual's previously acquired repertoire of language. An example of this learning type would be the learning of a foreign language or mastering synonyms within one language or the use of memorise mathematical formulae.

5. **Discrimination (Multiple) Learning:** this is the ability to make the appropriate response to each member of a set of different stimuli which may resemble each other in physical appearance to a greater or lesser degree, with the possibility of the S-R connections to interfere with each other's retention. Examples of this type of learning would include a child being able to distinguish an orange fruit from grape fruit or guava or mango, ability to distinguish a triangle from a circle or a square, the use of a bunch of keys to open different doors or cupboards, learning to identify two identical twins by a variety of cues and sub-cues, etc.
6. **Concept Learning:** a concept has been defined by Ogunleye (2009) as "a common response, usually verbal, make to a class of phenomena the members of which display certain common characteristics, e.g. the physical and chemical 'laws' of the universe". By definition, a concept is never ultimate but proximate, and can be described on the basis of a number of factors, dimensions or attributes (often used synonymously). Concepts give generally to our experience, and are essential for transferring knowledge or skills gained in one situation to another situation. Therefore, concept learning implies the ability to put things into a class or the ability to use a common word to describe or define many different stimuli which are related by some common properties, e.g. "Amphibian" as the class of vertebrates that can live both on land or in water (e.g. frog or salamander), or the "Trinity" as three persons (or aspects) in (of) one God.
7. **Principle (or Rule) Learning:** A principle is a chain of two or more concepts. So, principle learning is the consolidation of a number of S – R discriminations, or the learning of a chain of concepts which are logically connected, e.g. statements such as "purple colour is a mixture of red and blue colours" "gas expands when heated", "the sun always rises in the east

in the morning”, “a singular noun qualified by a plural adjectival phrase takes a singular verb” (e.g. “concern for standards has been expressed...”)

8. **Problem Solving:** This is a kind of learning that requires the internal events usually called thinking. It implies the internal combination of already learned rules or principles to produce ‘higher-order’ rules in order to solve a new problem, sometimes leading to “flash of insight”

According to Olubela (2015) the most important class of conditions that distinguish one form of learning from another is the initial state of the learning – in other words, its prerequisites”. In general, learning Types 3 and 4 requires type 5, type 7 requires 6; and Type 8 requires Type 7. Type 1 is reasonably self-sufficient and is not considered a prerequisite to any of the other seven types of learning. In fact, learning types 1 and 2 (classical and instrumental conditioning”) “have genuine identities; they can be made to happen at will”. They are the building blocks for the entire system and constitute the links of which the more complicated types of learning are composed. Gagne went further to observe that “most instruction in school subjects is concerned with the learning and use of concepts, rules and problem-solving (i.e. Type 6, 7 and 8)”

Gagne illustrated the hierarchical organisation of school instruction, according to his typology, for mathematics, science, foreign languages and English.

Gagne also identified eight phases of any single act of learning. These are

1. Motivation i.e. the incentive for achieving some goal or the expectancy of a reward for achieving a goal;
2. Apprehending phase, which consists of the subject attending to and perceiving a stimulus?
3. Acquisition phase (the core of learning), which consists of coding knowledge for entry into storage in the central nervous system;
4. Retention, which consists of memories in the nervous system after they have been coded;

5. Generalisation (or transfer of learning) which refers to the use of past experiences in the learning of a new problem;
6. Performance, or actual observable behaviour which results from learning; and
7. Feedback (or reinforcement), an event that immediately follows a response and serves to increase the likelihood of that response. Feedback may be automatic (when it is provided by the performance itself, i.e. intrinsic motivation), or contrived (as in the classroom when teachers reinforce correct answers by saying or writing “yes”, “that’s right”, “excellent”, “good” etc.).

It can thus be seen that a strong emphasis in Gagne’s analysis is upon the structure of knowledge which is important for practical instructional purposes. However, it should be pointed out that Gagne’s taxonomy of learning types consists really of simple descriptive categories, since there is no functional equivalence to the examples or tasks within the given categories.

2.1.1.5. What do we learn?

It has already been seen that nearly all adult human behaviour is learned. Generally speaking, lay definitions of learning focus mainly on the acquisition of either knowledge (mainly verbal learning) or skill (mainly motor learning). However, Salako (2013) has further categorised the outcomes of learning into five major kinds:

1. Information (knowledge)
2. Intellectual skills,
3. Motor skills
4. Cognitive strategies, and
5. Attitudes

1. **Information:** The human individual learns and stores meaningfully organised information in such a way that it can be retrieved in sentence form. The information so learned and stored may be in form of a name,

label, a single 'fact' or a large set of inter-connected facts which forms itself into 'a body of knowledge'. An item of information may be stated orally or in written or printed form, but usually such information is stated in propositions that compose it such as 'David taught "learning" disabilities' to the class today. Having grasped the information contained in that proposition or statement, the learner can easily retrieve it in any variety of transformations (i.e. without verbatim reproduction) to show that the essential meaning has been learnt e.g. The class was taught 'learning disabilities' by David today', or "learning disabilities" was taught by David to the class today', etc.

2. **Intellectual Skills:** This is sometimes referred to as "mental operations" (Piaget, 1952) or "algorithms" (Landa, 1974), cited in Ogunlade (2011) intellectual skills are the ways the individual learns to deal with his environment in symbolic terms. These basic skills are found in all subjects of the school curriculum to a lesser or greater degree (especially in mathematics and science) at all grade levels. The most common intellectual skills learned in schools are concepts and rules.

A rule enables the individual to engage in what is called 'rule-governed behaviour', e.g. demonstrating that if $2 - 7$ equals $4 + 5$, then $3 + 6$ must be equal to $1 + 8$; or (in the English language) that plural nouns take plural verbs. Similarly, concepts as "classifying rules" refer to the relations between things, e.g. the concept of a pen as "a long usually cylindrical object with a tip that can make visible impressions on paper".

3. **Motor Skills:** these involve muscular movement such as handwriting, printing, sports, swimming, typewriting, drawing, dancing etc. A motor skill has been learnt when the individual can execute some specified motor performance usually within particular limits of speed and accuracy.
4. **Cognitive Strategies:** These are the "executive control processes" (Akinsola & Agoro, 2009) which are presumed to exercise control over how the learner pays attention to a situation how he encodes the material to be learned, how he retrieves what is learned, and how he uses learned information to solve

problems. These strategies are not easily observed directly but may be inferred from performance. (Akinsola & Agoro, 2009)

5. **Attitudes** are defined as persisting internal states that influence the choices the individual makes of personal action towards objects or events. For example, an attitude of 'thoroughness' would be reflected or can be observed in most if not all, of what a person who has this disposition does. Such internal states are obviously modifiable by learning, e.g. we can teach or 'condition' a child to be more thorough in his class work, homework or other (including domestic) assignments.

Subsuming all these leaning outcomes, what must be emphasised is the cultural milieu of the learner. A particular culture may be regarded as the total learned and shared way of life of a given people, comprising their modes of thinking, acting and feeling, which are expressed for instance in religion, law language, art and custom, as well as in material products such as houses, clothes and tools (i.e. artefacts). It is learned in the sense that this behaviour is transmitted socially rather than genetically, and shared in that it is practised either by the whole population or by some part of it.

The canons of choice in any society are largely determined by the cultural pattern. A cultural pattern has been called "a pre-arranged design for living" (Ige, 2013), i.e. a structure or certain basic configurations generally corresponding to the culture's fundamental attitudes and beliefs. What anthropologists have called the "enculturation" process (i.e. the process of training children in any society to acquire the characteristics of that society) sets the norms and sets the ceiling for the level of educability in that society, since the culture decrees the modes of perception, thinking, feeling, behaving etc. For example, in Nigeria the rituals of 'behaving' cola-nut differ considerably from one ethnic group to another: psychologists (e.g. Smith, 1974) cited in Ige (2012) have shown that the kind of shapes and even colours that children growing up in America, Britain, China, Japan, Namibia, Alaska etc., will pay attention will also be differentially mediated by the basic culture ("environmental recognitions") of these societies; and socially it has also been demonstrated that the values which children learn or internalise (e.g. competition versus cooperation) are partly a function of their social class (e.g.

middle class versus working class). (Bernstein, 1970). In short, the kind of information attended to the motor skills, cognitive strategies and attitudes developed are all almost entirely a function of the culture (including the sub-culture) in which one happens to generate from.

2.1.1.6. Factors Affecting Learning

Learning is obviously a function of many factors, some of which have earlier been mentioned, but perhaps the most crucial of these include:

1. **Personal characteristics of the Learner:** These would include such things as previous experience or prerequisites brought to the learning situation by the learner, the motivation, interest, intelligence and memory span of the learner, his mental and emotional 'sets' his physical and psychological readiness, etc.
2. **The nature of the Learning Task** in terms of type of task, e.g. whether it is concrete or abstract, motor or verbal, speed or power and also in terms of the clarity/complexity of task and;
3. **The environment of Learning:** i.e. whether it is conducive or distracting, whether there are time pressures, whether it is under the influence of 'significant others' how clearly the objective of instruction is stated by the teacher and absorbed by the learner, the skilful arrangements of the conditions of reinforcement by teacher (e.g. controlling student attention, ensuring on-task behaviour, improving study habits and maintaining orderly classroom behaviour (Skinner, 1968)
4. **Memory and Forgetting:** Learning of anything is of course useless if the learner is unable to remember the information or skill by conscious effort – quickly or slowly, fragmentarily or fully by rote or with understanding when needed. Understanding memory is therefore central to learning, since we build upon what we remember from previous experience.

Memory: is the ability to store, retain, retrieve and (when needed) use past thoughts, experiences, images, information etc. at the appropriate time. The term retention refers to the persistence of learning after practice has ceased.

Whatever is learned is said to be retained in so far as it is capable on a latter occasion of being recalled, recognised or relearned with a saving in time and practice over the original learning record. The hypothetical residue left by previous experience is often called a habit or bond or more technically an engram or memory trace. (Bunch, 1977)

As in the macro field of learning, the new approach to human memory is one in which the learner himself makes more of a contribution as a storer and processor of information.

The four most important questions deriving from this model are:

- (a) How long do materials remain in each stage of memory?
 - (b) How are they represented there?
 - (c) How much information can be stored in that stage of memory?
 - (d) Is the information at each stage lost or retained for further processing?
1. **Sensory Memory:** Information impinging on sensory memory remains there for a very brief period indeed, depending on the sensory modality involved e.g. it stays for only about one or two seconds in the case of visual information. During that brief time, huge amounts of material are registered as a sort of sensory image and the individual has some choice of what to pay attention to. What the individual does attend to survives for further processing in short-term memory.
 2. **Short-Term Memory (STM):** In contrast to sensory memory, the capacity of short-term memory is small (seven items, plus or minus two), but the duration of this memory is something like 20 to 30 seconds. During this time, some materials in STM are lost as a result of interference. Materials in short-term memory exist in a form that is primarily but not entirely acoustic. Materials go from STM to long-term memory through a process of rehearsal which may be of two types:

- (a) Maintenance rehearsal which is mere repetition (e.g. repeating a new telephone number over and over until one can dial it straight from memory)

Or

- (b) Elaborative rehearsal whereby the item to be remembered is associated with related materials.

- 3. **Long-Term Memory (LTM):** The capacity of long-term memory is very large indeed. Materials stored there may remain for years, but apparently not forever because of the effect of proactive inhibition. The representation of materials in LTM is primarily semantic, but sometimes also in physical form. Tulving (1972) has contrasted semantic memory (consisting of facts, principles, relations and strategies and commonly called knowledge) with episodic memory, which is memory for temporary cited autobiographic events tied to time and place. One distinguishing feature of episodic memory is that some of its features, like the time and place where something happened, often register automatically without attention or effort. Meanings by contrast, are usually established by deliberate study.

Of the factors which affect memory, meaningfulness is about the most important: learning is far better when one studies materials for their meanings rather than their physical features. Processes that add meaning make connections to related ideas and call upon supporting information aid learning and subsequent recall. Other factors in memory include familiarity, similarity, concreteness, spacing and sensory modality (e.g. sight vs sound).

We are all too familiar, however, with the phenomenon of memory failure. The inability to produce stored information when needed is called forgetting. A well-known example of this is the tip-of-the tongue phenomenon those cases when we try very hard to recall a piece of information that we are certain we know but it just refuses to be remembered. Instead wrong answers come to mind and they seem to prevent the occurrence of the right answer. Three main theories attempt to explain forgetting:

(a) **Interference Theory:** The basic assumption of interference theory is that forgetting occurs because other learning interferes with retention or prevents attempts to remember the desired information. If the interfering material occurs after the information that is to be remembered, the decrement in retention of the to-be-remembered information is known as retroactive inhibition. If the interfering material occurs prior to the to-be-remembered information is known as proactive inhibition. In other words, forgetting is inevitable because we are all the time learning new material which may interfere with what we have learned before (proactive inhibition). It is however generally believed that proactive interference, in the form of already existing habits, is probably the major cause of forgetting. Interference theory is based on two processes or mechanisms.

- i. *Response Competition* which refers to an inability to decide which of two or more responses is appropriate. The indecision is reduced by interfering material and may result in either an incorrect response or failure to give a response;
- ii. *Unlearning* which is a weakening of associations between a stimulus and a response, and is primarily associated with retroactive interference.

(b) **Information-Processing Theory:** A major ingredient of this approach is the decay theory. The critical assumption of decay theory is that memory traces automatically weaken with time unless the to-be-remembered information is rehearsed. Thus forgetting occurs because of a gradual fading of memory traces over time (through disuse), and this basic assumption contrasts sharply with the notion that all forgetting results from interfering events. Decay theory is more frequently applied to forgetting from short-term memory, primarily because information processing theorists work on the assumption that long-term memory is essentially permanent. Forgetting from the standpoint of information processing is essentially a failure to retrieve appropriate information from short-term memory as a result of the decay of the memory trace.

(c) Repression Theory (or Motivated Forgetting) is the phenomenon that prevents an individual from recalling information that would cause him unhappiness or embarrassment, e.g. everyday behaviours such as lapses of memory and Freudian slips of the tongue.

Some ways of enhancing students' memory include:

- (i) Frequent review or rehearsal of previous learning, e.g. strengthening the memory faculty by practice. This also implies active rather than passive learning;
 - (ii) Frequent testing which gives students the opportunity rehearses the to-be-remembered information;
 - (iii) Tagging – pairing learning with useful cues of remembrance which will help students organise their memory (Tulving 1985). Often, information is in memory but simply is not associated properly with the situation at hand. Pointing out those situations in which recall of information is likely to be required is therefore useful in improving memory.
 - (iv.) Encouraging students to 'overlearn' information. The minimum level of learning is very susceptible to interference effects;
 - (v). use of mnemonics – which are words, phrases, rhymes, images anything familiar that are paired with new information to make it more memorable, e.g. EGBDF and FAAACE used by neophyte musicians to remember the lines and paces of the treble clef. A lot of school work requires students to remember large amounts of verbal material which are at first essentially rote information, e.g. foreign language vocabulary words, names of countries, dates and manes in history, mathematics and science facts, etc. Most of these instances, the use of mnemonics will enhance the student's learning.
4. **Transfer of Training:** an important aspect of the psychology of learning is what is sometimes called "transfer of training" i.e. the manner in which we are able to use prior learning experiences in the learning of a new problem. For example, the question "can my knowledge of English grammar be

transferred to (i.e. affect or facilitate) my acquisition of Hausa or French or Sanskrit grammar?” raises the question of transfer of training.

Transfer effects may be positive, negative or zero. Positive transfer is said to occur when learning of a first task facilitates the learning of a second task, e.g. if skill in draft game facilitates one's ability to play chess. On the other hand, negative transfer occurs when the learning of a first task hinders the learning of the second task, e.g. if my first learning to ride a motor bike negatively affects my ability to properly drive a motor car. Zero transfer is when the first learning has no effect (or has been neutralised by equal positive and negative effects) on the second learning. Interest in transfer can focus at different levels e.g.:

- (a) The factors or conditions that bring about transfer;
- (b) Application of transfer principles to various educational situations or educational practices in the classroom.

The various kinds of transfer theory developed by psychologists range from stimulus-response association (or generalisation) theory which is an extension to verbal learning situations of conditioning theories of animal learning to cognitive theories which emphasise the active attempts of the learner to comprehend rules and strategies and to apply them to new situations.

With particular regard to the practical application of transfer principles an earlier extreme view was the faculty theory which held that the human mind was composed of certain mental “faculties” such as the faculty for reasoning, the faculty for memory, for judgement, and so on and that these faculties could be strengthened through the study of certain courses. For instance, the study of Latin and other languages was regarded as important in strengthening memory; similarly, the study of mathematics was thought to be important in strengthening reasoning power. Moreover, the doctrine implied that the study of certain subject matters was important because they imparted to the learner a certain discipline of the mind a certain rigour of thought that would help in the learning of new subject areas. This nebulous and rigid doctrine is now generally discredited and replaced by the more restricted theory of identical elements which holds that the effect of

training in one area could transfer to another area if certain features or elements of the two areas are identical or similar, e.g. similar subtraction rules in arithmetic and algebra, or knowledge of mathematics being useful for physics and chemistry and statistics, etc.

It is almost unimaginable to think of human behaviour without the ability to learn. We are what we learn; we learn to be human, to be individuals. Learning including retention, on which it depends, is at the heart of perception, thinking, imagination, reasoning, judgement, attitudes, personality traits, systems of value, and the development and organisation of the activities that constitute the personality of the individual.

This review has attempted a broad overview of the phenomenon of learning from the perspective of the what, the why, and the how. Starting with a simple working definition, i have touched upon, in capsule form, some of the traditional or conventional aspects of learning. For example, cursory consideration was given to the conventional issues of topics such as ‘theories’ of learning, motivation in learning, outcomes of learning, historical and philosophical background of learning, cultural environment of learning, memory and retention of learning, transfer of learning, etc.

2.1.1.7The Concept and Forms of Learning Environment

The raison d’etre of any learning activity is to ensure in the learner a permanent change in desirable (beneficial) behaviour. This change in behaviour occurs within a given context or surrounding. These surroundings especially the conditions and influences with which a learner comes into contact, resulting in a series of complex interaction thereby ensuring a permanent change in behaviour is referred to as a learning environment or “climate”. The formal learning environment is a “built” type. That is, it is man-made depending on the age of the learner, what is to be learnt, the scope and period of learning. We shall be using environment and climate interchangeably.

Basically, learning environment is either internal or external. In terms of institutionalization, there are three forms of learning environment. These are informal, non-formal and formal learning environments. Internal learning

environment is taken to mean the general school climate which could be favourable or otherwise. The factors that tend to result in a favourable environment according to Ige (2013) are educational programme materials and procedures designed to meet the needs of each student, good student relations; competent and understanding teachers and staff members who are genuinely interested in helping all students regardless of their limitations; and fellow students who are friendly and cooperative. At the same time, some internal learning environment could retard learning.

These are outdated and un-dynamic school curriculum; the tendency to promote uniformity in learning delivery within rigid and unrealistic conditions which disregard ability variation among learner teacher mono-knowledge communication and over controlled classroom who is the major determinant of learning progression. External learning environment refers to the ecology of schools which are political, socio-cultural, economic and demographic. The impact of external environment on learning cannot be underestimated because most of the things that take place in the school system are external to it. This would be discussed in the later part of this chapter. Besides the socio-cultural, economic, political and demographic conditions which retard or facilitate learning, the pattern of nourishment, clothing, home conditions, health care of learners, the reward for learning, among others, are also crucial external variables. These variables must not be taken for granted particularly now that the provision for learning is largely a governmental function.

The Informal Learning Environment (ILE) is not designed on a “bureau-graphic” line. It is a loose learning condition geared towards daily learning experiences that are life-long acquired at home, through travels in geo-space, at work, in the macro-community and so on. This type of learning environment is accidental, accommodating all and sundry without considering the ages of the learner. The culture environment is a classic example. Most informal learning environments are wall-less and largely un-divorced from the natural environment of the learner. “At another level, they are often multi-purpose “built” environments which are subject to rapid constant flux without organic superimposition making them very relaxed environments. Learners are not regimented nor are they bottled into a rigid curriculum which are examinable according to teacher subjective selected evaluation criteria with a reward or “penalty” in mind. In the informal learning

environment, everybody is a learner but with very different motives in relation to individual's needs.

Formal Learning Environment (FLE) unlike informal type is highly bureau-graphic and most popular. It is the main focus of this discussion. In FLE, which is institutionalised, "Instructional programmes and learning strategies are organized within the four walls of the school system" (Pane, 2010). It has particular age groups as service targets; requiring tenured education personnel within inter-dependent and related sub-learning environments such as pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary. FLEs are joyless places for learners, their age limits notwithstanding. In the first instance, the activities that go on in such learning environments are not designed by learners nor are they usually consulted. They are superimposed by the "man-built" structures which are usually far away/removed from the centres of learning and manned most often in Nigeria by those who do not understand the workings of modern formal learning environments.

In the second instance, activities in FLEs are examination oriented generating very high tension that tend to inhibit learning and promoted forgetting. They have become in contemporary times "certification centres" because of social demand for education. Above all, they encourage group-rate progress and conformity thereby disregarding individual differentials in the learning process. Learners are forced either by rules, laws or as a matter of governmental policy to learn what may not be beneficial to them. More often than not, the services being rendered to the clients are for future utilization *ceteris paribus*. The services which are designed for those individuals who are within formal-school age brackets have continued to attract governmental attention as shown in budgetary allocation in favour of formal learning. Yet over 70% of the budgets for formal learning environment are usually spent on personnel emoluments as revealed by Pane (2010), leaving very little funds for physical and other inputs into such learning environments. Hence they remain seriously underdeveloped in most LDCs of sub-Sahara Africa. It does appear from contemporary events that formal learning environments have failed to fulfil their promises to the clients. They have become environments for compulsory mis-education.

The loss of faith in formal learning environment's ability to meet the emerging needs of individuals and society is increased by some related events. The provisions for formal learning environment perceive learning as a discrete activity with a time frame. That is FLE is provided with a view to rendering learning service(s) to the clients within a specified period of time required for certification or graduation in the world of learning. No matter the amount and quality of learning acquired in a formal environment, it becomes obsolete with time. New learning needs and societal demands have generated heavy pressure on members of emerging societies. According to Noddings (2007) "the vast acceleration and spread of new knowledge and technologies.... And cultural changes everywhere the whole world wakes up each day faced with a new and larger variety of learning needs." These learning needs are how to eradicate poverty raise health standard and sanitation, survival by migrants and rural dwellers as a result of urbanisation; new occupational skills, political socialization, exceptional individual needs and the need to protect and renew national resources. Formal learning environment cannot provide learning opportunities on continuous basis to take care of these needs. This has made the creation of Non-formal learning environments very desirable. The non-formal learning environments are those outside formal learning environments. The activities in the non-formal environments are systematic providing "utility" types of learning to target units of the general population without age as a barrier. Learning about family planning, improvement on health care and nutrition; agricultural programmes for rural dwellers, outside school occupational training for skills and so on could take place in non-formal environments depending on the needs of learners. In non-formal learning environments, the bureaucracy is loose one, the learning period is flexible and evaluation is by self with little or no emphasis on certificates. The open apprenticeship system is an example of non-formal learning environment. Learning opportunities are less politicised as the curricula are neither rigid nor uniform. Unlike formal learning environment opportunities which are more for maintenance, those of non-formal learning environments are innovative.

Learning environment could be either "maintenance", "Innovative" or "shock" in form depending on the provisions for learning. If the learning opportunities are those geared towards enabling the learners to function within an eco-social system

in dynamic without inbuilt survival adjustment skills when things change, that is known as maintenance learning environment. This form of learning environment is usually controlled with very little learning freedom. An innovative learning environment on the other hand is that which builds into the clients or learners skills of adjustment anticipation in their ecology that is in constant flux. The learning provisions in innovation environments are more utilitarian. It is more of a “free” learning environment without bottling all learners into one container with a uniform behaviour change in view. There is a form of learning environment which is not usually planned, so to say. It emerges as a result of experience particularly in the world of work or labour market when learners’ reliance on the acquired knowledge form maintenance learning environment for survival fails because of lack of inbuilt innovative skills. This is known as “shock” learning environment.

As noted earlier, the locale for this chapter is formal learning environment. Generally, the learning environment in Nigerian schools is in serious crisis. Let us examine the state of learning environment in Nigeria.

2.1.2.1. The State of Learning Environment

The learning environment in Nigerian schools has not only deteriorated but highly dilapidated making it very unsafe for learning in most cases. There is an interesting decay of learning environment due largely to lack of maintenance. In fact, they are joyless places for learning. In a study carried out on the state of learning environment in Nigerian schools by the author between 1989 and 1991 in schools from Bendel (now Edo-Delta), Imo, Plateau, Bauchi and Sokoto States it was concluded that, learning environment in Nigerian schools is unconducive for and inhibitive to learning particularly in rural and old schools. Classrooms are dilapidated, overcrowded, uncompleted, without doors and windows, not enough chairs and tables for both teachers and learners as most students sit on the uncemented floor or on cement blocks, bamboo stick, benches, and logs of wood; many roofs are blown off; teachers are in short supply; equipment are outdated and inadequate; while the general “tone” of the learning environment is low. These are compounded by natural disasters like rain storms, fire, unfriendly wind which has caused untold damages to learning environment at a time when fiscal resource allocation to schools has declined tremendously.

In December 1993, Assessment Committee on public schools in Edo State was appointed under the Chairmanship of Professor J.A. Aghenta to ascertain, among others the state of infrastructural facilities in primary and post-primary schools in the State. In the memoranda submitted to the committee by NUT (1994) and Osifo (1994) they noted that the infrastructural facilities in schools are either inadequate or non-existence. For example, instead of 6,861 classrooms, there are only 4,120 resulting in a short fall of 2,741 classrooms.

Aghenta's Committee (1994) in its report noted that:

The infrastructures and other facilities in many of the schools have deteriorated due partly to age and poor maintenance; sine school buildings have collapsed and have not been re-built. Some others are on the verge of collapsing and therefore constitute death-traps to the users; some buildings have long been devastated by rainstorm or ravaged by fire; there are several abandoned school projects in the State; many valuable school properties and equipment had been vandalised or stolen by hoodlums. In some schools in the State, pupils sit on the bare floor to receive lessons from teachers some of whom have no chairs and tables in their classes; some classes are over-crowded. There are some schools in the state with explosive student enrolment. In some cases, the student population is more that 6,000 as against the policy guidelines of 1,440 several schools have no library and laboratory facilities, equipment workshops, toilet etc.

It complicates the problem of efficient learning in Nigerian schools at a time when stable and developed countries have evolved conducive enriching, motivating and challenging learning environments, Nigeria in her educational efforts has not been able to build desirable learning environments. The existing structures for learning it marginally created and those forcefully taken over from the missionaries and voluntary agencies are not maintained. Indeed, educational authorities in Nigeria over the years have paid lip service to learning environments at all levels. What could be responsible for this state of affairs?

2.1.2.2. Factors Influencing Learning Environment

The state of learning environment in school system could be said to be a product of several factors; some are internal (institutional) and other external operating either singly or in concert as identified by Pane (2010)

Internal Factors: The internal factors influencing learning environment are by nature institutional. These include shortage of resources, mismanagement of funds and learning environment; learners' population explosion; lack of maintenance culture; pedagogical factors (institutional conformity in learning delivery; traditional teaching methods; poor curriculum implementation strategy) and emerging learners' militancy.

- (a) **Shortage of resources:** The learning environment has for some time not been so lucky with adequate resources to promote meaningful learning. More than ever before, particularly since the late eighties, its life has been enveloped in resource crisis. In all learning environments at all levels, funds teachers, buildings, equipment and leadership are in acute shortage and supply. Only the supply of learners has not decline but continues to increase.

The actual amount and value of learning environmental finance have declined seriously in contemporary Nigeria. This is true of both capital and recurrent expenditures. For examples in 1986, N143,007,047 was allocated as capital grant to all the Federal Universities, it fell to N119,783,660 in 1987 and N93,908,687 in 1988. In the same fashion, recurrent grant fell from N394, 966,824 in 1987 to N304, 479.416 in 1988 as shown by the National Universities Commission Records. Lakoju (1994) in support of government claimed that while recurrent grants increased from N3 billion in 1993 to N6.3 billion in 1994, capital grants jumped from N95 million in 1992 to N800 million in 1993. Two major observations could be made with respect to funds for the operation of learning environments in Nigeria. First, a larger percentage of funds budgeted is usually not released by funding authorities particularly the government. For example, between 1980 and 1989, only between 36.9% and 63.3% of monies approved were actually received by the Federal Universities an average of 51.97% (Adeyemi, 2010). Secondly,

recurrent expenditure, particularly teacher salaries, take the lion share of the funds for the management of learning environment without any substantial money left for capital development. This is why their conditions are deplorable. Adeyemi (2010) observed that between 1982 and 1989, the share of primary education teachers' salaries ranged from 35.2% to 47.3% while that of secondary education learning environment ranged from 50.5% to 61.6%.

To a very large extent adequacy of funds influences the shape of learning environment. Its shortage has multiplier effect on other resources which are related. It has become very difficult to attract and retain interested and qualified personnel to man learning environments in Nigeria. There is a growing phenomenon of brain drain which has drastically affected the quality of learning outcomes.

Because of the rapidly declining fiscal fortunes of learning environments, it has become increasingly very difficult to develop new physical facilities and equipment. There appear to be an over utilization of existing physical facilities for teaching and learning particularly in urban areas where learners' population has exploded and the complexity of learning demands ever on the increase.

- (b) **Mismanagement of funds and learning environment:** A catholic feature of learning environment is the labour intensive orientation because of the nature of the service. To attract, motivate, retain and retrain the labour force that operate in those environments, require huge amount of money. Unfortunately, this money is increasingly becoming inadequate. This notwithstanding, a more serious thing is the institutionalized phenomenon of mis-management of funds. Funds are mismanaged with reckless abandon. Executive lawlessness indiscipline or adult delinquency, open corruption and the diversion of monies originally earmarked for the promotion of learning to other unnecessary and non-learning activities are common features in our learning environments. This is the bane of learning environments in Nigeria. This could be explained by the possession of poor management skills by many of the managers of learning environments. In

most cases, they are appointed to head these systems by virtue of their experience which are usually not relevant and cognate to school management. Consequently, they manage by trial and error thereby muddling and stumbling through, causing grave damage to both learning environments and the learners. They lack the skills for motivating the personnel who operate these environments for learning; the knowledge and expertise required for the development of physical facilities; the power to procure equipment and other materials for learning and the “tricks” in managing learners. This is why there is a growing tradition of protest behaviour among learners in Nigerian Learning Schools. In recent studies, Pane (2010) asserted that while poor academic programme influence significantly students’ protest behaviour; trainees rated very poorly, programme management information flow and learning environment with weighted means of 1.00 and 1.5, respectively as aspects of learning programmes management in Nigeria Universities.

- (c) **Learners’ population explosion:** The population of learners in learning environments in Nigeria has exploded beyond the level of effective management. This explosive trend in the population of learners is exacerbated by three related forces. These are: increase in learning needs; demand for learning; and supply of learning opportunities. The drive towards modernity which is characterised by scientific and technological inventions has generated vey many learning needs. The obsolescence of knowledge over time has equally aggravated the rapid patronage of learning environments for what they provide.

The improved standard of living as a result of improvement of health facilities and diets made significant impacts on the number of survivals in the population thereby increasing the number of learners. The individual’s perception of learning as the key that unlocks the door to good life, as it enhances social prestige and mobility, increased the momentum of demand for learning. Society also has proclaimed that learning is the main instrument for effecting national and economic development, among other things, hence it has largely democratised the supply of learning

environments despite the depressed economy which has generated serious finance squeeze.

The consequences of learners' population explosion in our learning environments are: over-crowding which makes learning a big joke; over utilization of the inadequate resources which are also poorly maintained; declining quality of learning outcomes because of marginal attention paid to learners by teachers and occasional nightmarish outburst of violence in the classrooms as control becomes difficult.

Reporting another problem of learning environment, Pane (2010) noted that: "When it rains, the pupils are herded into the few rooms that are available and there is utter confusion as the overcrowded children scream and scramble for the few available seats". This situation which was a tradition in rural learning environments has become an increasing ugly expression in urban learning centre in Nigeria. This is why learning environments have become joyless places of learning. Many children in primary schools sometime carry their seat to and from school daily. This was the case during the period of free education in some parts of the country. The situation has barely improved.

- (d) **Lack of Maintenance Culture:** culture is very much lacking in our learning environments. It is very difficult to explain why suppliers of learning opportunities prefer to create new learning environments than to maintain the existing ones. The result is that these learning environments become dilapidated and sometimes out-dated.

With nostalgic reminiscence of the "old school" one could picture the beauty and cleanliness expressed in well-kept flowers and lawns; and classrooms well swept; chalkboards' darkened, chairs and tables dusted, water kept in the wash-hand basin; school toilets neatly kept with a teacher on duty to enhance supervision making the learning environment attractive for teaching and learning. This was the case in the "old school" perhaps with a boarding system. Today, things have changed for the worse. What one find is an environment for learning that is so neglected?

In the first instance, most of these learning environments were built many years ago and were inherited from the missionaries and other voluntary agencies. As Adeyemi (2010) noted, because many schools built a long time ago are drab and sometimes dingy, teachers and pupils alike tend not to care about beautifying them". Primary school environments suffer more from lack of maintenance as a result of age. Only very few primary schools were built after 1955 until during the 1976 Universal Primary Education (UPE) when new physical structures were hurriedly built.

Other reasons are the large size of schools particularly in urban areas; declining budgetary allocation for maintenance; rapidity in wear and tear, rapid depreciation of learning environments because of poor work done during construction by contractors the warped value system in the country which has tended to devalue education and the subsequent loss of faith in formal learning acquisition as the panacea to the problems of under development; and the rising cost of maintenance among others have all affected maintenance of learning environments in Nigeria.

A new development that dots the landscape of learning environments in Nigeria is the phenomenon of abandoned projects. For example, when the 6-3-3-4 education policy was introduced in 1982, several introductory technology workshop projects were built and some have remained uncompleted ever since while those completed have been abandoned because of lack of electrical energy and so on. Still others have been vandalised.

- (e) **Pedagogical Factors:** the pedagogical factors influencing learning environments are institutional conformity in learning delivery; traditional teaching methods; and curriculum implementation strategy. Central to learning delivery is institutional conformity. There is autocracy of learning delivery. Institutions decide on what should be learnt, perhaps the extent they are to be learnt through evaluation and standards, time allocation for learning and learners responses in some cases. Individual differences are ignored as unimportant in the learning process. Every learner is subjected to the same learning conditions and evaluated in the same way. The

tendency to emphasise on norms in learning discourages the spirit of creativity among learners. Consequently, most formal learning environments are over controlled by the teacher which is responsible for the “tense states”. Learners are not free.

The traditional learning methods which have dominated the teaching learning process in Nigeria’s learning environments go a long way, with negative effects. In this traditional approach, knowledge banking by the teacher in the learner is very popular. It is a one-way communication pattern with the learner always at the receiving end, sometimes without being able to ask questions. The teacher is portrayed as the “knowledge pot”. In this manner the teacher’s output would depend on the content of the pot and the environment which could promote knowledge storage or evaporation overtime. Lack of or presence of regenerative encounter makes a big impact on learning environment.

Because of the massive approach of the traditional pedagogy which disregards individuality in learning. Personalized system of instruction, contract learning and programmed instruction are highly recommended. These are well treated in many books on pedagogy. According to Keller (1968), the personalized system of instruction “is an attempt to adapt instruction to the time, place, and the rate that are compatible with the personal style and objectives of individual student”. The contract learning strategy utilizes the mentor who helps in the design and implementation of individualized programmes through conferences which are flexible to accommodate the dynamic learning needs.

Programmed instruction is computer based emphasising the building and utilization of analytical skills. It is not flexible thereby discouraging interaction with the learner in a face-to-face fashion. If the environment for learning with the adopted teaching strategies are those that are congruent with learning styles of a learner, to large extent learning would be enhanced. The strategies for curricula implementation often times are in dissonance to the original design. They are either put forward in a hurry or are delayed

hence they fall particularly when objectives and standards are not usually clear; communication is poor; implementation agencies are superimposed; implementers are not positively disposed; resources are in acute short supply; and the ecological conditions are not conducive. The implementation of the 6-3-34 curricula as a classic example leaves much to be desired. It was haphazard and without pre-implementation feasibility study. In the end the implementation has no significant effect.

- (f) **Emerging Learner Militancy:** The contemporary Nigerian learner has changed considerably as a result of generation differentiation. Consequently, the generation gap between learners and teachers on one hand and learners and managers of learning environments on the other hand has increased more than ever before. Unfortunately, nobody has attempted to bridge this gap in teaching-learner's relation. Consequently, there are series of conflicts and violent actions in our learning environments. Learners are no longer to be seen but they want to be heard and in fact determine what to learn, how to teach then and when and how to evaluate them. They want to take part in their affairs and think for themselves. Since the older generation does not take them serious by way of involving them in the management of learning environments, they have established what they call "Students Union Government" which is distinct from the earlier students' university operations. To a large extent, they say what happens in the university. In some universities, students have largely taken over the management of institutional affairs, e.g. they make their own examination time table disregarding Authorities' decisions through "aluta continua". These and more are very ugly developments which have made learning environments very unconducive in Nigerian Universities.

One of the greatest threats to learning environments in Nigeria particularly at the tertiary level is the reign of violence institutionalised by the growing phenomenon of secret cults in the campuses. The notoriety of members of these cults has attracted the Nigerian society as a whole towards taking hard lines and lives are no longer saving on the campuses. When secrete cults emerged in Nigeria's tertiary institutions particularly the "pirate confraternity" it acted as a "watch dog" controlling the excesses of

authorities and protecting the weak students. But today, the number of secret cults has proliferated with such names like the “Black Axe”, “Eye” “Terminators” “Maphite”, “Buccaneers” etc. They have become very deadly in their operations. They terrorise, maim and in some cases kill fellow students rather than protecting the weak they use it to settle grievances by attacking innocent opponents and females particularly. Their weapons include clubs, knives, axes, dangerous chemicals and sometimes short-guns. The threat, the menace of secret cults contributes to learning environment on campuses can only be imagined. For example, in one of the universities, hell was let loose as several secret cults clashed in 1994 leaving many students physically handicapped.

External Factors: By the very nature of learning environments, they are largely influenced by external factors. There is a very high relationship between external factors and learning environment. This relationship could be positive or negative. These are mainly political and economic factors. They have equally been shaped by learning opportunities in various societies.

- (a) **Political Relations:** Political relations exert strong pressures on learning environments in developing countries. Learning opportunities are provided by the political system as instruments not only for political socialisation but also for the perpetuation of existing political ideologies. Learning environmental relations are determined by the existing polity. The existence of viability, structure, operations, resources and indeed the totality of dimensions of learning environments are subject to political considerations. Learning opportunity provision is a governmental function particularly in less developed counties.

The government of the day whether federal, state and local play various roles in the management of learning environments in Nigeria. Unfortunately, this role at each level of government has not been played satisfactorily because of constant policy changes or experiments. At a time, the Unity Secondary Schools and Tertiary Learning environments were and still remain the responsibility of federal government. State governments control their secondary and tertiary learning environment

as stipulated by law. Primary learning environments have vacillated under the control of federal, state and local governments. This is the most unstable political educational arrangement.

Political stability or instability affects both the internal and external workings of learning environments. The Nigerian case since for nearly a decade is a classic one. The series of protracted political crisis are damaging learning environment.

Political interference in the management of learning environments have led to persistent violation of an academic freedom loss of autonomy and the promotion of negative dependency on governments. These are by-products of political interference in the matters of education. For example, in the universities, Noddings (2007) stated that councils exist merely to carry out directives from outside bodies which now take over the actual functions of governing bodies, as prescribed by law. As things are going, with what seem governments over control of matters relating to learning, they will sooner than later be being to legislate on who should be awarded certificates or degrees in a quota oriented system.

- (b) **Economic Changes:** Since the second half of the eighties, the changes in the economy of Nigeria have been unprecedented in economic history. The economy became depressed with the mounting distress during this period. This according to Adeyemi (2010) “led to the adoption of harsh economic policies that has affected adversely the education sector in general.

The structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) which was adopted by the Babangida administration brought in a train of bad economic changes which became compounded by the worsened macroeconomic aggregates. For example, inflation galloped, oil price fell as a result of the glut in world market, the country's debt burden increased, export earnings declined rapidly, terms of trade worsened and poverty became more sordid and widespread. Consequently, financial provisions for learning midst of general rising costs. Underfunding became the major feature of investment in learning activities. With the increasing finance squeeze, it is not

very likely that learning environments would be able escape from a grimmer fiscal future.

2.1.3 Theories of Learning that Underpin Social Studies Education

There are many theories that are used to underpin the educational system in Nigeria. These theories are generally regarded as 'eclectic' (Akinsanya, 2012; Osokoya, 2008). They are eclectic in the sense that they do not adhere to a particular philosophical outlook. The National Policy on Education (NPE) suggested four approaches to education in Nigeria: a pragmatic approach, an existential approach, an idealistic approach, and a realistic approach (National Policy on Education, 2004).

According to the National Policy of Education, a 'realistic' approach to education underpins science, technical and vocational subjects. The teaching and learning of these subjects involves the carrying out of practical exercises and experiments that provide students with the ability to observe the natural world and understand cause and effect. Idealistic approaches to education expose students to subjects that allow them to enter discourses and evaluate evidence or meaning: such subjects include History, Political Science, Geography, Literature, the Creative Arts, and Music. An existential approach is used quite often in Religious Studies, where students apply principles and ideas to their own existence, taking biblical lessons and applying them to their own lives (Abidoye, 2012). Finally, the 'pragmatic' approach (attributed to John Dewey) and closely allied to the constructivist approach exposes students to subjects such as Social Studies which equip them with the understanding and skills to explore the world in which they live.

2.1.3.1. Major Theories of Learning

There are many approaches to learning. Scholars such as Bigge & Shermis, (1998) categorised learning theories into two – the stimulus-response conditioning theories of the behaviouristic family (these include the work of B.F Skinner, Ivan Pavlov, Edward Thorndike and John B. Watson) and the interactionist theories of the cognitive family (these include the work of Jean Piaget, Robert Gagne). Alternatively, scholars such as Anctil, Hass and Parkay, (2007)

categorised learning theories into three vis-a-vis behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism. The classification of theories of learning into two or three sub-sets arises from a subjective assessment of the differences between approaches to learning. Thus, for this study and to ensure clarity I will adopt the approach suggested by Anctil et al. (2007) and discussed three specific groups of learning theories - constructivist, behaviourist and cognitivist. Constructivist theory is based upon the idea that learning is an active processing which learners build or 'construct' new ideas or concepts based upon their current or past knowledge, social interactions and that motivation affects the construction. According to Anctil et al. (2007) the origin of constructivism can be traced back to the Gestalt idea that learners seek to organise new information into a meaningful whole. However, Atherton (2011) believed that the work of Jean Piaget and John Dewey on the theory of childhood development and education led to the evolution of constructivism. Jean Piaget argued that humans learn through the 'construction' or building of one logical structure after another. He also concluded that the logic of children and their modes of thinking are initially entirely different from those of adults (Abidoye, 2012).

In a similar manner John Dewey pointed out that education should be grounded in real experience. The implications of these theories and how they were applied have shaped the foundation for constructivist education. This is because constructivism encourages and accepts students' autonomy and initiative and it enables the teacher to search for students' understanding and prior experiences about concept before teaching it to them. It encourages communication between the teachers and the students and also between the students. It encourages students' critical thinking and inquiry by asking them thoughtful, open-ended questions, and encourages them to ask questions of each other. Finally, constructivism puts students in situations that might challenge their previous conceptions and creates contradictions that will encourage discussion. Constructivism cuts across psychological, sociological, philosophical and educational theories. Psychologists, philosophers, and sociologists such as Lev Vygotsky, Jerome Bruner, David Ausubel, Seymour Papert, Ernst von Glasersfeld, Eleanor Duckworth, and George Forman have added new perspectives to constructivist learning theory and practice. By way of contrast, behaviourism has been described as a rote pattern

learning base. It focuses on objectively observable behaviours and discounts mental activities (Olubela, 2015). According to Rüschoff & Ritter, behaviourism suggests that learning is nothing more than the acquisition of new behaviours. It is stimulus-response based and this implies that the teaching and learning process must have and maintain the appropriate stimulus for effective learning to take place. Invariably, if certain incentives are not present or do not occur, then the expected and desired performance may not take place.

Adegbile (2011) traced the origin of behaviourism to John B. Watson and Edward L. Thorndike. John B. Watson drew heavily upon Pavlov's work and became convinced that learning was, as Pavlov described it, as a process of building conditioned reflexes through the substitution of one stimulus for another. Hence, he challenged some ideas of Thorndike (below) because he felt that it is impossible to exclude mind and mind-related concepts from them. Thorndike's theory of learning - Stimulus-Response (S-R) Theory – implies that, through conditioning, specific responses come to be linked with certain stimuli. These links, bonds or connections are products of biological or synaptic changes in nervous system. Thorndike thought that the principal way in which S-R connections are formed is through random trial and error. He placed a hungry cat in a cage that could be opened from inside only by pulling a loop or striking a latch or button. He placed some food that the cat relished outside the cage. The cat would claw, bite and scurry wildly about until it accidentally touched the release and it was freed. The experiment was repeated and the cat behaved the same except that over the course of a number of successive "trials" the total time required by the cat to get out of the cage decreased. Thorndike inferred from the timed behaviour of this cat that learning was a process of "stamping in" connections in the nervous system, again suggesting that repetition or rote was a useful tool in learning. Cognitivist theorists, in contrast, focus on how humans process and store information and is highly important in the teaching and learning process (Abidoye, 2012). Thus, it is important for teachers to thoroughly analyse and consider the appropriate tasks needed in order for learners to effectively and efficiently process the information received. In some respects, this is mirrored in Piaget's work on children's understanding of their world – the activities have to be age-appropriate (Ige &

Amosun 2010). Explicit instruction is still very much at the heart of cognitive approaches to learning.

Ige (2012) linked the origin of cognitivism to Germany in the early part of the 20th century. They identified psychologists such as Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Kohler and Kurt Koffka as the early exponents of this theory. Subsequently, Jean Piaget, Robert Gagne and Lev Vygotsky have added new perspectives to cognitivist learning theory and practice.

One of the sharpest criticisms of cognitivism against behaviourism is that behaviouristic conceptions of learning deny the central role learning plays in seeking a solution. While behaviourists placed their animals in situations entirely foreign to them and often allowed them only a bare minimum of freedom, the opportunities for those animals to formulate alternative solutions was minimal. In essence, within a confined space, it could be argued that animals stumbled upon the solution either by chance (if early on) or due to the limited solutions available to them. Cognitivists argue in contrived problem scenarios, the relationship between pressing a release mechanism and an animal escaping from a puzzle box appear to be completely mechanical, and not indicative of learning or problem solving. Cognitivists have further criticised behaviourist approaches to research on the grounds that, even if animal learning were insightful, the development of insight cannot be observed. The nature of any psychological processes that lead to the solving of a puzzle are hidden from view as experiments have a very limited set of predetermined conclusions (success or failure, freedom or incarceration; hunger or being fed). In an attempt to challenge behaviourist arguments that learning is mechanical, cognitivists have designed entirely different types of animal experiments. Their experiments involved creation of problematic situations that animals might conceivably resolve through development of insight. Such situations varied in difficulty to the presumed potential intelligence of the animals being studied.

Cognitivists also contrast sharply with behaviourists with respect to the manner in which they create psychological data. Behaviourists use observable behaviour, and only observable behaviour, as data. Consequently, they restrict learning objectives to those expressed in terms of observed outcomes. While cognitivists

also study observable behaviours, they infer from them the changing personalities, environments and insights of the individual or group being studied.

Thus, whereas behaviourists argue that physical, observable behaviour is also an index of psychological processes; cognitivists argue that psychological processes are different from physical observable responses.

Additionally, cognitivists have argued that behaviourists err in making the observable results of learning synonymous with the learning itself. For them, a change of observable behaviour may be evidence that learning has occurred or is occurring, but such behavioural change is not necessarily observation of learning,

Simply the outcome for example, a person who is in a dark alley and is struck from behind and knocked down may gain insight from this experience and decide not to walk down dark alleys in future – a change in behaviour – but this is not equivalent to the change in insight that has occurred. Furthermore, a person may use insight gained through an earlier experience as the basis for a change in his or her present behaviour, and such learning is not considered by behaviourists, only what they can observe at the time.

Within the context of education, behaviourist approaches to learning can be construed as outcomes or results-based whereas cognitive approaches are process-based. Behaviourist approaches rely on inference being drawn from results, whereas cognitive approaches to learning consider the signposts to learning or the building blocks that are put in place to elicit results.

This study is conceptualised around the 'pragmatic' approach offered by John Dewey in that it seeks to provide students with an understanding and the tools necessary to become effective citizens through the inculcation of right type of attitude towards building a virile society. However, I also draw heavily upon the principles set out by other constructivist theorists such as Jerome Bruner (Bruner, 2006; Entwistle, 1987; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) and Leo Vygotsky (Bodrova, 1997; Vygotsky, 1966; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky was of the opinion that children do not operate in isolation but learn by interacting with more knowledgeable others (an adult, an older peer, a teacher, or, perhaps today even the internet) (Smith, Cowie, & Blades, 2003).

Bruner agreed with Vygotsky's view that society provides the tools that enables a child to develop their thinking beyond his/her chronological age, and he also developed Vygotsky's ideas further by calling the role that knowledgeable others play in helping a child to learn as a 'loan of consciousness' - a scaffold (Abidoye, 2012). Put simply, a scaffold is a framework to help the student step beyond age-related limitations, and also to structure the teaching and learning process without being unnecessarily didactic. Scaffolding appears in a variety of forms but it provides a supported and accessible step-by-step approach through which a child can gradually build up knowledge.

Ige (2012) also argued that "knowledge is not passively received, but is actively built up" (p224). In their critique of theories of learning, they identified the following fundamental contributions of constructivism to learning theory:

- Learning must be regarded as an active and collaborative process of knowledge construction;
- Learning is to be seen as an autonomous process, to be regulated by the learners' expectations, goals, existing schemata and intentions;
- Learning is a process of experimentation based on previous knowledge and experience;
- Learning is a process of socially negotiated construction of meaning;
- Learning is a process which must be supported by a rich learning environment rooted in real life and authentic situations.

This implies that the teaching and learning process should not be didactic; it should be interactive, so that new knowledge can be fruitfully acquired when learning is made relevant to the lived experience of the learners. It will also lead to more learning competence and learning awareness.

Additionally, there is some existential learning associated with subjects such as Social Studies. Existentialism is primarily concerned with an individual's ability to take an idea or tenet and relate it to his/her own experiences. This may be difficult for children who are just embarking upon the journey of life and they perhaps need an alternative learning experience to better understand the world surrounding them. However, this, coupled with a pragmatic approach and underpinned by

constructivist principles is useful in the teaching of Social Studies and provides opportunities for students to anticipate and understand some of the issues they will face in a modern Nigeria, and offers them the opportunity to explore ideas and concepts, building a picture of the world in which they are going to live, both before and as they experience it.

2.1.4 Constructivism

Participatory learning strategy of voter education concepts is based on the theory of constructivism. As a philosophy of learning, constructivism could be traced to the Eighteenth century in the work of the philosopher Gram Battista Vico cited in Nkire (2011) who held that humans can only clearly understand what they themselves constructed. According to him, education depends on action, knowledge and ideas which emerged only from a situation in which learners had to draw them out of experiences that had meaning and importance to them. Also, he opined that these situations have to occur in a social context, such as a classroom, where students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who build their own knowledge together.

Loiswell and Descamps (2010) postulated that knowledge is not transmitted but invented through a process of thinking and applying prior knowledge in a reflective way in solving a given problem. Constructivism believes that students learn better when they are involved in determining what they learn through a process of knowledge deconstruction by applying prior knowledge and beliefs in the new learning situation.

The constructivist theory of learning provides the theoretical base for the participatory action research paradigm adopted for this study, Constructivism has been described as a philosophy, an epistemology, a cognitive position and a pedagogical orientation (Oyeniran, 2009). The theory defines learning as an active process in which learners construct new ideas based on current or previously acquired knowledge (Ojo, 2009). It focuses on learners' ability to mentally construct meaning out of their own environment and to create their own learning (Falade, 2007).

Ige (2013) stated that there are four epistemological assumptions at the heart of constructivist learning. These are:

- I. Knowledge is physically constructed by learners who are involved in active learning;
- II. Knowledge is symbolically constructed by learners who are making their own representations of action;
- III. Knowledge is socially constructed by learners who convey their meaning and making to others;
- IV. Knowledge is theoretically constructed by learners who try to explain things they do not completely understand.

The scholars further maintain that these epistemological assumptions can be seen in the works of Dewey, Montessori, Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky, and that constructivism represents a paradigm shift from education based on behaviourism to education based on cognitive theory. Ige (2013) maintained that behaviourist epistemology focuses on intelligence, domains of objectives, level of knowledge and reinforcement, while the constructivist epistemology assumes that learners construct their own knowledge on the basis of interaction with their environment. One of the major arguments of the constructivist is that effective learning involves action or active participation of the learners which involves participatory activities where groups of students interact and help one another to learn. Participatory action model is not having students talk to one another, either face to face or in a conference while they do individual assignments; rather it involves working together to achieve a common purpose. For instance, students can be assisted to work together in a participatory mode, form a club, and elect officers. By learning to vote, they are learning the concept of democracy and at the same time acquiring the values of fair play, tolerance and teamwork. From the constructivist point of view, there are some shifts in learning today. These shifts are:

- from instruction to construction and discovery;
- from teacher-centred to learners centred education;
- from absorbing learning materials to learning how to navigate and how to learn;
- from school learning to lifelong learning;

- from learning as torture to learning as fun;
- from the teacher as a transmitter to the teacher as a facilitator,

The developed participatory voter Education instructional guide will be based on the social constructivist instructional theory which posits that knowledge is constructed when individuals engage socially in talk and activity about shared problems or tasks (Ajiboye, 2008). In this case, the teacher's role shifts from that of person who imparts knowledge to being a facilitator. Its major proponents include J.S. Brunner and Jean Piaget. The ultimate aim of the theory is the construction of shared understanding through authentic and meaningful activity. This aim is informed by the following assumptions that:

- Learning is constructed by the learner
- Learning occurs without and is influenced by context (learning of meaning does not occur in isolation but is influenced by one's social context).
- Teaching supports learning construction.

This theory will no doubt help this study to inculcate in the students an uncompromising interest to learning as most of the contents/knowledge are designed or constructed by themselves vis-a-vis the guidance provided by the facilitator. It places the learners at the centre of the learning therefore making learning more real and concrete as against the abstract learning which the conventional teaching method imposes on learners. This in turns will help learners develop the potentials of their abilities to analyse public issues and to cooperate with others in group activities.

2.2 Review of Related Literatures

2.2.1 Voter Education (VE)

Voter Education is a non-formal public education meant to inform and to empower the voters to clearly understand their rights and responsibilities in the electoral process (David, 2016). It strives to improve the process of democracy, mobilize

voters to exercise their rights in politics and to enhance voters understanding of participatory democracy.

Voter education helps citizen to acquire knowledge, skills and general awareness that empower them to be able to effectively play their roles in the conduct of public affairs. They are able to make informed choices on issues that affect their everyday lives. It arouses voter interest and builds on voter's experience in relation to the importance of voting, voting procedures and processes (Jekayinfa, 2009).

Voter education plays an integral role in encouraging citizens to participate and exercise their democratic rights to choose their leaders through the ballot box. It provides knowledge and necessary skills that enables voters to make informed choices.

Nigeria is a signatory of various international documents that recognize voter education as an important element in the promotion and sustenance of democracy. These include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 21); the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Article 25) and the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, Article 13. Effective voter education must be understood within the Nigerian environment. It is important to appreciate key historical events that have shaped the country's political landscape. It should target all age groups ranging from students to the aged.

The Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) acknowledges that the dissemination of voter education is the responsibilities of all stake holders. These include the Government, NGOs, the media, political parties, religious organizations, learning institutions and the entire public.

2.2.1.1. Objectives of Voter Education

1. Empower the people to use their inherent power as citizens to transform their society by electing leaders of their choice based on merit that will protect and promote their interests.
2. Impart knowledge and developed citizens' competence in the process and practice of elections.

3. Promote ethical behaviour in the electoral process.
4. Promote citizens' conviction that they have the power and the means through the vote to elect a democratic, transparent, accountable and competent government that is supportive of their social, economic and political interests.
5. Minimize and eradicate electoral fraud through awareness of manipulation of voters and the election process.
6. Minimize and eradicate electoral violence and other malpractices that are mainly caused by ignorance and misunderstanding of electoral process.
7. Minimize voter apathy and encourage voter registration and voting through understanding the importance of participating in elections and negative effects of non-participation in registration and voting.
8. Enable the voter to make an informed choice in electing good leaders.

2.2.1.2. Importance of Voter Education

1. It creates a well-informed citizen who is conscious of his/her rights in relation to the electoral process.
2. It promotes citizens' knowledge of the relationship between elections and good governance and their responsibilities in creating and sustaining a democratic society.
3. It helps fight voter apathy by encouraging voters' active participation in the electoral process. High voter turnouts give elected leaders a clear mandate and reduce electoral conflicts generated by slim mandates.
4. It provides information on the electoral process e.g. who can vote, how to vote, electoral crimes etc.
5. It eradicates electoral fraud.
6. It is less expensive to the economy and the individual voter since it reduces wastage of materials.
7. It saves on time by reducing the time a voter takes to cast his/her vote.

8. It enables voters to choose quality leaders by minimizing voter manipulation.
9. It promotes peaceful elections.
10. It minimizes voters' disappointments on the voting day by encouraging them to inspect the voters register earlier and to confirm that their names appear.
11. It promotes a national culture by encouraging voters to think nationally and thereby minimizing negative ethnic, religious, gender and sectarian differences.
12. It is likely to raise standards of public debate related to elections from that based on personalities to issue-based campaigns.
13. It entrenches the culture of democracy in the country.

2.2.1.3 Voter information

Voter information provides basic information that voters need to take part in an election. Among other things, it gives information on: -

- 1) Why is it necessary to register as a voter?
- 2) What are the requirements to register as a voter?
- 3) How do you register as a voter?
- 4) What is manual registration and Electronic Voter Registration and what are the differences between the two?
- 5) Where do you register as a voter?
- 6) When do you register as a voter?
- 7) What is a "voters" register?
- 8) Where and how can a voter confirm his/her name appears correctly in the Voters "Register?"
- 9) What type of elections are held and when?
- 10) How do you vote and when?
- 11) How are results announced and by who?

Voter information is about facts and fundamentals about elections. Both Voter Education and Information are critical for success of elections because they provide relevant and objective knowledge to voters. This enables voters to make

informed voting and thereby contribute to free and fair elections. It is therefore important that all eligible voters have access to voter education and information.

2.2.1.4. Organizing a Voter Education Activity

A voter education facilitator has the following tasks;

a) To help participants gain enough knowledge to make informed voting Facilitators must realize that citizens already have their own ideas and different levels of information and knowledge. Terminology may differ but existing knowledge should form the starting point for voter education. The facilitator's role is to increase the participants' knowledge and confidence in expressing themselves.

b) To help participants acquire appropriate knowledge, values and skills

The facilitator should seek to build participants ability to make decisions and act on the basis of their individual rights, as part of the community and for the public good. As a facilitator, it is important to remain neutral and acknowledge views of participants in order to gain and maintain their respect and trust.

c) To help develop the participants' values the facilitator should seek to promote values which support a well-functioning and democratic citizen characterized by: high level of tolerance for different views; fairness; honesty; accountability and transparency; and respect for and observance of human rights (David, 2016).

A. Facilitation

To effectively run a voter education event, a good facilitator should:

- 1) Ensure participation of learners in voter education
- 2) Respect the views of participants and not impose personal views on participants
- 3) Have clear understanding of the subject content of voter education program
- 4) Be effective in communicating in clear and precise manner using practical examples and illustrations drawn from the experiences of participants.
- 5) Encourage participants to ask and answer questions

6) Understand and respect the participants.

Facilitators should be aware that there are formal and informal voter education events. Therefore, type of activity should guide planning of voter education activity. Some of the voter education activities may be planned to take place at the same time and in the same place with routine societal events like weddings and religious gatherings. Activities can be organized to take advantage of time and opportunities offered by other day to day activities organized by the communities themselves. Informal and formal events require different approaches for delivery of voter education (David, 2016).

B. Voter Education Events

In planning a voter education activity, you should ask yourself what type of activity you intend to carry out. Some of the activities may be planned within the context of larger non-voter education activities. Communities can organize gatherings that can be used as an entry point for planned activities.

i. Formal Events

Formal events are those that are organized specifically to provide civic education to a target group. The activity you carry out may be in the form of a briefing or an interactive seminar, depending on the time available and size of target audience. Examples of formal events include workshop and seminars, meeting with civil society groups, leaders' meetings and religious gatherings. Whether through workshops or ordinary meetings, the facilitator must use PARTICIPATORY and REFLECTIVE approaches and methods that will encourage all those attending to participate in the discussion. For example, one can put questions to participants or ask participants to ask and answer questions. You must ensure that the discussion „reflects“ real life situations and everyday activities of the target group.

This is done by asking participants to identify a local issue that is of concern and then relating it to one or more of the voter education themes. One should also get participants to use their own experiences and circumstances (harness their own wisdom) when discussing what they see as possible solutions, rather than the facilitator imposing ideas on them (David, 2016).

ii. Informal Events

Informal voter education events can take place anywhere and at any time whenever inappropriate opportunity arises. The approach is such that the facilitators go to the people, rather than expecting people to come to them. For example, the facilitator could attend a public meeting and request for a limited amount of time to discuss voter education issues. One could also attend a meeting of community members in a youth, welfare, religious or women's group.

Informal opportunities also present themselves where people normally gather in the course of their everyday lives, for example:

- Community meeting at the sub-location or location level
- In the market place
- At social gatherings

Since it may not be possible for participants to introduce themselves by name and concerns before starting the session, just acknowledge their presence and thank them in advance for their time and attention. You may wish to start off the session with a familiar ice-breaker such as among or skit if appropriate. Asking community members to start off with a familiar song is encouraged (David, 2016).

Special Target Groups

It is important to bear in mind that certain categories of people in the society have difficulty accessing voter education and information because they have special needs. Such categories of people include people with physical disabilities, the elderly, poor people, etc. Special efforts should be made to target such groups who often end up being left out of voter education activities.

Rules to Remember

- 1) In conducting voter education, you must be objective and non-partisans. You must not show any bias towards or against any candidate or political party or any line of political persuasion;
- 2) If appropriate join people in what they are doing and gradually introduce the subject of voter education;

3) Avoid a confrontational approach- to remove any suspicion introduce yourself and be transparent about your purpose.

4) Be creative and respectful. Do not stick rigidly to one way of doing things but fit in with the demands of the environment.

5) Do not just lecture to the participants about voter education. Use probing questions to generate information from them. Allow them to ask questions and make short, precise presentations as the situation allows.

6) State specific points in plain language. Generate and maintain interest of the participants and make issues clear to the learners. Planning Voter Education Events

The facilitator or coordinator must plan for every civic education event in advance. Many seminars and workshops fail due to poor planning.

2.2.1.5. Running a voter education workshop or seminar

When running a workshop, you could go through the following specific stages (note that these suggestions are mainly applicable in formal, not informal civic education event)

Introduction of Facilitators and participants

As a facilitator, introduce yourself by name and the organization that you represent. Assure the participants that you are politically neutral and you do not represent any political party or an interest.

2.3 Democracy and Elections

2.3.1 Democracy

Democracy can be defined as a way of governing based on people 's consent i.e. the Will of the People. It is based on the understanding that power belongs to the people and thus the government is answerable to them. People have the power to decide freely how they want to be governed and by whom.

Democracy requires tolerance and consensus between people. The wishes of all are taken into consideration and whereas the majority will have their way, the wishes and needs of minorities and disadvantaged groups must also be respected.

2.3.1.1 The pillars of a democracy

For a genuine democracy to grow, a society must practice the following for all its citizens: -

- 1) Justice
- 2) Fairness
- 3) Equality
- 4) Respect for rights and freedoms

The constitution provides for the following key freedoms: -:

- i) Freedom of expression
- ii) Freedom of press
- iii) Freedom of association
- iv). Freedom to acquire (through lawful means), own and sell property (Adeyemo, 2010)

2.3.1.2 Types of Democracies

There are two main types of democracies practiced in the world: -

- i) Direct Democracy
- ii) Indirect Democracy

Direct Democracy: This is a form of democracy in which people themselves directly express their will on public issues. It is common in organizations and associations with a small membership but it is difficult to practice this form of democracy in large and complex organizations with large number of people spread over area. Direct democracy is also defined as participatory democracy. Indirect Democracy: This is a form of democracy in which people do not directly govern themselves but elect representatives periodically to make decision and govern on their behalf. This form of democracy is widely practiced in modern states because they are large in area and in population. It is difficult to involve everybody in such a situation and so people exercise their power through representatives.

In Nigeria, we practice indirect democracy by electing a president, Members of Parliament and councillors to make decisions on our behalf. Voters delegate their powers to make decisions to these representatives. This mandate is reviewed and renewed after every five years (Adeyemo, 2010).

2.3.1.3 Principles of a Democracy

The understanding and practice of democracy differs from one country to another. There are however basic principles that constitute a democratic government. The following are some of the principles supported by people in most democracies: -

1) Citizen Participation: This involves standing for elections, voting at elections, debating issues freely, attending community or civic meetings, being members of private voluntary organizations, paying taxes and even protesting peacefully to demonstrate in disagreement with the government of the day on certain issues.

2) Human Rights and Freedoms of the Individual: Democracy emphasizes the value of every human being. Examples of human rights include the right to life, to personal liberty, protection from slavery and forced labour, protection from deprivation of property, freedom of conscience, of expression, of movement, protection from discrimination on grounds of race, sex, etc.

3) Political Tolerance: The rights of the majority and minorities must be protected.

Individuals must learn to be tolerant of one another's point of view and to respect other people's freedoms and rights.

4) Accountability: Elected and appointed officials have to be accountable to the people.

5) Transparency: The Press and the public should be able to get information about decisions affecting them being made by whom and why

6) Multi-party Political System: more than one party must participate and compete peacefully in elections and play a role or contribute to the process of governance.

7) Regular Free and Fair Elections: Citizens express their will through elected representatives. In a democracy, elections are held regularly. It is important for

elections to be free, fair and transparent. This requires the removal and intolerance of obstacles such as excessive government control, intimidation,

8) Acceptance of Election Results: In democratic elections, there are winners and losers. Losers who refuse to accept results of an election which has been freely and fairly conducted go against democratic principles. This may result in election violence

9) Equality before the Law: All individuals are valued equally and should not be discriminated on the grounds of race, religion, ethnic origin or sex

10) Control of Abuse of Power: There should be control of the abuse of power such as corruption and discriminatory use of public resources or facilities by government, institutions or individuals to campaign

11) Peace and Stability: there must be peace and political stability for democracy to thrive (Adeyemo, 2010).

2.3.1.4 Relationship between Democracy and Elections

Democracy recognizes that people are the highest authority. People are the source of power and all laws, rules and decisions must reflect the will of the people. In a democracy, citizens have a primary responsibility and key role to influence and set the agenda of their country. The democratic agenda of the country must be based on the needs and priorities of all citizens. This can only be assured when citizens are active in public affairs and when they make their demands known to their leaders whom they have elected to make decisions on their behalf. People's participation is provided through elections. There is a strong relationship between democracy and elections. Through elections, people choose their representatives and their leaders. People governed have the right to freely decide how they want to be governed or led. Elections serve as a tool which society uses to confer leadership (elect), to re-confer leadership (re-elect) or to change leadership (Adeyemo, 2010).

Elections Provide people with the following opportunities to:

1) Vote and determine who should represent them in decision-making bodies during a given period of time

- 2) Exercise their duty and responsibility as citizens by voting
- 3) Bring about changes in leadership which should ideally translate into social political reforms
- 4) Influence policies
- 5) Replace leaders who have failed to promote and protect their interests
- 6) Adjudge how national resources have been raised, distributed and managed
- 7) Assess and adjudge on their leadership accountability
- 8) Provide or renew legitimacy to their leaders
- 9) Root political stability

2.3.2. Elections in Nigeria

2.3.2.1. Elections

Election is the method of making political choices by voting. Adeyemo (2010) saw it as the process of electing or choosing suitable candidates for public office usually by eligible voters or the electorate. Citizens or voters are legally qualified to vote for members of National Assembly or parliament from the electorate. One major way as identified by Adeyemo (2010) by which the majority of the people in a democratic state participate in government is by voting at elections.

2.3.2.2. Types of elections

There are various types of elections.

(I). Open Election

In an open election, voters are expected to indicate their choices by queueing behind the portrait of a candidate or symbol of a political party or rising up their hands which are counted and recorded for each candidate. Open election allows a candidate to know voters that vote for or against him/her. In a situation like this, the winners can punish or

harass the voters that failed to cast their votes for them. Open election is suitable for electorate with a small size.

(I). Secret Election

The voters under this arrangement vote in secret. In order to assist voters especially illiterates, political parties and their candidates are usually represented by symbols such as cock, palm tree, hoe, eagle or horse. Secret election protects election malpractices; secret election protects the voters from molestation and intimidation. If there are no election malpractices, secret election appears to be democratic.

(iii). Bye-elections

It refers to an election conducted within a given constituency with a view to electing a new representative whenever there is a vacancy.

(iv). General Election

A general election is conducted nation-wide and in stage. In general election, voters have the opportunity to vote for candidates for presidency, Governorship and parliament (National Assembly in some countries).

4. Referendum

It refers to a system of voting in which the eligible voters are expected to vote “Yes” or “No” on a major political or economic issue. In some countries such as Australia, alterations to the constitution can be made only with the consent of the electorate through referendum. Different countries in the world have used referenda (plural of referendum) to resolve several socio-economic and political issues or questions. In Canada there were referenda on which language to be adopted as the national language and also on whether the province of Quebec should remain a part of Canada or secede and become an independent state. Besides, in U.K. several referenda have been held on Northern Ireland. Also in Switzerland, several referenda have been held almost routinely to settle many economic and political issues. In 1958, referendum was used to determine the rejection or acceptance of a new political arrangement for French West Africa and between 1967 and 1973; it was used to determine Britain's entry into the European Economic Community in order to settle any socio-economic and political issues (Adeyemo, 2010).

5. Plebiscite

It is an election in which everyone in a country votes to decide (or settle) a matter of national importance. It is synonymous with or closely related to referendum. Like referendum, it is rarely used in Nigeria. However, it was used by the United Nations to ascertain whether the mandated territory area of the Cameroun would like to join Nigeria or the Cameroun. Also in 1963, plebiscite was used for the creation of the Mid-Western Region (later Bendel State and now Edo and Delta States) from Western Region.

6. Primary Election

It refers to election among candidates from the same political party before general elections are held. It is strictly the internal affairs of a political party. In other words, in primary election, candidates for elective offices are selected by party members. The United States of America is the best known example of a country that uses the primaries for the selection of U.S Presidential candidate. Presidential primaries are conducted separately by Democratic and Republican parties. Primary election is also used in Nigeria by political parties in order to select their presidential flag bearers for elective posts. There are three ways by which a politician in the United States of America can qualify for his/her party's primary ballot and these are:

- a. a simple declaration of one's candidacy
- b. a petition by a set number of voters and
- c. designation by an official party convention in the state.

In Nigeria and before the introduction of option A4, a politician could declare himself or herself a presidential candidate by a simple declaration at a press conference or at a party meeting or any suitable political, economic and social forum.

Primary election has some advantages. It provides an opportunity for a candidate to express his/her opinion on vital national issues. Secondly, it enables the electorate to see which candidate have the good qualities of leadership. Thirdly, it encourages political participation at the grassroots level. In spite of its merits, primary election has its disadvantages. For instance, it provides little time for presidential candidate to express views on serious national issues. It encourages waste of money, energy and materials (Adeyemo, 2010).

7. Electoral College

It refers to a body of persons or electorate who have been specially appointed, nominated or elected to hold election to some important position of power such as President indirectly rather than directly. It is commonly used in the USA to select US President in every presidential election.

2.3.2.3. Purpose of Election

The purpose of election is as identified by Adeyemo (2010)

- i. to enable the electorate to choose or elect rightful candidates to parliament (Britain), Congress (USA), National and State Assemblies (Nigeria);
- ii. to enable eligible voters to perform their civic responsibilities;
- iii. to enable a political party to form a government that will be responsive to the wishes and aspirations of the electorate;
- iv. to encourage transparency and accountability. In this regard, elections hold leaders accountable for their performances in office.

Qualification of voters

In Nigeria, voters are expected to fulfil certain conditions before they can vote. Some of these are:

- i. the voters must be a citizen of Nigeria;
- ii. the voter must have attained the age of 18 years;
- iii. the voters must be thoughtful and sound in mind;
- iv. a person who is not registered cannot vote.

2.3.2.4. Qualification of Candidates

- i. the candidate must be a citizen of Nigeria;
- ii. the candidate must be a resident of his/her constituency or ward.

iii. the candidate must be 18 years and above. To be qualified for election to the office of the president, the candidate must be a Nigerian citizen by birth and must have attained the age of 35 years.

iv. the candidate must be thoughtful, honest and sound in mind.

v. the candidate must not be a certified bankrupt or lunatic person.

vi. the candidate must pay his/her taxes regularly. In this connection, he/she must produce his/her tax clearance certificate for a period of three years preceding the date of elections.

vii. the candidate must have been selected in his party's primary election especially for the post of the presidency.

2.3.2.5 Recall

Recall is a concept which is associated with an elected representative. Literally, recall means the ability to remember something or fact which someone has learned or experienced in the past. In government it means to bring back an elected Representative to his/her constituency.

In diplomacy or international politics, the Head of a Diplomatic Mission (Ambassador, High Commissioner and Charge d'Affaires) in overseas countries can be recalled by his/her Government or Head of State/Presidency for consultation on vital political and economic issues in his or her country of accreditation or concurrent accreditation. He can also be recalled in a situation of war between two countries or when there is outbreak of a civil war and conflict in the host country (receiving state). He or she can also be recalled if he is declared persona non grata (or unacceptable) by the receiving state and when there is a diplomatic row or rupture (break down) of diplomatic/consular relations between two or more countries.

2.3.2.6. Conduct of Elections

In Nigeria, the conduct of elections is the responsibilities of the Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO) or National Electoral Commission (NEC) now known as Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), Electoral Officers and polling clerks (Presiding Officers).

Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO) now Independent National Electoral Commission of Nigeria (INEC)

a. The Federal Electoral Commission consisted of a chairman, one member from each of the States of the Federation and not more than 5 additional members usually appointed on merits

FEDECO (Now INEC) has the power to:

- i. organises, undertake and supervise all elections to the offices of the President, the Governor of a state and the National and State Assemblies,
- ii. arrange for the annual examination of accounts of political parties and to publish a report on such examination and audit for public information,
- iii. register political parties that meet the conditions for registration,
- iv. ensure that the Register of voters is prepared and maintained in such a way that will facilitate its use for the purpose of elections to local government councils,
- v. register eligible voters,
- vii. issue guidelines and regulations for the registration of political parties,
- viii. introduce measures to curb electorate malpractices such as rigging and fraud,
- ix. construct polling booths for the conduct of elections,
- x. reviews the division of every state into constituencies at intervals of not less than 10 years,
- xi. alter, if necessary, the boundaries of each state constituency in accordance with the provisions of the existing laws of the land.
- xii. Fix the date for the conduct of election and gubernatorial election, and
- xiii. count and publish election results (Adeyemo, 2010).

2.3.2.7. National Electoral Commission (NEC)

The National Electoral Commission (NEC) was inaugurated in 1987. It superseded FEDECO.

Composition: NEC consists of a chairman and nine (9) other members. The ten-member commission is assisted by state Electoral Commissioner in each state and Local Government electoral commissioner in each of the 775 Local Governments. The state and Local Government Electoral Commissioners are expected to coordinate the activities of NEC at state and Local Government levels.

Functions: NEC'S functions include.

- i. recognition and registration of political parties
- ii. organization and conduct of all elections;
- iii. monitoring and financing of political parties and campaigns;
- iv. compilation of electoral register;
- v. demilination of constituencies;
- vi. counting and publication of election results.

Materials and equipment for the conduct of the poll are normally collected and delivered by the Electoral Officer before the polling day. Examples of materials and equipment, which must be supplied by the Electoral Officer and if it is a secret election include, among other things, ballot boxes, ballot papers, register of voters, official rubber stamps, posters and envelopes. The register of voters, for example, contains the names of persons who are entitled to vote at a particular polling station. A polling station may consist of a class-room, public building or a booth erected in accordance with the instruction of the National Electoral Commission of Nigeria (INEC) (Adeyemo, 2010).

(c) Presiding Officer

One of the poll clerks in every polling station is usually appointed as presiding officer. The presiding officer is usually responsible for everything that happens in his/her polling station. He or she can authorise a poll clerk to issue an order for the search or arrest of

a person or the exclusion or arrest of a person from polling station. If this happens, the presiding officer must keep a record of such order stating reason for submission to the Electoral Commission.

2.3.2.8. Voting Procedure

In Nigeria, voting procedure is very simple. For instance, a person who wishes to vote must go to a polling station and present his/her registration card which must bear:

- (a) local government area and its code,
- (b) registration area and its code,
- (c) the registration unit, and
- (d) the voter's number

The poll clerk who is in-charge of the Register of voters must find the above-mentioned references on the register. The poll Clerk, after discovering the information would allow the voter to cast his/her vote. The name of the voter must, however, be marked on the register by the poll Clerk who must also ensure that the thumb or forefinger of the voter is marked with indelible ink. The purpose is to prevent the voter from coming to vote again. Polling agents usually appointed by candidates are expected to be in attendance at the polling station. Voting turn out may be low or it is high. When the electorate (or voters) are enthusiastic and interested in casting their votes with a view to electing candidates and political party of their choice the turn out will be high.

2.3.3. Electoral Systems

Electoral system is the process and procedure by which candidates are elected into public offices or legislature/parliament. Electoral system must state clearly the ways by which the representatives of the people are elected. Electoral system varies from one country to another. In other words, there is no uniform global electoral system. A country can, therefore, adopt any of the following electoral systems.

2.3.3.1. Types of Electoral Systems

There are various types (forms) of electoral (or voting) systems in modern democracies. The examples include:

(1) The first-past-the-post system or the simple plurality which is used in a single-member constituency. A constituency is an electoral district. In case of an election into Local Government Council, it is called a ward. In a simple plurality system, the candidate with more votes than any other candidates win or is elected.

This can be illustrated as follows:

Candidates	Votes Cast in Favour
Mr. A	24,000
Mr. B	22,000
Mr. C	9,000
Mar.	2,000

From the above, it can be seen that Mr. 'A' is the winner since he is the "first-past the post" with 24,000 votes, yet 33,000 electors or voters did not wish him to be their Honourable Member.

The "first-past-the-post" system encourages the formation of strong government or Executive as well as an effective and united Opposition within Parliament. Despite this, the system does not represent the totality of the electorate (Adeyemo, 2010).

(2) Proportional Representation System

Opponents of the "first-past-the-post" or the simple plurality system favour proportional representation which allocates seats to the parties in strict proportion to the number of votes cast in their favour. This means that electors or voters do not vote for a particular candidate but choose between national party lists of candidates and therefore vote directly for the party of choice.

Proportional representation appears to be attractive and is certainly more democratic than "first-past-the-post" method. Furthermore, it gives identifiable group representation

in relation to the numerical strength of each group. This is to say it gives political parties seats in relation to the popular support. In effect, the majority and minority groups are adequately represented in parliament.

However, proportional representation may lead to practical problems since it is rare for any party to poll over 50% of the votes. If this happens, it is always difficult for a single party to control a majority in parliament. Hence, proportional representation encourages “Coalition government” which invariably relies on the support of another party or other parties. This would probably lead to weak and unstable government since its policies must accommodate the interests of other parties. In multi-party system and it is invariably used in Germany and the State of Israel (Adeyemo, 2010).

(3) Simple Majority System

In simple majority system, the candidate who secures the greatest number of votes, even though he/she may not have secured a majority of all the votes cast, is declared elected or winner.

It is a simple method. It can produce a government with an adequate working majority in parliament. Despite its simplicity, it is likely to produce an overall result which may not reflect the voting strength of the various parties contesting the election.

(4) Absolute Majority System

Absolute or overall majority can be secured in three ways:

(a) The Repeated Ballot. Under this system, the votes are required to vote as many times as possible with intervals between ballots for discussion or negotiation until one candidate obtains an overall majority of the voters cast.

(b) Second Ballot. The second ballot system is used especially in France and in some Franco-phone countries. Here a candidate is only declared elected on the first ballot if they receive a majority of votes cast that is 50% plus 1. In constituencies where this does not occur, a second ballot is held a week later in which only candidates who gained more than 12.5% in the first ballot, less any voluntary withdrawals, participate. Briefly stated, the system is used if no candidate obtains an overall majority of the votes in his/her constituency. As a result, a second election takes place after one or two weeks following the first election.

At the second ballot, only two candidates who got the highest totals in the first election are allowed to stand or contest. Without doubt, the final successful candidate must have secured an absolute majority at the second ballot. Second ballot is good where multi-party system exists. However, it encourages voters to change or switch their support from one candidate to another.

(c) Alternative vote. It is another system devised to secure majority representation. Under this system, each voter indicates on his ballot paper his order of preference amongst the candidates contesting in an election. When voting has been completed, the ballot papers are counted in line with the preference shown on each paper. The candidate who has received the least number of first preferences is knocked out and his ballot papers are then redistributed according to the second preferences.

Candidates are knocked out until only two candidates are left. The candidate with the largest pile of ballot papers is then declared the winner. Alternative ballot system may create serious problems in a country where the majority of the electorate is illiterate.

(5) The single non-transferable voting system

It is similar to proportional representation. It is, however applicable to multi-member constituencies. In this system, the voter is required to make one vote on his ballot paper. The ballot papers are then sorted, and then an electoral quota is worked out according to agreed electoral formula such as:

$$\frac{V}{S + 1}$$

Where V = the number of votes cast

S = the number of seats to be filled.

For example, in a constituency with 50 seats to be filled and where 51,000,000 votes were cast, the formula would work out as follows:

$$V = 51,000,000 + 1 = 1,000,000.02$$

$$S = 50 + 1 = 1,000,000 \text{ votes}$$

Therefore, any candidate who obtains a number of votes equal to or has the above quota is declared winner. If fewer candidates have secured the quota than there are seats to be filled, other candidates in order of the electorate's preference are declared elected.

The single non-transferable vote systems is good since it ensure that none of the votes casts for a particular party's candidate is wasted. Despite this, the system is very complex and involves mathematical calculation.

Apart from well-tested and familiar electoral (or voting) systems such as proportional representation (the party list system, the single transferable vote and the additional member system) and absolute majority, it is necessary to discuss two electoral systems which were introduced in Nigeria during the second Republic. These are the controversial open ballot system and option A4 (Adeyemo, 2010).

2.3.3.2. Open Ballot System

Open ballot system refers to balloting in the open. It is the opposite ballot system where the voter enjoys secrecy in exercising his or her right to vote for a candidate without fear of intimidation. Open ballot system, therefore, is a process whereby eligible voters are made to queue behind the portrait or photograph of the candidate (or party symbol) of their choice counting is done aloud in the open by appropriate electorate officer.

On March 27, 1991, the Armed Forces Ruling Council (AFRC) approved the adoption of the open ballot system for the rest of Babangida administration's transition to civil rule scheduled for January 2 and later shifted to August 27, 1993. The open ballot system was adopted and tested in Nigeria during the December 1990 local government elections.

There were several reasons for the adoption of the open ballot system. Firstly, and according to President Ibrahim B. Babangida (well known as IBB), the decision was based on Nigeria's historical experience and the country's level of development. Secondly, to guide against previous electoral malpractices such as printing of unauthorized ballot papers, falsification of electoral results and rigging (Adeyemo, 2010).

The open ballot system has the following advantages:

(i) it is inexpensive because no ballot boxes, ballot papers and envelopes are needed. In other words, waste of electoral materials is eliminated. However, the modified open ballot system involved the use of ballot boxes and ballot papers.

(ii) it is easy to manage and it saves time because less time is spent between queuing, counting centre and collation of votes.

(ii) it facilitates prompt release of election results.

(iv) it enjoys acceptability among voters especially artisans and traders who belong to the middle class in Nigeria society.

(v) it is less prone to fraudulent manipulation by corrupt electoral officials and dubious politicians.

(vi) it gives confidence and satisfaction to the voters.

(vii) it does not encourage violence and the use of thugs (Adeyemo, 2010).

In spite of its merits, the open ballot system has been heavily criticised by the Nigerian elite for the following reasons.

(i) it encourages the elite or influential people in Nigerian society to abstain from voting. The elite detested queuing up with different characters that lack respect for elders. In other words, it disenfranchises the elites. In this regard, critics asserted that the open ballot system is undemocratic and primitive for developing nations such as Nigeria. They further asserted that voter's right to secrecy has been eliminated, thus preventing a section of the electorate, that is, the elite who occupy the top positions in the public service. It is important to note that disenfranchisement is a political concept which by virtue of legislation forbids or disqualifies a set of eligible voters from participating in the electoral process on grounds of colour, sex, religion and other political, economic and social considerations.

(ii) it encourages political victimization.

(iii) it wastes a lot of time since voters will have to queue up for hours in open spaces.

(iv) The open ballot system is a negation of the principle of democracy. In this regard, the system lacks confidentiality which tends to suppress the freedom of choice based on conscience.

It should be noted that the elite and intellectuals in Nigeria society preferred the secret ballot system apparently for the reasons enumerated above.

In summary, the open ballot system is cheaper in the sense that it does not require printing of ballot papers, constructing ballot boxes and polling booths. It eliminates rigging of election results. It encourages confidence in electoral system because votes are counted on the spot while the results are known (or declared) instantly. Despite its merits, it disenfranchises the wealthy class and the elite who are not interested in queuing up either in the sun or rain as well as with the “commoner” in the society (Adetemo, 2012).

2.3.3.3. Option A4

Presidential primary election by the two political parties (the National Republic Convention (NRC) and the Social Democratic Party (SDP) first took place on August 1, 1992. The primaries which were scheduled to hold in a cluster of states divided into 6 groups were suspended after the first round of the contest because of several electoral malpractices. In order to ensure that on resumption of the primaries, the pitfalls identified during the first round of the presidential elections did not recur, the following measures was taken:

- (i) Each political party was to sanitize its membership list so as to produce a credible and authenticated register for the primaries.
- (ii) The National Electoral Commission (NEC) was to strictly monitor the primaries and generally to guide the two political parties.
- (iii) The cluster of states for the primaries was reduced from 6 to 3.
- (iv) Decree 37 of 1992 was promulgated to govern the conduct of the primaries.

In spite of the above mentioned remedial measures, especially the offences and penalties provided for in Decree 37 of 1992, the primaries produced greater political tension. There were accusations and counter-accusations of electoral malpractices by

some presidential aspirants (or contestants). Consequently, there was political stalemate. The transition to civil rule programme nearly came to a standstill. The NEC was asked to investigate the various electoral accusations. (Adeyemo, 2010).

As a result of investigations carried out by NEC, the Armed Forces Ruling Council (AFRC) intervened to save Nigeria from political chaos and disintegration. AFRC, therefore, took the following decisions:

- (i) cancel the primaries.
- (ii) dissolve the executive committees of the two political parties (NRC and SDP) at all levels ward, local government, state and federal/national.
- (iii) appointed caretaker committees at the national level.
- (iv) direct NEC to evolve a non-conventional hitch free method of selecting presidential candidates.

The National Electoral Commission (NEC) swung into immediate action and recommended 8 Options which includes Option A4. Option A4 is a process whereby the presidential candidate of a political party emerges from a stage by stage contest which involves the principle of elimination. The process recognises 4 stages – the ward level, the local government level, the state level and the national level with all winning aspirants proceeding progressively from one stage to the next one until all aspirants expect one are eliminated. Briefly stated, Option A4 is unconventional method of selecting presidential flag bearers of the two political parties in Nigeria. It is an electoral system which emphasized grassroots political participation in politics (Adeyemo, 2010).

- (i) Option A4 gives each component part of the federation a sense of belonging. This is because Option A4 opens up the nomination process to all the state of the federation.
- (ii) It encourages grassroots political participation.
- (iii) It encourages healthy competition among political contestants.

Like the open ballot system, Option A4 was criticised by many knowledgeable Nigerians who asserted that:

(i) the option could be commercialised because a wealthy candidate could buy over the delegates at each level – local government, state and national. In other words, Option A4 could encourage corruption by rich and wealthy candidates as well as delegates.

(ii) the option could become unveiled with each state plus the Federal Capital Territory thereby producing several presidential candidates. These criticism, however, were countered by the principle of elimination at each stage.

(iii) Option A4 could promote ethnicity and states at the expense of national integration.

(iv) the process could become cumbersome since it involved four stages-the ward, local government area, state and entire nation.

It should be noted that while Option A4 makes it possible for every part of the federation to produce a flagbearer, the option did not make the production of a flagbearer by ward, local government area or state a compulsory affair. Hence, former NEC Chairman. Professor Humphrery Nwosu, asserted that “it is not compulsory for every ward, local government area or state (or Federal Capital Territory) to produce a presidential aspirant. States within a particular area, for instance, the west can present a candidate who they shall support to victory” (Adeyemo, 2010 p. 65)

2.3.3.4. Secret and Open Ballot System

Secret ballot system encourages rigging of election because ballot boxes can be filled with felicitous voters’ cards; while in open ballot system, rigging is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve.

Secret ballot System is very expensive whereas open ballot system is not. The latter is cheaper than the former. Secret ballot system requires printing of ballot papers and building of polling booths. Open ballot system exposes voters to the heat of the sun while on the queue whereas secret ballot does not.

2.3.3.5. Free and Fair Elections

Electoral system must ensure free and fair elections which are useful in the establishment and maintenance of a satisfactory system of representative government. Free and fair elections make it possible for one government to succeed another in an

orderly manner and without violence or bloodshed. Violence is rare in countries where the electorate is satisfied that elections are free and fair.

2.3.3.6. Pre-requisites for Free and Fair Elections

- i. There must be an independent judiciary which must be free from political control and influence. The judiciary must be able to interpret the electoral laws fairly and impartially.
- ii There must be a competent corrupt-free and nonpartisan administration to run elections.
- iii There must be registered and recognised political parties with clear manifestoes or political programmes.
- iv There must be general acceptance of the “rules of the games”.
- v. There must be electoral register which must contain the names of eligible voters.

Factors Impairing Free and Fair Election in Developing Nations

In developing countries like Nigeria, free and fair elections are impaired by poor communications such as roads and telephone. Polling stations, which are located in rural areas, are not easy to reach by Electoral officers. Deliberate tampering with the boundaries of electoral constituencies is known as gerrymandering which impairs free and fair elections. Sometimes, ballot papers are mutilated apparently to ensure the success or failure of a particular candidate. Officials charged with the conduct of elections are sometimes corrupt and engage in partisan politics. Another factor militating against free and fair election was the emergence of a single political party system in some parts of developing countries. The ruling party wanted to remain in power or office at all cost. In some country, the supporters of the opposition party or parties are arrested, detained, kidnapped or jailed before the election date. Finally, free and fair elections are impaired because election results and figures are manipulated, falsified or rigged in order to favour one candidate or political party. Sometimes, political thugs are employed and used during electioneering campaigns or before elections are held (Adeyemo, 2010).

2.4. Social Studies and Civic Education

Social studies is the study of man and his physical, social, political, cultural and economic environment. It centres on the development of man, how man influences his environment and how the environment influences him in return. Kisson (1981) who worked in Nigeria in the 1920's defined social studies as "a programme of study which society uses to instil in students the knowledge, skills, values, attitude and actions it considers important, concerning the relationships human beings have with each other, their world and themselves" Social studies focused on man and his interactions with his environment. It also keeps on changing because of the factors of time and human development. It fights against evil vices in the society. The subject considers peculiar problems of a country and finds solutions to those problems. As such the objective of Nigerian social studies must reflect the spirit of Nigerian philosophy of education. It must help to develop the capacity to learn and to acquire certain basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and calculation. Social studies education focuses on the use of critical and reflective thinking to solve the problems of man's survival in the environment.

2.5. The History of Social Studies in Nigeria

Scholars in Nigeria have reported conflicting views as to when Social Studies made its first appearances in Nigerian schools. Ezegbe (1987) put it at the early 1960s. Osakwe & Itedjere (1993) put it at the mid-1960s. Sofadekan (2012) in the same vein was of the view that Social Studies was introduced in Nigeria in the colonial era with the establishment of church schools. The subject was believed to have been embedded in the then religious curriculum.

However, Mezieobi (2008) has stated that the provenance of the origin of Social Studies to the colonial era is just a mere fallacy. He argued that Social Studies had been in existence during pre-colonial era and that, prior to that time, goals, content, methodology and evaluative practices met the aspirations at tribe level.

2.5.1. Indigenous Social Studies in Nigeria

Indigenous or traditional Nigeria refers to the period before colonial rule. Mezieobi (2008) noted that Social Studies has been an integral part of the Nigerian indigenous curriculum right from the earliest times except for certain modifications to accommodate societal dynamics and international prescriptions. He further observed that what was borrowed was the concept of Social Studies as a discrete subject in the curricula of primary schools.

According to Mezieobi, Reggie-Fubara, & Mezieobi (2008) some of the content of traditional Social Studies included:

- The learning of the people's local and family history, myths, oral literature, proverbs and riddles, and the geography of the community and the adjoining neighbourhood;
- Respect to elders, honesty and truthfulness, fear of the gods/goddesses, learning of family gods and goddesses;
- Character values and virtues development and inculcation which
- traditional religion encouraged and promoted;
- Instruction on loyalty to the community, recognition of seniority, hospitality to people, cooperation in common tasks, respect for others.

Social Studies in indigenous Nigerian societies placed an emphasis on values or affective learning. Mezieobi, et al. (2008) stated that the affective learning focused on:

- Appropriate ways to greet elders and during occasions;
- Respect to elders, constituted authority and obedience to them;
- Respect to one's seniors and mutual respect;
- Loyalty to the family and the community;
- Hospitality to people;
- Learning the myths and traditions of the people and appreciating the values therein;
- Avoidance of taboos;
- Unquestioning acceptance of the dictates of the elders;

- Familiarity with the people's culture, traditions; ethics, folklore and mores and manifest respect to them and conformity to them;
- Acceptance of the community's beliefs, values and practices;
- Acquisition of knowledge tied to 'special' education i.e. secret societies, divination;
- Learning the virtues of cooperation, perseverance or endurance, self-control or self-discipline; truthfulness, loyalty, patience, obedience, courage, bravery, kindness, dedication to duty, hard work or diligence, tolerance, love for others, fear of the gods and goddesses, mutual harmony and co-existence, and the recognition and pursuance of one's rights;
- Knowledge of religious tenets, beliefs, practices as well as religious sanctions and knowledge of the consequences for violating them i.e. incurring the wrath of the gods.

2.5.2. Social Studies in the colonial era

Social Studies in the formal school setting can be traced to the arrival of Christian missionaries in 1842 and the consequent establishment of the first primary school in Badagry (Mezieobi et al., 2008). The colonial curriculum at the time contained aspects of what we now know as Social Studies. For example, it was subsumed within the moral or religious curriculum and prepared Nigerians to be peace loving, respectful, obedient, humane, loyal, law-abiding, hardworking, conscientious and knowledgeable persons. Social Studies was also taught under the canopy of general knowledge, general studies, and civics education, British history, British geography, British politics, and British culture (Mezieobi, 2008). In whatever form, Social Studies existed in the primary schools in the period before Nigerian's independence in 1960. However, Social Studies was culture bound and was not relevant to the needs and aspirations of a unified country. However, those who were exposed to that colonial Social Studies curriculum, although Nigerian by birth but appear to be British in outlook and behaviour, they understood British environments but knew little, if anything, of the country in which they lived. The beneficiaries of the colonial Social Studies curriculum viewed the knowledge they gained in terms of discrete subjects which made it impossible for them to view their world holistically.

2.5.3 Social Studies after independence

Most African nations achieved independence in the late 1950s and 1960s; and subsequently sought ways to change the educational systems they had inherited to make them more supportive of national developmental goals. For example, Sofadekan (2012) argued that indigenous national heritage needed to replace colonial ones:

Inherited History, Geography courses needed to be revised to emphasize national heritage and achievements, and thereby develop national pride and identity. He stated further that there was agreement concerning the need to develop materials concerning cultural, tradition and peoples to promote inter-tribal understanding, appreciation and national unity. He also emphasized the need to abandon traditional ways of teaching which emphasized skills of recall and he suggested new ways of learning which develop the skills of independent problem-solving and critical thinking. (Op cit, 2012, p81)

In the early 1960s, this new this new approach to Social science content, methods and objectives became known in Africa as 'Social Studies' (Merryfield, 1988). Social Studies started to gain popularity on the continent of Africa after the Mobamsa Conference of 1968. This conference also led to the establishment of Africa Social Studies Programme (ASSP) in 1969. This Programme (now known as Africa Social and Environmental Studies Programme, ASESP) encompassed seventeen countries. Botswana, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. One of the aims of the Mombasa conference of 1968 was to introduce Social Studies to the member countries.

It is pertinent to acknowledge the efforts of educators from Ohio University which sought to introduce the teaching of Social Studies into the Teachers' College in the former Western Region of Nigeria. Their efforts in 1958 served as a catalyst for the introduction of Social Studies into the school curriculum immediately after independence. Its entry into the school curriculum at this time was short-lived because there were no schools in which to teach the subject. Social Studies re-surfaced in 1963 when the Comprehensive High School in Aiyetoro, was

established as a new experiment in comprehensive secondary education; this put the subject firmly on its evolutionary course from 1963 onward (Sofadekan, 2012)

The roots of contemporary Social Studies have been traced to indigenous education. The first post-independence Social Studies programmes were developed during two major experiments with educational reform in Nigeria. Growing out of the recommendations of the Ashby Commission, the Banjo Report and the Dike Report in the early 1960s was the concept of a school that would extend secondary education to the majority of boys and girls as opposed to the academic elite (Sofadekan, 2012).

From the Western region, Social Studies began to spread to other parts of the country. The Northern Nigeria Teacher Education Project (NNTEP) facilitated the introduction of Social Studies in the Northern region. Onyabe (1979) cited in Sofadekan 2012 stated that the NNTEP, co-sponsored by the Northern Region Ministry of Education and the University of Wisconsin, developed and tested primary school teachers' education materials in five subject areas, including Social Studies. He further stated that, in 1969, the six northern states introduced Social Studies into their educational system under the auspices of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

Later, the Comparative Education Study and Adaptation Centre (CESAC) at the University of Lagos in conjunction with the Ministry of Education in Kwara and Benue-Plateau states organised a dissemination workshop for secondary school teachers in August 1970. The dissemination workshop had a significant effect on the adoption of Social Studies across Nigeria. Sofadekan (2012) stated that one of the outcomes of the August 1970 dissemination workshop was that teachers felt challenged by the demands of the interdisciplinary approach of Social Studies and sought ways of increasing their knowledge. Indeed, he stated further that the Ministries of Education in some other states wanted their teachers to enter the mainstream of the new trends in curriculum innovation.

Social Studies found its way into the school curriculum in the Eastern Region of Nigeria in 1971 after the Social Studies Association of Nigerian's (SOSAN)

conference that April. Before the advent of the 1977 National Policy on Education (revised in 1981) some schools did not teach Social Studies but rather taught History, Geography, Civics and the General Paper. The National Policy on Education (1977) was a watershed in the inclusion of Social Studies into the school curriculum in Nigeria because it approved the teaching of the subject in both primary and secondary schools. Ogundare (2011) pointed out that the implementation of the 1977 and 1981 National Policy on Education subsequently approved the teaching of Social Studies in both primary and secondary schools.

The Nigerian Educational Research Council (NERC), now known as the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) organised a national workshop on primary school curriculum in 1971 to produce the first national Social Studies curriculum for primary schools in Nigeria. Ogundare (2011) pointed out that the 1971 national Social Studies curriculum for primary schools became the fountain from which all state Ministries of Education developed inspiration to produce their particular Social Studies syllabuses. Publishers and writers also used the programme to write textbooks in Social Studies.

NERC organised further national workshops in 1972 and 1975 respectively for the successful implementation of the programme and also for standardizing the Universal Primary Education (UPE) teacher training programme in Social Studies. The national primary school Social Studies programme lasted until 1983 when a revised version was published.

In 1981 NERC created a panel of experts on Social Studies known as the National Committee on Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum Project. The committee was set up to develop a suitable national Social Studies curriculum for all primary school classes, to conduct a critical review of the existing primary school Social Studies curriculum, (including the 1971 NERC curriculum guidelines) as well as to create instruments to refashion the teaching and learning of Social Studies in primary schools. This led to the 1983 national primary school Social Studies curriculum which lasted only for five years (Ogundare, 2011).

In 1988, the National Implementation Committee on National Policy on Education in conjunction with the National Primary Education Commission developed a National Social studies curriculum for primary schools and this lasted until 2007. In line with government's declaration for a 9-Year Basic Education programme the National Council on Education (NCE) directed the NERDC to restructure and re-align the existing primary and junior secondary school curricula to meet the targets of the 9-Year Basic Education in the context of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and this curriculum is still in operation today in Nigerian schools. The composition and structure of the curriculum enable all teachers to teach the same topics in detail while aiming at achieving the same objectives and practicing the same learning activities. According to Adeyemi (2012) the Department of Social Studies of CHS, Aiyetoro prepared the first Social Studies programme for secondary schools in Nigeria. It also produced instructional materials to be used for the teaching and learning of the subject. Falade (2007) highlighted that the Ministry of Education of the Western region, at a conference held in Ibadan, decided to draw an outline for a Social Studies syllabus for secondary school (year one and two), and gave the task of developing this syllabus to CHS, Aiyetoro.

The Social Studies programme developed by CHS, Aiyetoro was used in most of the states that accepted the teaching of Social Studies until 1982. The Nigerian Educational Research Council also organized a series of workshops to design a curriculum for secondary education in Nigeria. In a similar manner the Comparative Education Study and Adaptation Centre (CESAC) in 1982 organized a long vacation Social Studies course for Nigerian secondary school teachers in Kaduna. The ultimate purpose of the course was to improve the quality of Social Studies education in the secondary schools and also to introduce to the participants the Nigerian Secondary Schools Social Studies Project (NSSSSP). Participants were given copies of the national syllabus for junior secondary schools, which had been formally approved in 1982 by the Joint Consultative Committee on Education (CESAC, 1983).

In 1985, the Federal Government harmonized the existing subjects' curricula and came up with the National Curriculum for junior secondary schools. This curriculum consisted of six volumes covering all the nineteen subjects prescribed for the junior secondary schools' scheme of the National Policy on Education, although, some states slightly modified this programme to suit their needs. As mentioned earlier, the 9-Year Basic Education programme and the need to attain the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the critical targets of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS) made it imperative to review, re-structure, and re-align the 1985 National curriculum for junior secondary schools in 2007 to fit into a 9-Year Basic education programme, and this is still in effect today.

The Nigerian Certificate of Education (NCE) Social Studies syllabus was subsequently developed and in 1974 examined at a workshop held at Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. The leading roles played by the Nigerian Educational Research Council (NERC) now known as the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC), the Comparative Education Study and Adaptation Centre (CESAC), CHS, Aiyetoro as well as the various Institutes of Education in the development of Social Studies cannot be underestimated. The Nigerian Educational

Research and Development Council (NERDC) played a leading role in running workshops and seminars for leading curriculum specialists in primary, secondary and teacher training colleges

The various university institutes of Education ran long and short term courses in the form of in-service training for practising teachers. The Institute of Education of Ahmadu Bello University was the first to run a Bachelor of Education degree in Social Studies. Many of the faculties of Education in Nigerian universities now run postgraduate degree programmes leading to the award of the postgraduate Diploma in Education, Masters Degrees and even Doctor of Philosophy degrees in Social Studies.

Edgar Wesley (1938) cited in Dibal (2010) was the first man to use the social studies for pedagogical purposes in the United States of America after the depression years and the appearance of the Soviet Ssputnik. To him the new social studies was a programme meant to lead the boys and girls to find excitement and motivation in the process of social education via exploration, inquiry and discovery but with emphasis on developing competencies, values and attitudes essential for citizens in a free society. With time American social studies has evolved to prepare young Americans for future wars and to promote the spirit of nationalism, patriotism and loyalty to sensitize the youth on the concepts of self-reliance in food, resources conservation and increased productivity. Dibal (2015) came out with five (5) different definitions of social studies as “A spiral ecological study of man which starts from the self to family, hamlet, village, town, district, local government area, state, country, continent and the world at large.

Many people today often get confused on the nature of social studies in our schools and colleges. The subject is relatively new in the school curriculum. It is a corrective study because it is a subject which is concern with the problems of man’s living in the society with a view of finding solutions to those problems. It is also a subject which concentrate on the three (3) areas of knowledge, cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain. Only few people think of the subject in a single form in USA, this is because many authorities see social studies as a plural subject. Sofadekan (2012 p.125) conceptualized social studies as “An organized, integrated study of man and his environment, both physical and social, emphasizing on cognition functional skills and desirable attitudes and actions for the purpose of producing an effective citizenry”.

The Traditional Subject Specialists See Social Studies in the Following Ways:

- (a) As a combination of selected aspects of social sciences without each of these different subjects necessarily losing their identity.
- (b) As a replacement of the traditional subjects which constitute the humanities and the social sciences.

(c) As a distinct subject meant to displace or substitute for history and other traditional subject in the humanity and social sciences in the school curriculum. It is because of this that there was a continuous resistance of the traditional subject specialist to the introduction of social studies into the school curricula. According to the nature of social studies education, the subject has three (3) general perspectives:

2.5.4. The Indisciplinary Perspective

This is a separate subject approach which sees social studies as a combination of history, geography, economics, sociology, psychology, anthropology named among others. With this perspective, a time table is planned in the school in such a way that scholars or specialists in these subjects can come at different times in the day to teach the pupils or students content materials in the name of social studies. This approach is preferred by traditional teachers who have soft spot for social studies education as it is less of a problem for them as it does not require the integration of forms of knowledge. Besides, the approach assures them of the continuity of their subject and job opportunity. However, the proponents of this perspective forget that life situation or experiences is not organized into component parts or subject compartments. Pupils or students do not think in terms of subjects but they learn in wholes and not discrete bits. In fact, solutions to societal problems are not sought through the aid of separate subjects (Oyetade, 2010).

2.5.5. The Multidisciplinary Perspective

This is where concepts (words) and content materials from more than one discipline or subject are taken and taught by one teacher for example.

- (a) Origin of our community (History)
- (b) Location of our community (Geography)
- (c) Resources in our community (Economics)
- (d) Different groups in our community (Sociology)
- (e) Interpersonal relationships in our community (Psychology)
- (f) Development of certain tools in our community (Anthropology) (Oyetade, 2010).

2.5.6. The Interdisciplinary Perspective

This is sometimes called the unified approach or integrated approach which blends the contents of social studies and it is difficult to distinguish the original disciplines or subject responsible for them. In this approach issues like family, local community development, nation building, justice, freedom, equality, democracy, air pollution, urbanization, globalization to name a few are presented and discussed. Another example is the concept of “power” which can be developed throughout the primary school levels thus:

Primary 1 – Power relationship in the family.

Primary 2 - Power relationship in the school.

Primary 3 - Power relationship in the local community.

Primary 4 - Power relationship in the state.

Primary 5 - Power relationship in the country.

Primary 6 - Power relationship in the continent of Africa.

2.5.7. Scope of Social Studies Education

Social studies is not static, it keeps on changing because of the factors of time and human development. It centres on the development of man, how man influences his environment and how the environment influences him in return. The subject exposes the child to problems of the society and how to solve those problems. The problems of the society include the following:

1. Bribery and corruption.
2. Religious fanatic
3. Tribalism
4. Greediness.
5. Dishonesty
6. Distrust
7. Stealing

8. Smuggling.
9. Child trafficking
10. Laziness
11. Moral laxity.
12. Drug abuse
13. Prostitution
14. Food shortage etc.

It is against this background that social studies will equip the child with the basic social habits and cultural values which will enable him to build a good society in the future. Social studies deals with the activities of man at home, in the family, in the village, in the school, at play, in politics, at work, in religion, in everything or wherever man is engaged in his efforts to survive in the environment in which he lives.

The goals and objectives of social studies education vary from society to society. Social studies curriculum for Nigeria should consider the peculiar problems of the country. The most serious problem facing Nigeria today is the problems of unity. As such the social studies programme should be planned in order to urge Nigerians to do things that will foster unity, peace and the development of the country.

The objectives of Nigerian social studies which are developed to reflect the spirit of Nigerian philosophy of education, lay emphasis on the integration of Nigerian citizens into sound and effective citizens. The national educational aims an objective from which social studies objective are drawn are stated in the National Policy of Education (2009). They are as follows:

1. The inculcation of national consciousness and national unity.
2. The inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes.
3. The training of the mind in the understanding of the world around.
4. The acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies necessary for the development of society.

Based on these national educational objectives, Nigerian Social Studies has developed some of the following objectives for teaching in the Nigerian schools.

1. To create an awareness and an understanding of our social and physical environment in order to conserve it for national development.
2. To develop a capacity to learn and acquire certain basic skills of literacy, numeracy and critical thinking essential to the forming of sound judgment concerning social, economic and political issues.
3. To teach the child to acquire a relevant body of knowledge and information necessary for personal development and contribution to the betterment of mankind.
4. To develop appreciation for the diverse nature and interdependence of Nigerian communities.
5. To develop in students, positive attitudes towards the spirit of friendliness and cooperation necessary for a healthy nation and to inculcate appropriate values of honesty, integrity, hard work, fairness and justice.

With these social studies objectives reflecting the needs of the society, one easily understands the usefulness of social studies as a process of education which examines ways of working in the society in order to understand social problems and thereby seek solutions to them. Social studies focus attention on the use of critical and reflective thinking to solve the problems of man's survival in the society e.g. a good citizen should be able to distinguish between facts from rumour or propaganda. Reflective inquiry is the ability to hypothesize, gather data, analyse, interpret, conclude and generalize based on collection of certain information or data. To develop a capacity to learn and to acquire certain basic skills including not only those of listening, speaking, reading and writing and of calculation but also those of skills of hand and head, together with those of observation, analysis, and inferences which are essential to the forming of sound social economic and political judgment. Students can learn by collecting data from say resource persons, analyse them and arrive at responsible conclusions. E.g. a problem related to the environment could be examined by going to resource persons within the community to collect data on its possible solutions. By so doing, pupils are being developed into effective citizens who are less likely to become victims or target of indoctrination. Since social studies focuses on the use of critical and reflective thinking to solve the problems of man's survival i.e. deals with how we can fit into the society by utilizing the necessary attitudes, values and skills. The teacher

should be adequately familiar with the available instructional materials in social studies with emphasis on the relevant approach of problem-solving and evaluation of the attitudes, values and skills (Oyetade, 2010).

In order to expand horizon pattern of social studies education, one can see that it starts from man as a central figure. Therefore, all environmental influences are carefully arranged around him, which proceed from the home to the outside world, from known to unknown, from simple to complex and specific to general. Social studies give the child the knowledge of immediate to remote and enable him to the internal and external implications of national and international systems. It makes him aware of the outside world, friendly and hostile forces which influence his life for better or for worse.

Social studies as an interdisciplinary subject rely heavily on the content of social science and humanities to achieve the goals of preparing people to be good citizens of democracy. It links factors outside the individual, particularly the development and use of reflective thinking, problems solving, and national decision making skills for the purpose of creating involvement in socialization.

Social studies as problems-solving subject was used in different parts of the world in solving specific problems and for development of nation. In Britain social, studies is used as a citizenship education, in United States of America, social studies is used to inculcate democratic values. In Tanzania, social studies is used for inculcation of the spirit of African Socialism. In Nigeria, according to Dibal (2010), it was to heal the wounds of the Nigerian civil war and inculcate the spirit of national consciousness, unity and patriotism. With the knowledge of social studies education, the student avoids the practice of these bad vices like child trafficking, drug trafficking, prostitution, bribery and corruption etc. and think positively and contribute to the development of the society.

Social studies and civic education are relatively new in the Nigerian schools programme. The introduction of social studies in Nigeria was due to the need for a more effective way of educating the citizens on the need to change their behavior positively by making them look deeply into problems in different stages of their

development and to enable the teachers to find out the right concept and inculcate same into the children so that they could develop right attitudes, values and skills necessary to make them survive in the system which they are (Ajiboye, 2010). This is the reason why social studies is described as a subject that aims at training the learners to acquire those civic traits that will enable them to participate effectively in a democratic setting. This could be seen in the views of Sunal & Haas (2008) that:

when Social Studies focuses attention on students' problems (social, economic, political and environment) students will naturally want to observe, ask questions, seek information, express observation and idea in drawings, argue for their view points, and act to change things. When students 'do' Social Studies, they draw on thinking skills and knowledge from the entire school curriculum as they construct an understanding of their social world and seek to solve the problems it presents'. Therefore, Social Studies play a critical role in preparing learners to become active social participants in the ways of life of their society (p.118).

Social Studies among other school subjects is primarily put in place to be taught in Nigerian schools to address the right type of values, attitudes and behaviour, and to develop these aspects of character in a positive and productive way (Ojo, 2007). Falade (2007) stated that, the development of values and attitudes occupy an integral place in Social Studies. He also stated that the overall aim of teaching Social Studies is to prepare its learners for effective participation in the society. Some of the values that Social Studies seek to develop in learners are: obedience, hard work, togetherness, comradeship and cooperation, love of our physical environment, appreciation of our interdependence, honesty, loyalty, and respect for other people and their property.

Ige (2013) stated that the eclectic and inter-disciplinary nature of Social Studies allows it to accommodate a wide spectrum of ideas, issues, problems or topics, within which students could study and understand the complex nature of man's ever changing situation. Falade (2015) stated that a careful examination of the purpose of Social Studies vis-à-vis the objectives of Civic Education shows that there is high level similarity between these subjects. Oyetade (2010) stated that Social-Studies focuses attention on the immediate environment of the child and takes to a distant environment. The subject proceeds from known to unknown, simple to complex, etc. Social Studies study man right from his home background

through the school, community, state, nation or country and the world at large in order to meaningfully learn about man's interaction with his social and physical environments. All the relevant and important aspects of man that have been studied in disjointed and separate forms in compartmentalized disciplines have to be brought together for holistic study in a subject, which is why social studies evolved in the first instance. These explain why social studies contents are daily growing in leaps and bounds on the one hand, and why it is continually regarded as a 'life subject' on the other hand.

There is collaboration between Civic education and Social Studies Education in the sense that both inculcate and imbibe social participation, active student engagement and ethics. Thus, both can be seen two sides of the same coin. That is Civic Education is a collaborative dimension of Social Studies in building and bringing about good citizenship. This paper is directed by the need to determine how Civic Education as a dimension of Social Studies Education teaching and learning brings about the attainment of political ethics in Nigeria. To establish this, the paper precisely looked into the opinions of Social Studies teachers in secondary schools in Delta State as to the extent to which Civic Education and Social Studies inculcate political ethics. More so, in the context of schools in Nigeria, most Social Studies teachers seems not to grasp the values, skills and the global dimensions associated with the attainment of political ethics. This is consistent with the past study by Keene, Baamphatla and Moffat (2013) that stated that Social Studies teachers are more likely to do away with some components if they lack an understanding of the values, skills and global dimensions that underpin citizenship skills and ethics. The emphasis on political ethics was understandable. Presently, because of increased political violence in Nigeria, teachers are given the task of teaching and inculcating citizenship competences and political ethics in addition to their content areas. In response to political violence and economic inequities, educators rekindled ideals of political integrity, democracy and social reform.

The aforementioned is also made complex by the manner the subjects (Civic and Social Studies Education) are structured, implemented, the general lack of time as well as lack of pedagogy materials. It is not an overemphasis to state that such

teachers lack efficiency and competence in the implementation of Social Studies programme because most social studies teachers are not democratic and innovative hence they end up indoctrinating their students rather than promoting political morality and values.

Methods of teaching Social Studies

Social Studies is now a distinct part of the curriculum at all levels of the Nigerian educational system. Its relative newness in schools, coupled with the dearth of professionally qualified Social Studies teachers and the inevitable need to have teachers equipped with a high level of competence in the delivery of Social Studies, presents a number of challenges. Ideally, to ensure that Social Studies is taught very well, it is pertinent that methods of teaching it are explained. Often those who write about the Social Studies curriculum and teaching Social Studies confuse methods and techniques or use them interchangeably as synonyms. This misrepresentation of teaching methods and techniques applies also to the discussion of strategies for teaching the subject. For example, Ajiboye (2010) concluded that “a strategy is synonymous to a technique and can be used interchangeably with it and that strategies or techniques are subsumed in the application of a method”. Other scholars (Nkire, 2011; Ige 2013; Gbadamosi, 2012; Olubela, 2014 & 2015) have referred to strategies as both methods and techniques in the delivery of Social Studies. In clustering or crowding together Social Studies methods and techniques, the methods (i.e. the way) of teaching Social Studies are misrepresented as skills (i.e. techniques) and the latter are often blurred or neglected. So it is pertinent to discuss a number of the methods that are appropriate for Social Studies teaching and point out their relationships with strategies and techniques.

Teaching methods

In Greek ‘Metahodos’ means ‘a way’ (Sofadekan (2012). Thus, a teaching method can be said to be a chosen, systematised and ordered way through which the ‘act of teaching’ is performed in order to accomplish the set objectives of instruction. The relevance of teaching methods according to Mezieobi et al., (2008) is as follows:

- i. It makes teaching and learning very simple and easy.
- ii. It enables more learning to take place.

- iii. The time taken to achieve more learning outcomes is very short. This is particularly so when the learning experiences are interesting and are tailored to the needs and maturational level of the learners.
- iv. Teaching methods help to implant what is pleasantly learned in the memory of the learners and makes for their easy recall.
- v. People who are taught with teaching methods get to realise their import and may in the end acquire them for use in their interactive session in the classroom if they are student-teachers or serving teachers.
- vi. The use of teaching methods keeps the learners alive to the teaching-learning process.
- vii. Teaching methods have the potential of reducing learners' classroom disruptive behaviours to the barest minimum and therefore, contribute quite positively to the desired effective classroom management.
- viii. The choice of an appropriate teaching method, to suit a given teaching learning encounter keeps the teacher professionally alive in his preparations to teach very well.

Social Studies teaching methods

Methods of delivering Social Studies can include a number of presentational styles. These are:

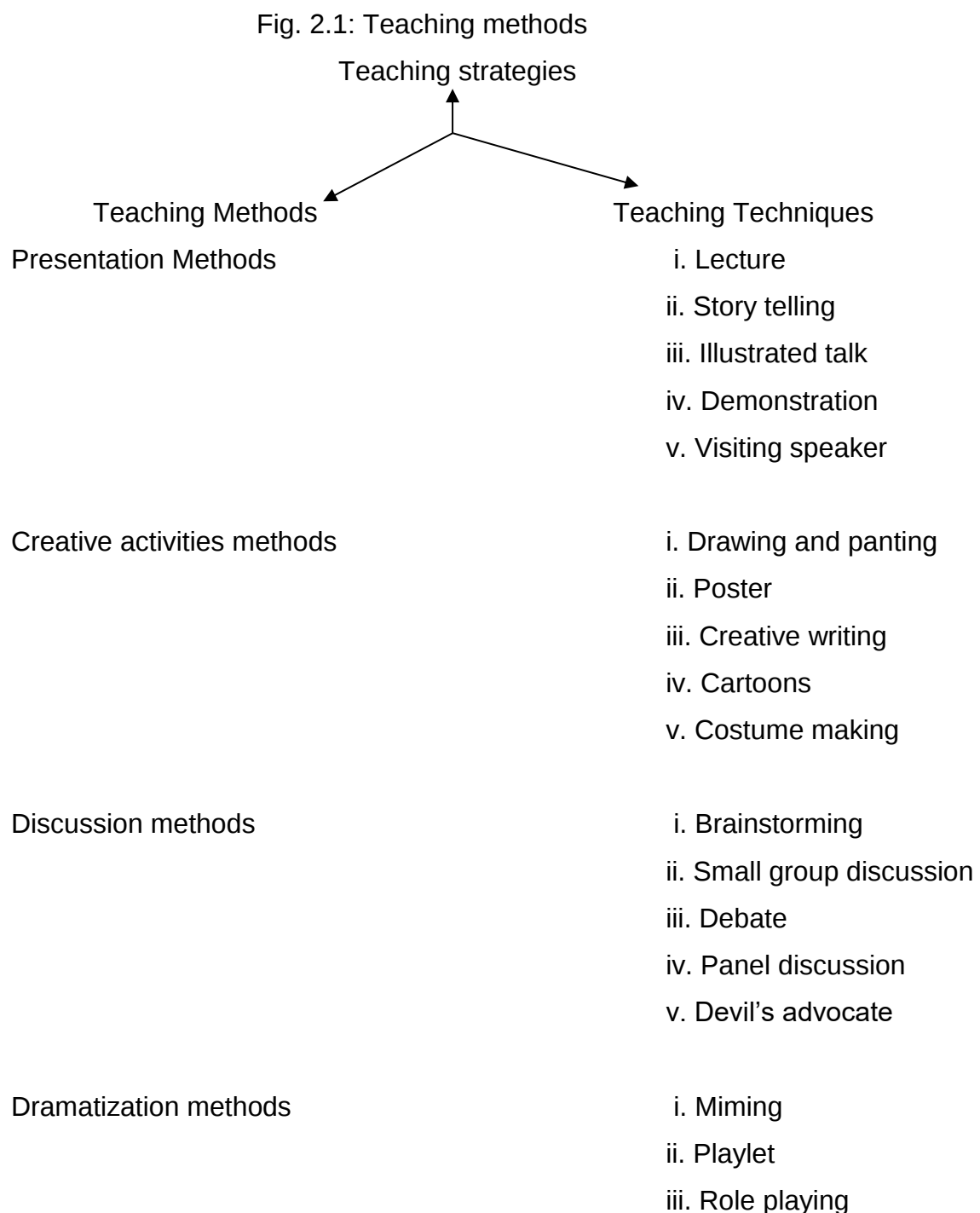
- i. Presentations (e.g. Lecture, Storytelling, Illustrated talk, Demonstration, Visiting speaker)
- ii. Creative activities (e.g. Drawing and painting, Poster, Creative writing, Cartoons, Costume making)
- iii. Discussions (e.g. Brainstorming, Small group discussion, Debate, Panel discussion, Devil's advocate)
- iv. Dramatizations (e.g. Miming, Playlet, Role playing, Monologue / Dialogues, Puppetry)
- v. Inquiry/problem solving activities (e.g. Field trips, Quizzes, Puzzles, Sorting, Opinion polls) (Olatundun, 2009).

Teaching techniques in Social Studies

A teaching technique is a specific way or aspect of a given method of teaching Social Studies which is chosen, organised and delivered by a teacher in his or her interaction with students. Mezieobi, (2011) observed that techniques are

embedded in methods, and are thus narrower in scope than methods. It is in fact the technique, appropriately utilised by the professional Social Studies teacher, that gives meaning to teaching, teaching skills can determine the extent of achievement or otherwise of the instructional objectives.

The teaching strategies in Social Studies with their corresponding teaching methods and teaching techniques are illustrated below.



iv. Monologues / Dialogues

v. Puppetry

Inquiry problem-solving methods

i. Field trips

ii. Quizzes

iii. Puzzles

iv. Sorting

v. Opinion polls

Source: Sofadekan (2012).

Presentation methods

The presentation method is also known as lecture method and is an age old traditional method of teaching where knowledge or information are presented, conveyed, imparted or transferred to learners by the teacher who dominates the teaching-learning process, acts as a repository of knowledge, and expects students to listen passively and unquestioningly. The expectation of the teacher and the student is that the latter should be able on demand to regurgitate the stored knowledge presented by the teacher. Ajitoni and Olubela (2010) attested to the fact that most Social Studies teachers today employ the lecture method.

However, the lecture method in the Social Studies classroom staffed by a specialist Social Studies teacher who is committed to the task, does not necessarily represent the classic lecture where learning is teacher centred and the learners are passive. It can be an interactive process where there is:

i. Two-way knowledge or information sharing between the teacher and the students or among the students where the atmosphere is collaborative and where the learner is an active participant.

ii. The teacher or the learners act as sources of knowledge stimulation.

iii. Knowledge, facts or information learned are not just acquired, but are critically reflected upon and geared towards problem resolution, as pointed out by

Sofadekan (2012) who argued that facts were not always important in their relationship to problem(s) in terms of total elimination or amelioration.

Creative Activities methods

These are simple forms of mental stimulation, allowing the students to use their imagination about the topic chosen for discussion. They elicit the creative capacities of the students via their active participation in the creative classroom activities. In Social Studies, creative activities and learning experiences are emphasised in order to develop the intellectual skills of the learners. The significance of making activities a central part of the teaching interaction in the Social Studies classroom is to foster the creative abilities of the learners. This points to the fact that activities in Social Studies are aimed at producing creative and productive citizens who are adaptive and can meet any challenge. For example, students can model a mock parliament, a popular event in the country such as the Aba riot or Benin massacre (Sofadekan, 2012).

Discussion methods

The discussion method can be described as an organised, pre-determined procedure of teaching where participants put their heads together and contribute worthwhile ideas or personal views that aid them in arriving at a conclusion on a topic (Sofadekan, 2012). In a discussion setting, the teacher should be an integral part of the discussion group placing him/her in the discussion circle and not standing in front of the class. Here the discussion group is comprised of equals where a visitor would not at first sight identify who the teacher is other than by his/her age. The physical setting of the discussion would be such that each of the discussants can see each other's face as the process progresses. Sitting in a circle would be the most appropriate arrangement provided the number of students in the class is manageable. In large groups the teacher should organise the students into manageable discussion groups. In a discussion where only the teacher is versed in discussion skills, he or she should lead at first and then step back allowing pupils to introduce points and counter points. The teacher should retain an element of control however to ensure that basic courtesies are observed and that everyone is given an opportunity to contribute.

Dramatization methods

Dramatization is a method whereby students act out events, situations, emotions or feelings or characters in stories by taking on roles. It involves the students in many activities that they can participate in physically, emotionally and mentally but it is a method that has to be carefully prepared if maximum benefit is to be derived from it. Even though the method is practice oriented, the teacher should consider its suitability in terms of practicability so that difficult or frightening roles should not be used for dramatization.

As well as providing students with fun during the lesson, it brings out the best in children, it aids their cognitive development and self-expression, it encourages the use of their initiative; gives them the opportunity to identify with what is good and positive; develops in them the spirit of cooperation and team work and trains them to speak clearly so that all members could hear but in the event of bad handling of the dramatization method, the effects could be negative. Students can become obsessed with the process of dramatization rather than the message in it (Sofadekan, 2012).

Inquiry-based problem solving methods

Inquiry-based problem solving is an activity-oriented, thought provoking creative method in which students, out of curiosity and on their own, or with the guidance of a teacher, probe, investigate, and interpret relevant issues and problems with a view to providing a solution through reflective thinking and rational decision-making which this method develops in the inquirer. As is evident from this method, rather than the teacher being a knowledge encyclopaedia or the giver of knowledge, the students strike out on their own, individually or in a group, to seek solutions to problems while the teacher acts as a facilitator of learning or a collaborator in learning. It is through exposing students to the more or less independent activities which the inquiry method entails that the students develop the intellectual skills essential for problem solving. Inquiry-based problem solving inculcates reflective thinking in the learners and ultimately makes them critical thinkers but it is time-consuming. It also entails patience or endurance on the part of the teachers and the students who on losing their patience in the face of seemingly difficult problems may see their situation as frustrating (Sofadekan, 2012).

Summary of teaching methods

It could be reliably gathered from the literatures above that the teaching methods are the veritable instruments used to achieve specific instructional objectives, therefore, the social studies teachers should hold with high esteem the role they play in the teaching and learning processes. They should rather be facilitators of learning whose aim is to change the totality of the learner's behaviour and attitudes positively through the adaptation of appropriate teaching methods.

2.6 Concept of Citizenship

Citizenship connotes being a legal member of a community. According to Olubela (2014) citizenship refers to the membership of a particular nation. Such member or citizen is expected to enjoy the various rights and privileges guaranteed by the government. Ige (2013) argued that citizenship means being a member or citizen with the attendant rights and privileges. Citizenship does not only mean membership of a given state, but it implies that such a member is vested with some rights and duties or responsibilities (Ogunyemi, 2011). This is the reason why Salako (2013) expressed that citizenship is not merely a right to enjoy, it also carries responsibility.

The conditions for acquiring the Nigerian citizenship are stated in chapter III, section 25 to 27 of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. These conditions are:

A. Citizenship by Birth:

Falade (2015) pointed out that in the United States of America; a person is automatically a citizen if he is born within the territories of the nation even if none of the parents is a citizen of that nation. Also, a person had born by US citizen(s) outside the country. In Nigeria, the following people can claim Nigerian citizenship by birth.

- i. Every person born in Nigeria on or before the date of independence, either of whose parents or any or whose grandparents belongs or belonged to an indigenous community in Nigeria.

- ii. Every person born in Nigeria on or after the date of independence either of whose parents or any of whose grandparents is a citizen of Nigeria.
- iii. Every person born outside Nigeria either of whose parents is a citizen of Nigeria.

B. Citizenship by Registration

This is a means of becoming the citizen of a nation through marriage. The Nigerian constitution states that a person can become the citizen of Nigeria through registration (i.e. if the person registered as a citizen of Nigeria). However, before anybody can be registered as a citizen of Nigeria, the Nigerian President must be satisfied that:

- i. The person is of good character
- ii. He has shown an intention of his desire to be domiciled in Nigeria
- iii. He has taken the oath of allegiance.

Those who are qualified to be registered as citizens of Nigeria include:

- i Any woman who is or been married to a citizen of Nigeria
- ii Every person of full age and capacity born outside Nigeria any of whose grandparents is a citizen of Nigeria (Falade, 2007.)

C. Citizenship by Naturalization

Naturalization is a process through which nationals of other countries are granted citizenship after satisfying the necessary conditions prescribed by the law of that country. This makes an alien to become a citizen of the country of his or her choice (salako, 2013). In Nigeria a person can become the citizen by applying for the certificate of naturalization. The person must however be able to satisfy the Nigerian President that:

- i. He is of full age and capacity
- ii. He is of good character
- iii. He has shown an intention of his desire to be domiciled in Nigeria
- iv. He is acceptable to the local community in which he is to live permanently

- v. He is capable of making useful contributions to the progress of Nigeria
- vi. He has taken an oath of allegiance
- vii He has resided in Nigeria for a continuous period of 15 years or a continuous period of 12 months in which during the past 20 years he had resided in Nigeria for an aggregate of at least 15 years.

There are certain privileges and entitlements that citizens of a nation are expected to enjoy. Such privileges and entitlements are referred to as human rights. Falade (2007) writes "Rights are things that are intrinsically ours and which nobody can take away from us. We do not have to beg for them, especially the fundamental ones". Awopetu and Akinola (2009) pointed out that human rights have been recognized by the United Nations in its declaration of human rights which was adopted in 1948. These rights cover virtually all human spheres and they are entrenched in the constitution of most nations which have written constitution.

Akinola (2008) explained that the consequences of human rights lie in the fact that the granting of these rights secures for every citizen in the society an overall welfare. Also, opportunities are made open for every citizen to develop to the maximum level. Human rights make the government responsible to the citizen. Some of the rights entrenched in the Nigerian constitution include:

- i. Right to life
- ii. Right to dignity of human person.
- iii. Right to person liberty.
- iv. Right to fair hearing
- v. Right to private life
- vi. Right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion.
- vii Right to freedom of expression and press.
- viii. Right to peaceful assembly and association
- ix. Right to freedom of movement
- x .Right from freedom of discrimination
- xi. Right from compulsory acquisition of property without adequate compensation.

2.7. Meaning and Level of Civic Responsibility in Nigeria

Civic refers to the citizens or people who live in a place. Civic responsibility therefore means the duties of the citizen to the civil society. Civic responsibility refers to the role performances, which contribute to the stable, dynamic, progressive and prosperous nation building. Civic responsibilities are the duties or obligations which citizens of a country are expected, by law, to perform (Irabor, 2011) explained that the rights, which a state grants its citizens, are supposed to be matched by corresponding duties owed to the state by those who are enjoying the rights.

It is the responsibility of the government to create an environment where the citizens can be secured and enjoy their liberties. The citizens on the other hand are expected to reciprocate by performing some duties for the sustenance of the civil society. Jekayinfa (2009) opined that civic responsibilities make the citizens responsible to the government as well as parties with the government in the maintenance of social order and sustenance of social progress. The existence of rights and responsibilities emphasizes the interdependence of both the government and the governed; none can function effectively without the cooperation of the other. Sofadekan (2012) expressed that civic responsibilities embraces what the society expects of the individuals in terms of their obligations to themselves, their fellow human beings, the environment and institutions as a reciprocal of the rights and privileges enjoyed. Civic responsibility is very important in fostering the development of the individual as well as the entire society (Falade, 2007). Some of the civic responsibilities of the Nigeria include:

- (1) To abide by the provision of the constitution and respect its ideals and its institutions, the national flag, the national anthem, the pledge and legitimate and properly constituted authority.
- (2) To protect and preserve public property and right against misappropriate and squandering of public funds.
- (3) To help enhance the power, prestige and good name of the country and to defend the country and render national services as may require.

- (4) To respect the dignity and religious of other citizens and the rights and the legitimate interest of others and live in unity and harmony and in the spirit of common brotherhood.
- (5) To make positive and useful contributions to the advancement, progress and well-being of the community where he resides.
- (6) To work conscientiously in his lawful and chosen occupation and to abstain from any activity detrimental to the general welfare of other citizen or to the country.
- (7) To ensure the proper upbringing of his children
- (8) To participate in and defend all democratic processes and practices.
- (9) To render assistance to appropriate and lawful agencies in the maintenance of law and order.

Falade and Adeyemi (2015) Identified one of the major problems that has hindered national development in Nigeria, after her hundred years of existence as a nation is the low level of the acquisition and demonstration of civic norms by citizens. Alao (2012) posited that despite the fact that Nigeria is endowed with numerous human and natural resources, the nation still plagues with meaningful development because of the fact that many citizens are intellectually and socially deficient. Okan and Lawal (2011) submitted that the problem of negative citizenship values has greatly militated against Nigeria to having an effective and sustained socio-economic and political development since her independence in 1960. The incivility that the country is witnessing calls for values reorientation through a commitment to the ideals rooted in civic education.

Civic Education plays a prominent role in the development of a nation this is because the development of a nation hinges on good and effective citizenship. No nation can thrive beyond the civic values demonstrated by her citizens. This is the reason why civic values constitute the necessary foundation of a virile nation (Okan & Lawal 2011). The prosperity of a nation depends not on the abundance of its revenue nor on the strength of its fortification, nor beauty of its public buildings but it consists in the number of its cultivated citizens, in its men of education, enlightenment and character. Civics education according to Olubela (2014) is the study of the great theoretical and practical aspects of citizenship, its rights and duties; the duties of citizens to each other as members of a political body and to

the government. It includes the study of civil law and civil code, and the study of government with attention to the role of citizens-as opposed to external factors- in the operation and oversight of government. Kerr (2009) opined that Civic Education have to do with the promotion of participation in decision making, forging strong community links, sensitivity to values and ethics and engagement in the discussion of critical issues such as voting and political debates. Peter (2015) defines Civic Education as a conscious effort to inculcate in the youth, a set of values and attitude contingent on the need and problems of the society.

Jekayinfa (2009) defined Civic Education as a system for the acquisition and internalization of the values, sentiment and norms of society in which they live and actually get involved to ensure that the common good of the citizens is catered for including resisting anti-social and unguided youthful exuberance. Thus, Civic Education produce citizens who well informed, gather facts, reject ethnocentrism, religious jingoism and encourage national consciousness. That means that Civic Education develop in individual skills, attitudes and values that will enable them to show concern for the wellbeing and dignity of others, respecting the worth of others and approaching civil decision in a rational manner.

Civic education has been found to have greater effects on individuals who already have higher levels of participation and cognitive resources, which may make worse the gaps in society that it intended to address (Peter, 2015). Societies have long had an interest in the ways in which their youth are prepared for citizenship and in how they learn to participate in civic life. At present that interest may be seen as a concern, most especially in democratic nation like ours. There are lots of facts that no nation, Nigeria inclusive, has attained the level of understanding and acceptance of the rights and responsibilities among the totality of its citizens that is required for the maintenance and improvement of any constitutional democracy. If citizens are to influence the course of political life and the public policies adopted, they need to expand their repertoire of participatory skills, which include political ethics (Peter, 2015).The close link between Civic Education and Social Studies Education is unique. Civic Education no doubt is a dimension of Social Studies Education. Though, link also exists between Civic Education and other subjects in the school curriculum. There is a general agreement that Civic Education as a dimension of Social Studies Education is about the grooming of good citizens. The

goal is build the young people so that they acquire the skills, knowledge and values necessary for active participation in societal activities. Important to Social Studies Education are the efforts that are directed towards bringing new meaning to citizenship participation in community and national development (Keene, Baamphatlha & Moffat, 2013).

Social Studies Education in collaboration with Civic Education has been seen as a strong and effective tool that can facilitate the attainment of political ethics through the production of responsible citizens that will contribute totally to the growth of the society. This can be seen from the citizens' behavioural dispositions which may include honesty, dedication, forthrightness, hard work, and productivity. Social Studies teachers have a responsibility and a duty to refocus their classrooms on the teaching of character and political ethics (civic virtue) (Yusuf, 2009). They should not be timid or hesitant about working toward these goals. Thus, fate of the Nigerian experiment in democratization rest in no small ways on the store of political ethics that resides in the Nigerian people or citizens. The Social Studies professionals of this nation has vital role to play in keeping this wellspring of political ethics flowing.

2.8. Meaning and Purpose of Civic Education

Jekayinfa (2009) described Civic Education (C.E.) as a programme that helps the child to know that they have rights but also duties. It enables the learners to develop a sense of good respect for the law and affection for the Republic. Civic Education implies an understanding of the rules of democratic life and its fundamental principles. Civic Education teaches about the political system. It emphasizes the rights, roles and duties of every member of the society. The goal of civic education is the development of responsible citizenship. It aims at equipping the learners with those political cultures, democratic ideals and values that will enable them to function as effective and productive citizens (Jekayinfa, 2009).

Civic Education is concerned with the development of values, social norms, skill and democratic ideals in the citizens. Utulu (2011) said civic education becomes

very relevant since it essentially seeks to introduce learners to the process of democratic socialisation by promoting support for democratic behaviour and values among citizens. Okan & Lawal (2011) also saw civic education as the educative means in a sovereign state whereby the citizens or individuals become socially and politically aware, socially integrated into the social setting, acquire social skills and competence, become socially responsible for maximum productivity and development, all in the interest of the state.

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Civic Education is a set of practices and activities aimed at making young people and adults better equipped to participate actively in democratic processes by assuming and exercising their rights and responsibilities in the society (Ajiboye, 2010). He further identified the characteristics of Civic Education as:

- (i) a life-long learning experiences. Civic Education is a life-long in the sense that it occurs during entire life course. It begins from the day the child is born and it continues throughout his life span. Civic Education includes a series of learning environment inside and outside formal institutions;
- (ii) an educational programme which aims at preparing individuals and communities for civic and political participation. Civic Education strengthens the civil society by helping to make its citizens informed and knowledgeable and endowing them with democratic skills;
- (iii) programme that implies respecting rights and accepting responsibilities;

(iv) a programme that values cultural and socially diversity. Civic Education is social learning. It is learning in society, about society and for society. Civic Education promotes egalitarian society in a democratic and multi-cultural society.

Civic education refers to both formal and informal training given to the citizens to develop in them that knowledge, values and skills needed for effective participation in the political process and the civil society. Mehlinger cited in Ajibade (2011) pointed out that this type of education is concerned with the knowledge; skills and values citizens need to function effectively in participatory democracy.

Civic education aims at providing learners with useful information on their rights, responsibilities, and requirements for political engagements with the purpose of enabling the citizens to make meaningful contribution to the political system. The three major components of civic education are:

A. Civic disposition, which consists of:

- i. The development of confidence in the citizen so that he can be able to participate in civil life.
- ii. The readiness of the citizen to participate in civil life.
- iii. The ability of the citizen to assume the roles, rights and responsibilities usually associated with citizenship in a democratic system.
- iv. The demonstration of openness, tolerance and responsibility in exercising one's rights, and duties.

B. Civic Knowledge, which means that:

- i. The citizen should understand his political and civic context.
- ii. The citizen should know his social, economic, political and civic rights.
- iii. The citizen should understand the rule, rights and responsibilities of citizenship.

C. Civic Skills, which involves:

- i. The potential of the citizen to acquire the ability to explain, analyse, interact, evaluate, defend a position and monitor processes and outcomes.
- ii. The ability of the citizen to use knowledge for informal participation in civic and political processes.

According to Civic Education Report (2010) these three components are however, interdependent and interrelated. That is, the acquisition of any of the components will affect and be affected by other components. For instance, it will be impossible for the learner to manifest appropriate civic disposition without acquiring certain civic knowledge and skills.

Required Intellectual and Affective Qualities of Civic Education Teachers

The introduction of civic education into the primary school system in Nigeria is to enhance the attainment of the objectives of primary education. The National Policy on Education (2004) stated the objectives of primary education, some of which are: (i) Citizenship education as a basis for effective participation in and contribution to the life of the society. (ii) Character and moral training and development of sound attitudes. These objectives can be achieved if civic education is implemented and well taught in the Nigerian primary schools.

The qualities and competence of civic education teachers at the primary school level are very important. The National Policy on Education (2004) pointed out that “no educational system may rise above the quality of its teachers”. In the light of this Falade & Falade (2012) argued that in the implementation of a curriculum development product the teacher is the most important factor. The teacher is the prime executor of government policies on education.

2.8.1 History of Civic Education in Nigeria

The history of Civic Education in Nigeria could be classified into stages as identified by Falade, (2015):

(a) The informal or Traditional Era

Civic training is not a recent development in Nigeria. It has been in existence even before the advent of the country in 1914. Civic education was part of the of the

informal or traditional education in the different localities that were merged together as a single nation. Training for civic responsibility and effective citizenship were essential aspects of traditional education in various parts of Nigeria. Before the introduction of western education in Nigeria, the existing traditional education was concerned with training the children for social responsibility and political participation. Fafunwa (2004) cited in Adeyemi & Salawudeen (2014) explained that indigenous African education places considerable emphasis on character training. It emphasizes social responsibility, job orientation, and political participation, spiritual and moral values. In the traditional Nigerian society, all parents want their children to be upright, honest, kind and helpful to others. Therefore training for civic responsibility is one of the major goals of the traditional education. The child is made to acquire the skills and values that will make him to function effectively and efficiently in the civil society. Adeyemi & Salawudeen (2014) identified some of the virtues that are emphasized in the traditional Yoruba society as: justice and fair play, hard work, respect and humility, decency and morality, patience and endurance, honesty and transparency, cooperation and good behaviours.

(b) Single Subject Era

During the colonial era and shortly after the Nigeria independence, civics was taught as a single subject in the Nigeria elementary schools. Ogundare (2011) pointed out that in Nigeria, before and immediately after independence in 1960, the upper primary and lower classes of secondary schools were offering civics to their pupils. The subject lost its status and identity to what was called General Knowledge and with the coming of Social Studies in 1971, civics became an integral part of Social Studies. Commenting on the goals of civics at that time, Falaye (2008) emphasized that civics teaches the learner how men and women organize, regulate and manage their desires, feelings, works and their lives in such a way that peace, law and order exist in the society. The subject deals with the qualities which every member of the community must possess, the duties expected from each citizen and the rights, which each citizen should enjoy. The purpose of teaching this subject at that time was to develop in the child those attitudes and skills required for participation in the civil society. Some of the contents of the subject are: Levels, arms and duties of the government; Nigeria and the outside

world; the individual in the society; voluntary organizations; democracy, rights and duties of the citizen. Apart from the formal teaching of Civic Education concepts in the primary and secondary schools, voluntary youth associations were organized. Some of the youth organizations that were established include: Boy Scout, Girls' Guides and Boys' Brigade. These organizations were meant to give the youth the opportunity to serve the community. The operation and activities of the voluntary associations were meant to inculcate in the youths the values and traits of good citizenship.

(c) Integrated Era

After the Nigeria independence in 1960, it was discovered that the inherited school programmes were foreign in nature. They had little or no relevance to the prevailing problems and situations in the country. As a result of this, there was the need to revamp the school curriculum. The search for the kind of school programme that could develop in the citizens those knowledge, skills and attitudes that they need to be useful to themselves and the society at large led to the introduction of the integrated Social Studies in Nigeria in the 1960s. With the coming of Social Studies, civics became an integral part of Social Studies in 1971 (Ogundare, 2011). Civic concepts like citizenship, democracy, civic rights and responsibilities, leadership and followership were incorporated into the Social Studies curriculum. The integration of civic concepts into Social Studies curriculum was possible because Social Studies teaches values and social norms. According to Mezieobi (2011) Social Studies curriculum provides wide arrays of contents and learning experiences to promote the frontiers of Civic Education. Udoh cited by Ogundare (2011) pointed out that during the 1991 Curriculum Review Conference, it was decided that Citizenship Education should be taught as part of Social Studies at certain levels of education in Nigeria.

(d) Disarticulation Era

The Nigerian government started a 9-Year Basic Education Programme in order to attain the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015. The 9-Year Basic Education Programme was also aimed at implementing the objectives of the National Economic and Empowerment Development Strategies (NEEDS). The objectives of NEEDS are: value-reorientation, poverty eradication, job creation,

wealth generation and using education to empower people (Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council- NERDC, 2007). In view of this, there was the need to review, restructure and re-align the existing primary and junior secondary school curricula into a 9-Year Basic Education Programme. In 2005, the National Council on Education approved a new curriculum structure for primary and junior secondary schools in Nigeria. The newly approved curriculum is referred to as the Universal Basic Education (UBE) curriculum. The UBE curriculum structure provided for Lower Basic Education Curriculum (Primaries 1-3); Middle Basic Education Curriculum (Primaries 4-6) and Upper Basic Education Curriculum (JSS 1-3). An important aspect of the new UBE curriculum was the introduction of new school subjects at the Lower, Middle and Upper Basic Education levels. This was responsible for the re-emergence of Civic Education, as a separate school subjects, at the primary and secondary school levels. Civic Education contents were disarticulated from Social Studies and by 2007 a 9-Year Civic Education curriculum for the Basic Education Programme was designed. Since then, Civic Education is taught as a separate and compulsory school subject in Nigerian primary and secondary schools. Commenting on the introduction of Civic Education as a compulsory subject, Sam Egwu, a former Minister of Education declared that it was part of President Umaru Yar'Adua's 7-point agenda geared towards the enhancement of human capital development. The introduction of the subject was designed to refocus, re-invigorate and reposition our great country to further realize her full potentials as envisioned by our founding fathers (Jekayinfa, Mofoluwawo & Oladiran, 2011).

(e) Merging and Harmonization Era

In October 2010, the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria convened a National Stakeholders Forum to deliberate on the State of Education in Nigeria. Delegates at the summit called for immediate action to reduce the number of subjects offered at the Basic Education level. Consequently, NERDC was directed to review the 9-Year Basic Education Curriculum (BEC) in line with the recommendations of the Summit (NERDC, 2012). In view of this, related UBE school subjects were merged to form new subjects. For instance, Islamic Studies, Christian Religious Studies, Social Studies, Civic Education and Security Education were merged to form a new school subject called Religion and National

Values. According to NERDC (2012), in the context of the current reduction, selection and harmonization of the UBE Curriculum title, Religion and National Values is the umbrella embracing the previously autonomous subjects of Religious Studies (Christian Religion and/Islamic Studies), Civic Education, Social Studies and a new addition, Security Education. The rationale for the new title is the need to emphasize the importance of values across the educational spectrum. In this new arrangement, each of the subjects that were merged becomes a theme under the umbrella subject title.

2.8.2 Problems Confronting Civic Education Programme in Nigeria

Civic Education is faced with a number of problems in Nigeria. Some of these problems are: Lack of Emphasis on Civic Education and Character Training. Civic Education is not given the required prominence in the Nigeria school programme. Before independence in 1960, the colonial education had little or no relevance to the socio-cultural and political situations in Nigeria. At present, the Nigeria society places emphasis on certificate and wealth without corresponding emphasis on character. Consequently, rather than producing objective and patriotic human beings, the Nigeria educational programme produced many uncritical citizens who are also selfish and indifferent to public affairs (Falaye, 2008)

(i) Non implementation of Social Studies programme at the senior secondary school level.

Between 1971-2007, Civic Education was taught as an integral part of Social Studies. However, the teaching of Social Studies was not implemented at the senior secondary school in Nigeria. This implies that, at the critical time when the Nigerian youths need effective civic training, there was no adequate provision for civic contents in the school programme. According to Jekayinfa, Mofoluwawo and Oladiran (2011) it became evident that the lack of civic education and patriotic orientation had led to disorientation in schools and the larger society. The consequences were being felt at all strata of our society. The prevalence of trend of corruption, indiscipline, disrespect for both elders and the rule of law, indifference to duty are some of the manifestations of negative trends in the Nigerian society

(ii) Disorganized and Duplicated Civic Education Curriculum

The disarticulated era of civic education in Nigeria was characterized by disorganized curriculum content particularly at the upper basic education level. There were series of duplications in the curriculum contents within and between educational levels. Some of the duplicated contents are shown in Table 1

Table 2.1: Some Duplicated Civic Education Contents at the Upper Basic Education Level.

Class	Theme	Topic
	Citizenship	Rights and duties of citizens
Js 1	Human rights	Meaning of human rights
	Rights and obligations of Nigerian citizens	Types of human rights
Js 2	Representative democracy	Elections and voters responsibility
	Nigerian constitution	Constitutional development in Nigeria
Js 3	Representative democracy	Voter education and election
	Nigerian constitution	The current Nigerian constitution

The table above shows that in JS I, the concept of human rights appear under three themes. That is, JS I students will learn the concept of human rights at three

different times within the same academic session. Also, concepts of election and voters' responsibility/education appear both in JS II and JS III syllabi with the same contents in several cases.

(iii) Unstable Civic Education Programme

After one hundred years of existence, Nigeria is yet to develop a stable civic education programme that can effectively be used to develop in the learners 'national values and skills for civic engagement. Generally, the Nigeria secondary school curriculum suffers high level of instability. Newly introduced programmes are aborted and replaced with another one. Adeyemi (2010) commented that the current school curriculum is bereft of the rich cultural heritage of our people and formal education pays less attention to the moral training of the youths. This has resulted into immoral laxity in the society.

(iv). Lack of Adequate Human Resources for Civic Education

According to Shetu (2011) Teachers are critical to the success of the bold initiative by committing themselves to professional development in order to effectively handle civics in schools". Despite the recent emphasis on the teaching of civic education in Nigeria, teachers are not trained to be able to teach the subject more effectively. Falade (2012) investigated the competence of primary school teachers in the teaching of civic education in Southwest, Nigeria. He discovered that primary school teachers do not possess adequate civic knowledge and they do not demonstrate sufficient positive civic attitudes that can help them to have the competence of teaching civic concepts at the primary school level. This finding corroborates the position of Adeyemi (2012) that in some schools, History and Geography teachers who do not have in-depth knowledge about the subject are saddled with the responsibility of teaching it. Recitation and Rote Learning Method Participatory approach is not often adopted in teaching civic values in Nigerian schools. The conventional teaching method use in our schools hinder learners from acquiring and demonstrating civic values and skills. In cases where students learn civic values and contents through recitation and rote learning, they are not well prepared for civic engagement and group role mechanism when they become adults.

2.8.3 Prospects of Civic Education in Nigeria

Nigeria was amalgamated to become a single nation in 1914. However, the country has not experienced enduring national peace and integration since her existence. Civic education is capable of achieving the following if it is effectively taught in Nigeria:

- Value-reorientation. Noddings (2007) surveyed the Nigerian value system. He discovered that core values that could promote political stability, unity and national integration were not imbibed by respondents. This account for the socio-political and economic problems that have hindered national progress since Nigeria got her independence in 1960. Civic education is capable of engineering sustainable value-reorientation which can break the vicious circle of socio-political and economic problem in the country.
- Effective citizenship. Civic education seeks to expose our pupils and students to the tenets and rudiments of citizenship education. The teaching of the subject will lay strong foundation for effective citizenship education and public participation in governance (Jekayinfa, Mofoluwawo & Oladiran, 2011).
- National peace and integration Okam and Lawal (2011) pointed out that an acquisition and development of enduring civic values among youths is designed largely to ensure sanity in the political, social and economic life of any country. Civic values constitute the necessary foundations for a peaceful, united and virile nation.
- Nation building. Nation building requires selfless, responsible and patriotic citizens. Through Civic Education Nigeria can raise nation builders who will work to achieve national objectives, goals and ideals. Danaid (2011) concluded that while accepting the fact that education, generally, is a vital tool for nation building, Civic Education is specifically vital for citizenship missions in nation building

2.9. Curriculum Model for Participatory Voter Education Programme

Curriculum is the course (or Path) that students have to run to finish the race. Curriculum therefore is the planned experiences which the learners may be exposed to in order to achieve the learning goals.

Falade (2007) expressed that curriculum development is one of the key factors related to meaningful and successful improvement. Since curriculum is an important aspect of education, curriculum development is not an entity that stops before going into the classroom and curriculum is not a package that stops developing in the classroom. It is rather a continuous process of constructing and modifying an educational programme.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) concluded that curriculum development encompasses the way a curriculum should be planned, implemented and evaluated in conjunction with what people, processes and procedures are involved. Curriculum models help the designers in an open manner and systematically identify the rationale for the use of particular teaching, learning and assessment approaches.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) identified two polarised curriculum models; these are product model and process model. Product Model as described by Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) is the one which emphasises plans and intentions while the product model is the one that emphasises activities and effects.

The Product and Process Models of Curriculum Development

The product Model can be traced to work of the writing of Tyler (1949) who greatly influenced curriculum development in America (O'Neill, 2010). However, the model of Tyler's work was criticised for placing too much emphasis on learning objectives and was also viewed as employing very technical means-to-end reasoning.

Crowder (2005) cited in Falade (2007) also identified two models of curriculum development, these are: the classical or rational approach and the participatory or interactive approach. Although, there are distinct philosophical differences

between classical and participatory curriculum models, they are not complete opposites as a curriculum development can include elements of both models. The classical approach to curriculum development follows an “objectivist”, product-oriented paradigm. Professionals and experts who believe that they have sufficient technical knowledge to produce the desired package set the objectives and contents of the curriculum. In the classical or rational model of curriculum development, teachers and learners are measured by standards predefined at the stage of curriculum planning. Schools become bureaucratized entities where learning is similar to a manufacturing process. Knowledge is treated as an external object and the success of education depends upon the transmission of knowledge from teachers to students. Obviously, learning is a passive activity that only requires feeding-in information. In this era, this kind of curriculum design cannot prepare students to survive and live as functional citizens.

On the other hand, the participatory model put emphasis on participation and interaction among the various interested groups. In this model, all the participants are stake holders. The model emphasises a participatory mode of action, based on an inventory of the stakeholders and their interests, and in an interactive manner elicits their input in developing the curriculum i.e. through interviews, consultations, post-hoc evaluations. Participatory approach to curriculum development follows a systematic planning structure for decision-making and action as well as a logical sequencing of curriculum development phases without being rigid. This includes the systematic sharing of knowledge and information among stake holders (Falade, 2007)

Riding, Foweel and Levy (2009) described the benefits of the participatory model. They argued that the participatory approach to curriculum development would enable students to learn better. Also, it would facilitate the development of transferable skills and help to prepare students for life outside the school. The participatory curriculum model recommended by Riding,et al (2009) is made up of five stages. These are:

- i. identifying the objectives that the curriculum or package aim to achieve
- ii. plan the curriculum content through participatory approach

- iii. implement the curriculum by running the module
- iv. evaluate the package through observation and student feedback
- v. reflects on the result of the result of the evaluation in preparation for modification.

Robert (2007) developed a model for curriculum development. This model is made up of three stages: (i). Planning the curriculum. (ii). Establishing the curriculum content. (iii). Validating the curriculum. Each of these stages is further simplified into steps. Although the two curriculum models are related, however, they have different steps for the development of curriculum. While Riding, et al (2009) model is made up of five steps; the Robert (2007) model made up of three stages which are simplified into nine steps. The Robert (2007) model is adapted for the voter education programme development in this study because of the specific and simplified steps that are necessary for participatory activities.

2.10. Participatory Action Research

Action research is a new research paradigm which is qualitative in nature. It aims at achieving both action and research within a single study. Zuber-Skerrit in Riding et al (2009) identified the distinctive features of action research, he pointed out that action research is:

- Critical collaborative enquiry by
- Reflective practitioners who are
- Accountable in making the results of their enquiry public
- Self-evaluative in their practiced and engaged in
- Participative problem-solving and continuing professional development.

Action research is participative in that those involved contribute equally to the inquiry. Also, action research is collaborative in that the researcher is not an expert carrying out research from an external perspective, but a partner, working with and for those affected by the problem. Action research adopts a methodical, interactive approach embracing problem identification, action planning, implementation, evaluation and reflection (Riding et al, 1995).

Participatory action research is one of the methodologies under the action research paradigm. Ige (2012) described participatory research as an integrated activity that combines social investigation, educational work and action. Nkire (2011) explained that participatory research is client oriented. The clients or participants are actively involved in the entire research process.

Participatory research is a bottom-up approach where the researcher and the participants involve in collaborative activities. Collaborative participation according to Falade (2007) requires intensive interaction between researchers and the clients/participants. Collaborative participation is characterized by:

- i. The researcher and the participants working together as equal partner
- ii. The researcher and the participants jointly identify a problem and proffer solution to the problem
- iii. The participants intensively participate in problem identification and the evaluation of possible solutions.

Ige (2013) argued that participatory research advocate participation and rejects manipulation. The process of participatory research is characterized by:

- Identification of a problem, which originates in the community, school or workplace
- The ultimate goal of the research is transformation and improvement of the lives of those involved. The beneficiaries are the students, worker or people concerned.
- Participatory research involves people in the school, workplace or community in the control of the entire process of the research.
- Central to participatory research is its role of strengthening the awareness of the people about their own abilities and resources.

Participatory research is qualitative because it involves the use and analysis of qualitative information. In qualitative research, words and responses provide the data used by the researcher.

2.11. Gender and Achievement in Civic and Political Concepts

Studies have shown that sex influence school achievement. Abdu Raheem (2013) opined that there are gender differences in the description that male and female make for their performance outcomes on achievement related tasks. In our society, there are differences in the expectation towards males and female ability. The socio-political imbalance between male and female is illustrated by Salako (2013).

2.11.1. Political Participation and Gender Representation in Nigeria

Olubela (2014) defined political participation as voluntary activities shared by members of a society in the selection of their rulers and directly or indirectly involve in the formation of public policies”. In a similar tone, Weiner also conceives of political participation in the following words: Is voluntary activities shared by members of a society in the selection of their rulers and directly or indirectly involve themselves in the formation of public policies.

From the above definition of political participation, it appears that those actions (e.g. voting at elections, campaigning, contesting at election) must voluntarily or willingly come from the individuals before they can be described as active political participants. Otherwise, any attempt aimed at coercing people to get involved in these activities is a contradiction of the above definitions. It is obvious from the above definition that a wide range of activities would qualify as political participation. Okoronkwo-Chukwu's (2013) classified these activities into three, namely: gladiatorial activities, transitional activities and spectator activities. Political activities such as holding public or party offices, canvassing for party funds, contesting at election, etc. are classified under gladiatorial activities. Transitional activities also include activities such as attending political meetings or political rally, making monetary contribution to political parties, etc. Spectator activities on the other hand include political activities such as wearing of party badges, caps, uniforms or emblems, running errands for political leaders, voting at elections, etc. Using Milbrath's classification of political participation and political representation at the highest category of political participation – the gladiatorial activities, had always favoured the male gender in Nigeria since independence till date. Available statistics on gender representation in public offices, especially, at

the highest decision making levels such as the offices of the president, state governor and local government chairperson, reveal that female representation was almost at zero frequency (Okoronkwo-Chukwu 2013).

Except in few instances where women were elected as local government chairpersons, no women has ever in the history of Nigerian elections, been elected as chief executive both at the national and state levels. Similarly, a summary of gender representation in the National Assembly during the 1999, 2003, 2007 and 2011 elections put together, shows that women were ridiculously under-represented by 5% in each of the two Houses of Assembly. Besides, no woman had ever ascended the office of the Senate President, while the only female, Patricia Etteh, who was elected as Speaker of the House of Representatives in 2007, was impeached by a male dominated House before the end of her tenure.

On the other hand, available statistics also confirms that female gender in Nigeria, in most instances, and for several reasons, participate in politics at the least level of Milbrath's classification of political activities – the spectator activities. Here, women are mostly engaged in rallies and campaign activities where the uniforms, caps and badges of respective political parties are freely displayed on them. More often than not, the female genders are easily mobilized for the election victory of male candidates who are more financially buoyant than their female counterparts. In this regard, OkoronkwoChukwu (2013) in a study on the 2011 general elections in Nigeria refers to women "as active participants in the success of their male counterparts during elections". Women are also known to have registered as voters more than men in successive voters' registration exercises, while statistics equally support that women turnout in successive elections in Nigeria are usually greater than that of men. Yet, all these could not translate women representation in elective positions into an appreciable level in Nigeria. Milbrath's middle level classification of political participation into transitional activities which include attending political meetings, attending political rallies, making monetary contribution to candidates and political parties, etc. are equally male dominated activities, which had enhanced male gender overall political participation and consequent domination of political affairs. The prevalence of god fatherism and nocturnal meetings by politicians are common practices that only the male gender in Nigeria can easily comply with their demands and terms, as against the female gender that are

naturally exposed to criticism if they comply with those terms. Okoronkwo-Chukwu's (2013) observation, in this regard, clearly explains the dilemma of Nigerian female politicians.

It is very difficult for a married woman to participate in politics without people casting aspersion on her person as promiscuous. A husband's consent must be obtained and his relatives consulted before a woman enters into politics. An unmarried woman venturing into politics is simply inviting public scrutiny to her private and personal life. Political opponents will accuse of sleeping with all the party stalwarts to win. In addition, the nocturnal hours politicians keep in strategizing and mapping out campaigns deter women from effectively following the electioneering process. Most times meetings are called for in unholy hours when they are expected to take care of their children and homes. The ones that brave it to the venues are booed and taunted by opponents as shameless women. Majority of the people in Nigeria believe that no decent woman can play politics without compromising their virtue; all the women that go into it are seen as women of easy virtue even when they are married. Women themselves see the name calling and odd hours fixed for meetings as schemes hatched by the men to remove them from the happenings in the political circle. This attitude of the society creates a sense of apathy in the women and explains the reason why they are more comfortable as voters, mobilizers, praise singers and supporters to male candidates (Okoronkwo-Chukwu, 2013).

Tables 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 below further buttress our discussion so far in this section and clearly demonstrate the age long domination of female gender by their male counterparts in diverse areas of political participation and representation in Nigerian politics.

Table 2.2: Women Representation in Political Positions

1999		2003		2007		2011		
Office	Seat available	Women	Seat available	Women	Seat available	Women	Seat available	Women
President	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
Senate	109	3(2.8)	109	4(3.7)	109	9(8.3)	109	7(6.4)
House of Rep	360	12(3.3)	360	21(5.8)	360	25(6.9)	360	26(7.2)
Governor	36	0	36	0	36	0	36	0
S.H.A	990	24(2.4)	990	40(3.9)	990	57(5.8)	990	68(6.9)
S.H.A Committee	829	18(2.2)	881	32(3.6)	887	52(5.9)	887	
Chairperson								
LGA	710	13(1.8)	774	15(1.9)	740	27(3.6)	740	
Chairperson								
Councillors	6366	69(1.1)	6368	267(4.2)	6368	235(3.7)	6368	

Source. Adapted from Awoleso and Odeyemi (2015)

Table 2.3: Trends of Women Deputy Governors in Nigeria

Election Year	No of Women Deputy Governors
1999	1
2003	2
2007	6
2011	1

Source. Awoleso and Odeyemi (2015)

Table2.4: Global Comparison of Women in National Parliament

	Both Houses	Lower Houses	Upper Houses
World Average	19.5%	19.7%	18.7%
Sub-Sahara	20.4	19.4	20.2
Nigeria's Percentage	5.5%	5.3%	6.4%

Source. Awoleso and Odeyemi (2015)

Table2.5: Participation in Elections in Nigeria by Gender in April 2011

	Female Candidates	Male Candidates	
President	1	19	20
Vice-President	3	17	20
Governor	13	340	353
Deputy-Governor	58	289	347
House of Reps	220	2,188	2408
Senatorial	90	800	890

Source: British Council (2012)

While tables 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, and 2.5 above clearly showed the extent women were grossly underrepresented in elective positions from 1999 till 2011, similar trends were also witnessed in appointive positions under successive regimes in Nigeria. For instance, only 4 out of the 29 senior ministers (13.7%) and 3 out of the 18 junior ministers (16.6%) were female political appointees under President Obasanjo on assumption of office in May, 1999. He also “appointed 2 women advisors, and 2 senior special assistants and 6 special assistants and 1 special assistant to the Vice-President as well as 8 permanent secretaries”. This however represents a departure from earlier regimes, especially, the military regime.

It should be noted that the number of women representation in appointive positions continued to increase under the Yar'Adua and Jonathan's administrations, but no

complementary increase was witnessed in elective positions. Indeed, while there was an appreciable increase in the number of women who contested for political offices during the 2011 general elections, the outcome showed that the number of women elected dropped when compared with the 2007 general election where fewer women contested election.

2.11.3. Gender Inequality and Women Underrepresentation in Nigeria

We have clearly demonstrated above with convictive data the poor state of women political representation in historical Nigeria in both elective and appointive positions. On a global stage, the percentage comparison of Nigerian women representation in national parliament was 6.4% as against sub-Sahara Africa and world average which were 20.2% and 18.7% respectively in 2011 (see table 6 above). Interestingly, the British council report on gender party in 2012 shows that Nigeria occupied 118 positions out of 192 countries. This was equally corroborated by the United Nations development Programme (UNDP) which concludes that “women participation in politics and decision-making (in Nigeria) is still inadequate” (Ayabam, 2013; Asaju & Adagba, 2013).

Despite the United Nations declaration of 1975-1985 as the United Nations’ Decade for women and subsequent conferences organized by the United Nations in 1992 (the Rio Conference on Environment and Development); 1993 (the Vienna Human Right Conference); 1995 (the Copenhagen Summit on Social Development); and 1995 (the Beijing World Conference), all of which Nigeria effectively participated and signed their legal instruments, women participation and representation in politics continued to fall below expectation. It is instructive to note that successive governments continued to ignore the Beijing 35% affirmation action for women participation.

Several factors, including funding, women’s perception of politics in Nigeria, political violence during election, lack of self-confidence on the part of women, women’s marginalization in party leadership, illiteracy and low educational status of women as well as cultural and religious discrimination have been identified by scholars as inhibiting factors to women’s political representation (Ayabam, 2013).

The cultural factors appear to be more damming and highly entrenched in Nigerian politics than other factors. This factor roundly concludes that a woman's place is in the home where she is expected to care for her husband and children and not to be rubbing shoulders with the male gender in politics. This assumption rests on the social-biological school suggested by Awofeso & Odeyemi (2014) who identified the biological dissimilarities between men and women as being responsible for sexual division of labour in all societies. Proponents of this school of thought "believed that women were naturally and biologically inferior to men". Hence, women "as a result of their inferiority, did 'menial' duties of cooking, housekeeping and domestic coining, while men fought war, went hunting and performed the hard tasks" (Izugbara, 2013). "It is this programme that assigns men to the 'hard' life of politics and leadership, governance and headship and women to 'soft' life of mother, home-tenders and housekeepers.

2.12. Studies on Knowledge and Attitude to Civic and Political Issues

Knowledge is an aspect of the cognitive domain of learning. Bloom and his associate divided cognitive objectives into six categories. These are: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. These classifications are concerned with the intended behaviour of students. That is, the way individuals are to act or think as a result of participating in some unit of instruction (Olubela, 2014).

Civic and political knowledge refers to the information ideas, and facts that individuals have on civic and political concepts and problems. Such ideas, information and facts are learnt through the various agents of political socialization.

Attitude is an expression of individual feelings, expression and predispositions towards a particular thing. Olubela (2014) described attitude as a generalized response to a particular group, institution, concept or object along a favourable/unfavourable dimension. Attitude varies in direction, intensity, pervasiveness consistency and salience. Attitude to civic and political issues refer to the expression of individual feelings, expression or predispositions towards civic and political matters. People's attitude to political issues varies in direction and intensity. For instance, a person who avoids civic engagement, group roles and

political participation may be said to have negative attitude to political issues (Dada et al, 2016).

Knowledge is the idea and facts that individuals have about a particular thing. Alao (2012) pointed out that knowledge involves the recall of methods and processes, or the recall of pattern, structure or setting. Knowledge is acquired through learning, exposure or experience.

Civic and political knowledge refers to the information ideas, and facts that individuals have on civic and political concepts and problems. Such ideas, information and facts are learnt through the various agents of political socialization. Ajiboye (2010) argued that students are expected to know the significant dates and events in Nigeria, especially as it concerns the historical and political development of the country. Other significant political concepts that students are expected to know include: functions of government, levels of government, duties and obligations of citizens, fundamental human right, democracy, leadership and followership etc.

Attitude is an expression of individual feelings, expression and predispositions towards a particular thing. Sax (1974) described attitude as a generalized response to a particular group, institution, concept or object along a favourable/unfavourable dimension. Attitude varies in direction, intensity, pervasiveness consistency and salience. Attitude to civic and political issues refer to the expression of individual feelings, expression or predispositions towards civic and political matters. People's attitude to political issues varies in direction and intensity. For instance, a person who avoids civic engagement, group roles and political participation may be said to have negative attitude to political issues.

Olubela (2014) stated that an attitude is an enduring system that includes a negative component, a feeling component and an action tenderly. Attitude can exert a potent influence on an individual serving as motives, incentives and drives in attaining a goal.

Several factors determine the attitude of people to civic and political issues. Some of these factors are: levels of ignorance, illiteracy, style of leadership and socio-economic status. There is a positive relationship between knowledge and attitude

to civic and political issues. Individual's attitude depends to a large extent on the knowledge the person has about the object of affection (Olubela, 2014; Ige, 2013; Ajiboye, 2010).

Ajiboye (2010) investigated the knowledge and attitude of pupils to political issues. He discovered that there was positive correlation between pupils' attitude to politics and their knowledge of political concepts. Ajiboye (2010) concluded in his study that the students demonstrated poor knowledge of the political concepts examined. Their poor knowledge led to great aversion for politics as shown in their attitude mean score. Falade (2015) also discovered in her, own study that knowledge performs important role in the formation of attitude.

Policymakers and political scientists alike have long recognized the importance of formal civic education for youth. 1.Currently, "each state's constitution or public education establishment statutes and codes acknowledge the civic mission of schools" (Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools 2015). Historically, schools have served as the key institution to educate immigrants about the nation's system of governance and thus equip them for involvement in the nation's political life (David & Richard 2015). As a discipline, political science has similarly emphasized the importance of civic education for a healthy democracy. The APSA website states that "education for civic engagement and responsive governance were founding objectives of the political science profession" and that "supporting and sustaining quality civic education has been an important theme throughout the history of the American Political Science Association."2 In keeping with this objective, in the last twenty years the APSA has placed renewed emphasis on civic education at both the secondary and post-secondary levels (Ceaser, 2013).

Association's interest dovetails with the many political scientists who have suggested that civic education is a means to increase political participation (Hanmer, 2009), enhance social capital (Campbell 2006; Putnam 2001), and foster greater levels of political knowledge (David & Richard 2015). Even scholars who agree on little else can find consensus on the need for reinvigorated civic education (Hibbing and Theiss-Morse 2002; Mutz 2006; Putnam 2001). Notwithstanding these many calls for improved civic education, it receives little attention from policymakers and political scientists (Campbell, Levinson, and Hess 2012). Few

states even do not include civics within their testing regimen; nor is civics subject to the accountability

2.13. Research on Participatory Civic Education Package

Participatory action research is recent in Nigeria. There are few studies in the area of participatory approach in researches. Also, few studies are available on participatory civic education package. Nkire (2011) developed a participatory instructional programme on non-formal adult learners' environmental knowledge, attitude and practices in Oyo State, Nigeria. She made use of gender and education level as dependent variables for the study and reported a positive impact of the participatory instructional programme on environmental knowledge, attitude and practices of adult learners exposed to the programme when compared to the control group. Ige (2013) also developed an action cybercrime prevention programme on secondary school students' learning outcomes in Civics and Social Studies in Ondo State, Nigeria. He made use of gender and computer literacy level as moderator variables for the study. He discovered that there was a positive impact of the cyber-crime prevention programme on the learning outcome and the attitude of students exposed to treatment when compared to those that were not.

Mansaray (2009) developed a participatory model on population education. The study stimulated the participants to develop population information on their own. It was discovered that the participants benefited more from the package they developed than the population messages communicated to them.

Ajiboye & Ajitoni (2008) adopted a participatory model for a technical report in informal civic education for pupils in rural and peri-urban areas of Oyo and Ogun States, Nigeria. Twenty pupils and four teachers from four local governments were involved in the study. The study showed that participants were well sensitized and they demonstrated enthusiasm in the participatory activities. This study was not school based and it did not involve any control group. Also, the participants did not validate the package that was developed. However, the study is related to the present study because both of them adopted the "Bottom up Approach".

Falade (2007) in the same vein developed a participatory model study on Civic Education Package for Secondary School Students in Ondo State, Nigeria. Four

hundred and twenty-two JS II Students were involved in the study. The study which was School based showed that participants were well fascinated to develop Civic Education Package.

The present study is different from previous participatory action researches and studies on participatory civic education package and action research on crime prevention programme which were informal. The study which is school based centre on determining the effect of a participatory Voter Education programme on students' political knowledge and attitude. The moderator variables for the study are gender and school location. The study involved the use of conventional (class) teaching method for the control group. This is to determine the effect of the participatory activities on the experimental group.

2.15. Chapter Two Summary

It was revealed from the literatures that youth involvement in political process in most countries of the world is at decrease and this is alluded to by the reduction noticed in the level of civic responsibility demonstrated by citizens. In Nigeria, it is evident in the way the citizens display flagrant disrespect, disobedient, intolerance, immorality, dishonesty, etc. However, the Nigeria government at one time or the other have embarked on various programmes that could help to develop positive democratic culture in Nigeria society as well as inculcate in the citizenry the values of civic responsibilities. The major defects of all these programmes are they were characterised with lots of propaganda, indoctrination and coercion.

Attempts have also been made to develop effective citizenship through the school curriculum. This has no doubt led to the introduction of some schools subjects that are capable of increasing civic responsibility at a younger age in order to be in consonance with the 'catch them young' slogan. The subjects like social studies, political education, government, civic education, citizenship education, voter education etc. instead of making it possible for the acquisition of the desired goals, the method of learning adopted by the educators have reduced learning of those concepts to mere passing of examination leaving the most important aspect of knowledge, skills and values a difficult task in Nigeria. This is reported caused by the conventional methods that are often used by teaching these concepts or

subjects. It was also gathered from the reviewed literatures that gender and school location influences the students' acquisition of knowledge and their disposition to political concepts /issues.

Previous researches by (Falade, 2007; Ajiboye, 2008; Nkire, 2011; Gbadamosi, 2012; Ige 2013; Odumosu, 2015; Olubela, 2015) have contributed to making learning more real, interactive, and impactful, yet the socio-political challenges highlighted in the study are still on the increase in Nigeria. Perhaps, many of these strategies have been limited to primary school level, non-formal adult education centres, and universities undergraduate with little attention to secondary school students. Furthermore, the alarming increase in youths' derailment in the country may not be unconnected with the fact that classroom teaching largely concentrate on the use of poor teaching methods where the teacher alone does the talking while the learners remain passive (Adedoya, Abidoye & Afolabi, 2013). Research evidence have also shown that the use of participatory learning strategy could enhance students' propensity to vote, re-orientation and learners' competence and participatory skills of democratic citizenship (Kerr, 2009; Amosun & Ige 2010; Olagunju, Bolaji & Adesina 2012). This strategy also has the potentials of increasing students' capacities to analyze public issues and to cooperate with others in group activities.

This present study was school based. It was carried out to adopt a participatory approach to determine the effect of a voter education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. This study is also expected to reveal the influence of gender and school location on students' political knowledge and attitude. It is hoped that the findings of this study will provide useful information and suggestions for similar studies in social studies and other related disciplines.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This section presents the research paradigm, design, variables of study, selection of participants, research instruments, validation of research instruments, research procedure and data analysis.

3.1 Research Methodologies

Olubela (2015) identified the Research Methodologies by using a hierarchical taxonomy with three levels and eighteen categories as shown in table 3.1 indicating whether they typically conform to the positivist or interpretivist paradigms. Before introducing the methodologies used in this research, we summarise the key features of the key methodologies in the table, identifying their respective strengths and weaknesses. In the following sections, we justify our choice of methodologies and explain how they both operate and inter operate in this research.

Table 3.1: Taxonomy of Research Methodologies

Scientific/ Positivist	Interpretivist/Anti-positivist
Laboratory Experiments	Subjective/Augmentative
Field Experiments	✓ Review
Surveys	Action Research
Case Study	Case Studies
Theorem Proof	Descriptive/Interpretive
Forecasting	Future Research
Simulation	Role/Game Playing

Creswell, 2009.

Laboratory experiments permit the researcher to identify precise relationships between a small numbers of variables that are studied intensively via a designed laboratory situation using quantitative analytical techniques with a view to making generalizable statements applicable to real-life situations. The key weakness of laboratory experiments is the "limited extent to which identified relationships exist in the real world due to oversimplification of the experimental situation and the isolation of such situations from most of the variables that are found in the real world" (Olubela, 2015)

Field experiments extend laboratory experiments into real organisations and their real life situations, thereby achieving greater realism and diminishing the extent to which situations can be criticised as contrived. In practice it is difficult to identify organisations that are prepared to be experimented on and still more difficult to achieve sufficient control to make replication viable.

Surveys enable the researcher to obtain data about practices, situations or views at one point in time through questionnaires or interviews. Quantitative analytical techniques are then used to draw inferences from this data regarding existing relationships. The use of surveys permits a researcher to study more variables at one time than is typically possible in laboratory or field experiments, whilst data can be collected about real world environments. A key weakness is that it is very difficult to realise insights relating to the causes of or processes involved in the phenomena measured. There are, in addition, several sources of bias such as the possibly self-selecting nature of respondents, the point in time when the survey is conducted and in the researcher him/herself through the design of the survey itself.

Case studies involve an attempt to describe relationships that exist in reality, very often in a single organisation. Case studies may be positivist or interpretivist in nature, depending on the approach of the researcher, the data collected and the analytical techniques employed. Reality can be captured in greater detail by an observer-researcher, with the analysis of more variables than is typically possible in experimental and survey research. Case studies can be considered weak as they are typically restricted to a single organisation and it is difficult to generalise findings since it is hard to find similar cases with similar data that can be analysed in statistically meaningful way. Furthermore, different researchers may have

different interpretations of the same data, thus adding research bias into the equation.

A research philosophy is a belief about the way in which data about a phenomenon should be gathered, analysed and used. The term epistemology (what is known to be true) as opposed to doxology (what is believed to be true) encompasses the various philosophies of research approach. The purpose of science, then, is the process of transforming things believed into things known: doxa to episteme. Two major research philosophies have been identified in the Western tradition of science, namely positivist (sometimes called scientific) and interpretivist (also known as anti-positivist) (Galliers,1991).

3.1.1. Positivism

Positivists believe that reality is stable and can be observed and described from an objective viewpoint (Creswell, 2009), i.e. without interfering with the phenomena being studied. They contend that phenomena should be isolated and that observations should be repeatable. This often involves manipulation of reality with variations in only a single independent variable so as to identify regularities in, and to form relationships between, some of the constituent elements of the social world.

Predictions can be made on the basis of the previously observed and explained realities and their inter-relationships. "Positivism has a long and rich historical tradition. It is so embedded in our society that knowledge claims not grounded in positivist thought are simply dismissed as a scientific and therefore invalid. This view is indirectly supported by Alavi and Carlson (2007) who, in a review of 902 IS research articles; found that all the empirical studies were positivist in approach. Positivism has also had a particularly successful association with the physical and natural sciences.

There has, however, been much debate on the issue of whether or not this positivist paradigm is entirely suitable for the social sciences (Alavi & Carlson (2007)), This led to the calling for a more pluralistic attitude towards IS research methodologies. It is germane to our study since it is also the case that Information Systems, dealing

as it does with the interaction of people and technology, is considered to be of the social sciences rather than the physical sciences (Creswell, 2009). Indeed, some of the difficulties experienced in IS research, such as the apparent inconsistency of results, may be attributed to the inappropriateness of the positivist paradigm for the domain. Likewise, some variables or constituent parts of reality might have been previously thought unmeasurable under the positivist paradigm - and hence went unresearched

3.1.2 Interpretivism

Interpretivists contend that only through the subjective interpretation of and intervention in reality can that reality be fully understood. The study of phenomena in their natural environment is key to the interpretivist philosophy, together with the acknowledgement that scientists cannot avoid affecting those phenomena they study. They admit that there may be many interpretations of reality, but maintain that these interpretations are in themselves a part of the scientific knowledge they are pursuing. Interpretivism has a tradition that is no less glorious than that of positivism, nor is it shorter.

3.2 Research Paradigm

Paradigm according to Martyn (2008) is defined as the practices that explain a scientific discipline at certain point in time. He further identified four basic ways at which the paradigm can indirectly influence the scientific process as what is studied and researched, the type of questions that are asked, the exact structure and nature of the questions and how the results of any research are interpreted.

This research study adopted the positivism paradigm because it is found to be associated with quantitative research method. It asserted that real events can be observed empirically and explained with logical analysis. The criterion for evaluating the validity of a scientific theory is whether our knowledge claims (i.e. theory based predictions) are consistent with the information we are able to obtain using our senses, therefore, positivist research methodology emphasises micro

level experimentation in a laboratory like environment that eliminates the complexity of the external world.

The assertion of positivism and its methodology sound very relevant to the current study which seeks to determine the effect of a participatory learning strategy of voter education concepts on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. This study is a field experiment that will use treatments on control and experimental groups in classroom which the theory of positivism supported, as a result, the researcher will be able to empirically observe the outcomes in form of data collection and logically analyse them through inferential statistics to get results.

3.3 Research Approach

3.3.1. Challenges in Qualitative and Quantitative Research Approaches

Quantitative research is structured in such a way that the investigator is able to examine the precise concepts and issues that are the pre-determined focus of the study. The approach in qualitative research is unstructured so as to enhance the concepts that emerged from the data. This inductive process means the qualitative researcher has to work iteratively between the themes until they establish comprehensive set of themes.

Quantitative research is used when there is a need for measurement, but it can be argued that it cannot be used to measure people's behaviour, emotion, feelings and ways of thinking (i.e. it classifies features, counts them and constructs statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed), while qualitative research is used when a question needs to be described and investigated in some depth Creswell (2009).

Quantitative data is more efficient; enabling the researcher to test hypotheses but may miss contextual detail. Qualitative data is 'richer' but more time-consuming and leads to fewer generalisations beyond the specific study.

Reliability and validity is determined through statistical and logical methods in quantitative research. Reliability and validity is determined through multiple

sources of information in qualitative research. In quantitative research, phenomena are broken down or simplified for study and conclusions are stated with a predetermined degree of certainty i.e. α level. In qualitative research, phenomena are studied holistically, as a complex system and conclusions are tentative and subjected to on-going examination

Creswell (2009) pointed out that different research methods and different data analyses have their strengths and weaknesses as a result of this. It is important that a Quantitative research is structured in such a way that the investigator is able to examine the precise concepts and issues that are the pre-determined focus of the study. The approach in qualitative research is unstructured so as to enhance the concepts that emerged from the data. This inductive process means the qualitative researcher has to work iteratively between the themes until they establish a comprehensive set of themes.

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Creswell (2009) pointed out that different research methods and different data analyses have their strengths and weaknesses as a result of this. It is important that researcher chooses a research method that suits the purpose of their research.

3.3.2. Mixed Method Approach

Creswell (2009) described a mixed methods approach to an inquiry as an approach that makes use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. In a similar manner, Punch (2009) described mixed methods as: “a research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or programme of inquiry”. The mixed methods approach can be seen as a composition of the very best of qualitative and quantitative approaches, i.e. the researcher can generalise findings and also develop a detailed view of why those findings occur. Furthermore, mixed methods draw on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches, which make it useful when diverse types of data are required to understand the research problems (Creswell, 2009). More insights are gained from the combination of both quantitative and qualitative research because mixed methods provide an expanded understanding of research problems. It is a pragmatic way to address problem centred and pluralist research questions (Creswell, 2009).

Considering the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative research as stated above, the research questions, aims, objectives and research context

Table 3.2: Showing types of Research designs.

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed Methods
Experimental designs	Narrative	Sequential
Nonexperimental designs such as survey, protest, post-test	Phenomenology Ethnographies Grounded theory studies Case study	Concurrent Transformative

3.4. Research Design

Research is a systematic and organised way of finding answers to questions. A good research must be:

- Systematic because it involves a set of procedures and steps which have to be followed. There are certain things in the research process that are always done in order to arrive at the answer.
- Organised in such a way that there are certain methods with which the researcher has to adopt in going about doing a research. It is procedurally planned and not spontaneous. It has a focus and is limited to a specific scope.
- Research involves rising of questions or formulation of hypothesis. Questions are central to research. Without questions the then answer becomes irrelevant. It is the question that provides a focus and drives research.
- The ultimate in any research is to find answers. A research is successful when it is able to find answers to research questions or hypothesis, however the answer may be no, but it is still an answer.

The research process is cyclical. It starts like a curiosity in the mind of the researcher.

3.4.1. Types of Research

There are different methods of carrying out research depending on the problem to be tackled. The most commonly used types in Education are:

Historical Research

This type of research relies essentially on secondary sources of data like archival records and is sometimes supplemented with questionnaires or interview. It involves the examination of past events and experiences to obtain evidences; weighing the evidences in terms of validity of the source of data; interpreting the weighed evidences, and drawing of conclusion based on the weighted evidence. A typical example of a research topic that requires the application of this designed is "The impact of Nigerian civil war on the country's educational development".

Survey Research

Survey research involves the collection of data to accurately and objectively describe existing phenomena. Studies that make use of approach are employed to obtain a picture of the present conditions of particular phenomena. Kerlinger (2009) described the survey research as that which is directed towards determining the nature of a situation, as it exists at the time of investigation. He further describes it as a type of research that studies large and small populations by selecting and studying samples chosen from the population to discover the relative's incidence, distribution, interrelations of sociological and psychological variables. Examples of topics requiring survey research design are:

- A survey of students' attitude to science
- Perceived instructional needs of science teachers
- Pattern of academic achievement of students in mathematics
- The status of social science teaching in secondary schools
- Voting pattern of elites in local government election.

Survey research is therefore very useful for opinion and attitude studies. It depends basically on questionnaires and interviews as means of data collection. This types often deals with many variables for which information are needed and can cover whole population, in this case it is called a sample survey. To increase the validity of the study the sample has to be representative of the population. Survey research according to Creswell (2009) consists of the following steps:

1. Planning: This involves the determination of what population is to be studied and what topic is to be investigated. In this stage, one also decides on the methods and procedures that will be used to gather data.
2. Sampling: This involves decision-making about which people from the population of interest are to be included in the survey. If one is to generalize from the sample to the population, it is essential that the sample selected be representative. The sampling procedure that is most likely to yield a representative sample is some form of random sample.
3. Construction of the data-gathering instrument: This is where one decides on writing of the statements/questions and plans the format of the instrument to be

used. Among the data-gathering techniques used in surveys are personal interviews, questionnaires and telephone interviews.

4. Carrying out the survey: This includes the pre-testing of instrument to determine whether it will obtain the desire data, training the users of the instruments to determine whether it will obtain the desired data, training the users of the instruments (for example, interviewers), interviewing subjects or distributing questionnaires to them, and verifying the accuracy of the data gathered.

5. Processing the data: This stage includes the coding of the data, computer processing of the data, interpreting the results, and reporting the findings.

Case Study

Case studies focus on providing in-depth and comprehensive data about a social unit, which may be an individual, a group of individual, family, community or an institution. Case studies therefore differ from surveys in terms of the degree of intensity and depth of investigation. In case studies, the unit of study is thoroughly investigated taking cognisance of many variables that are important to the existence and functioning of the unit (Ogunleye, 2009)

Case studies make use of a number of data collection techniques such as questionnaires, observation, interviews, test etc. The particular technique used in a particular study depends largely on the objectives of the study.

Correlational Research

A typical correlational study seeks to provide answers to questions like: is there any relationship between years of drinking and decline in intelligence; or between a father's intelligence and his son's? One cannot perform experiments to find out answers to such questions, but he can investigate such relationships. When the relationship between variables is important to investigate, psychologists compute a statistic called correlation coefficient or index. The correlation research is an important approach, for there are many studies that do not allow for experimentation. Suppose one wants to determine how much brain injury affects speech, obviously you could not produce brain injury in your subjects for this

purpose, but you could study people who already have brain injury and speech impairment.

Sometime things happen in life that cannot be duplicated but that can provide enough evidence and the correlation method can be used in these naturally occurring experiments to interpret the results e. g no one would manipulate people's lives for the sake of psychological knowledge but the psychologist might use correlation to study circumstances where these occur (Ogunleye, 2009).

Ex-Post Facto Research

The Ex-post facto research basically studies phenomena after they have occurred. Kerlinger (2009) defined it as a systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relations among variables are made without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent variables.

It is similar to experimental study, since it involves the investigation of relationship among variables. It differs however from the experimental study because there is no manipulation or control of the independent variables. A researcher may be interested in investigating the effect of kindergarten experience on learning outcome in secondary school. The researcher does not need to assign subjects to either kindergarten or non-kindergarten experience because the students have already passed through that experience prior to the time of the study on the basis of the type of education they received during their childhood. The unique nature of this type of research poses a problem of classifying it as either experimental or non-experimental design.

Experimental Research

An experimental research is the one which allows for variables (independent) to be manipulated and their effect on some other variables (dependent) observed or measured. In an experimental study, the independent variables are assigned some values or levels and subjects are randomly assigned to these different levels. The assumption is that if differences, on a criterion measure exist between or among groups, then the observed differences are attributable to the experimental

condition. Consider a case whereby a researcher is interested in finding the most effective method of teaching reading skills in primary school pupils in primary three. This may be achieved by identifying, say two teaching methods. To each of these methods the pupils may be randomly assigned. These groups are then known as treatment group or levels of the independent variable (teaching method). To find out how those in these two groups differ in terms of reading skill, an achievement test or oral examination in reading is administered. A significant difference in mean scores between the two groups gives an indication that the manipulation that the manipulation of the independent variable has given rise to changes in the dependent variable (reading ability) (Ogunleye, 2009).

If the experimental study is adequate, then the researcher can say with high degree of certainty that the treatment actually made a difference in the pupils' reading ability. This requirement that seeks to discover if significant differences in say, the test scores, existed across the groups is known as internal validity. i.e. the tables below show the scores of pre-test of reading skill for the two groups before the introduction of the two methods

Table 3.3: Pre-test for pupils' scores for group before treatments of two methods

Pupils	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Method										
A	10	8	7	11	9	5	8	2	12	9
Method										
B	2	6	11	12	3	9	7	11	10	8

Table 3.4: Post-test for pupils' after introducing treatments of two methods

Pupils	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Method										
A	12	10	9	10	13	7	11	5	13	10
Method										
B	5	9	15	13	9	8	10	12	11	10

The table 3.3 values show that there was a general increase in achievement scores after the treatment. The issue of internal validity is therefore trying to ask the question: "Were the differences significant for group 1 or 2 or for both groups then it can be said that the treatment had effects. That is the observed differences in achievement can be ascribed to only the treatment and no other extraneous factors. Under this condition the experiment is said to have internal validity and conclusive statement like "method A was better than method B" can only be made under this condition

Types of Experimental Designs

There are different methods of carrying out experiments, however the method may differ from one field of study to the other i.e. the methods in sciences may differ from those used in education and the social sciences. In pointing out the main difference Creswell (2009) tagged them as true experiment and quasi experiments respectively.

In light of the chosen paradigm, the quantitative research approach is used in this study to clearly elicit the effect of a participatory learning strategy of voter education concepts on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti state, Nigeria. This approach will be suitably used because of the way the data will be collected through the use of structured questionnaire and performance test on

both the control and experimental groups. Also the effect of the moderator variables such as school location and gender will be determined.

The research designed is like a building plan which spells out the procedures and strategies to follow in order to actualize the objectives of the study. Adeyemo (2007) indicated that research design is an omnibus plan of the study which includes an outline of what an investigator will do from writing the hypothesis or research objectives and questions to the final analysis of data. It states in greater detail the procedures to be follow to accomplish the objectives of the study and maps out appropriate strategies that could be used in tackling problems that may arise in the course of the research. In summary, it describes in detail how the study was performed. This aspect of the research, if well-presented can permit any experienced researcher or investigator to replicate the study if desired. It may also enable the audience to evaluate the reliability and validity of results.

The study adopted the pre-test, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design to determine the Effect of a Participatory Voter Education Programme on Secondary School Students' Political knowledge and Attitude in Ekiti State. This design is schematically represented as:

$O_1 X_1 O_3$ ----Experimental group

$O_2 X_2 O_4$ ----Control group

Where

O_1 and O_2 are pre-test observations for experimental and control groups respectively.

O_3 and O_4 are post-test observations for experimental and control groups respectively.

X_1 is the experimental strategy of a participatory learning.

X_2 is the control condition of a convectional instructional strategy.

Table 3.5: The 2x2x 2 Factorial Matrixes

Treatment	Gender	Location	
		Urban	Rural
Experimental	Male		
	Female		
Control	Male		
	Female		

3.5 Variables in the Study

A variable is any attribute that can take more than one value when measured, observed, or manipulated. The simplest type of variable can only have two values, for instance, sex is a variable that can only have two values. Either one is a male or a female. If we denote this variable (sex) by the letter “Y”, it means that Y can take on only two values. If we decided to label males as ‘1’ and females as ‘2’; Y can therefore either be represented by 1 when we are talking about male and 2 when talking about female.

3.5.1 Dependent and Independent Variables

No matter its type, a variable has some relationship with some other variable(s). The relationship does not necessarily mean that one variable causes or gives rise to the other. In experimental studies a variable, like teaching method or class size may be manipulated (changed) so as to study its effect on say, academic performance (another variable). It may be seen that when a particular method is

used to teach English language, the academic performance of students improves, much more than when other teaching methods are used. Manipulating the teaching methods may cause an improvement on measured performance. In other words, the variable that is manipulated in an experimental research is known as “Independent variable” while that which is measured is known as “Dependent Variable”. How students will perform under different methods of teaching English Language is dependent on the manipulation of the methods, so performance here is called a dependent variable; for it depends on the teaching method adopted.

Teaching method in this case is independent of students’ initial achievement patterns and is therefore described as an independent variable. It is so called because it is believed to influence another variable- the dependent variable, most of the time; independent variables are qualitative, while dependent variables are quantitative. Independent variables are manipulated, while dependent variables are measured or observed. Independent variables are the presumed cause or the antecedent, while the dependent variable is the presumed effect or the consequences.

3.5.2. Extraneous Variables

This is the types of variable that appears and posed as threat to the result of a study. A researcher may be interested in studying some variables but discovers that some other variables not of interest at that time either as independent, intervening or dependent variable intrudes and result in error. These variables are not measure so there is no means of determining the extent to which they can affect the results of a study. What is done in practice is to look for means of controlling such variables so that an observed effect may be attributed to only the independent variable under studied. They are also called nuisance or confounding variables.

3.5.3. Moderator Variables

Sometimes people erroneously think that moderator variable is synonymous with extraneous variable. This is not true. Akinsola and Ogunleye (2008) described a moderator variable as any variable that modifies the effects of another variable,

thereby causing a statistical interaction. The meaning here is that one variable may have an effect on another depending on the context or the way the variable is measured. Unlike the case of extraneous variables, which are often controlled and prevented from confounding the results of a study, moderator variables are often introduced into studies. They are considered alongside the independent variables of interest and the extents to which they modify the other variables are often determined in factorial designs. Statistical analysis like factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), or multiple regression analysis is often used to isolate their independent or join effects in studies.

From the foregoing, there are three categories of variables in the study. These are:

A. Independent variable: This is the Mode of Instruction manipulated at two levels.

- (i) Participatory Learning Strategy (PLS)
- (ii) Conventional Teaching Method (CTM)

B. Moderator Variables

Two moderator variables were involved in the study.

- (i) Participants' location at two (2) levels: Rural and Urban
- (ii) Gender at two (2) levels: Male and Female.

C. Dependent variables

Two dependent variables were involved in the study. These are:

- (i) Political Knowledge
- (ii) Political Attitude

These variables are represented in Figure 3.1.

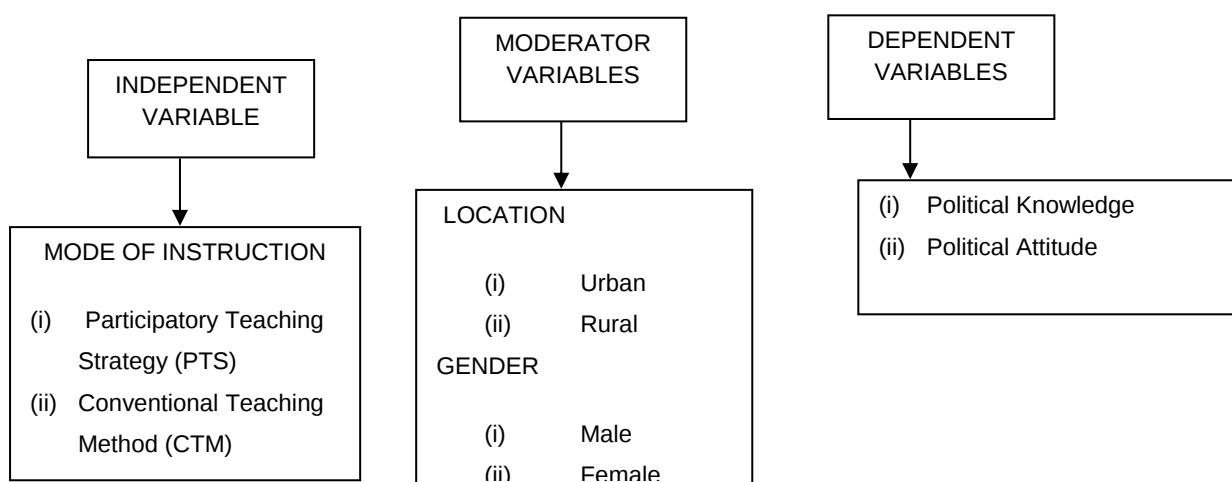


Figure 3.1: Framework of the Variables in the Study.

3.6. Selection of participants.

3.6.1. Meaning of population

Population is the aggregate of the inhabitants of a specified area, be it town, local government, state, or country. i.e. the population of Eastern Cape, however in research population means the totality of specified elements about which the researcher intends making some inference through studying the sample (Ominrin, 2009). When a large or limitless group is being considered, it is called continuous population but if a specific group such as a class in a school is used for a study, it is called discrete population. The population must be clearly defined. Most empirical research often begins with the specification and definition of the target population.

3.6.1.1 Sample and Sampling Techniques

In many cases, the population is infinitely too large to be managed within a reasonable time for the study. A representative or sample of such a population is therefore selected. The process involves defining the population, drawing of a sample from the population and making statistical inference.

Sample size refers to the proportion of the defined study population that the investigator includes in his study. One may not risk trying to give the exact proportion of the population that is appropriate for any given study. However, one could have as a guide the fact that sample size should be determined by the extent to which the sample selected reflects the characteristics of the elements in the specified population. The dependable sample is the one that is the replica of the study population. The sample should therefore be large enough to contain all possible characteristics. This is more pertinent in largely heterogeneous population.

Generally, the larger the sample size, the more there is guarantee that it is adequately representative of the population. The larger the sample size, the smaller the sampling error. The use of 10% of the population as sample is therefore better than the use of 5%. The more the sample is closer to 100%, the better the sample in reducing sampling error.

Sampling techniques is an important component of a research process in Education. Sampling is that part of statistical practice that is concerned with the selection of individual observation to yield some knowledge about a population especially for the purpose of statistical inference. In particular, results from a probability theory and a statistical theory are therefore employed to guide practice.

Hammed & Popoola (2007) argued that the wrong choice of sampling techniques when conducting a research in the field of education could adversely affect the results that will be obtained. Experience has shown that some researchers often fail to select a suitable sampling method in drawing samples from their study population. The advantages of sampling are very obvious when compared with the life of a census or total enumeration techniques in Education. They further identified the following as its advantages:

- It is cheaper to obtain information from a sample than from an entire population
- Information is gathered more quickly
- A more comprehensive and complete data may be obtained
- One could obtain needed data that could not possibly be available otherwise.

The sampling process consists of five stages namely as highlighted by Hammed & Popoola (2007)

- Definition of population under study.

- Specification of a sampling frame, a set of items or events that is possible to measure.
- Specification of sampling method for selecting items or events from the frame.
- Sampling and data collection.
- Review of sampling process.

3.6.1.2. Probability Sample

This refers to a sample that is selected in such a way that each item or person in the population has a known (non-zero) likelihood of being included in the sample. If probability sampling is carried out, every item in the population has a chance of being picked.

3.6.1.3. Non-probability Sample

This refers to those schemes of sampling that do not involve elements of randomization. The investigator or researcher may be interested in describing the specific features of a defined population accurately by investigating just a segment of it. Hence, he will select those subjects that serve most effectively as representative value for the population under investigation. Thus, the result may be biased, meaning that the sample result may not be representative of the population.

3.6.2. Methods of Sampling

Sampling methods or techniques refer to the method the researcher has adopted in sampling and the criteria and or justification of the method in relation to the research design. Research designs and methods demand different sampling procedures. The method of sampling can be influenced by various factors such as the nature of the problems, the type of research questions and hypotheses, instrumentation and other factors.

Samples are usually selected because it may be difficult to study the entire population even if the funds were available. Also the possibility of checking all items in the population makes sampling imperative. It may also be time consuming to contact the

whole population. As a result, Hammed and Popoola (2007) identified the basic types of probability sampling techniques that are used in statistical inferences. These are:

3.6.2.1. Simple Random Sampling

This is a technique in which each sampling unit or every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected as a member of the sample and that all combinations must be equally probable. The most widely used types of sampling are the simple random sampling. In a simple random sampling and selection, suppose a population consist of 820 students of Fort Hare University. A sample of Fifty-two is to be selected; hence, every student in the population has a chance of being picked. To achieve this, one may write the names of each student on small slip of paper and depos it all the slip of paper in a box. After they have been thoroughly mixed, by drawing a slip out of the box without looking at it makes the first selection is made. This procedure is followed until the sample of the size of fifty-two is chosen.

Another strategy of selecting a random sample is to use the identification number of each student and a table of random numbers. A table of random numbers is an efficient way of to select members of the sample. As the name implies, a random process has generated these members. For each digit of a number, the probability of 0,3,5,7,9 is the same thus, the probability that student number 014 will be selected is the same for student 534 or student 322. In this arrangement of picking sample bias is usually absent and possibly eliminated.

The procedure described above is quite adequate with a moderately large population where sampling frame will be difficult to obtain, simple random sampling may be difficult in terms of money, energy and time. Whenever the situation arises, alternative sampling techniques are used which can yield better results for the same cost and time.

3.6.2.2. Systematic Random Sampling

The simple random sampling technique may be inadequate in certain research situation. For instance, suppose the population of interest consists of 3,000 invoices located in the files drawers. Drawing a simple random sample will first require numbering the invoices from 0000-2999. Using a table of random numbers, a sample of may be 100 numbers will then have to be selected. An invoice to match each of these 100 numbers would

have to be located in the file drawers. This would be a time-consuming task rather than using this long process, a systematic random sampling technique could be employed by simply going through the file and selecting every 30th invoice for the study. The first invoice should be chosen using random process like a table of random number for example. If the 10th invoices were chosen as a starting point, the sample will consist of the 10th, 40th, 70th, 100th invoices. Since the first is chosen at random, all the items have the same probability of being selected for the sample.

The strategy of determining items for inclusion in the sample can be obtained by dividing the size of the working population by the sample size. In this example, to obtain our kth item, 3000 will be divided by 100, which give 30. It then means that we would take every 30th in the list. Given kth (30) as the starting point, we can use the table of random numbers to select the sample size as explained earlier. This technique is much simpler than random sampling whenever a list is extremely long or whenever a large sample size is desired.

2.6.2.3. Stratified Random Sampling

This is another type of probability sampling. This is the process of selecting in the sample in such a way that an identified sub-group is represented in the sample in the same proportion that it exists in the population. A population is divided into sub groups call strata and a sample is selected from each stratum after the population has been divided in strata, either a proportional or non-proportional sample can be selected. A proportional sampling procedure requires that the number of the items in each stratum be in the same proportion as in the population. For example, if a sample size of 100 is to be taken from a population size of 6000 that consists of three strata of sizes 300, 1800, and 1200. The allocation of the sample size for each stratum, if it is to be proportional, will be:

$$(i) \quad 300/6000 \times 100 = 50$$

$$(ii) \quad 1800/6000 \times 100 = 30$$

$$(iii) \quad 1200/6000 \times 100 = 20$$

The proportional allocation would then be 50, 30, and 20.

In a non-proportional stratified sample, the number of items that are chosen in each stratum is disproportionate to the respective numbers in the population (Akinsola & Ogunleye 2008). There are different circumstances in which this type of sampling is desirable. This is the situation when either the standard deviation within the separate data differs considerably or when the cost of gathering data varies considerably from stratum to stratum. There will be a certain set of sampling fraction that will yield the smallest sampling error for a given cost.

3.6.2.4. Quota Sampling

This is a subjective method of selecting samples from a given population. It is practically difficult to determine the probability of drawing samples from a study population. Sambo (2007) asserted that in quota sampling the researcher chooses his sample on the basis of perceived similarities with the sampling population. The quota sampling is the type of sampling scheme in which deliberate control factor is used to draw samples from a study population on the assumption that the chosen samples have similar characteristics with the sampling population. For instance, a researcher may be interested in conducting a public opinion survey on the standard of university education in South Africa. The stakeholders in university education in SA form the population of the study. They are students, students' union leaders, lecturers, education policy makers, educational planners, and parents/guardians, organized employers of labour, university administrators and parent/guardian associations. Based on the perceived population size of these groups of people, a researcher may draw his samples from using a certain percentage as his control factor e.g. students 40%, students union leaders 4%, lecturers 20%, education policy makers 2%, educational planners 3%, parent/guardians 30%, organized employers of labour 15%, university administrators 2%, parent and guardian association 10%.

In quota sampling it is not possible to estimate population parameters and sampling errors with statistical procedures developed on the basis of random sampling. Nevertheless, quota sampling is desirable in education research when the population size is indeterminate, the sampling frame is not available and to compile one is difficult,

to reduce the cost of sampling, for time saving, for field administrative convenience and to reduce the energy involve in using probability sampling scheme.

3.6.2.5. Purposive Sampling

This is a method of selecting a sample that is often employed in place of random sampling to choose a sample which is representative with respect to certain known characteristics of the population Sambo (2007). A purposive sampling technique is characterized by the use of judgement and a deliberate effort to obtain representative samples from a study population in Education research. Suppose a researcher is interested in conducting an investigation into internet accessibility and usage as determinants of academic performance of final year undergraduates in the Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, and East London. He/she may use personal experience to choose the final year students that have access to the use of internet in the last 6-12 months from the population of the final year undergraduates in the Faculty of Education.

The purposive sampling is a sampling procedure in which the researcher uses his experience to select elements and/or individuals to be included in a sample according to some subjective factors.

3.6.2.6. Accidental/Availability Sampling

This is a non-probability scheme in which a researcher selects available samples without any scientific bases. For instance, a researcher may be interested in students' attitudes towards library information resources and services in a particular college of education. The researcher may decide to draw his sample from the students who are found in the college library. Also a number of education researches are conducted using school classrooms in the manner they are found in the schools. The reason is that the school management might refuse to allow the researcher to disrupt their normal work schedule by making random selection and re-ordering of classrooms. The use of availability or accidental sampling in drawing samples from a given population may introduce a sampling error of great magnitude when data are collected from the field. Kerlinger and Lee (2007) advised that the accidental sampling should be avoided when conducting a

research unless there is no other random sampling method that is most suitable for the research study embarked upon. It must be noted that it is practically difficult to estimate population parameters and sampling errors with statistical procedures developed on the basis of random sampling when using accidental/availability sampling in Education research.

3.6.2.7. Cluster/Multi-Stage Random Sampling

This technique employed to reduce the cost of sampling a population scattered over a large geographical area. In this method, the total population is divided into a number of relatively small subdivisions that are themselves clusters of smaller units. These subdivisions are randomly selected for inclusion in the overall sample. For example considering a study of university undergraduates, he may divide the population of students into faculties with the hope that each faculty will contain students that can be used for the research. Each of this Faculty (cluster) within a university is referred to as a primary sampling unit and is assigned a unique identification number. Random sampling techniques are then used to select some of the clusters from the population. Within each of the selected cluster, the researcher may study members of the clusters. Such a design is referred to as single stage cluster design because sampling occurs only once in the process.

Ogundipe, Lucas and Sanmi (2007) explained Multi-stage sampling as a probability sampling technique that is used when a population is greatly heterogeneous and it is difficult to develop the sample frame of individual elements, it might be necessary to select random samples in stages. For example a researcher might randomly select some villages within a state as a first stage; at another stage he can randomly select some schools within his selected villages. At the third stage, he randomly selects some pupils within the selected schools. In order to obtain a representative sample of schools children in a large city, it would be more convenient first to draw a random sample of schools and then within each selected schools to draw a sample of children.

By and large, every research calls for a practical approach. A researcher should, therefore, meaningfully be able among other things to define appropriately his study population, choose appropriate method of sample selection and be able to use appropriate tools for data collection and analysis. Every step a research takes requires

reasoning and the ability to spell out the logic of every step taken. In sample selection, it should be carefully carried out that the extent to which the sampling allows for error is reduced to the barest minimum (Akinsola & Ogunleye 2008).

This study therefore adopted Multi-stage random technique because the targeted population for this study comprised of all Secondary School Students in Ekiti State. This technique is use firstly to divide Ekiti State into three (3) Senatorial Districts namely; Ekiti South, Ekiti North and Ekiti Central, secondly, randomly select six (6) Secondary Schools that are co-educational from the three (3) senatorial district of Ekiti State, in such a way that two were randomly picked to represent each senatorial (one rural and one urban). Thirdly, the sample schools were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups for the purpose of this study. An intact class sample selection would be employed to cover Senior Secondary 2 such that participants would be randomly distributed into the experimental and control groups and Stratified Random techniques would be used to cater for Gender selection and school location.

3.7. Selection of Voter Education Concepts

This is developed by the researcher in line with the training manual on voter/civic education, electoral observation, research and dissemination as published by the Institute for Education in Democracy (IED, 2006). This is further guided by the Technological curriculum model to equip the Secondary School Students with the necessary political knowledge and attitude that will enable them to act sustainably as a functional citizen in the society. The distribution of selected concepts is presented below.

Table 3.6 Voter Education (VE) major Broad Themes.

Broad themes	Selected VE concepts
A. Voter and Civic Education	1. Meaning of Voter Education 2. Salient features of a Voter Education 3. Electoral law 4. Partnership in Voter Education
B. Civil Registration and Citizenship	1. Reasons for Registration as a citizen 2. Document for registration as a citizen 3. Difference between civil and voter registration
C. Registration of voters	1. Eligibility to be registered as a voter 2. The voter registration process 3. Outline the procedures for inspecting voter registers 4. Legal and Administrative framework for voters registration 5. Document for Registration as a voter.
D. Voter Education for participations in Elections	1. Importance of participating in Elections 2. Rights and Responsibilities of a voter in the electoral process. 3. Sovereignty and Democracy 4. Political parties 5. Leadership and good governance.

3.8 Research Instruments

Four instruments would be involved. These are:

- i Voter Education Concepts(Political) Knowledge Test (VECKT)
- ii Voter Education (Political) Attitude Scale (VEAS)
- iii. Instructional Guide for Participatory Teaching Strategy (IGPTS)
- iv. Instructional Guide for Conventional Teaching Strategy (IGCTS)

3.8.1 Voter Education Concepts (Political) Knowledge Test (VECKT)

The VECKT will be adapted from the works of (Ige 2012 and Olubela 2014). The instrument, a 40-item instrument was initially designed to measure the acquisition of political knowledge in Secondary School Students. The researcher will modify the title and some of the items to meet the purpose of this study. New items will be added if necessary. The instrument will have two sections, namely section A and B. Section A elicits information on socio demographic data such as age, gender and education level of the secondary school students. Section B comprises 40 objective test items with options A-D which include only one correct option. The VECKT will be scored by allotting 1 mark to each correct option.

3.8.1.1. Bloom's Taxonomy

According to Dreyer (2014) Bloom was an educational psychologist who wrote the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in 1956, which became generally known as Bloom's Taxonomy. This taxonomy was published in a revised version in 2001. Bloom's Taxonomy is a model of classifying thinking according to six levels of complexity. Citing Brookhart & Nitko (2008), Dreyer (2014) further posited that the taxonomy provides a two-dimensional framework into which one can classify learning and assessment targets. The two dimensions – learning and assessment targets – help educators to prepare better objectives and to derive appropriate measures of learned capability and acquisition of knowledge and skills. The

foregoing attests to the fact that the concepts of voter education (political) has a complete buy-in into Bloom's Taxonomy for those subjects that lend themselves to the cognitive domain as it is unpacked hereunder. The following rendition on learning domains or Bloom's Taxonomy is derived from the internet, and it was an exposition by Randall (2011) who posited that Bloom expounded his taxonomy of learning by categorising them into the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. Of the three it is especially the cognitive domain that will be discussed hereunder, seeing that it is the one that is relevant to this study.

3.8.1.2. Bloom's Cognitive Domain

Randall (2011) posited that the cognitive domain involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills. The foregoing explanation includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities and skills as postulated by Benjamin Bloom. These intellectual abilities and skills are further subdivided into six major degrees of difficulty which follow one another from the simplest to the most complex degrees (compare this with the six levels of complexity as stated by Dreyer, 2014 earlier on).

A. Knowledge:

This refers to testing recall and recognition of data. Examples of requisite skills associated with this degree of difficulty are: the ability to recite a policy and quoting prices from memory to a customer. The key assessment words used with this degree of difficulty include defining, identifying, knowing and matching names or items. To this list Maynard (2013) added what, when, where, how, how much, select, which and why. Maynard (2013) concluded that if learners are able to answer the above then the learners have really display knowledge of what they have learnt. Knowledge as one of the levels of complexity is followed systematically by comprehension, which is discussed hereunder.

B. Comprehension:

This is the degree of difficulty that follows the ability to show knowledge. It involves the translation, interpolation and interpretation of instructions and problems, as well as stating a problem in one's own words. The learner should be able to comprehend, convert, distinguish, estimate, explain, generalise, give examples, paraphrase, interpret, infer, predict, rewrite, summarise and translate (Randall, 2011). To these abilities, Maynard (2013) added that the learner should be able to show, indicate, and tell what fits and does not fit, judge, justify, demonstrate and explain a graph or table.

It should be noted that both the knowledge and comprehension levels are regarded as basic and therefore constitute the low rungs (levels) of content difficulty in assessment or low order questioning. Comprehension is followed by application, which is discussed immediately after comprehension.

C. Application:

This involves the ability to use a concept in a new situation or even the ability to use an abstract concept without being prompted to do so. Furthermore, this can refer to being able to apply what was learnt in the classroom in the workplace. Examples of demonstrating skills that have been learnt include having to use a manual to calculate employee's vacation time and applying laws of statistics to evaluate the reliability of a written test. In giving answers to assessment questions in tests, tasks and assignment the learners apply, compute, demonstrate, discover, predict, produce, relate, modify, solve and use (Randall, 2011). As for predicting, Maynard (2013) says the learner may be able to suggest or tell what would happen if, what would result, as well as identify the results of something. The difficulty level of application is followed by analysis, which is discussed hereunder.

D. Analysis:

This degree of difficulty involves the ability to separate material or concepts into component parts so that its organisational structure may be understood. So also is the ability to distinguish between facts and inferences. Examples of skills involved herein are abilities such as troubleshooting a piece of equipment by using logical deduction, recognizing logical fallacies in reasoning, gathering information from a

department and selecting the required tasks for training. In responding to assessment tasks, learners analyse, break down, contrast, draw diagrams, deconstruct, differentiate, discriminate, outline and illustrate (Randall, 2011). Learners are also able to see what is related to, extraneous to, and not applicable to, some item or other. Furthermore, learners may be able to assume someone's point of view, state their own point of view, differentiate between what is fact or opinion, draw conclusions, surmise themes and relationships as well as note literary forms, inconsistencies and fallacies (Maynard, 2013).

We need to note that both the application and analysis levels of difficulty constitute the middle rung (level) or middle order questioning. Analysis is followed by synthesis, which is discussed below.

E. Synthesis:

Reaching this degree of difficulty involves the ability to build a structure or pattern from diverse elements, or put parts together in order to form a whole. From what has been learnt people become able to write company operations or process manuals, design a machine to perform specific tasks, integrate training from several sources to solve a problem, and revise and improve the efficacy of designs. In answering synthesis questions learners modify, organise, reorganise, plan, rewrite, rearrange, reconstruct and revise (Randall, 2011). Learners are also required to formulate, design, create, state rules, compose, propose alternatives and develop (Maynard, 2013).

When one looks at the expectations of the synthesis level, one rests assured that this level forms part of high order questioning. This level is systematically followed by evaluation, which is discussed below.

F. Evaluation:

This is the degree of difficulty that involves the ability to make judgements about the value of ideas or materials. Objectives of learning in this degree include the ability to select the most effective solution, hire the most qualified candidate as well as explain and justify a new budget. In a learning environment learners respond to evaluation questions by appraising, comparing, contrasting, concluding, evaluating, explaining, defending, interpreting, summarizing and relating (Randall,

2011). Maynard (2013) added that at this level, learners also criticize, judge, find errors, tell the logical and the illogical apart, and determine the validity of statements or items and facts. Dreyer (2014) advised that incorporating various assessment questions is educationally sound, in that learners are not homogeneous in their abilities; and that many learners are compromised in formal tests and examinations due to language barriers, learning difficulties and other factors. Evaluation and synthesis are both at the highest rung (level) of questioning; that is, they both constitute high order questioning.

The foregoing discussion has a bearing on the participatory learning strategy on learners especially when it comes to the post-test of the participants. Aspects of Bloom's Taxonomy will again be looked into when examples of questions will be analysed in this study, in order to determine the effect of a participatory learning strategy. Suffice it to say that in Bloom's Taxonomy the first two levels (knowledge and comprehension) constitute the low order rung of questioning, the middle ones (application and analysis) constitute the middle order rung of questioning and the last two (synthesis and evaluation) constitute the high order rung of questioning.

3.8.1.3. Relevance of Bloom's Taxonomy to this study

Blooms Taxonomy is used in this study because of the way it streamline cognitive levels of difficulty in questions that are scaffolded to differentiate between low, mediocre and high. However the strategies covered only the first three levels of the taxonomy i.e. knowledge, comprehension and application in view of the category of students that are involved in the study (secondary school students). While the higher level of cognitive objectives such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation are not included.

Table 3.7: Table of Specification for Voter Education Concepts Knowledge Test (VECKT)

SN	Content Areas	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Total
1	Citizenship	20	12,36	38	4
2	Sovereignty & Democracy	1,4,10,30	16,18	11,22	7
3	Human Rights & Civic Duties.	14,17,37	13,15	19,39	7
4	Meaning of Voter Education	1			1
5	Salient Features of Voter Education		3		1
6	Electoral Law	9	6		2
7	Reason for Registering as a Citizen	32	33		2
8	Document for Registration as a citizen			2,10	2
9	Differences between civil and voter registration		24,34		2

10	Eligibility to be registered as voter	25	35	2	
11	The voter registration process	3		1	
12	Procedures for inspecting voters register	26		1	
13	Legal and administrative framework for voters registration	27		1	
14	Document for registration as a voter	28		1	
15	Importance of participating in elections	5	4	2	
16	Rights and responsibilities of a voter in the election process		7	2	
17	Political parties	29	40	2	
18	Leadership and good governance	31		1	
	Total	18	14	8	40

These questions will be based on the 4 broad voter education themes selected for the study and will also be limited to the first 3 levels of cognition (knowledge, comprehension and application). Research has shown that students may not be able to learn about the selected concepts beyond the application category at the Secondary school level (Dees 2009; Ige 2012; Olubela 2014). The categories of cognition which the test VECKT examines will be limited to the three levels of Bloom's taxonomy (knowledge, comprehension and application) because the group roles which are important to this study can be done at foundational level to ensure that group skills are actually acquired.

3.9 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

The primary purpose of collecting data in research is to answer research questions or test hypotheses. In a bid to achieve these objectives, the data collected from any research instrument either through questionnaire or test should be such as are required considering the research questions and hypotheses. Moreover, the data obtained from the instruments should also be the type that could produce relatively similar results when used time after time under similar conditions. These are the basic issues in educational measurement. Thus, the need for validity and reliability, which are basic qualities any measuring instrument should possess. This aspect will therefore, explain the meaning of validity and reliability as it concerns data collection instruments. The different methods of estimating reliability and validity of data collection instruments will be presented and explained as they are used in this study.

3.9.1. Validity

Validity is concerned with the soundness, the effectiveness of the measuring instrument. When any research instrument is said to be valid, it means that the instrument is truthful, in the sense that it measures what it is designed to measure. It is the extent to which result of a measurement reflects accurately the conceptual variables being measured. Put differently; it is an indication of the relationship between the data obtained from any instrument and the purpose for which it was designed. For instance, an instrument designed to measure numerical computation

ability should not measure construction ability. If the result of the instrument provides an accurate description of students' computational ability, then it is said to be valid (Akinsola & Ogunleye 2008).

Validity, therefore, is an indication of the relationship between the data obtained from any instrument and the purpose for which the test was designed. A test designed to measure reading ability should measure reading ability only, and should not measure other things like reading expression, spelling ability or spoken language. Taking a standardized test, to ensure its validity we need to provide answers to such questions as:

- What does the test measure?
- Does it, in fact, measure what is supposed to measure?
- How well, how comprehensively, how accurately does it measure what it supposed to measure?

Validity, therefore, looks at the end results of measurement.

3.9.1.1. Types of Validity

There are several types of validity. The more common types of validity are identified and discussed below:

i. Face validity

This type of validity relies basically upon the subjective judgement of the researcher. It asks two questions, which the researcher must finally answer in accordance with his best judgement: Firstly, is the instrument measuring what it is supposed to measure? Secondly, is the sample being measured adequate enough to be representative of the behaviour or trait being measured? In essence, face validity refers not to what a test necessarily measures but to what it appears to measure.

ii. Criterion Validity

This usually employs two measure of validity; the second as a criterion checks against the accuracy of the first measure. The essential component in criterion validity is a reliable and valid criterion-a standard against which to measure the

results of the instrument that is doing the measuring. The data of the measuring instrument should correlate highly with equivalent data of the criterion.

iii. Content Validity

This type of validity is sometimes equated with face validity. Content validity is the accuracy with which an instrument measures the factors or situations under study; i.e. the “content” being studied. If for example, we are interested in the content validity of questions being asked to elicit familiarity with a certain area of knowledge, content validity would be concerned with how accurately the question asked tend to elicit the information sought. In essence, content validity is concerned with how accuracy of sampling of specified universe content.

iv. Construct Validity

A construct is any concept such as honesty that cannot be directly observed or isolated. Construct validation is interested in the degree to which the construct itself is usually measured. It makes use of the traits of convergence and discernibly. Convergence looks to the focal effect of various method of measuring a construct. Different methods of measuring the same construct should converge or focus in their results. Discriminability means that the measuring instrument should be able to discriminate or differentiate, the construct being studied from other similar constructs. Basically, construct validity is concerned with what psychological qualities a test measures and one evaluates it by demonstrating that certain explanatory constructs account to some degree for performance on the test.

v. Internal validity

Internal validity is the freedom from bias in forming conclusions in view of the data. It seeks to ascertain that the changes in the dependent variables are the result of the influence of the independent variable rather than the manner in which the research was designed.

vi. External validity

This is the type of validity that is concerned with the generalizability of the conclusions reached through observation of a sample to the universe; or more

simply stated, can the conclusions drawn from a sample be generalized to other cases

vii. Concurrent Validity

This is concerned with the relation of test scores to an accepted contemporary criterion of performance on the variable that the test is intended to measure.

3.9.2. Reliability

This refers to the degree of consistency between two sets of data or observations obtained with the same instrument or equivalent forms of the instruments. It refers to whether the measurement procedures assign the same value to characteristics each time it is measured under essentially the same circumstances. It is an expression of precision and accuracy of results obtained from a measuring instrument. A research instrument is reliable if it is relatively consistent in what it measures under varying conditions that can produce measurement errors. It is the relative freedom of a research instrument from unsystematic errors of measurement. Systematic errors do affect measures in a fixed way and so do also affect reliability. Reliability is the relative absence of errors of measurement in a measuring instrument (Akinsola & Ogunleye 2008).

3.9.2.1. Methods of Estimating Reliability

Five methods of estimating reliability are discussed for the purpose of this study,

i. Test-retest reliability

In this method, the same instrument is administered twice to the same subjects at different times within some time interval, as may be desired by the researcher. Correlation of scores in both administrations gives a measure of the reliability value. There is no rule of thumb regarding the adequate time interval that should be selected between both administrations, rather, an appropriate interval will depend on the type of instrument and the purpose for which the test was designed. The time interval could be as short as one day and could be long as two weeks or more.

ii. Equivalence form Reliability

This is also known as the alternate form or parallel form. Two equivalent instruments are administered to the same subjects simultaneously, but one before the other. The two instruments are never the same but measure the same thing based on the same content. The results of the two administrations are correlated to give an index of its reliability.

iii. Split-half Reliability

An instrument is administered and then split into two halves either on the basis that one subsets contains all even number items and the other subset, odd number items; or any suitable criterion. This procedure requires just one administration of the test. In calculating the split half reliability, the test items are divided into two halves, with the items of the two halves matched on content and difficulty. The halves are then scored independently. If the test is reliable, the scores on the two halves have a high positive relationship. Somebody who scored high on one half would tend to score high on the other half, and vice versa.

iv. Kuder-Richardson Procedures

The two formulas for calculating reliability, developed by Kuder and Richardson (1937), also require just one administration of a test. One formulae, KR-20, provides the mean of all possible split-half coefficients, while the second formulae, KR-21, may be substituted for KR-20, if it can be assumed that item difficulty levels are very similar.

v. Cronbach Alpha

This formula was developed by Cronbach (1951). It was based on two or more parts of the test which requires only one administration of the test. When two or more parallel forms of the test are used, the reliability coefficient is a coefficient of equivalence – the extent to which the forms are equivalent. Using the test-retest procedures gives a reliability coefficient that is a coefficient of stability – the extent to which the scores on the single test remain stable. Coefficient of equivalence and stability are based on more than one test administration.

3.9.3. Rationale for using Validity and Reliability in the study

The researcher adopted the face and content validity in all the instruments used in the study. It also embraced the criterion-related validity in order to reflect the accurate measure of the extent to which the attitudinal scale determines some behaviour that the study is out to predict. In the same vain, the investigator also used KR-20 and Cronbach Alpha to determine the reliability coefficients of the VECKT and VEAS respectively in order to be sure that the instruments measure consistently the required information that is suitable and appropriate for the study as indicated below.

3.9.3.1 Validity and Reliability of VECKT

To validate the instrument, the initial 40 items developed by the researcher were presented to two doctoral students in Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, the project supervisor as well as one lecturer of political science with the table of specification for experts' review, criticism and advice. Their suggestions were used to modify the test items. Thereafter, 5 items were modified in line with advice and the 40 items were retained and used for the study. The scrutinized test items were administered to twenty (20) Senior Secondary 2 students in a school that was not involved in the study. The responses were used to determine the reliability using Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR-20). The KR-20 value of 0.87 was obtained.

3.9.3.2. Voter Education (Political) Attitude Scale (VEAS)

The VEAS will be designed to test the affective domain of the Secondary School Students on Voter Education selected concepts for the study. It will also consist of section A and B. Section A will consists of the demographic data of participants while Section B will comprise of 30 n items which will be adapted and modified from the works of Ajitoni and Olubela (2014). Originally, the scale was designed to measure the attitudes of Secondary School Students to civic and political issues. Students' responses to these items were the closed response modes of 4 Likert scales of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree

(SD). The scoring for positive items was based on 4, 3, 2 and 1 for strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree respectively while these were reversed for negatively worded items. The initial validity index of the instrument was 0.82 in re-validating the VEAS.

. The test contains items on the following:

(a) Attainment of necessary voter and political attitudes for identifying voter and political problems and issues in the immediate environment.

(b) Development of a sense of responsibility in solving voter education and political issues in the immediate environment.

(c) Improvement of students' awareness of and attitude towards the electoral processes and civic society.

(d) Inculcation of right values and skills that will enable students to participate meaningfully in the political process

3.9.3.3 Validity and Reliability of VEAS

The modified version of the adapted scale from Ajitoni and Olubela (2014) were used and the instrument was presented to two doctoral students in the Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, the project supervisor as well as one lecturer of political science for review. Their criticisms and advice were incorporated into the draft. The restructured test items were administered to twenty (20) Senior Secondary School 2 students in a school that was not included in the study. This was to determine the reliability and internal consistency of the scores using Cronbach alpha. The Cronbach alpha value of 0.85 was obtained.

3.9.3.4. Instructional Guide for the Implementation of the Participatory Learning Strategy of Voter Education Concepts

The instrument will be developed in line with the social constructivist instructional theory to impart on Secondary School Students' political knowledge and attitude.

The contents of the instructional guide will include the introduction, objectives and steps for using the guide. Its major steps include:

- Organising the learners into groups
- Group presentation
- Whole class input/discussion
- Summary
- Evaluation.

3.9.3.5. Validation and of the Instructional Guide for the Participatory Learning Strategy (IGPLS) of Voter Education Concepts

The draft of this Instructional Guide on Participatory Learning Strategy (IGPLS) will be given to the project supervisor and other experienced lecturers in Social Sciences Education of the University of Fort Hare to examine its content and face validity. The recommendations given will be used to reconstruct the guide. The instructional guide will be validated by two doctoral students in Social Sciences Unit of University and the project supervisor as well as one lecturer of political science for review. The recommendations will be used to reconstruct the guide. The instrument will also be implemented on a sample of Secondary School Students who will not be part of the sample for the main study.

3.9.3.6 Instructional Guide for Conventional Teaching Method (IGCTM)

This is the conventional teacher-centred approach in which the learner only listens as the teacher discharges the fact without giving him the opportunity to participate in the lessons.

Its steps include:

- The teacher introduces the concept
- The teacher discusses facts or idea on the concepts in steps
- The teacher gives notes on the concepts
- The teacher ask questions
- The teacher gives assignment to students.

As the case of IGPTS, the instructional guide will be validated using experts' review. The recommendations will also be used to reconstruct the guide.

3.10. Research Procedure

This study shall cover a period of Ten (10) weeks. The schedule of the activities during the period is shown in the table below;

Table 3.8: Field Work Activities

S/N	WEEK	RESEARCH ACTIVITIES
1	1st-3rd week	-Selection and training of Facilitators and Research Assistants. -Selection of schools -Categorization of schools into experimental and control groups -Randomly selection of students -Selection and training of teachers
2	4th week	Administration of pre-test to the experimental and control groups
3	5th-9th week	Provision of treatment to experimental and control groups
4	10th week	Administration of post-test to the experimental and control groups

3.10.1 Participatory Voter Education Programme

The participatory instructional approach adopted from British Council and modified by the researcher. The main steps involve:

- Organizing learners into small groups by facilitator

- Group activities by members of the individual small groups
- Group presentation to the whole class by group representatives or the entire members of a group
- Whole class input/discussion by all the participants in the class to freely contribute, critique and clarify issues on the presentations by the group where necessary
- Summary by facilitator and participants
- Evaluation by facilitator and participants.

3.10.2 Non-Participatory Voter Education programme.

The control groups would be taught with a well-constructed lecture series on the same selected contents with those in experimental groups. In this case, lessons would be delivered using the modified conventional lecture method in the order below:

- Teacher introduces the concepts.
- Teacher discusses facts or ideas on the concepts
- Teacher gives notes on the concepts
- Teacher asks questions
- Teacher gives assignment to students.

The treatment would last for 5 weeks and run concurrently with those in experimental groups.

3.10.3. Pre-Experimental Activities

The researcher selected and trained twelve (12) undergraduates as research assistants. The research assistants were trained on the nature and purpose of the participatory approach. They were informed where their assistance would be needed during the course of the study. Some of these areas include the administration of pre-test and post-test, arrangement of students into the classrooms and rendering assistance to both the facilitators of the experimental groups as well as the teachers of the control groups.

Thereafter, the researcher visited the schools that were randomly selected for the study. The investigator obtained the approval from Ministry of Education and principals of schools that were selected. Six (6) schools were selected from the three senatorial districts in Ekiti state. That translates to two (2) schools from each senatorial, one (1) in urban and another one (1) in rural area. Three (3) of the schools were randomly assigned to the experimental group while the other three (3) schools were randomly assigned to control group. Simple random sampling was adopted to select intact classes that participated in each school. This was followed by the recruitment and orientation/training of the facilitators and teachers involved in the study for both control and experimental schools.

A. Recruitments and Training of participating Facilitators and Teachers

Facilitators were recruited from tertiary institutions in the state with relevant discipline to the concepts under study, in the same vein; the participating teachers were recruited based on their teaching subjects, willingness and readiness to participate in the study. In all the schools involved, social studies and civic education teachers were recruited for the study. The qualifications of all the teachers appointed were Bachelor of Education. The investigator trained the teachers in their respective schools.

Group 1: Participating Facilitators in the Experimental Schools. The nature and purpose of the research were explained to the facilitators in the experimental schools. The highlights of the weekly activities that were to be carried out and the extent of their involvement were discussed with them. They were also allowed to ask questions and offer suggestions on how best the participatory activities could successfully be carried out in their schools.

Group 2: Participating Teachers in the Control Schools. These teachers were not actually trained. They were informed to use conventional teaching method guide to teach topics in the lesson plan which has been designed by the researcher and given to them. However, each lesson for five weeks was discussed with the teachers to ensure that they do not stray from the content to be taught.

B. Administration of pre-test

A preliminary quantitative survey of the prevailing knowledge and attitude of the students to voter and political issues was carried out at the three experimental and three control schools before the commencement of the activities by administering the pre-test. The administration of the pre-test was carried out using the instruments designed for the study.

C. The Main Treatment

The researcher, Facilitators, participating teachers and students in both the control and experimental schools were involved in specific activities for the next five weeks.

i. Control Schools

Using the conventional teaching method guide the participating teachers in each control school taught the students the voter/political concepts that were selected for the study. The concepts were taught, using the conventional teaching method for a period of five weeks in each control schools. The conventional teaching method used provided for:

- Teacher introduces the concepts.
- Teacher discusses facts or ideas on the concepts
- Teacher gives notes on the concepts
- Teacher asks questions
- Teacher gives assignment to students.

ii. Experimental Schools and Workshop

The participatory activities took place after the school hours in order not to disturb the normal school programmes. Before the commencement of the activities, a workshop was organised in each of the three experimental schools. The workshop was organised to sensitize, orientation and train the students and their facilitators on the objectives and nature of the programme. It was also meant to equip the students with the attitudes and skills needed for the participatory activities. The facilitators therefore used the participatory learning guide as indicated below:

- Organizing learners into small groups by facilitator
- Group activities by members of the individual small groups
- Group presentation to the whole class by group representatives or the entire members of a group
- Whole class input/discussion by all the participants in the class to freely contribute, critique and clarify issues on the presentations by the group where necessary
- Summary by facilitator and participants
- Evaluation by facilitator and participants.

D. Development of the Voter Education Programme

Akeusola 2016 curriculum development model was adapted for the development of voter education programme. The adapted model has 12 essentials steps falling under four phases.

In every step of the programme development process, the most important task is to keep the learner (in this case student) in mind and involve them in the process. For example, the VEP team members, who have direct knowledge of the target audience, were involved in conducting the needs assessment. From the needs assessment process, the problem areas were identified, gaps between what the students know and what they need to know were identified, and the scope of the problem were clarified and defined.

The programme development step is presented below.

- 1. Planning;
- 2. Content and Methods;
- 3. Implementation; and
- 4. Evaluation and Reporting.

3.11. Formulation of Hypotheses and Method of Data Analysis

A hypothesis is a tentative or intelligent guess, an idea that is suggested as a possible way of explaining a situation which can be tested by facts that are known or can be

obtained. Hypotheses, therefore, represent some form of theoretical models, which are specifically meant to coordinate and give direction to the research (Creswell, 2009). Also, Akinsola and Ogunleye (2009) defines hypothesis as a conjectural statement, guess or proposition of the likely outcome from the problem question, it predicts the result of the study. As a scientific guess, it forms the basis of theory though not a theory, a hypothesis is the beginning in the development of theory. Hypothesis is usually formulated from question since it is intended to supply answers to research question. This is because research questions make problems more specific, limited in scope and amenable to verification.

A hypothesis, in other words, translates the problem statement into a precise, unambiguous prediction of expected outcomes. It is the hypothesis rather than the problem statement, which is subjected to empirical testing through the collection and analysis of data

Let us look at an example of some research questions drawn from the topic “Attitude of secondary school students in Ibadan northeast local Government Area towards the Aged” (Omotosho and Adeyemi, 2011). The first research question by the researchers is:

Research question 1:

Are male and female students in Ibadan Northeast Local Government Area significantly different in their attitude towards the aged?

The corresponding hypothesis formulated reads:

Ho: There is no significant difference between male and female secondary school students in Ibadan Northeast LGA in their attitude towards the aged

Research question 2:

Are JSS 3 and SSS 3 in Ibadan Northeast Local Government Area significantly different in their attitude towards the aged?

The corresponding hypothesis is stated thus

There is no significant difference between JSS 3 and SSS 3 students in Ibadan Northeast Local Government area in their attitude towards the aged (Omotosho and Adeyemi, 2001).

There is a complementary relationship between the questions and the hypothesis generated. There are also two types of variables in problem questions – the independent variables and the dependent variables. These are:

- Independent variable – attitude of male and female JSS 3 and SSS 3 students
- and dependent variable the aged

A well stated hypothesis must test the relationship or association between two more variables. Thus it will be analysing the relationship between the independent variable(s) and the dependent variable(s) of the research as indicated by the title or as contained in the general and/or specific objectives of the research.

For example, in a study of some factors affecting adult learner's performance in English examinations in some advanced literacy classes in Oyo State, the dependent variable here is learner's performance in English. To find a suitable hypothesis here is to look for the relationship between the dependent variable as indicated and some set of independent variables which may interest the researcher such as the students' age, height and gender. Thus we can state:

There is no significant relationship between the height, age and gender of the adult learners and their performance in English examinations in Oyo State

The significance of the relationship between the independent variables of the research (height, age and gender) and the dependent variable of the research, adult learners' performance in English is being tested.

Ask yourself the following questions: ***what is (or are) the dependent variable(s) of the study?***

3.11.1. Functions of the Research Hypothesis

The major function of any hypothesis is to guide scientific other purposes of the research hypothesis according to Adepoju (2004) include the following:

- **Unification of theory and reality** – Hypotheses are the conclusions that follow from the premises or assumptions inherent in the theory. The validity of a theory is never examined directly, but rather, it is through hypothesis that the worth can be evaluated. Thus, hypotheses are the vehicle through which theories are linked to real-world situations.
- **Research direction** – problem statements typically are vaguer than research hypothesis. A critical function of hypothesis is to provide direction to the research design and to the collection, analysis and interpretation of interest through statements of formal relationships. It is these relationships, which are subjected to an empirical test.

Characteristics of Workable Hypotheses

- **Statement of anticipated relationships** – An essential characteristic of a usable research hypothesis is that it states the predicted relationship between two or more variables. Example; there is increasing evidence that unemployment leads to poverty. We thus say in scientific parlance that , there is an empirical relationship between unemployment (variable x) and poverty (variable y)
- **Testability** – An acceptable scientific hypothesis must be testable. This implies that the variables under consideration must be amenable to observation, measurement, and analysis through the collection of data
- **Justifiability** – A hypothesis should be based on a sound, justifiable rationale. The criterion of justifiability implies that a good hypothesis should be consistent with an existing body of research findings.

Types of Hypothesis

There are two major types of hypothesis that are normally used in educational research. They are the null and the alternative hypotheses (H_0 and H_1). This is testing the

hypothesis statistically. The null hypothesis is the decision that there is no significant difference between two or more variables. If there is a significant difference between the variables the researcher will reject the null hypothesis

Null hypothesis can be stated thus:

H_{01} : There is no significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude.

H_0 : There is no significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude

There is no significant main effect of treatment on the students who were exposed to experiment.

As alternative hypothesis (H_1) claims that there is a significant main effect of treatment on students on the experimental group e.g.:

H_1 : There is a main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude

H_1 : There is a significant main effect of gender on secondary school student's political knowledge and attitude difference between men and women in preference for colour of ice cream

In the hypothesis the researcher is reluctant to take a position or predict the expected outcome directly, as if he is not sure of the likely result. He is thus on a safer ground to either retain or his earlier proposition for the alternative hypothesis which the researcher may accept if he rejects the null hypothesis.

In null hypothesis, a critical level is usually specified; it is called level of significance or confidence limit. The levels are usually 5% and 1%. Beyond the specified level the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is upheld. The 5% (or 0.05) level of significance means that if your study is replicated 100 times, 95 of them will confirm the rejection of the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis is rejected when a research occurs by chance 5% of the time or less (Akinsola & Ogunleye 2008).

A more rigorous significance level is a 0.01 probability of significance level of 1% (0.01) means if a study is replicated 100 times, 99 of them will confirm the alternative hypothesis.

Rejecting or not rejecting a null hypothesis

A major concern in hypothesis testing is the decision to reject or not to reject a null hypothesis. In both cases, the researcher is taking a risk. In deciding to reject or not to reject the null hypothesis, there is a risk in making a wrong decision. There are therefore two types of errors. They are the Type I Error and the Type II Error.

Type I Error: The risk of rejecting the null hypothesis instead of accepting it.

Type II Error: The risk of accepting the null hypothesis instead of rejecting it.

The following steps should be taken in making a decision as to rejecting or not rejecting a null hypothesis.

1. Have a specified level of significance e.g. 0.05 or 0.01
2. Compute the value for the significance test used in testing the hypothesis of t-test, chi-square test etc.
3. Find the value for the significance test at the level of significance already specified e.g. 0.05.

If the computed value is greater than the table value, at the specified level of significance, reject the null hypothesis. If the computed value is less than the table values at the specified level of significance do not reject the null hypothesis

Some Principles of Hypothesis Formulation

Some of the principles of hypothesis formulation are that the hypothesis must:

- Relate to the problem
- Be simply worded, brief and clear and should involve a few variables at a time
- Be testable. If it cannot be verified, then it is not empirical or specific
- Be stated to predict the methods to be used for its testing
- Be operationally stated i.e. it should be quantifiable

- Appear to be explanation to the problem
- Not be in opposition to established principles, laws or generalization

The data will be analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to test the seven formulated hypotheses. Also, the Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) would be used to determine the magnitude of the mean scores of the different groups. The Scheffé Post-hoc Analysis as well will be used to determine the sources of such significant differences, while graphs will also be used to interpret significant interaction effects. All the hypotheses will be tested at $P < .05$ level of significance.

3.12. Ethical considerations

Ethics is a matter of principled sensitivity to the right of others. In conducting this research, the wellbeing of all participants would be a priority. All the necessary processes would be adhered to, which will protect the physical and mental integrity of the participants, respecting their moral and cultural values as well as their political, religious and philosophical convictions. Prime concern would be on confidentiality and potential consequences of the study. Ethical considerations in this study will be focusing on; acquisition of informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, avoiding harm to participants, and permission.

3.12.1. Informed consent

To ensure informed consent in this study, the researcher shared with participants what the study is all about and what it seeks to find out. The participants' informed consent was sought before the commencement of the study to avoid frustrations of both parties in the following processes. The researcher requested the participants to sign forms of informed consent before the data collection process.

According to Leboea (2016) obtaining informed consent implies the following:

- that all possible or adequate information on the goal of the investigation be known to participants;

- the procedures that will be followed in an investigation are tabled to participants;
- the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers to which respondents may be exposed; and
- the credibility of the researcher is rendered to potential participants or their legal representatives.

In this regard, the researchers must place emphasis on accurate and complete information such that participants fully understand the details of the study so that they may make a voluntary decision about their possible participation. Leboea, (2016) citing Strydom (2000), further advised that accurate and complete information should be provided to participants so that they may be able to make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision regarding their possible participation.

However, Strydom (2000) emphasised that the key element of informed consent is not necessarily the comprehensiveness of the information provided to participants, but rather that its relevance to the participants' decision is of vital importance. On the other hand, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) warned that if a researcher must reveal that he is collecting data for a thesis he ought to use the word *study* instead of thesis, as theses hold very little glamour in the everyday world, except for the world of the researcher and his promoter or supervisor.

Accordingly, the researcher informed the participants formally about the nature of the study, what the study was intended to do, the degree whose requirements the study was intended to satisfy, the researcher's promoter and that no participant would be coerced into participating – that is, participants had to fill in questionnaires out of their own volition. Letters requesting permission to administer the researcher's instrument were, therefore, written to schools wherein the researcher solicited for respondents to be willing participants. Ensuring that participants are protected from harm will receive attention hereunder.

3.12.2 Confidentiality

Confidentiality is described as the protection of study participants such that individual identities are not linked to information provided and are never publicly divulged. In this study, the researcher clearly assured the participants that no

unprofessional ways will be used to access information from them. Also assured them that gathered data will only be used for the purpose of the study.

Macmillan and Schumacher (2014) stated that confidentiality can be ensured by making certain that any data collected cannot be linked to individual participants by name. The same scholars also make the following suggestions regarding the maintenance of confidentiality:

- Data have to be collected anonymously;
- The researcher can use an interim system of names that are linked to data and destroy those names later on;
- Participants can be asked to use aliases instead of proper names;
- The researcher can use a third party to link names to data and he can receive results without names; and
- The researcher can also report group instead of individual results (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014).

Leboea (2016) added that questionnaires and data should be identified by means of numbers rather than names, and that data and questionnaires with responses should be destroyed at the conclusion of the research project, that is, after information has been used. Access to research data must be restricted at all times (Leboea, 2016). White (2002) cited in Leboea, 2016 further added that violation of privacy, the right to self-determination and confidentiality can be viewed as being synonymous.

Even in the current study care was taken not to attach names to returned questionnaires. Only the researcher and the supervisor had access to the research data including returned questionnaires. The questionnaires were to be destroyed after data obtained therein would have been used and the research project concluded. The very act of using questionnaires pointed to the fact that data were collected anonymously, while results were aggregated per group as against individual participant's responses. This further keep the data collected confidential.

3.12.3 Anonymity

This is closely related to the aspect of confidentiality, but empathizes on privacy. This ensures that all participants have the right to privacy, anonymity and confidentiality. The information that each participant shares with the researcher should not be passed on to others in any form, unless specific consent has been given. To ensure this consideration, no real and actual names will be used in both data collection and data analysis processes. Instead coding will be employed. No names will be indicated on the questionnaires or performance test.

3.12.4 Avoiding harm to participants

McMillan and Schumacher (2014) posited that participants in a study must be protected from physical and mental discomfort, harm and danger, and that if there is a possibility for any of the foregoing to occur, the researcher must inform participants of any impending risk. The latter view is shared by Strydom (in De Vos *et al.*, 2011). White (2002) illustrates this further by stating that in educational research the most likely harm may be more emotional than physical. McMillan and Schumacher (2014) add that protection from harm implies not “revealing information that may result in embarrassment or danger to home life, school performance, friendships, and the like, as well as direct negative consequences”.

In this study the paper embodying the questionnaire was a standard, A4 size type of paper that educators often used at school without any harmful chemicals. Participants were kindly asked to use their own pens whose ink would be guaranteed not to cause any harm to them. No grotesque, potentially dangerous equipment that could compromise the welfare of participants was involved or used in the execution of the current study.

There is no doubt that the data collection method of quasi experimental may result in potential consequences for the participants. The adopted research design will provide the opportunity to answer the identified problem through learners' interaction. The class discussion among learners may provoke strong emotional

feelings. In light of this observation, excessiveness in learners' participation in this study shall be control by the facilitator and the participants will be given the freedom to withdraw at any time of their choice without suffering any victimization or harm.

3.12.5 Permission

The researcher sought clearance from the Faculty of Research Ethics Committee and Institutional Research Ethics Committee of the University of Fort Hare. Also, permission was being sought from the Ministry of Education, the Director and Principals of schools to carry out the study in their schools. The permission/approvals were attached.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses of the data obtained in the study according to the order in which the hypotheses were tested. Quantitative analyses were employed, while descriptive statistics were used to explain and compare the pre-test and post test scores of the groups. Also, inferential statistics used to test the hypotheses for the study.

4.1 Testing of Null Hypotheses

Ho1a: There is no significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 4.1: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	57267.141 ^a	8	7158.393	178.291	.000	.787
Intercept	26350.918	1	26350.918	656.312	.000	.630
PreKnowledge	753.873	1	753.873	18.776	.000	.047
Treatment	41231.854	1	41231.854	1026.945	.000*	.727
Location	437.307	1	437.307	10.892	.001*	.028
Gender	80.915	1	80.915	2.015	.157	.005
Treatment * Location	1056.669	1	1056.669	26.318	.000*	.064
Treatment * Gender	12.821	1	12.821	.319	.572	.001
Location * Gender	167.332	1	167.332	4.168	.042*	.011
Treatment * Location * Gender	48.972	1	48.972	1.220	.270	.003
Error	15457.752	385	40.150			
Total	191748.000	394				
Corrected Total	72724.893	393				

R Squared = .787 (Adjusted R Squared = .783) * significant at $p < 0.05$

Table 4.1 showed that there was significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 1026.945$; $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.727$).

The effect size is 72.7%. This means that there is a significant difference in the mean post-political knowledge scores of students. Thus, hypothesis 1a was rejected. In order to determine the magnitude of the significant main effect across treatment groups, the estimated marginal means of the treatment groups was carried out and the result is presented in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: Estimated Marginal Means for Post-Knowledge by Treatment and Control Group

Treatment	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Participatory Learning Strategy (PLS)	29.17	0.507	28.174	30.168
Conventional Teaching Method (CTM)	6.65	0.474	5.717	7.581

Fig 4.1: Post-Knowledge by Treatment and Control Group

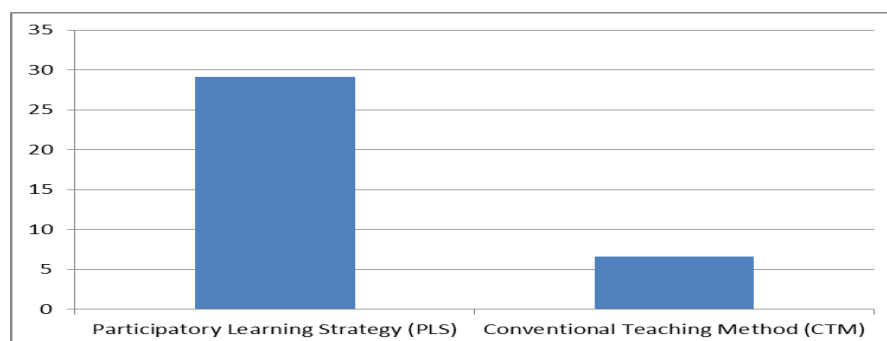


Fig 4.2: Confidence Interval of Post-Knowledge by Treatment and Control Group level

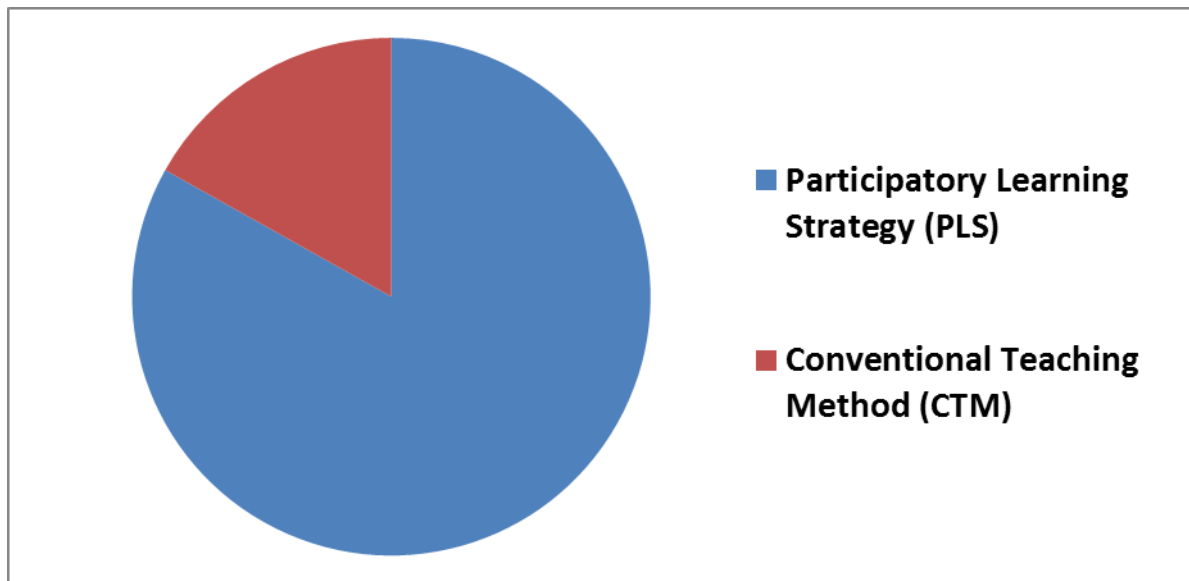


Table 4.2 and Fig 4.1 & 4.2 revealed that students in Participatory Learning Strategy (PLS) treatment Group had the highest adjusted post-political knowledge mean score (29.17) while Conventional Teaching Method (CTM) control Group had the least adjusted mean score (6.65). This order is represented as $PLS > CTM$.

Ho1b: There is no significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political attitude

Table 4.3: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of Post-Attitude by Treatment, Location and Gender

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	14738.151 ^a	8	1842.269	36.126	0.000	0.429
Intercept	1832.255	1	1832.255	35.930	0.000	0.085
PreAttitude	6753.420	1	6753.420	132.432	0.000	0.256
Treatment	5047.015	1	5047.015	98.970	0.000*	0.204
Location	9.627	1	9.627	0.189	0.664	0.000
Gender	147.298	1	147.298	2.888	0.090	0.007
Treatment * Location	1074.184	1	1074.184	21.064	0.000*	0.052
Treatment * Gender	27.259	1	27.259	0.535	0.465	0.001
Location * Gender	77.962	1	77.962	1.529	0.217	0.004
Treatment * Location * Gender	715.622	1	715.622	14.033	0.000*	0.035
Error	19633.291	385	50.996			
Total	1441992.000	394				
Corrected Total	34371.442	393				

R Squared = .429 (Adjusted R Squared = .417)

Table 4.3 showed that there was a significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 98.970$; $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.204$). The effect size is 20.4%. This means that there is a significant difference in the mean post-political attitude scores of secondary school students' political attitude. Thus, hypothesis 1b was rejected. In order to determine the magnitude of the significant main effect across treatment groups, the estimated marginal means of the treatment groups was carried out and the result is presented in Table 4.4

Table 4.4 Estimated Marginal Means for Post-Attitude by Treatment and Control group

Treatment		Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Participatory Learning Strategy (PLS)		63.97	0.565	62.858	65.079
Conventional Teaching Method (CTM)		56.27	0.528	55.236	57.311

Fig.4.3: Post-Attitude by Treatment and Control group

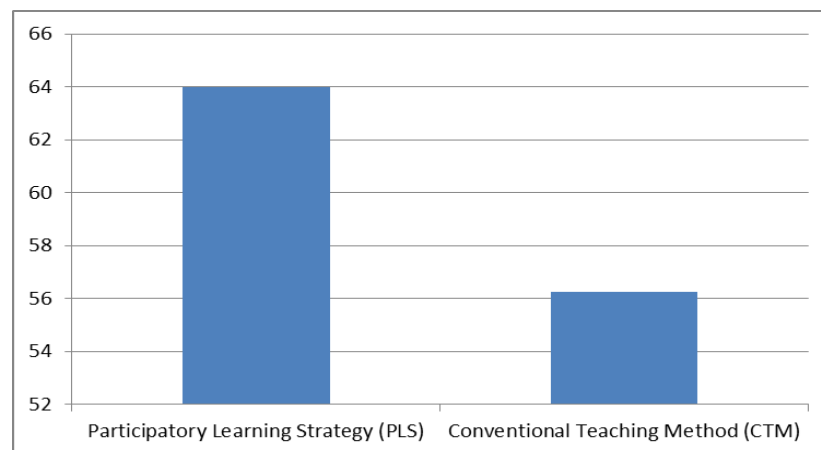


Fig. 4.4: Confidence Interval of Post-Attitude by Treatment and Control Group level

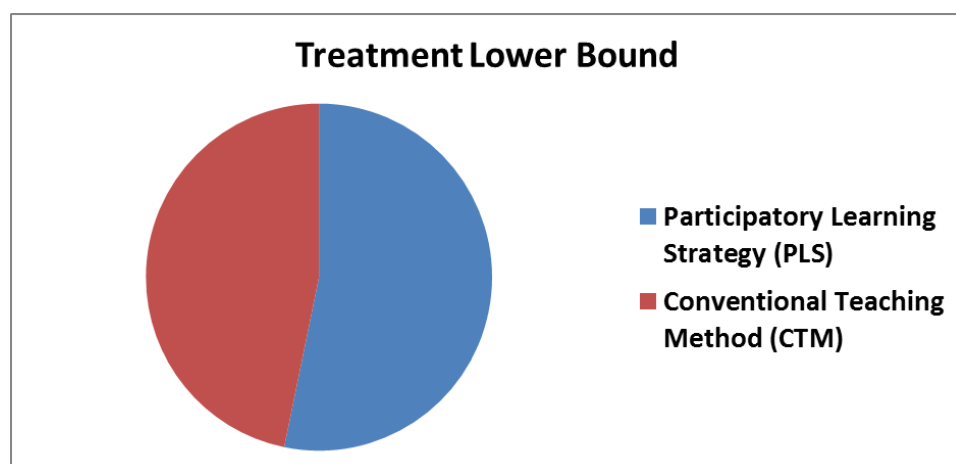


Table 4.4 and Fig 4.3 & 4.4 revealed that students in Participatory Learning Strategy (PLS) treatment Group had the highest adjusted post-political attitude mean score (63.97), while the Conventional Teaching Method (CTM) control Group

had the least adjusted post- political attitude mean score (56.27). This order is represented as PLS > CTM.

Ho2a: There is no significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 4.1 showed that there was significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 10.892$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.028$). The effect size is 2.8%. Thus, hypothesis 2a was rejected. In order to determine the magnitude of the significant main effect across location, the estimated marginal means of the location groups was carried out, and the result is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Estimated Marginal Means for Post-Knowledge by Location

Location	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Rural	16.78	0.417	15.959	17.598
Urban	19.04	0.544	17.972	20.112

Fig. 4.5: Post-Knowledge by Location

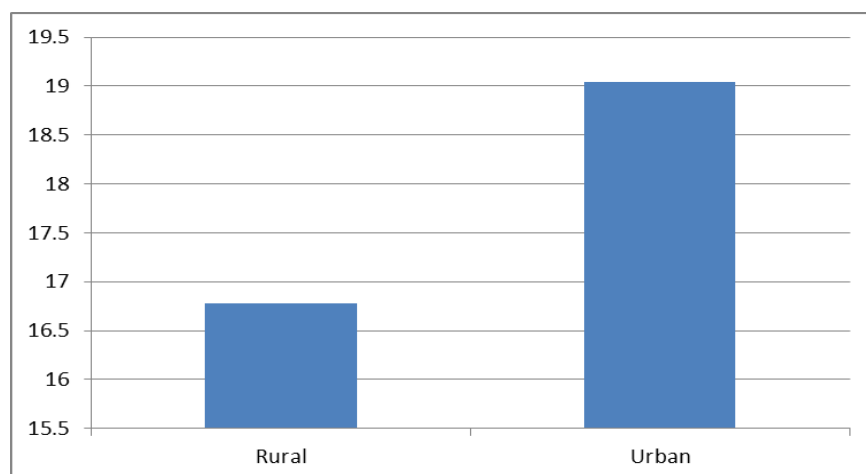


Fig. 4.6: Confidence Interval of Post-Knowledge by Location

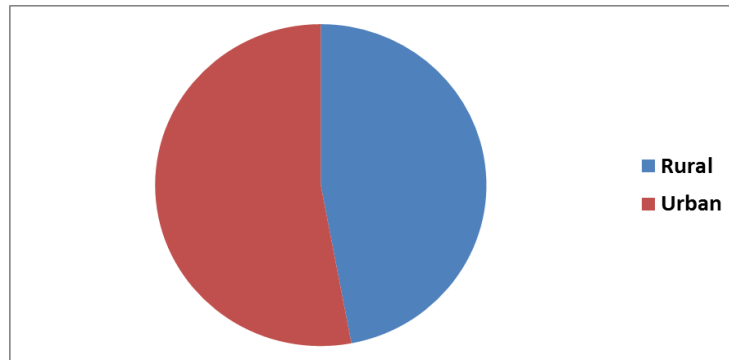


Table 4.4 and Fig 4.5 & 4.6 revealed that high located students had the highest adjusted post-political knowledge mean score (19.04), while their low counterparts had the least adjusted mean score (16.78).

Ho2b: There is no significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political attitude

Fig 4.7: Post-Knowledge by Gender

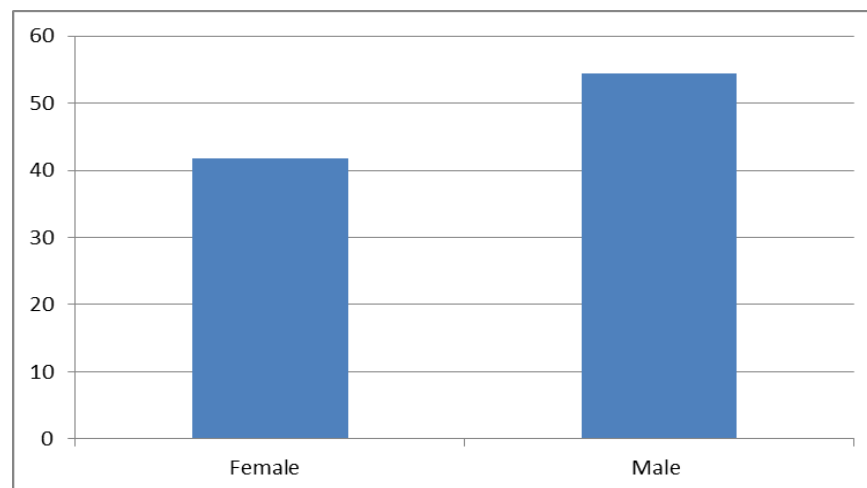


Fig. 4.8: Confidence Interval of Post-Knowledge by Location

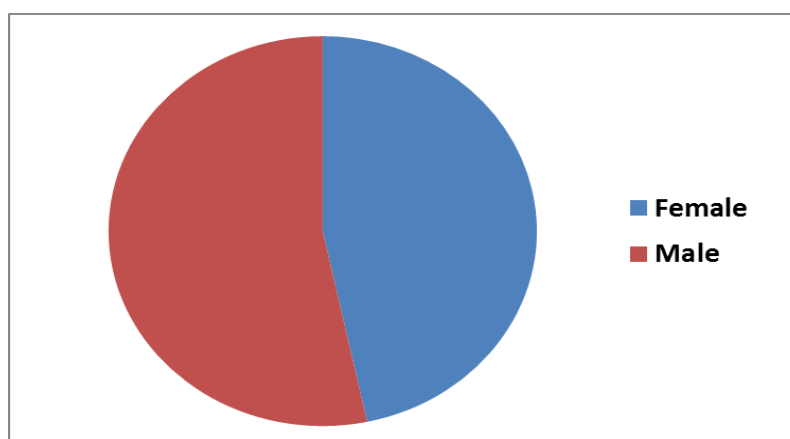


Table 4.3 and Fig 4.7 & 4.8 showed that there was no significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 0.189$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = .007$). Hence, hypothesis 2b was not rejected.

Ho3a: There is no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 1 shows that there was no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 2.015$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.005$). Hence, hypothesis 3a was not rejected.

Ho3b: There is no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political attitude

Table 4.3 showed that there was no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 2.888$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.090$). Hence, hypothesis 3b was not rejected.

Ho4a: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and location on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 4.1 showed that there was significant two-way interaction effect of treatment and location on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 26.318$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.064$). The effect size is 6.4%. Thus, the null hypothesis 4a was rejected. This implies that treatment and location when taken together had effect on secondary school students' political knowledge. In order to disentangle the interaction effect, Figure 4.1 presents the interaction in line graph. The interaction is disordinal.

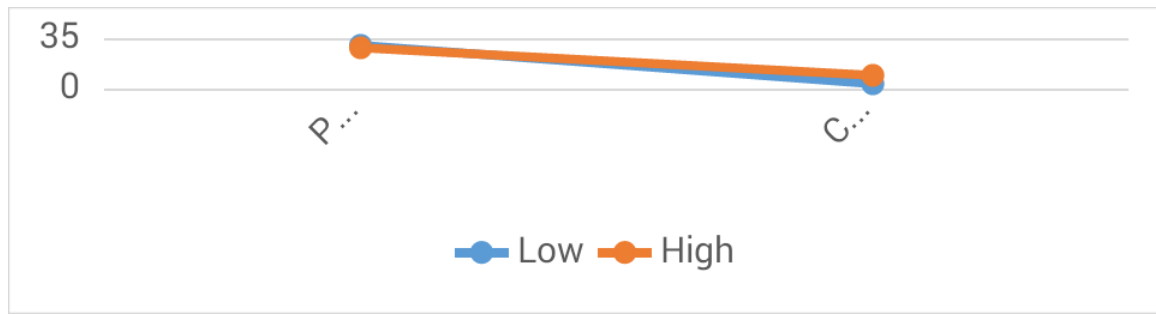


Fig. 4.1: Treatment and Location on Secondary School Students' Political Knowledge

Ho4b: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and location on secondary school students' political attitude

Table 3 showed that there was significant two-way interaction effect of treatment and location on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 21.064$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.052$). The effect size is 5.2%. Hence, hypothesis 4b was rejected. This implies that treatment and location had effect on secondary school students' political attitude. In order to disentangle the interaction effect, Figure 2 presents the interaction in line graph.

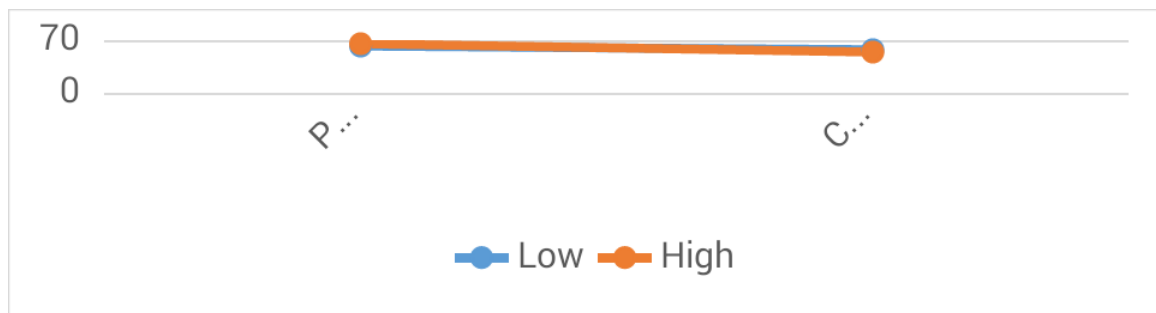


Fig. 4.2: Treatment and Location on secondary School Students' Political Attitude

Ho5a: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 4.1 shows that there is no significant two-way interaction effect of treatment and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 0.633$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.001$). Hence, the null hypothesis 5a was not rejected.

Ho5b: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on secondary school students' political attitude

Table 4.3 shows that there is a significant two-way interaction effect of treatment and gender on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 0.535$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.001$). Thus, the null hypothesis 5b was not rejected. This implies that treatment and gender had no effect on secondary school students' political attitude.

Ho6a: There is no significant interaction effect of location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 4.1 shows that there is significant two-way interaction effect of location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 4.168$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.011$). The effect size is 1.1%. Hence, the null hypothesis 6a was rejected. This implies that location and gender had effect on secondary school students' political knowledge.

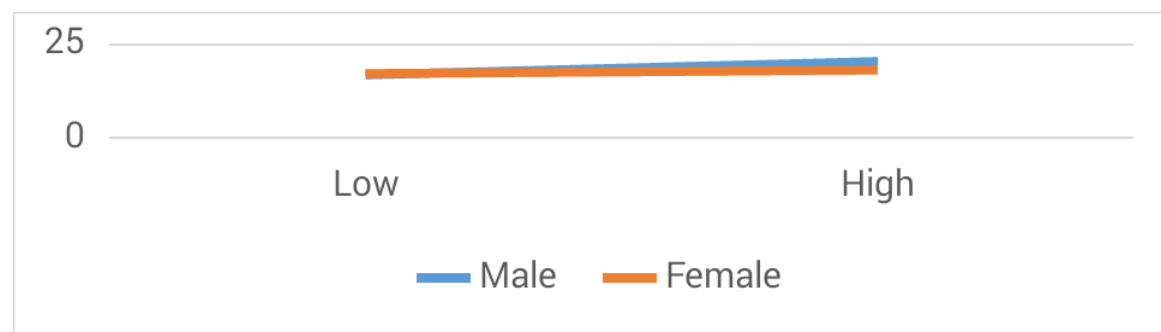


Fig. 4.3: Location and Gender on Secondary School Students' Political Knowledge

Ho6b: There is no significant interaction effect of location and gender on secondary school students' political attitude

Table 4.3 showed that there was no significant two-way interaction location and gender on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 1.529$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.004$). Thus, the null hypothesis 6b was not rejected. This implies that location and gender had no effect on secondary school students' political attitude.

Ho7a: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge

Table 4.1 reveals that there is no significant three-way interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge ($F_{(1,385)} = 1.220$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.003$). Thus, the null hypothesis 7a was not rejected. This implies that treatment, location and gender had no effect on secondary school students' political knowledge.

Ho7b: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political attitude

Table 4.3 reveals that there is significant three way interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political attitude ($F_{(1,385)} = 14.033$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.035$). The effect size is 3.5%. Thus, the null hypothesis 7b was rejected. This depicted that treatment, location and gender had effect on secondary school students' political attitude. In order to disentangle the interaction effect, Figure 6 presents the interaction in line graph. The interaction is disordinal.

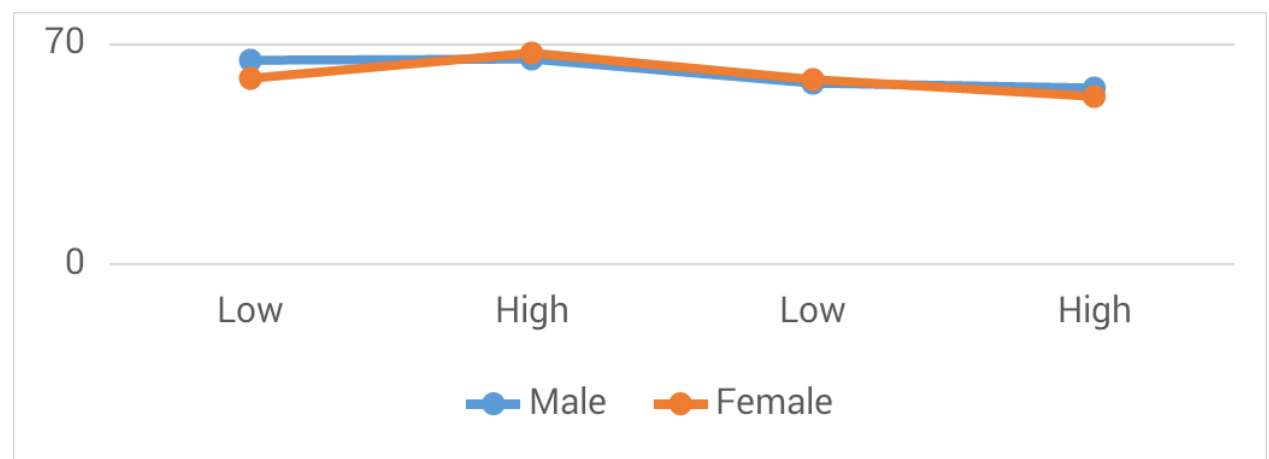


Fig. 4.4: Treatment, Location and Gender on Secondary School Students' Attitude

4.2. Summary of Findings

The results of this study are presented as follows:

1. There was significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge (table 4.1). The MCA on table 4.2 and Fig.4.1 & 4.2 revealed that students in Participatory Learning Strategy (PLS) treatment group had the highest adjusted post- political knowledge mean score than the students taught through Conventional Teaching Method (CTM)
2. There was a significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political attitude (table 4.3). The MCA on table 4 Fig. 4.3 & 4.4 revealed that students in Participatory Learning Strategy treatment group had the highest adjusted political attitude mean score than the Conventional Teaching Method control group.
3. There was a significant main effect of school location on secondary school students' political knowledge (table 4.1). The MCA on table 4.5 and Fig.4.5 & 4.6 indicated that students located in urban areas had the highest adjusted post-political knowledge mean score than their rural counterparts, while it was gathered in table 4.3 and fig. 4.7 & 4.8 that there was no main effect of school location on secondary school political attitude.
4. There was no significant main effect of gender on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude.
5. There was significant interaction effect of treatment and school location on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. This means that treatment and location when taken together had effect on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. (Fig 4.1 & 4.2)
6. There was no significant interaction effect on treatment and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. This implies that treatment and gender had no effect on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude.

7. There was significant interaction effect of location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge while there was no significant interaction effect of location and gender on secondary school students' political attitude.
8. There was no significant interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge while, significant interaction effect was observed on political attitude.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This study developed a participatory voter education programme for secondary school students. The study also determined the effect of the participatory voter education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria using gender and school location as moderating variables.

In this chapter, findings from the results of the study are discussed. Conclusion and recommendations are also made based on the findings. Seven research hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. The results had been presented in table 1-5 of chapter four accordingly.

5.1 Treatment and students' political knowledge

This study investigated the effect of the participatory voter education on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. The findings of this study showed that the voter education participatory treatment (PLS) had effect on secondary school students' political knowledge. There was a significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political knowledge. This indicated that students exposed to participatory learning strategy (PLS) performed significantly better than the students in the conventional teaching method (CTM). Students exposed to treatment under the experimental group performed brilliantly well than their counterparts who were in the control group.

This superior performance of students in the participatory programme over those in the conventional teaching method may be attributed to the fact that students were allowed to engage in democratized learning atmosphere where they construct their own knowledge of the voter education concepts selected for the study as they

were able to generate, distinguish, link and compare ideas on group basis and later made it whole class discussion. They also had the opportunities to recall facts, observe as well as defining, explaining and debating on voter education concepts/issues. They also evaluated, summarized and drew conclusions on the lesson by themselves with minimal teacher interference. This participatory instructional approach, no doubt, has enormous influence and impact on the students' political knowledge.

This finding is in consonance with the findings of Falade (2007) who reported a significant effect of informal civic education package on junior secondary school students' knowledge of civic and political concepts. Ajiboye and Ajitoni (2008) also reported that secondary school students that were exposed to participatory modes of instruction performed significantly well in environmental knowledge test than those in the control group. In the same vein, the findings provide more evidence to the earlier findings of Nkire (2011); Gbadamosi (2012); Ige (2013); Odumosu (2015) and Olubela (2015) that the participatory approach to learning allows students to have positive and lasting impact/effect on knowledge.

This finding supported the views of Kerr (2009) that students who possessed knowledge, skills and values are prepared to take appropriate civic action as individuals or as members group devoted to civic improvement. Also in agreement with the submission of Bellanca & Brandt (2010) that poor teaching strategies of political concepts make students to show little or no concern about the political process of their nation and may prevent many of them from political participation.

5.2 Treatment and students' political attitude

This study investigated the effect of a participatory voter education programme on secondary school students' political attitude. The result reflected that there was significant main effect of treatment on secondary school students' political attitude. The study revealed that students in participatory learning strategy group (PLS) acquired more political attitude than those in the control group (CTM). The superiority of the participatory group's performance over the control group in

acquisition of political attitude may not be unconnected with the fact that those exposed to the participatory programme engage in fun creating activities, team work and group activities which must have instilled in them a great deal of concern for their political process hence the resultant significant positive change in their attitudes towards their political process. The placement into the small groups which was randomly effected brought the students of varying learning styles, capabilities, experiences and disposition to work together to produce a decision they would best represent their group work. This is in line with the findings Ajiboye & Ajitoni (2008); Ajiboye & Silos (2008) and Nkire (2011) who reported positive significant main effect on participatory non-former environmental education programme on adult learners' environmental attitude as a result of the lot of cooperation, respect for one another's ideas and views, leadership roles and strict adherence to laws, rules and regulations that governed the activities brought about the positive attitude in the adult learners. This finding is in contrast with the findings of Falade (2007) who reported no significant effect of treatment on students' attitude to civic and political issues which he concluded that attitude takes time to be formed.

5.3. Gender and students' political knowledge and attitude

This study also investigated the effect of gender on secondary school students 'political knowledge and attitude. The findings revealed that gender had no significant effect on the secondary school students' political knowledge and their attitude towards political process. This implies that the Participatory learning strategy of voter education programme had about an equal effect on both male and female secondary school students in the study. This finding could be as a result of the essential element that were contain in the curriculum that enhance both male and female learning outcome. Hence this provided equal learning opportunity for all regardless of gender differences. This finding therefore negated the findings of Falade (2007) who in his study found out that gender had significant influence on the students' knowledge and attitude of civic and political concepts, he further reported that male students performed significantly better than the female counterparts in the acquisition of the knowledge of civic and political issues.

However, the result supported the previous findings of Ige (2012) who reported no significant effect of gender on students' attainment in crime prevention concepts and attitude to cyber-crime prevention. Although the findings of Ige reported slight difference in the performance of male and female but the difference was not significant. In the same vein, the result of this study also gave credence to the finding of Olubela (2015) that no significant main effect of gender on students' knowledge, attitude and practices of citizenship education concepts and the submission of Brophy and Alleman (2008) and Irabor (2011) that women's socio-political capability is lower than that of men.

5.4. School location and students' political knowledge

This study found that school location had significant main effect on secondary school students' political knowledge. This revealed that the students that are located in urban had the highest adjusted post-knowledge mean score than their counterparts who were located in rural area. This finding may be as a result of the fact that students located in urban area are exposed to social and infrastructural amenities and the relatively better school building and environment that impacted much on their acquisition of political information which in turns influences their performance in political knowledge test than the rural students. This finding was at abeyance with the findings of Falade (2007) and Odumosu (2015) where they reported that school location had no significant effect on students' civic and political knowledge. However, the findings of this study corroborated the finding of Yusuf & Adigun (2010) that peri-urban schools were inferior with high staff turnover and suffered from lack of continuity in their curriculum

5.5. School location and students' political attitude

This study also determined the effect of school location on political attitude of secondary school students and found that there was no significant main effect of location on secondary school students' political attitude. This means that whether the school is located in urban or rural area, it has no implication for students' disposition to political concepts. The result is however negating the findings of

Falade (2007), Abidoye (2012) that school location had significant effect on students' attitude to social studies.

5.6. Two-way interaction effect of treatment and school location on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude

The findings of this study indicated that there was two-way significant interaction effect of treatment and location on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. The results showed that the interaction effect of treatment and school location on students' political knowledge in voter education concepts was significant. It follows that treatment is sensitive to learners' school location with regard to acquisition of cognitive and affective traits. These results suggest that the interaction effect of school location had necessary contribution to students' political knowledge. From the results, students in the urban school performed better than their counterparts in the rural schools. However, the result indicated that there was no significant interaction effect of treatment and school location on students' attitude to voter education concepts of social studies. The finding is in contrary to the finding of Falade, (2007) that students in urban centre show better attitude to social studies than their counterparts in the rural schools.

5.7. Two-way interaction effect of treatment and gender on secondary School students' political knowledge and attitude

The finding of the study showed that the interaction effect of treatment and gender on students' political knowledge was not significant. It follows that treatment is not sensitive to learners' gender with regard to students' knowledge acquisition of voter education/political concepts in social studies. The results suggest that the interaction effect of gender does not make any necessary contribution to the achievement of the learners in social studies, thus conforming to the submission of Adegbile (2011), Abidoye (2012) and Ige (2012). With respect to students' attitude, the study revealed that, that was no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on students' attitude to voter education/political concepts in civic education/social studies. The finding therefore negated Falade (2007) that females show less attitude to civic education concepts than their female counterparts.

5.8. Two-way interaction effect of school location and gender on secondary School students' political knowledge and attitude

This showed that there is two-way interaction effect of school location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge, meaning that the location of the school and gender of the students had effect on their acquisition of political knowledge but, there was no two-way interaction effect of school location and gender on secondary school students' political attitude. This implies that the effect of location and gender on students' political knowledge is not significant. The result negates the findings of VanSledright (2011) which found no significant effect of gender on students' knowledge, attitude and practice.

5.9 Three-way interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude

The results of the findings showed no significant interaction effect of treatment, location and gender on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. This implies that that school location and gender did not impact on their political knowledge and attitude across all treatments. Heafer (2008) established in his study that students' gender impacted little or no influences on social studies students' achievement and attitude.

5.10. Implications of findings

This study determined the effect of a participatory voter education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The findings of this study clearly revealed that participatory voter education programmes was more effective than the conventional teaching method in knowledge and attitude formation and this has some implications for the teaching and learning in Nigeria. The results of this study showed that the exposure of students to participatory approach yielded the desired results as it enabled the students to effectively learn the political/voter education concepts perfectly. This indicated that the participatory approach use in this study could be used to learn other concepts in social studies and other field or discipline.

The implication of this study is that the students under this approach were able to acquire the values and trait of group roles like positive use of knowledge, patience, consideration of others, cooperation, love, unity and loyalty by students. The participatory approach to learning assisted the students to acquire values and traits that will no doubt develop their interest in political participation in the country's political process.

In the same vein, the implication of the findings of this study is that since it has become obvious and tested through verifiable fact that students that were exposed to the participatory learning strategy(experimental)acquired better political knowledge when compared with those not exposed (control). The findings therefore suggested the need for classroom teacher to embrace and adopt the participatory approach to complement the conventional teaching methods in schools. This implies that social studies/civic education teachers should learn to moderate group discussion and stimulate students to participate actively in class discussion.

The results also showed that urban students performed brilliantly well when compared to the rural counterparts in political knowledge but not in political attitude. By implication it means that schools in rural areas should be provided with the essential amenities that could aid effective acquisition of cognitive development in schools.

Finally, the National Curriculum Development Council should as a matter of urgency make sure that teaching materials such as textbooks and other necessary materials are developed for the participatory learning strategy which was found to be very effective in enhancing and fostering students' political knowledge and attitude.

5.11. Recommendation

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Participatory learning strategy should be largely used by social studies/civic education teachers and other related discipline to teach political concepts in the classroom. To encourage this, group/team work should be encouraged by classroom teacher and allow the students to construct knowledge in order to bring about active involvement of students with a view to making learning to be real and effective.
2. Social studies/civic education teachers should as a matter of urgency de-emphasized the use of conventional teaching method that placed the teacher at the center of learning and embrace the participatory approach to learning that place the learners at the center of the learning.
3. Training of teachers on the use and application of participatory learning approach should be organized on regular basis. Adequate follow-up of the training should be sacrosanct.
4. Colleges of Education, Faculties of Education and other teacher training institutes in Nigeria should broadening their curricular to include participatory approach as a method of teaching as this would help the teacher to be conversant with the use of the method right from institution of training.
5. Students should be encouraged to make inquiries and source information personally from online/offline materials, elders and academia. Students should also be made to participate in Socratic questioning, story-telling, biographies and debate. These learning experiences will improve their initiative, decision making and contribution to collective responsibilities.

5.12 Conclusion

This study serves as part of efforts by educators to shift from teacher- centred instructional strategies that portend serious retardation to the acquisition of political

knowledge to the more efficient, functional, practicable, result- oriented and learner- centred strategy that could provide opportunities for learners to be actively involved in the teaching- learning processes. The findings of this study have shown that the use of the participatory learning strategy has enhanced secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude. The strategy used in the study offered ways to extend young people's attention beyond the classroom to the real world situation, and to engage them in the process of devising solutions to political issues/problems they will confront as they grow older in the society. Also, it was discovered that gender and school location were not strong determinants of students' knowledge, attitude to voter educations or political issues. Hence, the participatory approach is very effective for the teaching and learning of voter/political education concepts/civic education concepts.

5.13. Contribution of the study to knowledge

1. The study has been able to determine the effect of a participatory Voter Education programme on Secondary School Students' Political knowledge and Attitude
2. This study has provided an innovative approach to effectively impart on the secondary school students
3. The developed participatory Voter Education programme serves as a veritable tool for the augmentation of the existing conventional teaching method in schools in Nigeria.
4. The study has been able to build in the students the spirit of engaging in dialogue, peer explanation, group discussion and collaborative effort in learning rather than the spirit of individualism.
5. The study also helped in acquiring positive attitude to political/voter education issues in demonstrating their knowledge of political concepts.

5.14. Limitation of the study

In the course of the study, the constraints experienced which might have some influence on the results and findings of this study is that the work was conducted in three local government areas of Ekiti State, Nigeria. There is therefore, the need to replicate this study in other states of the Federation. Also, the study involved six

Senior Secondary Schools all together, two from each local government area. Thus, the number of schools and students may impose some limitations on the study. Only gender and school location were the moderating variables used in the study among other moderating variables that could have affected the outcome of the research. More so, the periods of ten (10) weeks was too short to make much generalized assertions.

Despite these perceived limitations, it is believed that the conclusions drawn from the findings of this study would be very valid and so could serve as basis for future studies in the participatory learning strategies in Nigerian Secondary Schools.

5.15. Suggestion for Further Studies

The findings of this study have shown that the active learning strategy (participatory learning strategy) used had great improvement in the quality of instruction and the strategy contributed positively to the acquisition of political knowledge and attitude in the learners. However, a step forward ought to be taken for maximum benefits from this learning strategy. There is, therefore, the need for further research in order to explore the findings and limitations of this study.

This study should be replicated in other parts of the country on a large scale so as to give room for valid generalizations. The study essentially used senior secondary school two (SS2) class. It is suggested therefore that interested researchers could investigate into the effectiveness of more learning strategies at all levels of secondary schools. Lastly, further research could investigate other moderator variables such as socio- economic status and teacher's factor, class level; age etc. as they could also possibly contribute to the differential effects of the active-learning techniques.

Study should also be carried out on the training and the preparedness of teachers on participatory learning approach so as to find the extent to which they are able and ready to adopt it for use.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Dada Adekunle Babatunde.
50 Summer woods, Abbotsford
East London
5200
25th April, 2017.

University Research Ethics Committee

University of Fort Hare

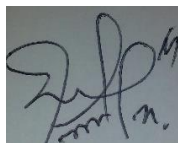
Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH

I am currently registered for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education at the University of Fort Hare. My research topic is 'EFFECT OF A PARTICIPATORY VOTER EDUCATION PROGRAMME ON SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' POLITICAL KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA.

I undertake to ensure that the ethical consideration in carrying out research shall be strictly adhered to.

Yours truly,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Dada Adekunle Babatunde', is placed over a light blue rectangular background.

Dada Adekunle Babatunde.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: ADU201SDAD01

Project title: **Effects of a participatory voter education programme on Secondary School students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria.**

Nature of Project PhD in Education

Principal Researcher: Adekunle Babatunde Dada

Supervisor: Prof E.O Adu

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

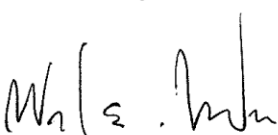
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely


Professor Wilson Akpan
Acting Dean of Research

29 June 2017

APPENDIX C: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEACH FROM MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

School of General and Continuing
Education,

Faculty of Education,

University of Fort Hare,

East London, SA.

20th September, 2017.

Director of Schools,

Ekiti State Ministry of Education,

Ado Ekiti.

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SOME SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE STATE.

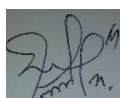
I Dada, Adekunle Babatunde, a Ph.D candidate from the University of Fort Hare, East London humbly wish to request for your kind permission to conduct my Ph.D. thesis work titled “Effect of a Participatory Voter Education Programme on Secondary School Students’ Political Knowledge and Attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria.” In some selected secondary schools in the State as it is required for me to complete my Ph.D. programme.

I attach herewith, letter permitting me to go ahead with the field work in Nigeria from my University and other relevant documents as may be required for your consideration.

Please note sir, that the purpose is to collect data/information to be analysed for a valid conclusion that will lead to the award of the degree of Ph.D. in Education and not for other purpose(s) that may be injurious to the either the Students, Schools or the State at large.

I shall be grateful for your kind approval sir.

Thank you.



A.B Dada

Researcher

APPENDIX D: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY,
EKITI STATE OF NIGERIA
PHASE IV, NEW SECRETARIAT, ADO-EKITI.
SCHOOLS' DEPARTMENT

Your Ref: No.....
All Communications should be addressed to
EK/ED/SCHLS/1111/29

9th October, 2017

Dada Adekunle Babatunde
School of General and Continuing Education
University of Fort Hare
East London, SA.

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SOME SELECTED
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN EKITI STATE**

I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter dated 26th September, 2017 on the above subject and to convey the approval of the Ministry of Education, Science & Technology, Ado Ekiti to you on your request to conduct research in some selected secondary schools in Ekiti State.

2. However, you are to note that information gathered is to be used strictly for the purpose of the research work alone. You are also required to submit to this Ministry a copy of the result and conclusion of your findings to assist in policy making in the Education Sector.
3. Thank you.


E.A. Daramola
For: Permanent Secretary



Office of the Principal

MOBA GRAMMAR SCHOOL

OTUN-EKITI, EKITI STATE, NIGERIA

P.M.B. 040 OTUN EKITI, EKITI STATE.

Our Ref

Your Ref No

Date

13th July, 2017

Mr. A.B Dada

University of Fort Hare,

East London

Re: Request for Permission to Conduct Research in your School.

Please refer to your letter Dated 4th of July, 2017 on the above subject.

I write to inform you that the management of **MOBA GRAMMAR SCHOOL OTUN EKITI**, has approved your request to conduct research on your PhD title, "Effect of a participatory voter Education programme on secondary school student" political knowledge and Attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria for a period of ten (10) weeks.

Please note that the school would not tolerate any act that may be injurious to the student or the school at large.

Thank you.

PRINCIPAL
MOBA JUNIOR GRAMMAR SCHOOL
OTUN-EKITI
DATE 13. - 07-2017

Adeyeye D.O

Principal.



Office of the principal
EKITI PARAPO COLLEGE
P. M. B. 205
Ido-Ekiti, Ekiti State.

27th Sept, 2017.

Our Ref:..... Your Ref:.....

20

A.B. Dada,
University of Fort Hare,
East London.

Dear Sir,

CONDUCT OF RESEARCH WORK

Above Subject refers please.

That you are allowed to carry out the research work in my school on your topic "Effect of a Participatory Voter Education on Secondary School Student's Political Knowledge and Attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria".

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Bolaji Olatuyi (Mr.)
Principal

PRINCIPAL
EKITI PARAPO COLLEGE
IDO-EKITI

EKITI STATE GOVERNMENT COLLEGE USI-EKITI

From the Office of the Principal
Our Ref: EKSGCU/2017/211
Your Ref: _____



P. M. B. 5232,
Usi-Ekiti, Ekiti State,
Nigeria 27/09/2017

Date: _____

A.B. Dada,
University of Fort Hare,
East London.

Dear Sir,

CONDUCT OF RESEARCH WORK

Above Subject refers please.

The bearer of this note is on a research work that will influence education in the state. Please allow him to carry out the research work.

TOPIC "Effect of a Participatory Voter Education Programme on Secondary School Student's Political Knowledge and Attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria".

Thank you.

Yours faithfully, *J. T. Bamigboye*

.....
PRINCIPAL
EKITI STATE GOVERNMENT COLLEGE
USI-EKITI.
DATE 27-09-2017
J. T. Bamigboye (Mr.)

Principal



OGANGANMODU GRAMMAR SCHOOL

P. M. B. 206,
IDO-EKITI, EKITI STATE.

Our Ref..... Your Ref..... Date.....

7th July, 2017.

Mr A.B Dada,
Faculty of Education,
University of Tort Hare,
East London.

Re: Request for Permission to Conduct Research in your School

With reference to your letter dated 4th July, 2017 on the above subject, I write to inform you that the management of Oganganmodu Grammar School, Ido Ekiti has approved your request to conduct research on your PhD thesis titled "Effect of a Participatory Voter Education Programme on Secondary School Students' Political knowledge and Attitude in Ekiti state, Nigeria" for a period of ten weeks.

Please note that the school would not tolerate any act that may be injurious to the students or the school at large.

Thank you

The school principal





OJO - UGBOLE HIGH SCHOOL

IGBOLE - EKITI, EKITI STATE, NIGERIA.

OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL

P. M. B. 211
IGBOLE - EKITI
VIA IDO
EKITI STATE

Date 27th Sept., '17

Your Ref.

A.B. Dada,
University of Fothare
East
London.

PERMISSION FOR CONDUCT OF RESEARCH WORK.

Please refer to your letter on the above subject:

I write to inform you that the school has granted your request and allow you to carry out your research.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

DATE 27/9/17
Rev. Ayodele Victor Sunday,
Principal.

APPENDIX E: ETHIC RESEARCH CONFIDENTIALITY AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Ethics Research Confidentiality and Informed Consent Form

Please note:

This form is to be completed by the researcher(s) as well as by the interviewee before the commencement of the research. Copies of the signed form must be filed and kept on record

(To be adapted for individual circumstances/needs)

I, Dada Adekunle Babatunde, Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, is asking senior secondary school two (2) students to answer some questions, which i hope will benefit our community and our nation at large now and time to come.

Dada Adekunle Babatunde of Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, is conducting research regarding The effect of a participatory voter education programme on secondary school students' political knowledge and attitude in Ekiti State, Nigeria. I am interested in finding out more about the appropriate and adequate method of learning voter education concepts among secondary school students in Ekiti state that is the effective learning strategy that could influence the students' disposition to political issues. I am carrying out this research to help inculcate in students the free will to participate in the nation political processes.

Please understand that you are not being forced to take part in this study and the choice whether to participate or not is yours alone. However, we would really appreciate it if you do share your thoughts with us. If you choose not take part in answering these questions, you will not be affected in any way. If you agree to participate, you may stop me at any time and tell me that you don't want to go on with the interview. If you do this there will also be no penalties and you will NOT be prejudiced in ANY way. Confidentiality will be observed professionally.

I will not be recording your name anywhere on the questionnaire and no one will be able to link you to the answers you give. Only the researchers will have access to the unlinked

information. The information will remain confidential and there will be no “come-backs” from the answers you give.

The administration of treatment on control and experimental groups will last for 6 weeks and test would be administered, I beseech you to be open and honest as possible in answering these questions. Some questions may be of a personal and/or sensitive nature. Test items would be taken from the contents that will be discussed among the participatory and control groups. Options are given in the test items to guide you and to be focused on what to pick as answers. I plead with you to think deeply before picking the correct option because decisions will be reached base on your selection.

If possible, I would like to come back to this area once we have completed our study to inform you and your community of what the results are and discuss our findings and proposals around the research and what this means for people in this area.

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

.....

Signature of participant

Date:.....

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

.....

Signature of participant

Date:.....

APPENDIX F: QUESTIONNAIRES



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE, EAST LONDON

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

STUDENT'S VOTER EDUCATION (POLITICAL) KNOWLEDGE TEST (V.E.C.K.T)

Dear student,

This test is designed to find out how much you know about certain civic and voter/political issues and concepts, and how you feel about the civil society and politics generally. It is not a test meant for your school assessment. Whatever you score on this test will not be used as part of your continuous assessment, or any other of your school assessments. You are also free to refuse to take this test.

However, if you decide to take the test, please answer all the questions and respond to all the statement as truthfully as possible.

Thank you for your cooperation.

SECTION A

BIODATA

1.

Name:.....

.....

2. Sex (please tick [v]one): Male { } Female { }

3. Name of your

School:.....

4. Location.....

LGA.....

5. Class.....

SECTION B

STUDENT'S VOTER EDUCATION (POLITICAL) KNOWLEDGE TEST (V.E.C.K.T)

The following are some questions on voter and political issue. Below each question are optional answers lettered (A) to (D). Tick [] the answer that you think is the most correct for each question, please tick only one answer.

1. Voter Education is the education meant to educate the.....
 - (A) learners in schools
 - (B) citizens qualified to vote
 - (C) militants
 - (D) NURTW
2. A person who influence and directs others in a community is
.....
 - (A) a director
 - (B) a ruler
 - (C) a principal
 - (D) a leader
3. One of the advantages of independence to Nigeria is
.....
 - (A) everyone in the country will become rich
 - (B) the country will be free from external control
 - (C) there will be plenty of oil in the country
 - (D) the country will still depend on another country for everything
4. Voter Education informs the electorate the following except.....
 - (A) date, time and place of election
 - (B) importance of exercising ones right in an election
 - (C) the candidates and their parties for various positions
 - (D) candidates that must be voted for during the election
5. Which of the following is not true about leadership and followership?
 - (A) The followers look to their leader for advice and encouragement.

- (B) Both leaders and followers depend on one another to meet their various obligations.
 - (C) The leaders give followers sense of belonging by looking after their interest
 - (D) The leaders can work alone and succeed without the cooperation of the followers.
6. Leaders are expected to
- (A) Oppress their followers
 - (B) Support their Followers
 - (C) Oppose their followers
 - (D) Victimize their followers
7. The qualities of a good leader include.....
- (A) fairness and firmness
 - (B) tolerance and arrogance
 - (C) indolence and discipline
 - (D) honesty and weakness
8. Which of the following is not an example of a state government leader?
- (A) The Governor
 - (B) Member of the House of Assembly
 - (C) Commissioner
 - (D) Local government Chairman
9. A good followers is not expected to
- (A) disobey rules and regulations
 - (B) respect the authority
 - (C) criticize the leader constructively
 - (D) cooperate with the leader'
10. Which of the following leadership positions is not usually filled through election?
- (A) Chairman of a local government
 - (B) President of a club
 - (C) Governor of a state in a democracy
 - (D) Principal of a school.
11. The word 'Voters' in electoral process means
- (A) elected member of the House of Assembly

- (B) electoral officers
 - (C) a candidate for an election
 - (D) citizens qualified to vote
12. A good and patriotic Nigeria citizen is expected to
- (A) engage in unlawful activities
 - (B) participate in activities that can damage the image of the nation
 - (C) disobey the Nigeria constitution
13. It is the duty of every citizen to
- (A) gain admission unto a University
 - (B) participate in "operation feed the nation"
 - (C) perform his/ her civic responsibility
 - (D) sing the National Anthem everyday
14. Which of the following is the most important right of man?
- (A) Right to live
 - (B) Right to vote
 - (C) Right to freedom and movement
 - (D) Right to express one's mind
15. Un-lawful denial of the rights of citizen by the government may likely lead to ...
- (A) a just and egalitarian society
 - (B) the government becoming more popular
 - (C) break down of law and order
 - (D) national unity
16. The major source of power in a democracy is the.....
- (A) armed forces
 - (B) supreme court
 - (C) legislature
 - (D) people
17. Which of the following is not a fundamental human right?
- (A) Freedom of speech
 - (B) Freedom of religion
 - (C) Freedom of association
 - (D) Freedom of treason

18. In a democracy, social, economic, and political policies are determined by
- (A) the local government
 - (B) the Supreme Court
 - (C) the Council of Ministers
 - (D) the elected representatives
19. An effect of non- performance of our civic duty is
- (A) election of bad leaders
 - (B) election of religious leaders
 - (C) election of alien leaders
 - (D) election of good leaders
20. A situation where a person becomes the citizen of a country as a result of marriage is referred to a
- (A) citizenship by registration
 - (B) citizenship by marriage
 - (C) citizenship by naturalization
 - (D) citizenship by relationship
21. In a society, conflict can cause:
- (A) stability
 - (B) suffering
 - (C) orderliness
 - (D) progress
22. 'Rigging' means.....
- (A) cheating in an election
 - (B) being smart in selecting candidates
 - (C) annulling an election
 - (D) participating in an election
23. The reason for national integration in Nigeria is to
- (A) widen the gap between the rich and the poor
 - (B) promote ethnicity
 - (C) Reduce conflict
 - (D)

24. The Nigeria civil war is an example of
- (A) unity
 - (B) conflict
 - (C) independence
 - (D) cooperative activity
25. Cooperation means.....
- (A) joining hands together for a purpose
 - (B) eating and dancing together
 - (C) having argument together
 - (D) understanding and helping one another for mutual benefits
26. Which organ of government is responsible for making laws in Nigeria?
- (A) The executive
 - (B) The judiciary
 - (C) The legislature
 - (D) The federal
27. The arm of government that carries out the day – to-day activities of government is called
- (A) The legislature
 - (B) the ministry
 - (C) the executive
 - (D) the judiciary
28. In Nigeria, the executive functions of government at the federal level are performed by
- (A) the ministers only
 - (B) the president and the ministers
 - (C) the commissioners only
 - (D) the Government and the commissioners
29. The executive functions of government at the state level are performed by.....
- (A) the commissioners only
 - (B) the ministers only
 - (C) the president and the ministers
 - (D) the Government and the commissioners

30. The constitution of a country is
- (A) an official document used in governing the country
 - (B) a written document
 - (C) a legal document prepared in a court
 - (D) the customs and beliefs of the country
31. The youths must be seen in a political process in the following ways except
- (A) electorates
 - (B) party officials
 - (C) party thugs
 - (D) party candidates
32. The judiciary.....
- (A) executes the law
 - (B) interprets the law
 - (C) makes the law
 - (D) judges the people
33. A situation in which every citizen of a country behaves the way he like as a result of complete breakdown of law and order is called.....
- (A) dictatorship
 - (B) national dialogue
 - (C) anarchy
 - (D) democracy
34. Youths can be supportive during an election through.....
- (A) arresting riggers of election
 - (B) snatching of ballot boxes
 - (C) preventing voters from voting
 - (D) conducting themselves peacefully
35. The three major means of becoming a citizen of Nigeria are:
- (A) birth, nationalization, and registration
 - (B) nationalisation, birth and application
 - (C) registration, birth and naturalisation
 - (D) birth, socialization and registration

36. One of the following is not a quality of a good citizen.
- (A) Patriotism
 - (B) Thuggery
 - (C) Loyalty
 - (D) Obedience
37. Those duties that the nation expects every citizen to perform are:
- (A) social responsibilities
 - (B) national duties
 - (C) civic responsibilities
 - (D) political duties
38. The Programme designed to develop and arouse the consciousness of the people toward desirable qualities expected of them as citizen is referred to as...
- (A) General education
 - (B) Qualitative education
 - (C) Civic education
 - (D) Special education
39. One of the civic duties of a Nigeria citizen is
- A to disrespect leadership
 - B to oppose the authority of leaders
 - C to obey and respect the leaders
 - D to compete with leaders
40. A good citizen of Nigeria is a person that.....
- (A) is well educated
 - (B) can forcefully ask for his right
 - (C) stand at attention when the national anthem is being played / sung.
 - (D) do not pay his tax regularly

APPENDIX G: ATTITUDINAL SCALE



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FACULTY OF EDUCATION

VOTER EDUCATION (POLITICAL) ATTITUDE SCALE (V.E.A.S.)

SECTION A

BIODATA

1. Name:.....
2. Sex (please tick [v]one): Male ☐ Female ☐
3. Name of your
School:.....
4. Location: LGA.....
5. Class

SECTION B

VOTER EDUCATION (POLITICAL) ATTITUDE SCALE

(S.C.P.A.S)

Below are some statements about certain voter and political issues. Please respond to each statement according to how you agree or disagree with it. The following are the options you should choose from.

SA = Strongly Agree (A statement you wholly agree with)

- A = Agree (A statement you partially agree with)
 D = Disagree (A statement you partially disagree with)
 SD = Strongly Disagree (A statement you totally disagree with)

PLEASE TICK [√] IN THE COLUMN THAT SHOWS HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH STATEMENT.

S/N	STATEMENT	SA	A	D	SD
1.	Fundamental human right, liberty, and freedom of the individual are respected by the Nigeria government.				
2.	Most Nigerian leaders tolerate people from other ethnic groups, political, parties,				
3.	The rule of law, equality of all citizens before the law, justice, and fairness are practiced in Nigerian courts.				
4.	Voter education in Nigeria is a veritable tool for having a hitch free electoral process.				
5.	Politics should be left to the politicians.				
6.	I hate politics generally				
7.	The future is guaranteed when money is shared during electioneering campaign and voting.				
8.	I am interested in politics are better than soldiers in government				
9.	Generally, politicians are better than soldiers in government.				
10.	It is important for school children to be given some political/voter education.				
11.	There is no need for school children to learn about democracy and voter education.				

12. The rights of the individual are better protected under civilian rule than under military rule.
13. Leadership position is generally meant for the accumulation of wealth.
14. Local government is not relevant at all in Nigeria.
15. Nigeria as a nation will collapse if youths are empowered
16. Leaders can succeed without the cooperation of the youths.
17. I will be very happy to learn about politics in school.
18. Nigerians will carry out their voting rights without voting education.
19. Politics is a game for dishonest people.
20. It is the duty of every citizen to take part in politics.
21. Whether I know about politics or not, I can still be a good Nigerian citizen.
22. To be a really good citizen, one should take part in deciding who our representatives in government are.
23. Women have no business with politics.
24. The decision of my ethnic group is more important to me than commitment to a nation like Nigerian.
25. I would encourage my friends to be interested in politics.
26. My parent would not want me to be interested in politics.
27. I am proud to be a Nigerian.
28. If I have another chance I will prefer to be an American.
29. I am still a good Nigerian even if I do not perform my civic duties.

30. When the government fails to perform its functions, the citizens are not bound to perform their civic duties.
31. It is not the best to report a fraud during election in Nigeria.
32. Youths as party aspirants should be discouraged
33. Voting age affect the level of youth involvement in an election
34. Campaign in an election influences the mindset of electorates
35. Participation of youth in a political process should be from school and not only when he attains the voting age

APPENDIX H: PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING



Proofreading Services

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3 October, 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I, Lydia Weight, have proofread the document titled: **EFFECT OF A PARTICIPATORY VOTER EDUCATION PROGRAMME ON SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' POLITICAL KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA** by Mr. A.B. Dada. I have made all the necessary corrections. The document is therefore ready for presentation to the destined authority.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in grey ink that reads 'L. Weight' in a cursive, flowing script.

L. Weight