NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: EDU 766

COURSE TITLE: POLITICAL SCIENCE METHOD

COURSE BOOK

EDU 766: POLITICAL SCIENCE METHODS

COURSE GUIDE

COURSE DEVELOPER	**DR. J.A. OLAWEPO** **FACULTY OF EDUCATION** **UNIVERSITY OF ILORIN** **ILORIN**
COURSE WRITER:	**DR. J.A. OLAWEPO,** **FACULTY OF EDUCATION** **UNIVERSITY OF ILORIN** **ILORIN**
COURSE EDITOR:	**PROF. KEN A. MEZIEOBI,** **NOUN STUDY CENTRE,** **OWERRI**
PROGRAMME LEADER/ **COURSE CO-ORDINATOR:**	**DR. I.O. SALAWU,** **SCHOOL OF EDUCATION** **NOUN HEADQUARTERS, LAGOS**

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, VICTORIA ISLAND, LAGOS

2009.

EDU 766:   POLITICAL SCIENCE METHODS

COURSE GUIDE

National Open University of Nigeria

Contents   Page

1.0   Introduction

The teaching of Political Science is an important one in teacher professional development at the National Open University of Nigeria. Education 766 (EDU 766) is a course that will expose you to the fundamentals of Political Science; the methods and resources for teaching the subjects and evaluation of students' learning.

The course consists of four modules, with Modules 1 & 4 having five units, Modules 2& 3 having two and three units respectively and a corresponding course guide. This course guide briefly explains to you what the course is all about; t the course materials you will use as you work your way through the course. It also gives you pieces of advice on the amount of time you may spend on each unit so that you can complete the course in good time. The course guide provides some guidance on Tutor-Marked Assignments which will give your continuous assessment score of 30%. The guide includes information on tutorial classes and the need for you to attend them.

2.0   What you will be Learning in this Course

The overall aim of the course is to acquaint students with the methods of teaching Political Science in a tertiary institution or Government in the secondary school. As a prospective teacher, it is important that you study those things that make good teachers of Political Science. These include knowing teacher centred methods of teaching as well as student centred methods. The types and uses of tests for evaluating students' learning are also included in the course.

3.0   Course Aims

The course aims at giving you ideas about the nature and purpose of Political Science; inculcating the teacher centered and student centered methods and providing information on the types and used of tests for assessing learning.

4.0   Course Objectives

To achieve the aims set out above, the course breaks down the aims into course specific objectives. These objectives are summary of unit objectives, which are always stated at the beginning of each unit. Kindly read the unit objectives before starting to

work through the unit. Refer to the unit objectives in the course of your study of the units. Finally read over the unit objectives after the completion of the units.

Now let us state the course objectives. After you have successfully completed the course, you should be able to:

i.   define Government and Political Science as subjects;
ii.   discuss the origin and development of Government and Political Science;
iii.   identify and explain the major branches and concepts of Political Science;
iv.   identify the major parts of Political Science or Government incorporated in school curriculum;
v.   evaluate the importance of Political Science;
vi.   describe how to design the course, the unit and lesson plans in Political Science
vii.   identify and describe the use of learning materials resources for teaching Political Science;
viii.   identify and discuss the use of human resources for teaching Political Science;
ix.   discuss how to use teacher-centred methods for teaching Political Science;
x.   explain how to use student-centred methods for teaching Political Science;
xi.   classify evaluation tools for students' learning in Political Science;
xii.   construct objective test items in Political Science;
xiii.   develop essay tests in Political Science;
xiv.   analyse tests in Political Science; and
xv.   construct other tools of evaluation, supplementary to tests.

5.0   Working through the Course Book

To complete this course, you are required to read the study units and other materials provided by the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). Each unit in the course book contains a list of specific objectives, the main content, self-assessment exercises, a conclusion, a summary and references / tutor-marked assignment, and materials for further reading. The course should take you about twelve weeks to complete in a fifteen week semester.

6.0   Course Materials

The major components of the course are:

1.   Course Guide;

2.   Study Units;

3.   References;

4.   Assignment File; and

5.   Presentation Schedule.

7.0   Study Units

The study units in the course material are as follows:

Module One: Nature and Purpose of Political Science
Unit 1: Definitions of Government and Political Science
Unit 2: Origin and Development of Government and Political Science
Unit 3: Branches and Major Concepts of Political Science
Unit 4: Putting the Subject Matter in Government or Political Science in the Curriculum
Unit 5: Importance of Political Science

Module 2: Methods for Teaching Political Science
Unit 1: Planning to Teach Political Science
Unit 2: Teacher- Centered Methods of Teaching Political Science
Unit 3: Learner- Centered Methods of Teaching Political Science

Module 3: Materials and Resources of Teaching Political Science
Unit 1: Learning Materials for Teaching Political Science
Unit 2: Learning Human Resources for Teaching Political Science

Module 4: Evaluating Students' Learning
Unit 1: Classifying the Tools of Measuring and Evaluating Students'
            Performance
Unit 2: Constructing Objective Test Items in Political Science
Unit 3: Developing Essay Tests in Political Science
Unit 4: Test Analysis
Unit 5: Tools of Evaluation of Students' Learning Supplementary to Tests

The first five units describe the nature and purpose of Political Science as an academic subject. The next three units take up the issue of methods used in Political Science

teaching. Finally, the next two units focus on materials and resources used in effective teaching of the subject and the last five units address evaluation of students' learning outcomes in line with learning objectives already listed.

8.0   Assignment File

There are four Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAs) in the course.

The four assignments are:

1.   a.   Distinguish between Government and Political Science
       b.   Describe and explain three definitions of Political Science
2.   Draw up a unit plan on multiparty system. From the unit plan write out a lesson plan on "characteristics of multi-party system".
3.   a.   List three print and two non-print learning materials
       b.   How would you use magazines and newspaper to promote learning of Political Science learning?
4.   a.   Clarify the meanings of the following pairs of concepts:
       i.   Criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests
       ii.   Achievement and performance tests
       iii. Diagnostic and prognostic tests
       iv.   Formative and summative tests
       v.   Difficulty index and discrimination index

9.0   Presentation Schedule

The presentation schedule included in your course material gives you the important dates for the academic year. You must ensure that you complete the four TMAs and attend tutorials. Kindly submit all the TMAs as and when due. You should guard against falling behind schedule.

10.0   Assignment

There are three aspects of the evaluation of your learning achievement in this course. First we have Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs); second, there are TMAs; and third we have a written final examination.

The SAEs are embedded in the main contents. SAEs require short answers derivable either from the content or your additional reading. They are designed to help you to revise chunks of the main content; and are tailored to all unit objectives. There are no scores attached to them; you should do each SAE as you come to it. One TMA is placed at the end of each unit, after the summary. You are expected to submit four TMAs to your tutorial facilitator who will mark them as you submit them one by one. Each TMA carries 10%. The facilitator adds up the scores of the best three TMAs. Your total TMA score is therefore put at 30%. The written examination carries 70% of your overall score.

The SAEs and the TMAs are regarded as continuous assessment; the written examination is a summative assessment.

11.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

The TMAs for this course are contained in the assignment file above. The TMAs are tasking because they are not designed to make you recall what you have learnt. They are also worded in such a way that you may have to find things out on your own, or to apply what you have learnt.

12.0 Final Examination

Since this is a 2-credit unit course, the final examination for it will be of two hours duration. The questions may come from any area of the course. You will find it useful to review all SAEs, TMAs and associated comments when preparing for the examination.

13.0 Marking Schemes for the Three Aspects of the Assessment

The following table lays out how the three aspects of the assessment of the course is broken down.

S/N	Assessment	Marks
1.	SAEs	Nil
2.	TMAs	Three best TMAs out of four, 10% each = 30%
3.	Final examination	Three out of five questions = 70%
	Total	100%

14.0   Course Overview/Organiser

The following table brings together the units, the number of weeks you should take to complete them and TMAs that follow them. There are fifteen weeks in a semester, including two for examinations.

Unit	Unit Title	Week devoted unit	Week devoted to TMA
1.	Meaning of Political Science	1	2
2.	Component parts of Political Science	1	-
3.	Branches and concepts of Political Science	0.5	-
4.	Content of Political Science Curriculum	1	-
5.	Importance of Political Science	1	-
6.	Planning to teach Political Science	0.5	2
7.	Materials for teaching Political Science	1	2
8.	human resources for teaching Political Science	1	-
9.	Teacher-centred methods of teaching Political Science	1	
10.	Student-centred methods of teaching Political Science	1	
11.	Classifying evaluative tools	0.5	1.5
12.	Constructing objective test items in Political Science	0.5	2
13.	Developing essay tests in Political Science	1	
14.	Test analysis	1	1
15.	Developing other evaluative devices supplementary to tests	1	
	Total Examinations	2	
	Total	15	8

15.0   How to Get the Best from the Course

In Open and Distance Learning (ODL), the study unit replaces the university lecturer. You can read and work through the unit at your own pace, time and place. Think of the unit as reading the lectures instead of listening to the lecturer.

Just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise, your study units provide SAEs for you to do at appropriate points. Working through the SAEs will help you to achieve the unit objectives and prepare you for the TMAs and the final examination.
The following is a practical strategy for working through the course:

1.   Read this course guide thoroughly
2.   Organise a study schedule. Refer to the course overview/organiser for more details. Gather together information on tutorials and dates for start and end of the semester in a diary.
3.   Decide on and write in your own dates for working on the units
4.   Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to keep to it
5.   Gather the study materials, especially the course book
6.   Work through the units, one by one; beginning with the introduction and the unit objectives
7.   Do the SAEs as you come across them
8.   Do the TMAs, one by one, as you are given by your facilitator or your counselor. Submit the TMAs on or before the deadlines given.
9.   When you have submitted a TMA to your tutor or counselor, for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule
10.   When the TMA is returned by the facilitator, he/she will discuss your performance with you. Pay particular attention to your tutor's comments both on the TMA and in the discussion (or feedback) following
11.   After completing the last unit and also the last TMA, revise your course book in preparation for the final examination. Check to see that you have achieved both the unit objectives, listed at the beginning of each unit and the course objectives, listed in the course guide.

At any stage of your study, you may have any question or problem. Please do not hesitate to consult your facilitator as soon and as possible.

16.0   Tutorial

The bulk of the study and preparation for TMAs and final examination is borne by you. Tutorials, are however, organised to bring face-to-face contact between you and your facilitator. For this 2-credit unit course, there are only eight tutorial sessions each lasting one hour. In them the tutors discuss the main content of the study units. Tutorials are not compulsory to you. But a serious student, like you, will try his/her best to attend all of them. During these tutorials, you may ask your facilitator or your classmates any question which will be answered instantly. You can raise any problem you have encountered in the process of your study. To gain the maximum benefit from course tutorials, you should bring your course book to the tutorial. Also prepare a list of questions on issues requiring clarification in the study unit. In doing all these, you will be able to participate actively in the tutorial and consequently learn a lot from it.

17.0   Summary

EDU 766, titled Political Science Methods, introduces you to the nature of Political Science, as well as the steps to take in planning to teach the discipline. The course then goes on to teach you the characteristics and uses of learning materials and human resources for teaching Political Science. Teaching Political Science is discussed under teacher-centred and student-centred methods. The place of objective and essay tests in the evaluation of students' learning is highlighted. In addition, the use of some evaluation tools as supplements to tests are discussed.

To get the most from this course, you should try to read through carefully and do the self-assessment exercises as well as all the tutor-marked assignments. We also wish your every success in all your undertakings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Module One: Nature and Purpose of Political Science
Unit 1: Definitions of Government and Political Science
Unit 2: Origin and Development of Government and Political Science
Unit 3: Branches and Major Concepts of Political Science
Unit 4: Putting the Subject Matter in Government or Political Science in the Curriculum
Unit 5: Importance of Political Science

Module 2: Methods for Teaching Political Science
Unit 1: Planning to Teach Political Science
Unit 2: Teacher- Centered Methods of Teaching Political Science
Unit 3: Learner- Centered Methods of Teaching Political Science

Module 3: Materials and Resources of Teaching Political Science
Unit 1: Learning Materials for Teaching Political Science
Unit 2: Learning Human Resources for Teaching Political Science

Module 4: Evaluating Students' Learning
Unit 1: Classifying the Tools of Measuring and Evaluating Students'
        Performance
Unit 2: Constructing Objective Test Items in Political Science
Unit 3: Developing Essay Tests in Political Science
Unit 4: Test Analysis
Unit 5: Tools of Evaluation of Students' Learning Supplementary to Tests

Module One: Nature and Purpose of Political Science

Unit 1: Definition of Government and Political Science

Contents

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
      3.1   Definition of Government
      3.2   Definition of Politics
      3.3   Definition of Political Science
      3.4   Arguments for and against the Scientific Status of Political Science
      3.5   Self Assessment Exercise
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References and Further Readings

1.0   Introduction

This is the first foundation unit in this course material. In it, you will be introduced to the definitions of Government as a subject. The definitions of Politics and Political Science as a discipline will also be discussed.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit you should be able to:
i.   define the concept, Government;
ii.   explain the nature of politics;
iii.   examine competing definitions of Political Science; and
iv.   highlight the arguments for and against viewing Political Science as science – based discipline.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Definition of Government

According to Appadorai (1975), government is the instrument by means of which the purposes of the state are sought to be reached. A group of people in a state or nation is called the government and is given the authority to make laws and enforce them. A government performs executive, legislative and judicial functions (Murphy, 1970).

The study of the legal government and its structure is called Government according to Hyneman (1959) quoted by Mohammed (2007). Government is a senior secondary school subject.

3.2   Definition of Politics

According to Mohammed (2007) politics signifies how the machinery is to be operated by those charged within the conduct of government. It is an area where public conflicts are resolved with the existing system of government. Politics is conflict; it creates competitions among interested groups for things they want and for things they do not want (Murphy, 1970). In their own contribution, Khan and McNiven (1984) argued that the term, politics is generally used to refer to those activities which revolve around the decision-making organs of the state. Politics embraces the concepts of power, authority, command and control. But some experts extend politics to cover any activity at all levels of human relationships which involve power and authority. Such an activity takes place in families, students' unions and in village councils of elders. When conflicts are resolved and the solution is imposed through the use of power and authority, it becomes political. Political activity is more than party politics or the intrigues and tricks of party politicians seeking power. Politics is a universal phenomenon which involves disagreements and the reconciliation of those disagreements (Ball, 1983).

.

3.3   Definition of Political Science

Political scientists do not agree on a common definition of Political Science. Instead, there exists a number of competing definitions. Bodin (1930) quoted by Mohammed (2007) was the originator of the term Political Science, which he called *science politigue*. Since, the coinage of the term, several attempts have been made by experts to define it. Some focus their definitions on the structure of government; others focus on the concepts of power and authority.

Banks (1977) wrote that Political Science is the study of the struggle of competing groups for power. This view was endorsed by Duke (1960). This power definition, like the one focusing on structure of government, is not accepted universally. One of the most acclaimed definitions of Political Science was formulated by David Easton. Easton(1960) defined Political Science as "the study of the authoritative allocation of values for a society. He suggested that people have competing values, demands and aspirations which they would like to become a part of public policy, and be enforced in a society. The political system is the channel by which people decide which demands and aspirations will become public policy. For instance, some individuals and groups want electronic voting to be practised in Nigeria; others oppose it. The political system provides a means for deciding which policy towards electronic voting Nigeria will enforce and regard as law or public policy.

3.4   Argument for and against the Scientific Status of Political Science

3.4.1   Political Science as a Natural Science

The political scientists who claim that Political Science is a natural science advance a number of reasons to support their claim. These political scientists include De Grazia (1962); Habu (1987); Varma (1976), among others. These political scientists argue that Political Science can be regarded as a natural science because:

a.   Scientific methods involving observation, hypothesizing, hypothesis testing and theorizing are being used.

b.   Political scientists believe that there is a certain observable uniformity in human behaviour, which can lead to generalizations, that are capable of explaining and predicting political behaviour.

c.   A science of politics is possible in spite of the fact that human behaviour is complex.

3.4.2 Political Science is not a Natural Science

The political scientists who claim that Political Science is not a science give a number of reasons to buttress their claim. Such political scientists include Dyke (1960); Appadorai (1975); Isaak (1969); Ujo (2003) among others. These people argue that Political Science is not a natural or behavioural science because:

a.   Many of the so-called Political scientists are only so in a loose sense, because they only make low-level generalizations or none at all.

b.   Political Science deals with large numbers of people in uncontrolled settings, which make it difficult to make generalizations on observed facts and data; human beings are least predicable and controllable of subjects.

c.   Politics cannot be exactly science in the same way as Physics or Chemistry, because it premises are uncertain and its conclusions are dubious. On almost every aspect of the subject, there are at least two or often more views (Appadorai, 1975).

d.   Political Scientists are human beings who have been socialized into specific cultural values, which influence their perceptions and their analysis and conclusions.

e.   Prediction, which is one of the cardinal principles of natural science, cannot be done accurately because of the vulnerability to conditional changes of the society.

3.4.3 Political Science as a Behavioural Science

Political Science is a behavioural science. Most political generalizations are low-level statements that describe the characteristics of various laws and institutions (Banks, 1977). Two examples of such generalizations include:

a.   Rules and laws reflect the basic values within a society or institution.

b.   Conflict arises within a political system when individuals or groups have competing goals or interpret laws differently.

3.5 Self-Assessment Exercises

.

1.   Define politics
2.   Mention two characteristics of party politics
3.   What do you understand by "authoritative allocation of values"?
4.   Give your own definition of Political Science.
5.   Distinguish between executive and legislative arms of a government.
6.   How would you define government as a subject?
7.   Give one reason to show that Political Science can be regarded as a natural science
8.   Give one reason to show that Political Science is not a natural science

4.0   Conclusion

Political Science has been defined variously as the study of the legal government of the state; the struggle of competing groups for power; authoritative allocation of values for a society. The first definition is a definition of government, which is a senior secondary school subject. Political Science is a behavioural science. Like in all behavioural sciences the Political Science generalizations are low-level statements that describe the characteristics of various laws and institutions as well as voting behaviour. This course is about Political Science methods, which are applicable also to government.

5.0   Summary

In this unit, you have learnt that Government, a secondary school subject, has been defined as the study of the legal institutions of the state. You have also learnt about

two definitions of Political Science, which is a wider subject than Government. In the next unit, you will learn about the origin and development of Government and Political Science.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.   a.   Distinguish between Government and Political Science.

b.   State and discuss two definitions of Political Science.

7.0   References

Appadorai, A. (1975). *The substance of politics*. London: Oxford University Press.

Ball, A.R. (1983). *Modern politics and government*. Hong Kong: Macmillan Educational Ltd.

Banks, J.A. (1977). *Strategies for the social studies: Inquiry, valuing and decision-making*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Dyke, A.A. (1960). *Political Science: A philosophical analysis*. New Jersey.

De Grazia, A. (1962). *Political behaviour*. Standford: University Press.

Easton, D. (1965). *A framework for political analysis*. New York: The Free Press.

Habu, S.I. (1987). *Theory and practice of politics: Introductory text for university students in Africa*. Zaria: Gaskiya Corporation.

Isaak, S. (1974). *Handbook in research and evaluation for education and behavioural sciences*. San Diego: Robert Unarpp Publishers.

Khan, R.A., McNiven, J.D. (1984). *Introduction to Political Science*. Home Wood Illinois: The Dousey Press.

Mohammed, M.N. (2007). *Research methods in Political Science*. Ilorin: Nathadex Publishers.

Ujo, A.A. (2004). *Understanding social research in Nigeria*. Kaduna: Antatotu Enterprises and Publishers.

Varma, S.P. (1975). *Modern political theory: A Critical survey*. New Delhi: Vani Educational Books.

Module One

Unit 2:   Origin and Development of Government and Political Science

Contents
1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Origin of Political ideas
        3.2   Origin of Government and Political Science
        3.3   Development of Political Science
        3.4   Self Assessment Exercise
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References

1.0   Introduction
In unit 1, you learnt the definition of government, as a secondary school subject. You also learnt the definitions of Political Science as a social science discipline in post-secondary institutions.

In this unit, the origin and development of government and Political Science will be discussed. All these have a lot to do with history and the role of ancient and modern scholars in the growth of the discipline.

2.0   Objectives
At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

i.   describe the origin of politics in Greece;
ii.   identify the roles of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle in the origin of Politics, Government and Political Science;
iii.   identify the difference in the origin of Government and Political Science; and

iv.   trace the four main stages of the development of Political Science.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Origin of Political Ideas

In ancient Greece, the basic unit of human organization was the city, which the Greeks called the *polis*. According to Hass and Kariel (1974), from *Polis* came the word *polities*, meaning citizens and *politicos*. From *politicos* the Greeks derived the modern word politics.

The earliest writings on the subject of politics before the Greek civilization was religious in character. When the *polis* arose among the Greeks a more secular orientation towards politics became manifest (Mohammd, 2007). The *polis* allowed a wider degree of popular participation among the people. In addition philosophers such as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle indulged in speculative discussions of the proper role of people in the State. The foundations of political thought and analysis were laid by these philosophers.

These philosophers asked a number of questions on the problems of ruling in ancient Greece. These questions included the following:

i.   Who was best qualified to rule?
ii.   What were the scope and limitations of the exercise of power between the ruler and the ruled?
iii.   What kind of system would best serve?

Attempting to answer these questions and several others as well, led them to enunciate certain political ideas about the State and Politics (Mohammed, 2007).

3.2   Origin of Government and Political Science

According to Anifowose (1991) and Ologbenla (1998), the study of Political Science originated from ancient Greece. Aristotle (384-322BC), for example, was the first to use the term politics in his writings. He used it to refer to the affairs of Greek city states. Aristotle asserted that men by nature are political animals, Aristotle contended

that men are engaged in politics as they try to define their positions in the society; as they struggle for scarce resources, as they try to convince others to accept their points of view (Ologbenla, 1999). According to Anifowose (1991), people try to maximize their capabilities and to attain the highest forms of social life through political interactions with others in an institutional setting. This setting is designed to resolve social conflicts and set collective goals.

Plato discussed justice in his political writings through his examination of the ideal state. The study of government was focused on formal and judicial structures, up to about 1850. Later, the evolution of state and the development of constitutional law became the emphasis in the study of Government till about 1900.

The origin of Political Science could be traced to the works of Francis Lieber (1835), Theodore Woolsey (1878) and John Burgess (1890). According to Murphy (1970), the American Political Science Association established 1903, boosted the origin and development of Political Science, too. The emphasis was shifting from the study of political structures to the research on the behaviour of individuals in political institutions.

3.3: Development of Government and Political Science
The growth and development of Government and Political Science happened in stages or phases. Ejemobi (1983) and Habu (1987) are in agreement that there are four stages in the development of Political Science. The four stages are:
a. **First Stage:** This was the period when people began to speculate systematically about political life. This period ended at about 1850. This was the classical period.
b. **Second Stage:** This was the time people left speculation and began to use historical and comparative methods in studying political structures and institutions. The period was between 1850 and 1940. This was the institutional period.
c. **Third Stage:** After 1945, political scientists started attacking the goals of the classical and institutional periods. Harold Lasswell and Robert Dahl among

others wanted the goal of the discipline to be the development of theories, not philosophical ideas. They advocated the behavioural approach, the studies of political actors not just legal codes and institutions (Banks, 1977).

d. **Fourth Stage:** The period saw the emergence of the systems approach. The approach is a continuation of the behavioural approach, but it is wider (Isaak, 1969). David Eastom originated the systems approach, which focuses on how competing demands and inputs from politicians and other groups become outputs (or public policy).

3.4: Self Assessment Exercise

   1. When did the study of Government start?

2. The first and the fourth stages of the development of Political Science are called _____ and _____

4.0   Conclusion

This unit has shown the important roles played by scholars in ancient Greece in the origin of the study of politics and government. Also the important contributions of modern writers and scholars are noted. Among the ancient scholars, Plato and Socrates were very important. Among the more modern scholars, Francis Lieber (a German) and John Burgress (an American) made important contributions to the development of Political Science.

5.0   Summary

The foundations and analysis of political thought were laid by Greek philosophers, notably Plato and Aristotle. Aristotle asserted that man is a political animal, meaning that all human beings play politics in their homes, offices and in their societies. Political interactions take place in institutional settings.

The study of organised government and constitutional development originated in ancient Greece, four hundred years before Christ. The study of Political Science, which centres on persons, parties and groups in institutions, originated between 1835 and 1903.

The development of Government and Political Science as a process involved four stages. The process started from stage one, when people used philosophical speculation to analyse political ideas. The fourth stage in the process, is the modern trend, which is used as a combination of historical, comparative and scientific methods.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.   a.   Distinguish between Government and Political Science as fields of study.

    b.   Discuss the four stages in the development of Government and Political Science, pointing out their distinguishing characteristics.

7.0   References/Further Readings

Anifowose, R. (ed.) (1999). *Elements of Politics.* Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd.

Banks, J.A. (1977). *Strategies for the social studies: Inquiry, valuing and decision-making*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Ejembi, H.I. (1983).   Science versus philosophy. The need for a relevant Political Science. In Y. Barongo (ed.). *Political Science in Africa: A critical review.* London: Zed Press.

Habu, S.I. (1987). *Theory and practice of political of politics: Introductory ideas for University students in Africa.* Zaria: Gasikiya Corporation.

Hass, M. & Kariel, H.S. (eds.) (1970). *Approaches to the study of Political Science.* Sacranto: Chandler Publishing Company.

Isaak, S. (1974). *Handbook in research and evaluation for education and behavioural sciences*. San Diego: Robert Unarpp Publishers.

Mohammed, M.N. (2000). An overview of Political Science. In A. Badmus and S. Saleeman (eds.) *A general introduction to the Social Sciences.* Ilorin: Hytee Press.

Mohammed, M.N. (2000). The scientific study of politics: A reexamination. *Ilorin Journal of Science Education.* 2(1), 178-182.

Murphy, F. (1970). *The style and study of Political Science.* Glenolew, Illinois: Foreman and Company.

Ologbenla, D.K. (1998). *An introduction to Political Science.* Lagos: Olucity Press Ltd.

Module One

Unit 3:   Branches and Major Concepts of Political Science

Contents
1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Branches of Political Science
        3.1.1   National Government
        3.1.2   Comparative Politics
        3.1.3   Public Administration
        3.1.4   International Relations
        3.1.5   Political Economy
        3.1.6   Political Sociology
        3.1.7   Political Theory
        3.2   Political Science Concepts
        3.2.1   Social Control
        3.2.2   State
        3.2.3   Nation
        3.2.4   Government
        3.2.5   Power
        3.2.6   Legitimacy
        3.2.7   Political Authority
        3.2.8   Political Culture
        3.2.9   Political Socialisation
        3.2.10 Political Participation
        3.2.11 Political System
        3.3 Self Assessment Exercise
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Readings

1.0   Introduction

In unit 3, you will learn major branches or Government of Political Science. These branches have bred a number of concepts or super ideas which can be used to produce a structure for the discipline. These concepts are organised into units of study which make up Government or Political Science curriculum, which is to be discussed in unit 4.

1.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
i.   describe major branches of Political Science;
ii.   explain why Political Science structure is difficult to identify; and
iii.   describe and explain at least five major concepts of Political Science.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Branches of Political Science

The different approaches in Political Science constitute an aspect of the scope of Political Science. Other aspects are the branches or subfields of the discipline and its key concepts. The branches of Political Science are the different courses taken by aspiring scholars.

3.1.1 National Government

Government of a nation is a set of political institutions which responsibility is to regulate the affairs of the people in a nation. Government as the most important institution of the state coordinates the other institutions such as courts, army, and political parties. Government performs coordinating functions in order to maintain law and order. A National Government is able to perform this role because it controls the military, the police, the courts and the prison. The three major institutions of government are the legislature, the judiciary and the executive. The executive is the branch or organ of Government which carries out the will of the state. It enforces the

laws made by the legislature and court decisions, as well as take actions on matters which are not covered by the law (Akinbade, 2008).

3.1.2 Comparative Politics

Comparative politics is the study of forms of government existing across different countries. It involves comparative analysis of democratic, non-democratic as well as Federal and Unitary systems of government. Comparative politics also involves comparing the domestic and foreign policies of different countries. Comparative politics was formerly called comparative government when the study was based on only the classification of governments. But since the end of Second World War, the study has involved observing and analysis of formal and informal political processes (Mohammed, 2007).

3.1.3 Public Administration

Public administration is the study of the administrative machinery of government or bureaucracy. In Political Science, public administration covers the civil service, public corporations and the local government (Barber and Stacey, 1984).

3.1.4 International Relations

In international relations the focus is on the analysis of the behaviour of states or nations in the international setting, and the factors which influence their behaviour (Mohammed, 2007). International relations also include the study of international organisations such as the United Nations (UN), the Commonwealth, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the African Union. The role of one's own country in these organisations are also studied (Akinbade, 2008).

3.1.5 Political Economy

Political economy deals with the relationship between politics and economy – how politics influences economy and vice versa (Akinbade, 2008). Topics studied include public finance, budgeting, social welfare and the relationship between government and the private economic institutions.

3.1.6 Political Sociology

The field of political sociology deals with the application of principles of sociology and psychology to Political Science. Political sociology helps political scientists to understand why individuals and groups behave in particular ways in politics and government (Dowse and Hughes, 1975). It provides answers to such questions as:

i.   Why do people vote in a certain way?
ii.   Why are men more interested in politics than women?
iii.   Why do people regard politics as a dirty game?

3.1.7 Political Theory

Political theory is a body of doctrines dealing with the nature of human beings as well as the origin, forms, behaviour and purpose of the state. Political theorists are philospohers like Plato, Aristotle, John Locke and Thomas Hobbes, whose writings have influenced the formulation of constitutions (Wheare, 1975).

3.2   Political Science Concepts

Any attempt to identify the key or organising concepts in Political Science is destined to be difficult. This is because of the diversity of approaches, the internal conflicts in the discipline and the lack of agreement by scholars on its key concepts (Banks, 1977). No attempt is made in this unit to list and describe the organising concepts in Political Science for the reasons stated above. However, some important concepts are central to the discipline. These are discussed below:

3.2.1 Social Control

Social control is the regulation of human behaviour by outside forces. These forces that govern behaviour within a society are usually found in written legal documents and documents (Banks, 1977).

3.2.2 State

The concept of the State is defined as the institution that has ultimate responsibility for maintaining social law and order in a political-geographical entity called nation or country.

3.2.3 Nation

A nation is a group of people who live in a given territory and have a common government. It shares a common ideology and common institutions (Mohammed, 2007).

3.2.4 Government

Closely related to the concept of the state is the concept of government. Government is an agency of the state that is used to maintain social control.

3.2.5 Power

Political power is the capacity of the State officials to influence the behaviour of individuals or groups in a country by the use of threat or sanctions. The state, through the agency of government, is the only institution of society that can use force to ensure compliance with the rules of behaviour (Akinbade, 2008).

3.2.6 Legitimacy

Legitimacy is a lawful or rightful rule. Some governments have come to power through the rigging of elections and the manipulation of the will of the people. Thus the basis of government legitimacy is dubious.

3.2.7 Political Authority

Authority is a right to rule. Authority is the right to rule regardless of the ruler (Akinbade, 2008), Political leaders have authority when they are able to make decisions and laws that are legally binding for individuals and groups. The leaders attain authority in such ways as election by the people, appointment by people or

taking it by force (Banks, 1977; Akinbade, 2008). For a political system to function smoothly, authority must be legitimate.

3.2.8 Political Culture

The attitudes, perceptions and beliefs that individuals have towards politics are called political culture. It deals mainly with what the people believe about the government, political parties, pressure groups, politicians and elections.

3.2.9 Political Socialisation

Political culture is not given at birth; it has to be acquired over a period of time. The process by which an individual acquires the political culture is known as political socialisation. One way to this is for the state to deliberately attempt to socialise people, politically. For example the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) Scheme is an agency designed to boost positive political and social culture among youths.

3.2.10 Political Participation

Political participation is the involvement of the people in political activities. Examples of such activities are voting and seeking and holding political office. A good number of the people are apathetic about political activities (Dowse and Hughes, 1975) even in Nigeria.

3.2.11 Political System

A political system consists of all the processes and institutions that result in making of public policy. It consists of six major components (Banks, 1977). These are:
i.   the people who are governed;
ii.   authoritative officials;
iii.   a political process;
iv.   a structure of government;
v.   a policy making process; and
vi.   an authoritative policy.

3.3: Self Assessment Exercise
1. Mention three people who laid the foundations of modern politics.
2. Discuss the scope of Political Science

3. Define National Government

4. Describe the three arms of Government.

5. Distinguish between comparative government and comparative politics.

6. Describe the scope of Public administration.

7. What reciprocal influence has politics and the economy?

8. Which international organizations do you know?

9. What is the focus of Political Sociology?

10. What do you consider as the major contributions of political philosophers?

11. State the reasons why it is difficult to identify the key concepts in Political Science.

12. Distinguish between State and Country.

13. What are the characteristics of a nation?

14. How does the State exercise its power?

15. What is legitimacy?

16. Distinguish between power and authority?

17. What is the place of authority in government?

18. Attempt a definition of Political culture.

19. Mention two agencies of political socialisation in Nigeria, apart from the NYSC.

20. Give any two reasons why you think Nigerians are apathetic about political activities.

21. Outline the major components of a political system.

4.0   Conclusion

This unit has treated seven branches of Political Science. It has discussed eleven of the organising concepts of Political Science. The seven branches breed the organising concepts. However, some important concepts are central to the different approaches. The concepts of social control, political power, legitimacy and political socialisation are central to the behavioural approach. The state and government are central to the

normative and institutional approaches. But these two concepts are foreign to the systems approach.

5.0 Summary

Seven major subfields in Political Science have been described. Eleven key concepts have similarly been discussed. Together with the approaches in Political Science and the key concepts, the subfields define the scope of Political Science.

The seven major subfields in Political Science are: National Government, Comparative Politics, Public Administration, International Relations, Political Economy, Political Sociology and Political Theory. The eleven key concepts are social control, state, nation, government, power, legitimacy, political authority, political culture, political socialisation, political participation and political system.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

Distinguish between the following pairs of concepts:
a.   Political Economy and Political Sociology
b.   Political Power and Political Authority
c.   Political Culture and Political Socialisation

7.0   References/Further Readings

Akinbade, J.A. (2008). *Government explained.* Lagos: Macak Books Ventures.

Banks, J.A. (1977). *Teaching strategies for the Social Studies.* Reading? Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Barber, M.P. & Stacey, R. (1984). *Public Administration.* London: MacDonald and Evans.

Dowse, R.E. and Hughes, J.A. (1975). *Political Sociology.* London: John Wiley and Sons.

Mohammed, M.N. (2007). *Research methods in Political Science.* Ilorin: Nathadex Publishers.

Wheare, K.C. (1975). *Modern Constitutions.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Module One

Unit 4: **Putting the Subject Matter in Government or Political Science Curriculum**

Contents
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
    3.1 Elements of a Subject Curriculum
    3.2 National Examinations Council's (NECO) Curriculum for Government
    3.3 National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) Curriculum for Political Science
8.0 Conclusion
9.0 Summary
10.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
11.0 References

1.0 Introduction

Unit 3 highlighted the different branches and concepts of Government or Political Science. Unit 4 will describe the nature and scope of a Political Science (or government) curriculum which usually contains selections from the branches and concepts of Government or Political Science. A subject curriculum may be defined as a logically connected selections of subject matter, objectives, materials, learning activities and evaluation tools meant for a school subject. In this unit, the focus is on subject matter. Teachers are expected to break down the given curriculum content into a course plan, units and lessons before teaching the subject. This will be discussed in Module 2, Unit 1.

1.0 Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:
i. list the different elements of a subject curriculum;
ii. explain the relationship among curriculum elements;

iii.   identify the different branches of Government contained in the NECO Government curriculum;

iv.   identify the different branches of Political Science contained in the NCCE Political Science curriculum; and

v.   compare and contrast the NECO Government curriculum with the NCCE Political Science curriculum.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Elements of a Subject Curriculum

A subject curriculum sometimes referred to as a syllabus, consists of four elements. These are:

a.   statement of curriculum objectives (or saying why the subject is to be studied);

b.   selection of learning experiences (or subject matter) from the subject;

c.   organisation and integration of learning experiences (or materials and methods) to teach the subject;

d.   evaluation of learners' achievement in the subject (or determining the extent to which the objectives have been achieved).

Basically, the different parts of curriculum that are called into play in a relationship are objectives, content, methods and evaluation (Ivowi, 1992).

Curriculum objectives may be derived from studies of the society and the learners, as well as the subject itself. In trying to derive objectives from subject specialists, the specialists in each subject are requested to suggest the purposes of studying their subject (Mkpa, 1992). All the objectives are then passed through philosophical and psychological screening. The ones that survive are passed as curriculum objectives which the school can then pursue.

When all the objectives have been determined it becomes necessary to select content or subject matter to which the learners should be exposed so that the objectives can be achieved. The content should be comprehensive in scope, and relevant to life, so that all the objectives can be attained (Mkpa, 1992).

Formal content refers to documented information, for example, textbooks of the subject. Informal content refers to all other knowledge from the repertoire of experiences of teachers and the learners.

Organising and integrating learning experiences (or subject matter) involve selecting appropriate learning methods and materials for use by the teachers. The relevant learning activities in the learning process are identified and stated. Learning activities involving the use of materials and methods are designed to communicate content effectively and efficiently for the attainment of curriculum objectives.

Evaluation is an integral part of classroom practice (Baiyelo, 1987). It is a learning process. The teacher is expected to combine measurements at different stages, such as at the lesson – introduction stage, during-the-lesson stage and after-the-lesson stage. Both oral and written questions are used to measure and assess students' achievement (Baiyelo, 1992).

3.2   The NECO Government Curriculum

Government is offered at the Senior Secondary School level. It is taken as one of the examination subjects to obtain the Senior Secondary School Certificate. Both the National Examinations Council (NECO) and the West African Examination Council (WAEC) conduct the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations. Here, the syllabus for Government is briefly discussed.

The following four elements of Government curriculum are identified from NECO (2004):
(i)   Aims and objectives: These are five in number.
(ii)   Structure of the examination. This consists of two papers (1 and 2). Paper 1 comprises 40 multiple-choice objective questions of 40 marks paper 2 is made up of essay questions in two sections of 60 marks.
(iii)   Content selection, consisting of two sections A and B.
         Section A - Elements of Government

Section B – Political and Constitutional Development in West Africa and International Relations.

The detailed syllabus is outlined below.

(iv.)   Suggested reading list. This is made up of six books.

The detailed syllabus consists of 24 parts, namely:

1.   Definition and scope of Government;
2.   Some basic concepts;
3.   Types and characteristics of Government;
4.   Constitutions;
5.   The structure and organisation of Government;
6.   Some basic principles of Government;
7.   Status, rights, duties and obligations of citizens;
8.   Political parties;
9.   Party system;
10.   Pressure groups;
11.   The electoral process;
12.   Public opinion;
13.   Public administration (civil service, public corporations and local government);
14.   Pre-colonial political systems in Nigeria;
15.   Colonial administration;
16.   Nationalism in Nigeria;
17.   Constitutional development in Nigeria during the pre-independence era;
18.   Constitutional development leading to independence and after;
19.   Nigerian federalism;
20.   Development of political parties in Nigeria;
21.   Major political crisis in Nigeria; and
22.   Military rule in Nigeria.
23.   Nigeria and the world
24.   International organisations.

3.3 NCCE Political Science Curriculum

Both the National Universities Commission and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) have Political Science curricula in their manual of minimum standards. The Political Science Curriculum of the NCCE is discussed below.

The curriculum (FRN, 2002) contains four elements namely:

1.   Objectives: There are six of them;
2.   Mode of teaching: Five methods listed;
3.   Course contents for Nigeria Certificate in Education, NCE I, II and III; and
4.   Evaluation. The requirements for graduation are spelt out.

The detailed curriculum consists of 26 courses, namely:

1.   Introduction to Political Science;
2.   Nigerian Government and politics up to 1960;
3.   Constitutional development in West African States;
4.   Principles of Political Science I;
5.   Principles of Political Science II;
6.   Nigerian Government and politics, 1960 to date;
7.   Government and politics of African States;
8.   Military in politics;
9.   Introduction to classical political thought;
10.   Elements of public administration;
11.   Methods of teaching Political Science;
12.   Nigerian constitution studies;
13.   Human rights education;
14.   Local government studies;
15.   Principles of international relations;
16.   Political Science research methods;
17.   Introduction to political behavior;
18.   Political parties and pressure groups;
19.   Introduction to modern political thought;
20.   Comparative government and politics;

21.   Nigerian foreign policy;

22.   Political economy of African States;

23.   Nation building in Africa;

24.   African political thought;

25.   Introduction to organizations; and

26.   Nigerian public administration.

3.4 Self Assessment Exercise

1. List the four main elements of a subject curriculum.
2. Organisation and integration of learning experiences involve both _____ and _____
3. Identify any two different branches of Government included in the NECO curriculum, using the classification in Unit 3.
4. Identify any two different branches of Political Science included in the NCCE curriculum, using the classification in Unit 3.
5. Compare and contrast the NECO curriculum with the NCCE curriculum in the area of public administration.

4.0   Conclusion

In unit 3 you learnt the major branches or sub-fields of Government and Political Science as well as the major concepts. These have been woven into curricula for Senior Secondary Schools and Colleges of Education. In unit 4, you learnt how this has been done. You should also be able to identify how many branches of Government or Political Science have been incorporated into the respective curricula.

5.0   Summary

A subject curriculum has been shown to contain at least four elements. These are objectives, content, methods and materials, and evaluation.

The content aspect has been discussed with respect to two curricula. The Senior Secondary School curriculum consists of 24 parts; while the College of Education curriculum consists of 26 courses.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.   a.   List the four major components of a subject curriculum
      b.   With reference to a named Political Science curriculum, describe the extent to which the various branches of Political Science have been incorporated.

7.0   References

Baiyelo, T.D. (1987). The nature and essence of curriculum evaluation. In J. Fagbamiye (ed.) *University of Lagos Series in Education.* 2, 32 – 41.

Baiyelo, T.D. (1992). Curriculum evaluation In U.M.O. Ivowi (Ed.). *Curriculum development in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Sam Bookman, 65 – 84.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (2002). *National Commission for Colleges of Education: Minimum Standards for NCE Teachers.* 3rd Edition, Abuja.

Ivowi, U.M.O. (1992). Models of curriculum development. In U.M.O. Ivowi (Ed.). *Curriculum Development in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Sam Bookman, 17 – 27.

Mkpa, M.A. (1992). Designing curriculum. In U.M.O. Ivowi (ed.). *Curriculum development in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Sam Bookman, 28 – 38.

National Examinations Council (2004). *Regulation and syllabuses for Senior School Certificate Examination.* Minna.

Module One

Unit 5: Importance of Political Science

Contents

1.0   Introduction

A review of units 1 to 4 discussed above should make it easy for you to understand why Political Science is studied. In this unit; the goal of each of the four approaches in Political Science is discussed. This is followed by a highlight of the seven major reasons why you should study Political Science.

1.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

i.   mention the goals of the four major approaches in Political Science; and

ii.   discuss the seven major reasons for studying Political Science.

Main Content

3.1 Goals of the Approaches Used in Political Science

According to Banks (1977), Clark (1973) and Ologbenla (2001) Political Science is important because it focuses on the examination of the ideas of political theorists in order to describe the ideal political system and how it can be attained. This is the major preoccupation of the normative approach.

The legal-institutional approach focuses on the description and analysis of legal documents and the functions of government institutions and officials. The goal is to accurately describe legal institutions and the roles within them.

The behavioural approach is primarily interested in studying the behaviour of political sectors in order to develop theories that can be used to predict and control political behaviour. To develop theories about the competing demands and inputs that are parts of the political process within a political system, the systems approach focuses on organized political behaviour and its effects on the political system (Banks, 1977)

3.2 Reasons for Studying Political Science

The study of Political Science is important for the following reasons:

a.   Like any other subject, Political Science helps to develop the intellect. Political Science gives training in step-by-step logical analysis.

b.   The discipline helps students to discover the principles that should guide the organization of public affairs. By so doing, it helps students to criticize political activities and behaviours.

c.   By studying Political Science, the students are conveniently placed to understand the conflict resolution structure in the political system (Akinbade, 2008). By so doing, Political Science increases students' ability to resolve disputes.

d.   The usefulness of the discipline is also demonstrated by the fact that a large part of it forms part of the reading materials in many fields such as law, administration, journalism, politics, taxation, and international diplomacy and strategic and defense studies. This fact enhances professional development.

e.	Political Science promises social consciousness. Thus, students are helped to understand the society they live in. Indeed, students of Political Science are usually versed in current affairs. This social consciousness makes it possible for political scientists to effect fundamental changes in the society.

f.	People with degrees in Political Science or Government are in demand in government, business, international organizations and educational institutions. The discipline therefore, helps its students to secure employment.

g.	Citizenship is a term by which we express the status of individuals who possess full political rights. Citizenship education focuses on the utilization of knowledge, skills and attitudes from all school subjects and activities. Political Science is a part of formal citizenship education.

A citizen should be a rational decision-maker and social actor (Banks, 1977). Political Science has assumed the responsibility for helping people become skillful at making important decisions that affect their relations with the political actors. The discipline also helps people to make rational and important decisions about the governing of the local community and the nation. After making rational decisions, citizens are well-placed to be social actors.

**3.3	Self Assessment Exercise**
1. The goal of the normative approach in Political Science is to _____
2. The goal of the systems approach is to _____
3. Two of the reasons for studying Political Science are _____ and _____
4. A citizen should be a _____ and a _____

**4.0	Conclusion**
The goals of the four major approaches in Political Science tell us that the discipline is diverse and rich. The seven major reasons for studying the discipline provide citizens with the opportunities to be a rational decision-maker and a social actor.

5.0   Summary
The four major goals of Political Science highlighted above are:

a.   describing the ideal political system;

b.   describing accurately legal institutions and their roles;

c.   predicting and controlling political behaviour; and

d.   identifying the effects of organised political behaviour and its effects on the political system.

The seven reasons for studying Political Science are:

a.   intellectual development;

b.   understanding the principles guiding public affairs;

c.   sharpening of negotiation and bargaining skills;

d.   professional development;

e.   improvement of social consciousness;

f.   employment; and

g.   production of citizens who are rational political decision-makers and social actors.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
1.   a.   Outline seven major reasons for studying Political Science

b.   Describe any five of the reasons for studying the discipline.

7.0   References
Akinbade, J.A. (2008). *Government explained.* Lagos: Macak Books Ventures.

Banks, J.A. (1977). *Teaching strategies for the Social Studies.* Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Ologbenla, D.K. (2001). *Introduction to Political Science.* Lagos: Olucity Press.

Module Two: Methods for Teaching Political Science

Unit 1: Planning to Teach Political Science

Contents

1.0   Introduction

Given the official curriculum produced by national bodies such as the Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC), and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), the teacher is expected to plan the individual courses, units and lessons. In the long run, the success of any course or lesson depends on the quality of the plans. In this unit you will learn how a teacher should prepare the course plan, the units and the individual daily lessons. You will also learn the importance of readiness, motivation, organization, practice and transfer of learning in these preparations.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit, you are expected to be able to:

i.   describe the basic steps for preparing a course plan in Political Science or Government;

ii.   discuss how a unit is built up; and

iii.   describe how to write out a lesson plan or lesson note.

3.0   Main content

3.1   Preparing a Teaching Course Plan

The official curriculum on Political Science or Government contains a list of courses and suggested materials and methods arranged sequentially for a particular level to last the whole duration of the programme. The duration could be three years or more. POL 111, POL 112, and POL 113 are excerpts from the NCCE curriculum.

POL 111   Introduction of Political Science

This course covers:

a.   Definition of basic concepts in Political Science (e.g. state, nation, power, authority, legitimacy, sovereignty, democracy).

b.   Systems of government (e.g presidential and parliamentary).

c.   Structure of government (e.g. unitary, federal, confederal)

d.   Forms of government (e.g. democracy, monarchy, etc.)

POL 112   Principles of Political Science

The following principles of Political Science are to be examined: Citizenship, Fundamental Human Rights, Rule of Law, Representative Government, Delegated Legislation, Political Parties, Pressure Groups, Elections, Electoral Processes, Public Opinion.

POL 113   International Organisations

The course covers the origin, objectives, structures, functions, achievements, problems and prospects of the following international organisations: United Nations, African Union, etc.

From this curriculum you should prepare a teaching course plan. A teaching course plan is an outline of the work planned to be done in a course for a term (or semester), or a year with a particular class (Daramola, 2004). Drawing up a course plan is a way of interpreting the official curriculum. The essential steps in doing this, according to Abimbola (1999) in Daramola (2004) are:

i.   Decide what necessary topics, concepts and facts are to be covered
ii.   Add suggestions on learning materials and human resources
iii.   Add suggestions on teaching methods and learning activities
iv.   Decide how much time you want to allocate to each topic.

An example of how to prepare a course plan is given using large topic stated in POL 111 above.

A COURSE PLAN
Definition of Basic Terms in Political Science – Class: SS 3; 1st Term (12 weeks)
1.   Democracy – to be covered in two (2) weeks
2.   Sovereignty – 2 weeks
3.   Legitimacy – 2 weeks
4.   Power, authority – 1 week
5.   Political system – 2 weeks
6.   Disadvantages of democracy (Revision) – 1 week
7.   Examinations – 2 weeks

Clark (1977) has highlighted some important considerations in preparing the course plan. These are:

(a)   The course plan should be organized with reference to the time available in the term or year.

(b) The topics should be sequentially arranged taking the easier ones before the more difficult ones.

(c) You should be flexible. The topics could be re-arranged when the need arises.

(d) The course plan should be designed to reflect the material and human resources available.

(e) The course plan should not be overloaded. In order to keep Political Science course manageable and still important, you could leave out some content. Attempting to cover the entire curriculum may not be feasible.

(f) You should stress the important topics and soft pedal on the less important ones.

3.2 Planning the Teaching-learning Unit

A unit is a comprehensive plan specifying the content, the objectives, the materials and the methods required to teach topics in a short period of time say a week or two weeks. A set of teaching units is combined to make up a scheme of work. The scheme is a year plan. The unit consists of the following elements:

1. Introductory information (title, time duration, class);
2. A general description of what the students are to learn; this being the heart of the unit;
3. Learning objectives;
4. Learning activities or methods to be used by the teachers as well as by the students;
5. Learning materials to be used;
6. Instruments or devices to be used in evaluating the learning of the students; and
7. Bibliography. List of books or journals or other printed materials consulted by the teacher.

An example of a teaching-learning unit is given below:

1. **Introductory Information**
a. <u>Title</u>: Democracy
b. <u>Period</u>: Two weeks, four periods of one hour each
c. <u>Class</u>: Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) one.

2.   **Content**
     Week 1 – Meaning of democracy; Types of democracy and Historical development of democracy
     Week 2 – Types of democracy; Advantages and Disadvantages of democracy

3.   **Learning Objectives of the Unit**
The objectives of this unit are:
a.   To enable learner to define democracy as a political system
b.   To create awareness among learners that there are two types of democracy; direct and representative
c.   To sensitize learners on the features of representative democracy
d.   To help learners identify why democracy has succeeded in many counties; and
e.   To enable learners identify the major problems of democracy.

4.   **Learning Activities and Methods**
i.   Talk by the teacher
ii.   Talk by invited resource persons e.g. (political actors)
iii. Newspaper cuttings or magazine cuttings by teacher and pupils to show activities of democracy
iv.   Talk by selected students (peer tutoring)
v.   Take-home assignments selected from the textbook(s)
vi.   Story telling by students on eye-witness accounts of elections in their locality
vii. Staging of mock political campaigns
viii. Visits to a nearby legislative house

5.   **Learning Materials**
i.   Textbook(s)
ii.   Prepared maps of West Africa showing countries practising democracy
iii. Newspaper clippings illustrative of democracy
iv.   Notebook of clipping illustrating activities in the legislature
v.   Booklets made by the learners containing stories about things done to make democracy really work.

6. **Evaluation Tools (Techniques)**
i.   Objective tests, essay tests
ii.   rating scale, ranking scales
iii. observation, interview, questionnaire
iv.   project

7. **Bibliography**

Akinbade, J.A. (2008). *Government Explained.* Lagos: Macak Books Ventures.

Mohammed, M.N. (2007). *Research methods in Political Science.* Ilorin: Nathadex Publishers.

Clark, L.H. (1973). *Teaching Social Studies in secondary schools.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co. Ltd.

3.5 Preparing the Lesson

Ordinarily, you should write out a note of lesson or a plan for each lesson you teach. A lesson note is more detailed than a lesson plan. But they have the same format. Olawepo (2003), Molagun (2008), among others, have written on acceptable lesson plan formats. One format is discussed below.

In a lesson plan, you should set forth:
i.   The setting (date, class, topic, duration)
ii.   The objectives for the lesson stated in specific, performance terms.
iii. Previous knowledge
iv.   Introduction
v.   Learning materials and activities to cover subject matter
vi.   Summary of the lesson
vii. Evaluation of students' learning to see if the objectives have been achieved.

A detailed example of a lesson plan is given below:

A LESSON PLAN

Setting

     <u>Date</u>: 9 September 2009

     <u>Class</u>: S S 2 (40students) Mean age is 15 years

     <u>Topic</u>: Advantages of democracy

     <u>Duration</u>: 40 Minutes

     <u>Specific objectives</u>   :   Students should be able to:

     i.   list ten advantages of democracy; and

     ii.   explain any five advantages of democracy.

     <u>Previous knowledge</u>: Students have participated in one way or another in the country's democratic process. They have also been taught the meaning and features of democracy in class

Introduction

You could revise the subject matter of previous lessons on aspects of democracy. . Let them say what they have seen or learnt (use 5 minutes).You may ask the students to describe the benefits of democracy as practiced in Nigeria.

Learning Activities

You should take each advantage one by one such as:

i.   Democracy allows for peaceful change of Government;

ii.   Democracy promotes human rights; and

iii.   Democracy includes not just elections but also good governance.

For each, engage students in question-answer session. You could also use charts and pictures to show election processes, like voting and swearing in ceremonies of elected officials. You may also have students to role play the part of campaigners and the electorates; or speaker of a legislature and representatives of the people (25 minutes).

Summary

You could summarise the lesson yourself. Or better still ask pupils to say what they have learnt in the lesson (5 minutes).

Evaluation

You could give a short quiz which is a set of five or six questions you have prepared on the lesson, based on the lesson objectives listed above.

3.6 Five Conditions for Learning

No single chapter in a method book will tell you all you want or need to know about the psychology of learning. This section focuses on the five main conditions for learning. These must be at the back of the mind of teacher while making course, unit and lesson plans. These conditions are readiness, motivation, organisation, practice and transfer. Each is a necessary but not wholly sufficient condition for learning (Lee, 1974).

Readiness is a combination of maturation and prior learning. The classroom materials you are using must range widely in type and structure to tap into the principle of readiness. If you are interested in more than memorisation, you must constantly ask yourself what a learner needs to understand before he/she can understand what I am ready to teach.

Motivation consists of intent to learn and success. Teachers must create a rich, varied and attractive environment in order to motivate learners to learn. Other than the rich learning environment, you have to get the learners to state their objectives clearly and openly. If a child learns and is satisfied that he/she has learnt, then he/she feels success. And success breeds success. Success is a motivation for further success (Lee, 1974; & Sulyman, 2009).

Organisation is important because a child learns most rapidly, remembers longest, and applies most readily those learning that for him/her possess organization. Isolated or unrelated bits of information are difficult to learn and easy to forget. Your programmes

of study (course plan, unit plan and lesson plan) should be based on subject matter that has a high degree of organisation.

Practice is important because a student remembers what he/she has learnt and practised through review and application. Practice should be distributed over time. In general, spaced practice produces three times the retention of massed practice.

Over learning at the initial point of learning enhances memory. Self-recitation in learning is also a form of practice. You need to consider two factors. The first is over learning, self-recitation and spaced review in initial learning. The second is review and application from time to time throughout the school year (Lee, 1974).

Transfer is basically utility or use in the future. Transfer is the reason for learning (Sulyman, 2009). After learning, the learner must use what is learnt in a new problem situation. There are things a teacher can do to ensure transfer. For example, as soon as you have taught something, demonstrate how it transfers. A case in point is that after teaching campaign and voting scenarios, you demonstrate with reference to students' union electoral processes and practices. You ought to organise your objectives, materials and learning activities so that transfer of learning will occur in a natural manner.

3.7 Self Assessment Exercise
1. Take presidential system of Government as a large topic and break it into three smaller topics that could form part of a teaching course plan.
2. Produce a teaching unit on presidential system of government to cover meaning of presidential system, characteristics of presidential system, advantages of presidential system, for two weeks of 4 periods.
3. Write a daily lesson plan on "Disadvantages of democracy" for SS 2 class to be covered in 40 minutes.
4. How would you ensure transfer of learning in your class?

4.0 Conclusion

Planning to teach Political Science is a systematic activity covering course plans, as well as teaching-learning and lesson plans. Teaching units are derived from the course plan. In the same way, lesson plans are derived from the teaching units.

Frequently, the idea of preparing teaching units and daily lesson plans is criticized as being unnecessary. The most serious argument against them is that experienced teachers seldom use them. But for the novice, units and lesson plans are a must.

In both cases, however, units and lessons plans will give coherence to classroom teaching.

5.0 Summary

This unit has discussed three key themes, which are preparing course plan, teaching unit and the daily lesson plan. The preparation of each of these plans is illustrated with concrete examples. The need to plan with consideration for the five conditions for learning was also highlighted.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. a. Plan a teaching unit, using these "Multi-party system". This unit should be covered in two weeks by a senior secondary three class.

   b. From the unit plan, write out a lesson plan on "characteristics of multiparty system" for the same class.

7.0 References/Further Readings

Clark, L.H. (1973). *Teaching Social Studies in secondary schools.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co. Ltd.

Daramola, S.O. (2004). Relevance of curriculum, examination and teaching syllabi for instruction. In I.O. Abimbola and A.O. Abolade (eds.). *Fundamental principles and practice of instruction.* Ilorin: Tunde-Babs Printers, 122-132.

Lee, J.R. (1974). *Teaching Social Studies in the elementary school.* New York: The Free Press.

Molagun, H.M. (2008). Preparation and explanation of the content of lesson plans. In J.A. Olawepo, J.A. Oladuntoye and N.O. Odediran (eds.). *A guide to teaching practice for students and supervisors.* Ilorin (in the press).

Olawepo, J.A. (2008). *Curriculum and instruction in Social Studies.* Ilorin: (in Press).

Sulyman, D. (2009). *Psychology: The process of learning*, Ilorin: Nathadex Press

Module Two

Unit 2: Teacher-centred Methods of Teaching Political Scence

Contents

1.0   Introduction

In units 2 and 3 you learnt the use of material and human resources in teaching Political Science. In units 4 and 5 you will learn how to use different methods of teaching. Unit 4 is on teacher-centred methods. According to Jekayinfa (2005), teacher-centred methods are those which teachers use with little or no contribution by the learners.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

i.   describe the advantages of six teacher-centred methods of teaching;
ii.   make judicious use of lecture, story telling, repetition and drill, review, controlled question-answer and note giving methods.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Lecture Method

Clark (1973), Olawepo (2003) and Jekayinfa (2005), among others have described the form, function, advantages and disadvantages of the lecture method.

The lecture method is neither good nor bad; it depends on how it is used. It is a bad method when a teacher talks and talks from the start to the end of the lesson. It is bad because learners cannot learn well sitting passive and inactive.

In order to give effective lectures, you should note the following points:

i.   fit the lecture into the time available;

ii.   limit the number of objectives in order to hold the attention of the class;

iii.   give examples and illustrations and break the lecture into parts;

iv.   introduce the lesson in an effective way; for instance using humour or surprise;

v.   have a sketch or a lesson plan, but be ready to improvise as the lecture progresses;

vi.   provide ample opportunities for oral questions and answers with the learners;

vii.   develop effective gestures, physical movements and a good voice range in order to fix the attention of the class;

viii.   hit the same point several times in different ways;

ix.   keep the lecture as short as possible;

x.   in long lectures, summarise frequently;

xi.   modify your lecture as the situation demands;

xii.   provide a fitting ending to the lecture.

3.2 Story Telling Method

Stories are often told for entertainment. In Political Science, stories must be used as a means to an end; as a method of teaching facts and concepts.

You should have a collection of stories about political figures who have died. Such stories could be told in class to illustrate leadership or citizenship. This as where history and Political Science may cross each other's path (Olawepo, 2003).

The story of how Colonel Nzeogwu staged the first *coup de tat* in Nigeria is worth telling. The same is true of the independence ceremony of October 1, 1960.

3.3   Repetition and Drill Method

According to Clark (1973), repetition is important in skill and concept development. It gives opportunities to re-enforce and refine skills and to amplify concepts. You should use repetition to refine something already learnt. Concepts like citizenship need continual reinforcement. The stages involved in primary and general elections could be repeated also.

You could use oral instructions, written instructions, tape recording, or teaching session for review and drill. Judicious use of memorisation is a good form of drill and repetition. You should use demonstrations and repeat the demonstrations as necessary.

3.4   Review Method

Review is not quite the same as repetition and drill. Review is a re-teaching. It does not require drill techniques as such. Review is used whenever there is need to tie up and consolidate learning.

Review could be done at the end of each lesson, or at the beginning of the next lesson. It could also be done near the end of the unit. In short, you should review or re-teach at any time it seems that you need to tie loose ends together (Clark, 1973).

The ordinary oral quiz in which you ask questions requiring factual answers is drill, not review. During the review you could allow students to refer to their textbooks or notebooks for information. This is called open-text review.

3.5 Note-giving Method

This method takes three forms. Sometimes the teacher interrupts his formal lecture every now and then, and then writes summary notes on the board. At the tail end of the lesson the learners copy the notes into their notebooks. This is a practice you could adopt (Olawepo, 2003).

Sometimes the teacher talks for about three-quarters of the lesson and then dictates notes for the remaining time. It is even a practice that the teacher dictates his notes from the beginning to the end of the lesson. This form of note-giving is bad. It leads to a lifeless classroom atmosphere.

3.6 Controlled Question and Answer Method

Daughtrey (1974) has described controlled question-and-answer method of teaching as a teacher-oriented method. The teacher knows in advance what answer will be acceptable. Questioning by the teacher usually requires the answer from his lectures. This may be followed by some brief elaboration by the teacher on an answer.

Through this method the teacher can find a starting point of teaching a new topic from his students' present knowledge. Sometimes a student may be allowed to ask for an explanation, or ask a follow-up question.

3.7 Self Assessment Exercise

1. Use the lecture method to introduce the topic "Functions of a parliament".
2. Find out the story of the Aba riots of 1935 and give a summary of the story.
3. Practice repeating the steps involved in primary elections among your students
4. How would you conduct a review of the political ideas of Karl Max?
5. Which form of note-giving is good?
6. Write out two questions you would ask students in order to find out their previous knowledge on "Political Socialisation" as a topic.

4.0   Conclusion

The unit has covered six types of teacher-centred methods of teaching. These are the lecture, story telling, drill, review, note-giving, and controlled question-answer method. There is no one single best method of teaching. You are therefore free to use any of them. Or better still, combine two or more methods to teach a single lesson.

5.0   Summary

Teacher-centred methods are those in which the teacher does most of the activities. These are teaching activities which may not lead to learning because of the little or no active involvement of the learners.

The six methods you learnt about are the lecture, story-telling, drill, review, question-answer and note giving. The lecture method is the most used technique of teaching. It should be used more frequently in institutions of higher learning than in secondary schools to teach Political Science.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assigment

1a.   List six teacher-centred methods of teaching.

b.   Prepare a lecture on the role of pressure groups in the political process.

References/Further Readings

Clark, L.H. (1973). *Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Daughtrey, A.S. (1974). *Methods of basic business and economic education*. Cincinnai: South Western Publishing Co.

Jekayinfa, A.A. (2005). *Fundamentals of Instructional methods*. Ilorin: Nathadex Publishers.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and Instruction in Social Studies*. Ilorin: Nathadex Publishers.

Module Two

Unit 3: Learner-Centred Methods of Teaching Political Science

Contents
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content

4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
   6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments
7.0 References

1.0 Introduction

In Unit 4, six teacher-oriented methods of teaching Political Science were discussed. In unit 5 you will learn ten student-oriented methods of teaching Political Science. A student learns best when the action is centered on him/her. He/she should be reading, discussing, looking, listening, analyzing, writing and thinking. The student-centred methods put the action where it belongs. The centre of attention is the student, not the teacher or the textbook (Daughtrey, 1974). The student-centred methods create a far better atmosphere for learning than the student-centred methods.

It would be difficult to discuss all the methods that could be classified as student-oriented methods. The ten methods highlighted below are only the major ones (Corbin, 1983).

2.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

i.   describe the characteristics of each of the student-centred methods.
ii.   Use the student-centred methods judiciously

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Inquiry Method

According to Olawepo (2003), inquiry method is a process of investigating and rational thinking which leads to a variety of answers which may or may not be the only answers. You could have students inquire into whether the president should spend a term of ten years or two terms of four years each. The principal objective in all inquiry teaching is for the learners to think carefully about ideas, problems or issues under consideration. The role of the teacher is to provide controversial topics and stimulate the learners to think for themselves (Daughtrey, 1974; DuBey and Barth, 1980).

3.2   Discovery Method

Discovery method, like inquiry method, is a process of investigating and logical thinking; but discovery, unlike inquiry, leads to a definite acceptable answer (Olawepo, 2003). Students could be asked to search in the textbook or in any other sources, the stages that a bill goes through before it becomes law. The acceptable answer is known by you the teacher. Yet you could ask the students to find this out using the discovery method.

3.3 Problem-Solving Method

Problem-solving involves both inquiry and discovery processes. Most problem-solving activities are long-term assignments, taking several days or weeks. In problem-solving, either as individuals or groups, learners attempt real problems (Clark, 1973 and Daughtrey, 1974).

The following processes characterize the problem-solving method:

i.   Teacher becomes aware of a problem, such as curbing election violence in Nigeria.
ii.   Teacher defines the problem, or isolate or describe its limits and characteristics.
iii.   Learners make reasonable guesses or provide possible solutions (called hypotheses) for the solution of the problem.
iv.   Students gather information and data to be used to test the hypotheses.
v.   Students reject those hypotheses if the do not meet their position and accept those hypotheses that do.

A project is a type of problem-solving activity. It usually results in some tangible product, such as a map or a booklet.

3.4 Springboard Method

A springboard is any type of presentation or material that can be used as a point of departure for investigation or discussion (Clark, 1973). Springboards may be pictures, models, archeological remains, parables or stories. For example, you could tell the simple story about certificate forgery by the former Speaker of the House of Representatives in Abuja for which he was forced to resign. You could then ask students to point out ideas and draw their own conclusions.

3.5 Case Study Method

The case study method of teaching Political Science consists of a fairly intense study of one personality or a political institution or an issue. The aim is to make generalizations concerning the class of personalities or institutions (Daughtrey, 1974). For instance there are thirty-six State Houses of Assembly in Nigeria. You could arrange for a deep study of a typical one. You could then encourage the learners to generalize concerning all of them.

3.6 Role Playing

Role-playing carries the case study a step further toward realism in that the students play out the roles instead of analyzing those reported in the case. Role-playing is a simulation in which students learn to solve problems and make decisions in contrived situations (Corbin, 1983, Daughtrey, 1974 and Olawepo, 2003). The mock trial in law is an example involving lawyers, a clerk, a police orderly and a judge. Through it, students experience legal procedures in a simulated courtroom setting. Students are allowed to make spontaneous responses in life-like situations. Besides, disclosing his knowledge, about the subject matter, the role-player will reveal the way he reacts to the unexpected action of others. The mock campaign referred in Unit 2 is another example.

You have to plan the role-play which is, infact, a playlet. You do this by setting the scene and sketching the roles to be played. You have to let the students choose their lines based on what other players say as the playlet progresses. An evaluation (or debriefing) must follow the play-acting. If you tape the situation, you have an opportunity of feedback and discussion.

3.7 Small Group Discussion

The whole class discussion method is not an ideal situation for student participation and learning. From time to time, you should divide the class into groups or clusters of about five or six students. They will work for a few minutes to discuss a certain issued assigned by you. After appointing a leader and a recorder for each cluster, assign each

a problem to brainstorm and draw conclusion upon. Each group may work on a different problem or aspects of the same problem.

Small groups allow for individual instruction, and help provide for the many differences in students by allowing them to participate. Small group work promotes effective learning (Corbin, 1983).

3.8   Home work

You should give only a reasonable amount of homework. Try to avoid overloading the learners because other teachers will assign take-home assignments too. The use of weekly rather than daily homework assignments prevent the bunching of homework assignments. Such homework assignments should enrich the learners and not be just busy work. Take-home assignment should be corrected.

3.9   Supervised Study

Supervised study is a class time activity monitored by the teacher. You may think that for learners to study in class is a waste of class time. Studying is the core of learning. It should not be entirely relegated to homework and lesson-hearing sessions. In such a supervised study, you can observe learners' study procedures and guide them in their studying.

3.10   Field Work

Work done outside the class is called field work. A local visit or a long distance expedition can be organized to places of interest to do field work. The former should feature regularly, say monthly in Political Science teaching because it may take only one or two hours. Places of Political Science interest for local visits may include palaces of traditional rulers, local government secretariats, House of Assembly, as well as magistrate or high courts. Activities to be regarded as field work include measuring, observing, interviewing and recording (Chiodo, 1981 and Olawepo, 2003).

3.11 Self Assessment Exercise

1. Whether to use electronic voting or not has been a controversial topic, How would you handle this in class using the inquiry method?

2. The Socratic Method, a guided discussion method, is the oldest type of discovery method. Find out its main characteristics

3. Define a springboard.

4. Plan a role-play of an executive council meeting in a Government House

5. Divide a hypothetical class into four clusters. What would each cluster do if you were to teach different systems of government; democracy and dictatorship in class time.

6. List two different Political Science problems or topics that can be assigned as take-home assignments after a lesson on functions of local governments

7. Mention two difficulties that you envisage in using supervised study method

8. Draw up list of questions that could be used for interview by your students on a field trip to a palace.

4.0   Conclusion

Teaching is much more than presenting information, or even presenting ideas. It also include: guiding learners to learn by means of the probing, discovering and analysing and examining activities. Student-oriented methods guide learners to learn.

With the existence of ten major student-centred methods of teaching as well as six teacher-oriented ones, the problem of selecting those to be used in any lesson to bring

about learning looms large. You require considerable skill and knowledge to be able to choose and use two or more methods in every lesson.

5.0   Summary

The ten major student-oriented methods of teaching Political Science are: inquiry, discovery, problem-solving, springboard, case study, role playing, small group discussion, homework, supervised study and fieldwork. Any of these could be used along with the lecture method. In this way the need to cover much ground in the course plan is met. At the same time, learners would learn in practical and participatory ways.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1a.   Distinguish between inquiry and discovery methods

b.   Discuss the steps you would take to teach a specified topic using the problem-solving method.

7.0   References

DuBey, D.L. & Barth, J.L. (1980). *Social Studies: The Inquiry approach*. Lagos: Nelson Publishers.

Chiodo, J.J. & Gross, R.E. (1981). Local issues plus student involvement equals citizenship. *The Social Studies*. 22 (5), 225-228.

L.H. (1973). *Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Corbin, H. (Ed) (1983). *Social Studies methods for teachers*. Lagos: NERC/Heinemann Books.

Daughtrey, A.S. (1974). *Methods of basic business and economic education*. Cincinnati: South Western Publishing Co.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and Instruction in Social Studies*. Ilorin.

Module Three

Unit 1: Learning Materials for Teaching Political Science

Contents

1.0   Introduction

In the preceding units, you learnt how to prepare for the teaching of Political Science. The preparation for teaching the discipline is at three levels: course planning, unit planning and lesson planning. You will now learn how to implement a lesson plan. To begin with you will learn how to use learning materials. A generous use of learning materials will do much to ensure the realization of a good Political Science programme.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

i.   classify learning materials in a meaningful way;

ii.   select learning materials using proper criteria;

iii.   use print materials, like textbooks, profitably;

iv.   use non-profit materials, like pictures, profitably.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Categories of Learning Materials
There are many types of learning materials. Learning materials can be grouped in several ways. For instance, you can distinguish between print and non-print materials (Olawepo, 2003). Print materials include textbooks, newspapers, magazines, charts, maps and classroom library. Non-print materials, on the other hand, include flat pictures, television, radio, costumes, local environment and models. You can also distinguish between auditory, visual and audio-visual materials. Visual materials (or learning aids) include books, newspapers, flash cards, handbills, flat pictures, films, globes, and regalia. Auditory materials are radio, records, tape recordings. The television is an audio-visual learning materials because it combines sound and sight.

3.2   Selection of Learning Materials
In the selection of any learning material, the criteria to be adopted to achieve the desired objectives must be uppermost in the mind of the teacher (Jarolimek, 1977). These criteria are that the materials selected should:

i.   be the ones that will stimulate the learners and promote learning;

ii.   be suited to the development level of the learners; younger learners and need many more concrete and first-hand experiences than older ones;

iii.   take into account the wide range of intellectual and achievement differences among the learners; the materials used in any occasion should include concrete and abstract ones;

iv.   be carefully evaluated before they are used; it is not good enough to use materials just because they are available; the quality of the material must be ascertained; and

v.   be the ones the teacher can use; no material is self-teaching in all its entirety; materials require a teacher to use skillfully before learning can take place.

3.3 Print Learning Materials

3.3.1 Textbooks, Magazines and Newspapers

Textbooks are the principal learning materials in most schools. Textbooks on Political Science or Government include those written by Akinbade (2008), Oyebola and Ojebabi (1971), Ologbenla (2001), Ball (1975), Adebayo (1984) and Odumosu (1993).

Teachers should use textbooks as:
i.   basic reading in the classroom;
ii.   a basis for discussion or project work;
iii.   sources of take-home assignments;
iv.   sources of examination questions.

Apart from textbooks, you should use periodical magazines and daily newspapers; Newspapers include *The Nation*, *Nigerian Tribune*, *The Herald*, *The National Pilot*, *Vanguard*, *This Day*, and *The Compass*. Magazines on sale in Nigeria include: *The Tell*, *Newsweek*, *Newswatch*, *Source*, *The Westerner*, *The Scroll*, *The News*.

Magazines are similar to newspapers in their functions, but their publishers have the advantages of having time to write more stories and of being free to concern themselves less with the news of the moment and more with issues of national importance. However, both carry items on political behaviour and political actors (Olawepo, 2003).

You should use items of political importance in the newspapers and magazines as:
i.   weekly reading among students;
ii.   displays on classroom walls of headlines about politics, government and political actors;
iii.   as springboards for discussions in class, weekly.

The items should be cut out and mounted on cardboard for keeps.

3.3.2 Newspaper and Magazine Pictures

Both newspapers and magazines sometimes carry large flat pictures that are of political significance. As teachers of Political Science, you should collect such pictures. You should mount these pictures on cardboards and provide titles written at the back.

You should use flat pictures as springboards to:

i.   arouse interest and attract attention;

ii.   stimulate discussion;

iii.   supply political information or as a study guide; and

iv.   clarify meanings in the political process as a preparation for further study and research (Clark, 1973).

3.4   Non-print Learning Materials

3.4.1 Geographical Environment

The local environment contains materials that can be used to teach Political Science. Museums, palaces, courts, legislative houses and offices of political parties, could be visited by the learners in company of the teacher. The visit could be a short one, lasting a few hours or a long one lasting two or more days. After the visit, there must be a follow-up lesson to discuss what the learners saw and learnt. The lesson may end up with a writing or oral composition to bring out the main points relevant to Political Science concepts (Olawepo, 2003).

3.4.2 Instructional Films and Videos

You could use videos and films to accomplish the objectives that cannot be attained by the use of books and other materials. Television can span both time and space in bringing relevant political events into the classroom in capsule form. Television can usually transport learners to the areas they are studying. Also television can provide information not available through other sources. No other medium can make it possible for a learner to witness the inauguration of the president taking place hundreds of miles away.

You should collect videos carrying events of political significance. You could also borrow films from the libraries of television stations and governmental agencies.

You should introduce the video or the film so that the viewers know what to look for. After the show, discuss the moving picture and follow it up with written work. This is to make it evident to the learners that the moving pictures are not just for recreation (Corbin, 1981).

3.4.3 Tapes and Records

You should let the record player have a place in Political Science classes. You may use the tape recorder:

i.   to record interviews with political actors and play back in class;

ii.   to record committee meetings, legislative debates for class use;

iii.   to record radio presentations and telecasts of political events and speeches for use in class later; and

iv.   in class as springboards for thought and discussion to clarify and/or change attitudes (Clark, 1973).

3.6 Self Assessment Exercise

1. Distinguish between print and non-print materials.
2. List five considerations a teacher must be put in place before selecting a learning material.
3. Assemble **two** articles from either newspapers or magazines to illustrate the electoral process in Nigeria.
4. Collect two large pictures to show political actors in Nigeria.
5. List five materials in the local environment that can furnish political learning.
6. Outline the functions of television in bringing relevant political events into the classroom.
7. What do you use tape recordings as springboard for ?

4.0   Conclusion

Learning materials are aids that are used to make lessons interesting and learning effective and efficient. Out of the wide array of materials you have learnt the use of:

i.   textbooks, magazines and newspapers;

ii.   newspaper and magazines pictures;

iii.   materials available in the geographical environment;

iv.   instructional videos and films; and

v.   tapes and records.

The emphasis in modern Political Science programmes is on the use of multimedia approach. This means that the teacher will use several materials to make the subject vital and interesting to learners.

5.0   Summary

There are several ways of categorising learning materials. In this unit, the print and non-print categories have been emphasised. In selecting which materials to use, you should consider a number of things, including the developmental level of the students and their intellectual differences. Textbooks, magazines and newspapers as well as flat pictures have been discussed as print materials. The non-print materials you have learnt are geographical environment, video/films and tape recordings.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1   a.   List three examples of print learning materials

       b.   Mention two non-print learning materials

       c.   How would you use textbooks and tape recordings to promote learning in Political Science classes?

7.0   References/Further Readings

Adebayo, A. (1984).*Principles of public administration in Nigeria.* London: John Willey and Sons.

Akinbade, J.A. (2008). *Government explained.* Lagos: Macak Book Ventures.

Ball, A.R. (1975). *Modern politics and government*. London: The Macmillian.

Clark, L.H. (1978). *Teaching Social Studies in secondary schools.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Corbin, H. (1981). Resources for teaching Social Studies. In N.E.R.C (ed.) *The concept and scope of Social Studies*. Ibadan: Onibonoje, 27-33.

Jarolimek, J. (1977). *Social Studies in elementary education.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Odumosu, O.I. (1963). *The Nigerian constitution: History and development.* London: Sweet and Maxwell.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and instruction in Social Studies.* Ilorin:

Ologbenla, D.K. (2001). *Introduction to Political Science.* Lagos: Olucity Press.

Oyebola, A. & Ojelabi, A. (1971). *A textbook on Government for West Africa*. Ibadan: Educational Research Institute.

Module Three

Unit 2: Learning Human Resources for Teaching Political Science

Contents

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
  3.1 Teachers as Resource Persons
  3.2 Learners as Resource Persons
  3.3 Guest Speakers as Resource Persons
  3.4 Interviewed Political Actors as Resource Persons
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References

1.0 Introduction

In unit 1, you learnt about the use of material resources such as textbooks, magazines, videos and tape recording in teaching Political Science. In this unit you will learn how people in the school and the outside community can assist you in enhancing learning in Political Science classes. Human resources for learning are in four categories, namely: the teachers, the learners, the guest speakers and the political actors interviewed.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the lesson, you should be able to:
 i. Recognise teachers of Political Science as learning resources;
 ii. Make use of learners as resource persons;
 iii. Make use of guest speakers as resource persons; and
 iv. Identify political actors to be interviewed as resource persons

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Teachers as Resource Persons

You as a teacher, should consider yourself as person and as a professional. You are the foremost resource for teaching. You have a lot to offer your learners in the classroom and outside the community (Adendoff, Foster and Walter, 2008). You are the organiser, guide and implementer of the learning activities. You have to offer model language, model behaviour and transfer of knowledge. Your education, training and experience will be useful in performing these tasks. You have to keep on learning by reading books, magazines, newspapers and other reading materials.

3.2   Learners as Resource Persons

You should adopt the learner-centred approaches in your classroom practice. Any learner-centred approach advises you to see the learners as the focus of classroom interaction. This is an excellent principle for resource based learning, since the learners themselves become an important resource. They bring their background knowledge, interests, aptitudes, values and life experiences to bear on teaching (Adendoff, Foster and Walter, 2008). They have watched or even participated in the political process. They probably have notable political actors as brothers, fathers and mothers.

*   Learners can be peer tutors mentoring their classmates. They can also be educators of younger learners. Learners can be collectors of material resources from the surrounding.
*   Learners can be creative participants in classroom interaction.
*   Learners may be given opportunity to participate in school activities that promote civic learning. For example, they can serve as members of the school council. They can also serve as members of the safety patrol or playground monitors (Jarolimek, 1977).

You should give occasional opportunity to learners to invite political party officials and government employees to the class to explain the problem, procedures and services of their agency or arm of government (Clark, 1977).

You could let learners interview prominent functionaries in the legislature, executive and judicial arms of government. Such interviews should be tape recorded to replay to the class. During election times, you could have Political Science students cover the elections. They can study and report on the parties' campaign methods, election rules and voting procedures.

To conduct mock campaign, you should separate the class into two parties and non-partisan groups active in the community elections. Once learners find suitable positions in these parties and groups, they carry out the actual activities, persons in such positions would perform. The mock parties form platforms and select candidates to represent actual campaigners. The mock candidates and campaign manager map out detailed strategies with mock party workers. During the mock election the total student body serves as the public and as potential voters (Clark, 1977).

The political practicum is a programme of laboratory and field exercises in the realm of practical politics prior to and during primary and general elections. In this practicum, students serve with political leaders in the local political organisation at ward level. By working directly with political actors for at least two weeks and correlating classroom learning with laboratory field practice, students will learn about political realities in such area as registration of voters, campaigning for votes and casting of votes. Planning the political practicum requires detailed work. But you should try it with your students occasionally (Clark, 1973).

3.3 Guest Speakers as Resource Persons

Every community is rich in resource persons who are political actors. They include legislators, commissioners, special advisers, traditional rulers and political party leaders. You should invite them into the classroom as visiting teachers occasionally. The coming of a visiting teacher must be seen as a special occasion. It is an opportunity to teach learners in a fresh and lively way. The same lesson by the class teacher will be much less interesting. The use of guest speakers, in this way, provides variety (Olawepo, 2003).

3.4 Interviewed Political Actors as Resource Persons

As discussed in this unit, section 3.2, students can be made to go and interview selected political actors. You as a teacher can also do the same. In both cases, the interview should be tape recorded (Lawton and Dufour, 1976).

A telephone interview in which all learners can hear the interviewee and even ask questions can be very profitable; but it is expensive.

3.5 Self Assessment Exercise

1. List five things that you have to collect as learning materials for Political Science
2. Plan a mock political campaign with a hypothetical SS 3 class
3. List the steps you would take in inviting a legislator at the local government level into the classroom.
4. List five different political actors that your students can interview.

4.0 Conclusion

There are at least four categories of human resources who the teacher can identify and use. Teachers may easily forget that they themselves and their students are invaluable resource persons. They can be used very frequently Guest speakers and interviews who are political actors are also learning resources. They can be used occasionally.

5.0   Summary

Four categories of human resources are: teachers themselves, learners, guest speakers and interviewees. The role of the teachers is pivotal. He is the one to direct and manage the use of the other three categories of human resources.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.   a.   Outline four major categories of learning human resources.

      b.   Describe the various ways by which students can be used as resources to promote learning in Political Science classes.

7.0   References / Further Readings

Addendoff, M. Foster, L. & Walter, B. (2008). *Core module component 5: resource-based learning.* Ilorin: Kwara State Education Sector Project.

Clark, L.H. (1973). *Teaching Social Studies in secondary schools.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Lawton, D. & Dufour, B. (1976). *The new Social Studies,* 2nd Edition. London: Heinemann.

Jarolimek, J. (1977). *Social Studies in elementary education.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and instruction in Social Studies.* Ilorin

Module Four: Measuring and Evaluating Students' Learning in Political Science

Unit 1: Classifying the Tools of Measuring and Evaluating Students' Learning

Contents

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Meaning of Evaluation
        3.2   Classification of Teacher-Made Tests on the Basis of Item Format
        3.3   Grouping of Tests Based on Stimulus Material
        3.4   Categorizing Tests Based on Purpose and Use
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References

1.0   Introduction

Module 1, Unit1 to 4 have discussed the subject matter of Political Science. Module 2 Units1 and 2 as well as Module 3 Unit 1 to 3 have covered the major resources and methods which teachers could use to teach the subject matter. The goal of instruction is students' learning. Therefore in Module 4, you will learn the tools of measuring, testing and evaluating students' learning performance. In this unit, you will also learn how educationists classify evaluation tools.

1.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

i.   define and explain the term evaluation
ii.   classify teacher-made tests according to item format
iii.   group tests on the basis of stimulus material
iv.   categorise tests based on the purpose and use of tests.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Evaluation

Evaluation, as a concept, is derived from the root, <u>value</u> and the stem, <u>evaluate</u>. Evaluation can thus be defined as the process of passing judgment on the value (or worth) of an object, a person, an event or a thing (Lawal, 2004). Evaluation in education, has been defined as a systematic process of determining the extent to which instructional objectives are achieved by learners (Gronlund, 1976:11). The definition clearly indicates that evaluation in the school setting is closely tied to instructional objectives. According to DuBey, Onyabe and Prokupek (1977), evaluation is carried out to assess the extent to which set objectives have been achieved and effect necessary changes for improvement.

Learning objectives like those set out at the beginning of a lesson plan, identify what is to be accomplished by the learners. This is the beginning of instruction. Actual procedures of interacting with the learners using proper methods and materials indicate how the objectives are to be achieved. Finally, evaluation determines how well or how far, the procedures have achieved the objectives. Thus, there is a relationship between objectives, procedures and evaluation.

There are several tools of evaluation. These include observations, checklists, rating scales, records of behaviour, objective tests, essay tests and interview. Tests are by far the most commonly used in the classroom to measure students' learning in the areas of knowledge, understanding and other cognitive outcomes. Measuring students' learning involves gathering information on students' activities. This is called assessment, Evaluation is the process of interpreting the information gathered (Adendoff, Foster and Walter, 2008).

3.2   Classification of Tests by Item Format

The structure or format of tests can be used to group them into free-response (Subjective) and objective types. Free-response type includes essay tests or tests requiring short-sentence answers. They demand subjective judgment or scoring.

Objective tests, on the other hand, involve objective scoring because there is only one correct response for each item.

3.3   Grouping of Tests Based on Stimulus Material

The novel material used to present the problem and upon which the question(s) are based is called stimulus material. It could be a video, a textbook, a model, an artifact. The material may be verbal or non-verbal. Hence, there are two man categories of verbal and non-verbal tests based on stimulus material (Lawal, 2004).

3.4   Categorising Tests on the Basis of Purpose and Use

There are four areas where test results can be useful. Therefore there are four types of tests based on use (Lawal, 2004)

3.4.1   Criterion/Norm-Referenced Tests

Evaluation is a means to an end. When you construct and administer a test, you must bear in mind how you are going to interpret learners' scores in relation to your objective. If the test is designed to evaluate the learners' mastery of an instructional objective in Political Science, the test is tagged criterion-referenced. This implies that you are interested in describing the status of each student in a test situation. The result could be that a student got 50% of the items correct, for example. You may interpret this performance as average or quiet fair

Tests may be designed to show how the performance of particular student compares with the performance of other students. By scoring 50%, the student could have performed better than half of all the students. This type of test is said to be norm-referenced. The main purpose to assess how each student performs as compared to other students taking the test.

3.4.2   Achievement/Performance Tests

Achievement tests to focus on the amount of principles, facts and concepts which learners have mastered as a result of your instruction. However, in addition, you may want to assess the extent to which learners can carry out the practical aspect of learning. These are called performance tests.

3.4.3 Diagnostic/Prognostic Tests

Let us assume that your last lesson proved unsuccessful as revealed by learner's general performance/achievement. You must take steps to correct or remedy the learners' problems in the following lesson(s). That is, you are undertaking a diagnostic evaluation. If on the other hand, the last lesson proved successful, you may undertake a prognostic evaluation by building the learners' achievement in the last lesson into your plan for the next lesson(s).

3.4.4 Formative/Summative Tests

In the course of instruction you have to evaluate and monitor learners' progress through your questions as well as learners' questions. In doing this, you have to give feedback to the students. This is known as formative evaluation. After that you will evaluate the outcomes of your lesson in terms of learners' progress after lesson, or after a series of lessons. This is known as summative evaluation.

3.5 Self Assessment Exercise

1. Define evaluation
2. Describe one feature to distinguish between subjective and objective tests
3. Diagnostic evaluation is correcting learners' problems in the _____ lessons
4. Prognostic evaluation is building _____ into lessons
5. Evaluation done during a lesson is _____ while that done at the end of a lesson is _____

4.0 Conclusion

Evaluation in the school setting is the process of passing judgment on the extent to which learning objectives have been achieved by the learners. Evaluation is therefore

closely related to what the learning objectives are. It is also related to the methods and materials used by the teacher to achieve the objectives. Tests are the most common tools of evaluation.

5.0   Summary

Tests are usually classified into four pair groups:

i.   criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests;

ii.   achievement and performance tests;

iii.   diagnostic and prognostic tests; and

iv.   formative and summative tests

The goal in all cases is to test the extent of students' learning in the areas of knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes. When students are assessed as individuals or when students are compared with one another, we are using tests as criterion-referenced or norm-referenced. This is the most common use of tests. When students are assessed continuously in a lesson, this is formative evaluation or continuous assessment.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1a.   Define evaluation

b.   Distinguish between the following pairs of concepts:

      i.   criterion-references and norm-referenced tests

      ii.   achievement and performance tests

      iii.   diagnostic and prognostic tests

      iv.   formative and summative tests

7.0   References/Further Readings

Addendoff, M., Foster, L. & Walter, B. (2008). *Core-Module Component 3: Assessment*. Ilorin: State Education Sector Project.

DuBey, D.L., Onyabe, V.O. and Prokupek, P.E. (1977). *Social Studies methods for Nigerian teachers: Learning activities*. Zaria: Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University.

Gronlund, N.E. (1976). *Measurement and evaluation in Teaching*. New York: Harper and Row.

Lawal, B. (2004). *Types and uses of tests*. In I.O. Abimbola and A.O. Abolade (eds). *Fundamental principles and practice of instruction*. Ilorin: Tunde-Babs Printers, 340-360.

Module Four:

Unit 2: Constructing Objective Tests in Political Science

Table of Contents

1.0   Introduction

In unit 1, you learnt that there are at least seven major evaluation tools. You also learnt that tests are the most common evaluation devices. In this unit, you will learn how to construct objective test as an evaluation tool. Five types of objective tests will be discussed. These are alternative response (or alternative answer), multiple choice, matching, completion and arrangement (rank-order) test items.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to;

i.   design a test plan to ensure fair distribution of test items over the course content and course objectives.

ii.   list the steps involved in writing objective test items.

iii.   write examples of the six types of objective test mentioned above.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Development of a Test Plan
The conscientious Political Science teacher usually draws up the list of objectives before teaching any unit or lesson. Such a list furnishes a very useful guide for the instruction as well as help to ensure that the achievement tests are valid.

After deciding what types and levels of learning you wish to measure, your next step in planning a test is to list the general topics or areas which were studied during the period that the test is to cover (Okunrotifa, 1977). These general topics may be certain parts of the course or unit plan, or topics in a book. An example of the major topics which senior secondary school students may have studied in Political Science in a certain testing period is as follows:

A Unit Plan for Two Weeks
1.1   Political parties
1.2   Party systems
1.3   Pressure groups
1.4   Public opinion

These topics are taken from Akinlade (2008).

After specifying the content to be covered you prepare the test blueprint. A suggested blueprint or table of specification is shown in the table below. The development of a table of specification ensures that the items are reliable and valid.

Table of specification for an Achievement Tests on a two-week unit

S/N	Content Area	Objectives			
		Recall 42%	**Understanding 30%**	**Inference 28%**	**Total 100%**
1	Political party (20%)	4	3	3	10
2	Party systems (40%)	8	6	6	20
3	Pressure groups (20%)	4	3	3	10
4	Public opinion (20%)	4	3	3	10
	Total (100%)	**20**	**15**	**15**	**50**

The test has 50 objective-type items. In the extreme left hand column are the four content areas, while the top rows show the three objectives for the unit. In all there are twelve (12) cells to be filled. (Count these in the table above).

Weighting of both the content areas and the objectives is done by assigning percentage to each content area as well as to each objective. For the content areas the percentages are 20, 40, 20 and 20, adding up to 100 percent. For the objectives, the percentages are 42, 30 and 28, adding up to 100 percent. The percentages reflect the relative importance you attach to each content and objective.

The total numbers of items for each of the four content areas are 10, 20, 10 and 10 making up 50 items (see column in extreme right). The total numbers of items for the three objectives are 20, 15, 15 adding up to 50 items (see bottom row).

The number of items in each of the twelve cells can be completed by using the specified percentages either on the top row or the ones on the extreme left column. For example, suppose you want to complete the number of items in cell number 1, you do it this way:

Total number of items for content area $= 10$

Percentage of objective $1 = 42$

Therefore, number of items in Cell 1

$$= \frac{42}{100} \times 10 = 4.2, \text{ or 4 items (approximately)}$$

This number has been inserted in cell 1 in the table above for you to see

3.2 Writing the Objective Test Items

Writing good objective test items is not the easy task many teachers believe it to be. The task requires a substantial amount of time, a great deal of patience, a certain amount of creativity and a thorough knowledge of the subject matter (Okunrotifa, 1977).

As each item is written you must put yourself in the position of the test-taker or examinee. You should try to answer the questions yourself. You may wish to ask yourself such self-evaluation questions as:

i.   Have I inadvertently provided clues in the items to help the candidates with the answer?

ii.   Is the item unclear?

iii.   Is the item too difficult or too easy?

iv.   Does the item deal with unimportant contents?

v.   Is the item too long?

vi.   Is the item not related to important course objectives?

The answers to these questions should be negative. The writing of good test items if based on such considerations listed above is guaranteed (Clark, 1973). With experience you can become skillful in writing good test items.

3.3　Qualities of a Good Test-Maker

According to Okunrotifa (1977), the effective writing of suitable test items is related to some definite qualities in the item writer. You as an tem writer or maker must have the following basic qualities:

i.　You must have a thorough mastery of Political Science. Your mastery of the subject matter helps you to know the type of questions which deal with superficial content ad those which deal with important content. You will be able to answer the questions correctly, if you master the subject.

ii.　You must have a broad approach to educational objectives. You will not only set questions dealing with knowledge recall, you will also set those that deal with understanding, application and inference.

iii.　You must know the ability level of your students, the test-takers. If you do not, you will set too many easy questions and a few too difficult ones.

iv.　You must be precise in your use of words; you and the testee must speak the same language. This ensures that both of you understand the questions in the same way.

v.　You must be patient and painstaking. Item writing takes time and effort. Setting an objective test is much more tasking than setting an essay test. It is only when you are prepared to be patient and painstaking that you can produce useful items, across the different levels of objectives beyond recall of facts.

vi.　You must be self-critical and be ready to learn from the criticisms of other lecturers.

3.4　Samples of Objective Test Items

Sample 1:　Alternative response

Section A:　Circle the correct answer

1.　The Nigerian Civil War started in 1967 (True / False)

2.　Nineteen States were created in 1976 (True / False)

Section B:　In the space provided before each statement write plus (+) if it is true; minus (-) if it is false; zero (0) if it is only an opinion.

1. The attainment of independence by Nigeria in 1960 solved no political problems _____

2. Only a two-party system is suitable for Nigeria _____

3. There are three major arms of government _____

Sample 2:   Multiple choice

Section A: Select the best answer and write the letter in the space provided

(   )   A village chief is

(a)   selected by the people

(b)   selected by the Local Government

(c)   Appointed by the State Government

(d)   chosen by members of the royal family

(e)   chosen by all of the above

Section B: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, is an example of a constitution. Circle the correct number

1 Clifford 2 Centralization 3 Legislature 4 Monarchy 5 Democracy

Sample 3:   Matching

Section A: Put M if the item is associated with General Murtala; if it is associated with General Olusegun Obasanjo, Mark O; mark G if it is associated with General Yakubu Gowon.

(   )   Operation Feed the Nation

(   )   National Youth Service Corps

(   )   Creation of 19 States

(   )   Location of the new Federal
            Capital Territory

(   )   1999 constitution

Section B: Select the correct answer from the reference list and place the letter of the answer in the entry list next to the corresponding question.

Entry List   **Reference List**

_____ Democracy   1.   total control of all activities

_____ Monarchy   2.   based on private firms

_____ Socialism   3.   based on ownership of land

_____ Capitalism   4.   working class rule

_____ Feudalism   5.   based on nobility

6.   based on heredity

7.   rule by a single party

8.   involvement of the people

Sample 4:   **Completion**

Section A:

1.   The first Governor General of Nigeria was _____

2.   The presidential system of government was begun in Nigeria in _____

Sample 5:   **Arrangement (rank – order)**

Section A: Arrange the following events in order by placing 1 in front of the earliest event; 2 in front of the next event and so on.

_____   Sir Arthur Richards Constitution

_____   Civil War started in Nigeria

_____   First election in Nigeria

_____   Creation of 36 states in Nigeria

3.5   Self Assessment Exercise

1. From the table of specification presented in this Unit, calculate the number of items for the cell corresponding to recall in topic 1.
2. List five basic considerations to take note for good objective test items to be written.
3. Mention what you consider the two most important qualities of a test item writer in Political Science.
4. Write out a five-item matching test.

4.0   Conclusion

Writing good objective test items begins with the development of a test blueprint. After getting the number of items you wish to include under each performance objective, you will write out the test items. You have to take certain precautions. You must prepare items to cover different sections of the course to be examined. Building

good items is difficult. Therefore save all your good test items. You may wish to tape them. You should give a major (full-period) test at the completion of every unit plan covering a week or two weeks.

5.0   Summary

Objective tests are evaluation tools. Five types or samples of objective test were discussed in this unit. They are alternative response, multiple choice, matching, completion and arrangement objective tests. You should be able to construct each of these after every major unit. You have learnt that the development of a blueprint to identify the number of items to be constructed under each topic in the unit and under each objective is of paramount importance. You have also learnt that you have to display a number of qualities in order to be able to write useful objective test items.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.   a.   List five major types or samples of objective test items
      b.   Prepare five different objective test items, using the unit plan contained in this unit under 3.1.

7.0   References

Akinbade, J.A. (2008). *Government explained.* Lagos: Macak Book Ventures.

DuBey, D.L., Onyabe, V.O. & Prokupek, P.E. (1977). *Social studies methods for Nigerian teachers: Learning activities.* Zaria: Institute of Education, ABU Zaria.

Clark, L.H. (1973). *Teaching social studies in secondary school.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Okunrotifa, P.O. (1977). *Evaluation in geography.* Ibadan: Oxford University Press.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and instruction in social studies*. Ilorin.

Module Four

Unit 3: Developing Essay Tests in Political Science

Contents

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Guidelines for Constructing Essay Tests
       3.2   Types of Essay Tests
       3.3   Scoring Answers to Essay Test Items
       3.4   Comparing Essay and Objective Tests
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References

1.0   Introduction

You learnt in unit 1 that objective and essay tests are the most common evaluation tools. In unit 2 you learnt the construction of objective test items. In this unit you will learn how to develop essay test items.

The significant features of essay tests are that the student answers only a relatively small number of items; that he organises his own answers; that he expresses these answers in his own words (Okunrotifa, 1977).

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to;
i.   identify guidelines for the development of essay test items;
ii.   construct ten different types of essay test items; and
iii.   score essay test items properly.

3.0   Main Content

3.1   Guidelines for Constructing Essay Tests

To realise fully the value of essay questions for evaluating students' learning requires that each question be carefully phrased. To this end, the following guidelines are given concerning the development of essay items.

The development of the test plan discussed in unit 2, module 3 is the first step in the construction of essay tests. After getting the number of items to be constructed you have to write the items in such a way that the task is clearly defined for the examinees (test-takers). This is why essay questions are usually started with such words or phrases as: *compare*, *give reasons for*, *explain* or *illustrate*. The test taker will know how to apply the information he has learnt.

Essay questions should be structured. The testee is thus bound to structure his/her own answers as well. The question may be broken into two or three separate topics. This is an example:

1.   a.   Describe four main features of democracy.
      b.   Contrast democracy with monarchy, citing two features.

Apart from limiting the amount of irrelevant material, the question above helps in the allocation of marks by dividing up the question.

The use of novel material or stimulus material is advantageous because the question presents the student with a situation which is probably new to him and not one for which he has specifically been prepared. A stimulus material may be a report or a story on Political Science. The student is expected to study the material and then answer the related question.

If several essay questions are to be set, you should make some to be difficult and others to be relatively easy. By varying the complexity or difficulty of the questions, you can obtain information on both the least and the most able students.

The popular idea of giving a choice of essay questions has adverse effect of reducing the common basis upon which different students may be compared. Therefore, it is good practice to include a compulsory question.

3.2   Types of Essay Test Items

Essay tests ask learners for some description, definition, explanation or analysis. They also test critical thinking as well as clearness of expression, not just recall of facts.

There are about ten major types of essay test items (Clark, 1973).

Type 1:   Listing item

List the major events leading to the Nigerian Civil War of 1967-1970

Type 2:   Definition item

Define the term, political socialization

Type 3:   Description item

Describe separation of powers

Type 4:   Illustration item

With references to a specific example, describe the major features of a bicameral legislature.

Type 5:   Explanation item

Explain the concept of the rule of law

Type 6:   Comparison item

Compare the British and French colonial systems of government

Type 7:   Summary item

Briefly review the foreign policy of Nigeria

Type 8:   Evaluation item

Why do you think a bi-cameral legislature is sometimes not necessary?

Type 9:   Interpretation item

Suppose military government was still in place in Nigeria, what would the Federal Government of Nigeria have been like today?

Type 10:   Creation of New Solution item

If the present electoral system in Nigeria were to be discarded, what type of electoral system would you advocate?

3.3   Scoring Answers to Essay Test Items

The most difficult aspect of essay testing is not the construction but the scoring of the students' answers (Okunrotifa, 1977). Both the construction and the scoring are however related. Well formulated questions would attract sound answers, which could be conveniently scored

Experience suggests the need to score the answers of the students anonymously, and also to mark all the answers to one a question before going to the next and so on. According to Okunrotifa (1977), the less one knows about who wrote an answer, the more objective is the marking. Also by reading the answers for question one for all the test-takers before going to the second one, you can maintain a more uniform set of standards in grading across papers.

You should use the analytical method in scoring answers to essay tests. This method requires the preparation of a marking scheme or marking guide. The correct answer to question is broken down into its component parts. Next the total number of raw score points allowed for the correct answer is distributed among the component parts. This analytic method is illustrated with a question taken from Akinbade (2008).

Questions

1a.   What is a unitary constitution?

b.   Outline five advantages and five disadvantages.

Marking Scheme: Total marks is 23

a.   Definition of unitary constitution – 2 marks. Explanation of the concept-1 mark

b.   Advantages of unitary constitution (2 marks for each of five points such as suitable for small countries and encouraging loyalty). Disadvantages of unitary constitution (2 marks for each of five points such as hindering local government and leading to dictatorship).

3.4   Comparing Objective and Essay Tests

Both objective and essay tests are valid. Therefore, you should use both in order to maximize their advantages.

The major advantages of objective tests, according to Clark (1977) and Olawepo (2003) are:

i.   They allow the examiner to cover much ground in the course plan and so force students to read wide.
ii.   They force students to keep their answers relevant
iii.   Objective tests can be scored easily, objectively and reliably
iv.   Objective tests measure knowledge of facts very well

The disadvantages of objective tests include:

i.   Being difficult to construct
ii.   Not testing critical thinking very well
iii.   Not testing ability to write

The major advantages of essay tests are:

i.   They test critical thinking very well
ii.   They test recall, ability to organise subject matter, ability to apply subject matter, ability to write and ability to think.
iii.   They are relatively easy to construct
iv.   They give the teacher the opportunity to comment directly on students' work.

The disadvantages of essay tests include;

i.   Being difficult to get an adequate sample; since only a few questions are set in any given test
ii.   Being difficult to mark objectively
iii.   Being liable to contain a lot of irrelevances

3.5 Self Assessment Exercise

      1. List five words or phrases with which to start essay questions

      2. Construct two types of essay test items; one on explanation and the other on interpretation

      3. Provide a marking scheme for this question which carries 20 marks.

            a. Define a rule of law.

            b. State five factors that influence the success of rule of law

      4. Mention two advantages of objective tests

      5. List two advantages of essay tests

4.0   Conclusion

The development of test plan as the first step in constructing essay test items is followed by writing clearly defined items. There are at least ten types of essay test items. Answers to these have to be scored using a marking scheme. Essay tests are used to test learners' knowledge as well as their ability to organise and communicate their answers properly. Essay tests should be used along with objective tests in order to get their complementary advantages.

5.0   Summary

In this unit you learnt six major guidelines to be used in setting good essay tests. You also learnt ten types of essay tests and how to construct each of them.

You should score the answers to these items by using a marking scheme. The four main advantages and the three main disadvantages of objective tests have been identified. These are set against the five merits and three demerits of essay tests. Both tests are valid.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

1a.   List ten types of essay tests

b.   Illustrate the use of marking scheme in scoring answers to essay test items

c.   Mention four advantages of essay tests

7.0 References/Further Readings

Akinbade, J.A. (2008). *Government Explained*. Lagos: Macak Book Ventures.

Clark, L.H. (1973). *Teaching social studies in secondary schools*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Okunrotifa, P.O. (1977). *Evaluation in geography*. Ibadan: Oxford University Press.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and Instruction in social studies*. Ilorin.

Module Four

Unit 4: Test Analysis in Political Science Tests

Contents

1.0   Introduction

You have learnt that tests are measuring and evaluating tools. But they are not all of equal worth. Just as tests are employed to assess learners' performance the value of each test itself should be tested or assessed (Lawal, 2004).

One important aspect of test construction which most teachers ignore is the analysis, refinement and banking of test items. After you have planned, constructed, administered and scored a test, you should study the results in an effort to see how individual items might be improved for future use (Okunrotifa, 1977). A study of this type is frequently called a test analysis. It involves completing an item analysis on all the test items, estimating the test validity and reliability and going over the test with the learners.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the unit you should be able to:

1. Measure the difficulty level of each item or question in a test in Political Science.
2. Calculate the discriminatory power of the test
3. Estimate the validity of the test
4. Estimate the reliability of the test
5. Provide feedback of test results to the students

3.0 Items Analysis

Item analysis consists of taking a critical look at each question in an attempt to see which turned out to be good items, which should be re-written and which should be discarded altogether (Okunrotifa, 1977:104).

Two major kinds of information can be obtained by analysing the responses to an individual test item. These are:

i. Index of item difficulty, also called facility index and
ii. Index of item discrimination

Item difficulty index is a measure of how easy or difficult the item proved to be in the test.

It is expressed as a fraction or percentage of the testees who answered the item correctly. The index of difficulty (ID) is calculated by using the formula:

$$ID \quad \frac{R}{N}$$

Where R represents the number of testees (test takers) with the correct answer and N, the total number of testees.

If 30 out of 40 testees obtained the correct answer for one of the items, or question in the test, the item would have 75% as index of difficulty thus

$$ID = \frac{30}{40} \times 100 = 75\%$$

This implies that the item is fairly easy, considering the fact that an average of 50% may be desirable for most items or questions. Item discrimination index is a measure of the ability of the test item or question to discriminate or separate the better learners from the poorer ones (Gronlund, 1976). The score on the whole test is accepted as the criterion measure and it thus becomes possible to separate the weak from the strong students.

The following procedure can be adopted in calculating the discrimination index (DI) of a test item:

i.   Arrange the scripts in rank order of total scores and divide into two groups of equal size (for example top 25% and bottom 25% of the scripts).
ii.   Count the number of testees in the upper group answering the item correctly and then do the same for the lower group.
iii.   Subtract the number of correct answers in the lower group from the number of correct answers in the upper group.
iv.   Divide the difference by the total number of candidates in either he upper or lower group, thus:

$$DI = \frac{\text{Correct U} - \text{Correct L}}{N}$$

Where DI is the discrimination index; N is the number in one (any) group; U is upper half and L is the lower half (Lawal, 2004).

Discrimination indices range from +1 through zero (0) to -1. An item discrimination level of 0.30 or above is generally agreed to be desirable.

If all the 40 students in the upper group answered a certain question correctly, and all the 40 students in the lower group got the wrong answer, the item would have a discrimination index of + 1 (plus one) thus

$$DI \quad = \quad \frac{40 - 0}{40} \quad = \quad \frac{40}{40} \quad + 1$$

If none of the 40 students in the upper group got the correct answer and all the 40 students in the lower group answered it correctly, the item would have a perfectly negative discrimination index of – 1 (minus 1), thus

$$DI \quad = \quad \frac{0-40}{40} \quad = \quad - 1$$

Items with negative discrimination index should be discarded and replaced. Those with index figure from 0.3 to 1.0 should be banked or saved.

3.2   Estimating the Validity of Tests

The most important characteristics any test should have is that of validity (Okunrotifa, 1977 & Lawal, 2004). The usual definition of a valid test is that it measures what it is supposed to measure. The development of a test plan is a foundational step to getting valid tests. This is one of the practical ways of improving the validity of your tests. After that you could ask a fellow Political Science teacher to critique the test items. This is one way of estimating the content validity of the test.

Beyond content validity also called curricular validity, you can estimate the concurrent validity of the test. To do so, you could compare the scores earned on an objective test with those earned on an essay test on the same topic or unit. The comparison with the criterion can be done immediately or currently.

To estimate predictive validity, you could compare the scores on the mock Senior Secondary Certificate Examination with the scores of the same students on the actual (final) SSCE on the same unit at a later date. This is how to estimate predictive validity as the test performance is to be compared with the criterion at a later date (Okunrotifa,

1977). To estimate concurrent and predictive validity the statistical tool to be used is Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient formula, which is beyond the scope of this book.

3.4   Estimating the Reliability of Tests

The reliability of a test refers to the precision of the test. Reliability refers to the extent to which a test would yield the same results if administered on the same students on different occasions. It is often assumed that if a test is valid, then it is reliable.

Suppose a Political Science achievement test, with established validity has been administered to twelve senior secondary school students. Their test scores could be ranked. One week later the same test could be administered to the same students under similar conditions. Their scores could be ranked again (see the table below).

Comparison of Score of Twelve Students in a Test Administered Twice

Student	First Score over 60	Rank	Second Score over 60	Rank	Position Maintained
1	51	6	56	3	
2	30	11	35	11	✓
3	27	12	30	12	✓
4	41	10	48	7	
5	43	8	48	7	✓
6	54	3	56	3	✓
7	53	4	56	3	
8	60	1	60	1	✓
9	52	5	54	6	
10	56	2	58	2	✓
11	47	7	41	9	
12	42	9	43	10	✓

The tendency of students to maintain their relative positions, more or less, illustrates considerable reliability or a consistency of results. In the table above, this tendency occurs in seven out of twelve cases.

The statistical method of expressing text reliability is in terms of reliability co-efficient which a correlation is co-efficient based on Pearson's formula, referred to above.

There are a variety of techniques for obtaining the correlation co-efficient, such as test-retest method, illustrated above. Other methods are alternate-form method and split-half method which are not discussed in this book.

3.4   Going over a Test with the Students

There are at least two reasons why you should go over a test with your students after it has been corrected. The first of these is that going over the test is a feedback to the students. It is a learning experience. It gives you opportunity to clear up misunderstandings, give remedial help and reinforce learning. A second reason why you should go over your test with the students is that you will learn a great deal about test construction. In the process you will gain insight into the ways students interpret the questions or items. The students will ask questions about the meaning of certain test items. In so doing they will give you clues about ways to construct good test items.

3.5 Self Assessment Exercise

Calculate the discrimination index of an item which all the 50 students in the upper half got correct and 50 students in the lower group got right.
Define validity.
Illustrate content validity
Define reliability
Illustrate test-retest reliability
Give two reasons why you should go over your test with your students

4.0   Conclusion

This unit has concluded the discussion on objective and essay tests. In the unit, you learnt how to test or assess the value of tests. The analysis, refinement and banking of tests, a neglected work by teachers, are discussed in the unit.

5.0 Summary

Test analysis involves completing an item analysis on all he test items or questions; estimating the test validity; estimating the test reliability and going over the test with the learners.

Items analysis involves calculating the difficulty index and the discrimination index of test items. Estimating the validity could be done through content validity. Reliability could be done simply by considering the tendency of students to maintain their relative positions, after a test has been administered on them twice. This is the test-retest method. The statistical calculations are beyond the scope of this book.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1a.   Distinguish between validity and reliability as used in testing nd evaluation

b.   Describe content, concurrent and predictive validity

7.0 References/Further Readings

Gronlung, N.E. (1976). *Measurement and evaluation of teaching*. New York: Harper and Row.

Lawal, B. (2004). Types and uses of tests. In I.O. Abimbola & O.A. Abolade (eds.) *fundamental Principles and Practice of Instruction*. Ilorin: Tunde Babs printers 340-360.

Ogunniyi, M.B. (1984). *Educational measurement and evaluation*. Lagos: Longman Publishers.

Okunrotifa, P.O. (1977). *Evaluation in grography*. Ibadan: Oxford University Press.

Module Four

Unit 5: Tools of Evaluation Supplementary to Tests

Contents

1.0   Introduction

Pre-eminent attention has been given to tests as a tool of evaluation due to its position in the classroom. This is not to suggest that they all self-sufficient. The following are other commonly-used instruments of evaluation learning outcomes; observation, checklist, rating scale, record of behaviour and interview and questionnaire.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

a.   Describe the characteristics of observation, checklist, rating scale, records behaviour, interview and questionnaire as evaluation tools.

b.   Construct the above mentioned evaluation tools.

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Observation

An important supplement to objective and essay tests is the observation of learners. Continuous observation of learners at class work, take-home assignment and field work can gives valuable insight into their interest, skill and behaviour. An observation sheet is provided for each student. It is impossible for you to observe simultaneously all students in the class. But at the close of each academic year you should be able to record some subjective points on the behaviour of selected students, with respect to their question-answering ability in Political Science, for example. Also their skills in doing group work or project work could be observed and recorded.

3.2 Checklist

It is a list of activities or events or behaviour which are recorded as they occur. You must list the characteristics you wish to check. Here is an example of a checklist (Clark, 1973).

Checklist for take-home assignment
1.   Accuracy
2.   Neatness
3.   Attention to details

You will have to put a check (✓) against the item if the assignment comes up to standard in that item.

3.3 Rating Scale

A rating scale is similar to a checklist. A rating scale gives information on the quality and quantity of the occurrence of an action. The judgments on a rating scale can therefore be qualitative or quantitative or both as indicated in the example below:

Frequency of a student answering question in the class:

0	1	2	3
Never	Seldom	Often	Always

Check the correct column

3.4   Records of Behaviour

A behaviour log is a record of significant behaviour (Clark, 1973). To prepare it you simply devote a sheet in a notebook to each student and notes his/her significant actions in class from time to time.

An anecdotal record is a more detailed behaviour log. Anecdotal record is a detail objective written account of a students' behaviour, written as soon as possible after the behaviour has been observed. Here is an example:

First record the class of the student

Event 1:   September 2009: Albert was happy to lead one of the groups constituted to engage in brainstorming the different ways to organise primary elections and general elections.

Event 2:   October 12 2009: Albert submitted a neat, original semester paper on women participation in politics and government.

After listing the incidents you need to explain or interpret them.

As can be seen from the above, the major benefit of anecdotal record is the detail with which a student's progress can be recorded. But its major benefit is also its greatest weakness. This is because writing anecdotes (short stories) on all the students is time-consuming and not practicable (Olawepo, 2003).

3.5 Interview

If you wish to find out about the cognitive functioning of a Political Science student, you can ask him questions and evaluate his answers. This is also a major way of the appointing people into job positions. The questions are asked orally in a face-to-face situation. The procedure of an interview is, however, subjective. One approach that undertakes to reduce the subjectivity, while still maintaining the flexibility of direct

personal contact, is the structured interview. Structured interview procedures give the interviewer a fairly detailed guide of topics to be covered and guidelines for the preparation of the interview (Okunrotifa, 1977).

3.6   Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a written form of interview. The questionnaire can either be close-ended or open-ended. A close-ended questionnaire contains a set of predetermined options or answers to the items or questions out of which the respondents select in writing those that best describe their own qualities, attributes or opinions. The open-ended questionnaire, on the other hand, does not contain such options and the respondent is free to express his/her own views in writing (Lawal, 2004).

3.7 Self Assessment Exercise

1. Distinguish between participant and non-participant observation by teachers in the class

2. Prepare an interview schedule (a list of questions) for use on a Political Science student after a topic on ills of military government in Nigeria.

3. **Af**ter a unit on "Pressure Groups"
   Prepare a checklist on a named student with respect to his being able to:
   - i. Define pressure group ( )
   - ii. Mention two examples of pressure group ( )
   - iii. Mention two functions of pressure group ( )

4. Prepare an anecdotal record on a student's study habits observed on two occasions in a month.

5. A rating scale for written project work by a student.
   Circle the number that might indicate rating
   5 (highest)   1 (lowest)

1	Originally	5	4	3	2	1
2	Clarity	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Format	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Substance	5	4	3	2	1

6. Construct a questionnaire to find out the extent to which a student has mastered the content of the topic on the 'ills of democracy in Nigeria'.

4.0   Conclusion

Formal tests have a big place in the evaluation of learning outcomes among learners. But some of the evaluation a teacher does involve methods, including observations. Although all teachers use the observation method of student appraisal, not all teachers are equally skillful in its application. Intensive observation cannot be done on all students. You should therefore select certain students such as the weak ones and study them to help them improve academically and socially. Checklists and rating scales are types of observation tools. Behaviour logs, also called diaries are also produced after direct or indirect observation.

Students can and should assist the teacher, who should assume the major responsibility for recording the materials placed in the log. Anecdotal records are also based on observation. That is why it is correct to say that four out of the six supplementary tools of evaluation tools discussed in this Unit have observations as their bases.

5.0   Summary

Six different tools of evaluation, supplementary to tests, have been discussed in this unit. These tools are observation, checklist, rating scale, record of behaviour, interview and questionnaire. Observation is the common denominator. Records of behaviours such as logs, diaries and anecdotal records are subjective devices of evaluation. On the other hand, rating scale, checklist and interview can be made to yield objective data.

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

Distinguish between the following pairs of concepts
a.   Rating scale and checklist
b.   Behaviour log and anecdotal record
c.   Interview and questionnaire

7.0   References/Further Readings

Clark, L.H.91973). *Teaching social studies in the secondary school*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Lawal, B. (2004). Types and used of tests. I I.O. Abimbola and O.A. Abolade (eds) *Fundamental principles and practice of instruction*. Ilorin: Tunde-Babs printers, 340-360.

Okunrotifa, P.O. (1977). *Evaluation in geography*. Ibadan: Oxford University Press.

Olawepo, J.A. (2003). *Curriculum and Instruction in social studies*. Ilorin: Nathadex Publishers.