

MODEL OF SOME GOOD PSYCHOLOGICAL PRACTICES
IN THE AREA OF ACHIEVEMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
SOCIAL SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN



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CAUSAL MODEL OF SOME SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES AS
DETERMINANTS OF ACHIEVEMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOL
SOCIAL STUDIES

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MAY 1995

RESEARCH IN ACHIEVEMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOL
SOCIAL STUDIES

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to obtain empirical evidence of the causal linkages between academic achievement and some socio-psychological variables, and to ascertain the extent to which these variables predict achievement in Social Studies. The study made use of ex-post facto design involving a sample of 624 Junior Secondary School class three students in thirty secondary schools in Oyo State. Each student responded to five different questionnaires and an achievement test in Social Studies. The data was analysed using stepwise multiple regression and path analysis statistics to answer the five research questions raised in this study. The research findings indicate that:

1. Only five of the variables viz: socio-economic status, gender, home language, attitude towards Social Studies and study habits influenced achievement in Social Studies.
2. Most of the variables that have indirect effects on students' achievement in Social Studies do so via study habits.
3. There is no direct effects of
 - i. locus of control on achievement
 - ii. gender on career aspiration
 - iii. attitude towards Social Studies on career aspiration

- iv. locus of control on study habits
 - v. test anxiety on achievement
 - vi. career aspiration on achievement.
4. Total effects of the direct path accounted for 23.4% of the variation in students' achievement in Social Studies, while total effects of the indirect paths accounted for 9.0%.
 5. The eight socio-psychological variables in the study when taken together were quite effective in predicting achievement in Social Studies with multiple $R = .78$; $R^2 = .61$; Adjusted $R^2 = .60$; Standard Error = 6.57; R^2 Change = .61; F Change = 119.43.
 6. Socio-economic status (VAR1) was the most effective variable in predicting achievement in secondary school Social Studies.
 7. Locus of control, career aspiration, and test anxiety did not make any significant contribution to the prediction of achievement in Social Studies.

The findings have important implications for the development of bumper and robust counselling package for secondary school students in line with the demand of the National Policy in Education.

DEDICATION

This work is deservedly dedicated to

Professor Joseph O. Obemeta

for his inestimable contributions to all
facets of my life.

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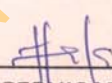
I express my deepest gratitude to my wife, 'Debola for all the numerous help rendered, and for her interest and total commitment to the successful completion of this work.

To my daughters Oresanmi and Jummy though they did not understand what daddy was doing but remained very peaceful and co-operative throughout my period of writing, I say thank you.

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by Mr Charles Vincent ABE in the Institute of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

			Page
TITLE	i
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
CERTIFICATION	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION		...	1
Background	1
Statement of the Problem	5
Research Questions	5
Significance of the Study	6
Scope of the Study	7
Rationale for the Use of Social Studies in this Study	8
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE			9
Socio-Economic Status and Academic Achievement			10
Locus of Control and Academic Achievement ...			19

	Page
Gender Differences and Academic Achievement	27
Language and Academic Achievement ...	35
Attitudes and Academic Achievement ...	42
Study Habits and Academic Achievement ...	47
Test Anxiety and Academic Achievement ...	52
Career Aspiration and Academic Achievement ...	59
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ...	65
Subjects ...	65
Samples and Sampling Procedure ...	66
Instrumentation ...	67
Data Collection Procedures ...	71
Scoring the Instruments ...	72
Data Analysis ...	72
Multiple Regression Analysis ...	73
Path Analysis ...	73
Theoretical Bases for the Model ...	76
Identifying and Trimming the Paths in the Model	79
Verifying the Efficacy of the New Model ...	81

	Page
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS ...	84
Research Question 1	84
Results	84
Discussions	86
Research Question 2	89
Results	89
Discussions	91
Research Questions 3,4, and 5	95
The Hypothesized Model	95
Trimming the Hypothesized Model	97
Research Question 3	101
Results	101
Research Question 4	103
Results	103
Joint Discussion on Research Questions 3,4, & 5	106
Significant Pathways through which the Independent Variables caused Variation in Achievement	106
Direct and Indirect Pathways and their Propor- tions	115

	Page
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ...	116
Summary of Findings ...	116
Implications and Recommendations ...	118
Limitations of the Study ...	120
Areas for Further Research ...	121
REFERENCES ...	124
APPENDICES:	
I. Socio-Economic Status Scale ...	141
II. Students' Attitude Towards Social Studies Scale ...	145
III. Sarason Test Anxiety Scale ...	148
IV. The Rotter Internal-External Control Scale ...	152
V. Study Habits Inventory ...	158
VI. Achievement Test in Social Studies ...	162
VII. List of Schools Used for the Study ...	177

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1	Normal Equations for Reproducing the Observed Correlations	82
4.1	Summary of Regression Analysis on Sample Data	85
4.2	Relative Contribution of Each of the Eight Independent Variables	90
4.3	Significant Path Coefficients in the Causal Model	99
4.4	Original and Reproduced Correlations of the Nine Variable Systems	100
4.5	Significant Paths Through Which X_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 8$) Caused Variation in Var. 9, $P = 0.05$	102
4.6	Significant Pathways and Their Nature	104
4.7	The Variables and Their Effects on Variable 9	105

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
3.1	Hypothesized Model ...	75
3.2	Causal Paths Among X_j ($1=4,5,6,7,8,9$)	78
3.3	Causal Paths Among X_1 ($1 = 1,2,3,4,5$)	79
4.1	Hypothesized Model ...	96
4.2	A More Parsimonious Model ...	98

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

The position of socio-psychological variables in everyday living and adjustment to life is well recognised. It is a widely held view by psychologists, sociologists and educators that socio-psychological variables exert dominant influence on all facets of the life of an individual. In fact one could perceive the totality of a man as being guided and ruled by psychological and social variables. It is against this background that Onocha (1985) conceptualized the modern man as a person whose educational aspirations and accomplishments are projected by the psycho-social variables in his environment.

➤ The influence of socio-psychological variables on educational achievement and performance is a very important subject in the areas of educational psychology and counselling. The positions of these two sets of variables are unique and important and may be better appreciated when it is realised that these variables are necessary for the understanding of human beings, their overt and covert behaviour, potentialities and their performances in the three areas of educational domains (cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains). For instance, psychological variables like study habits, test anxiety, locus of control, career aspirations, attitudes home

language, gender and social variable like socio-economic status all play important roles in learning outcomes and academic achievement. The importance of these variables to learning and cognitive achievement might have influenced policy makers who packaged the 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria to emphasise the assessment of non-cognitive variables in learning. It therefore means that students' psychological disposition and the students based factors are considered very important for success in learning and in learning outcomes.

In spite of the importance attached to the assessment of non-cognitive variables in learning, many students still perform below expectation in different school subjects and in public examination. Reports obtained from two examination divisions of the Ministry of Education in Oyo and Ondo States indicated that much remained to be achieved in students learning and mastery of Social Studies. In Oyo State 45% of the total number of Junior Secondary School class three students who took Social Studies final examination passed at credit level, 51 per cent passed with ordinary pass and 4 per cent failed. In Ondo State in 1991 about 25 per cent of the students who sat for the Junior Secondary School final examination in Social Studies failed.

It is probably in realisation of this under achievement in Social Studies that Oti (1991) indicates that the problem of students under achievement in Social Studies is a topical educational issue in the country. It is perhaps for this reason that Social Studies educators have been conducting researches that are aimed at improving students' achievement in the subject. For example, Turner (1984) has given the following reasons as often adduced for poor performance in Social Studies - poor teaching methods, lack of adequate teaching materials, and laziness on the part of the teachers. In a related study, Akinade (1989) identified students' characteristics, home factors, society factors, teachers' characteristics and nature of examination as some of the factors that could influence achievement in Social Studies. Bank and Finlayson (1973) have also revealed that socio-economic status played a prominent role in achievement in Social Studies, while Avoseh (1985) indicated that class size, school size, and number of books available to the students in the subject as among other factors that could influence achievement in the subject.

A critical survey of related literature however indicate that previous work had not attained a reasonable degree of success in identifying the order and strengths of the interactions between the identified psychological and social variables and cognitive

achievement in Social Studies especially when most of these variables are considered together. What most studies have done was to examine some of these variables with academic achievement purely from the bivariate standpoint. The investigator is also not aware of any research that investigated the pattern of direct and indirect interaction between these variables in terms of causal linkages and cognitive achievement in Social Studies. Although studies like those of Furneaux (1965) and Bakare (1975) have supported the fact that certain socio-psychological variables come into play in predicting academic performance, some other studies like Cawell (1971), Cattell (1966) and Hyde (1990) tend to hold contradictory view.

It is generally known that events in the social and psychological space are never so neatly related (in terms of one to one mapping), instead many variables combine to produce an event. The present study therefore intends to investigate the combined effects of these variables in explaining cognitive achievement in Social Studies from the multivariate standpoint. If psychological services are to meet the aspirants of students, they should not only be capable of predicting academic outcome in terms of simple correlational studies, but should be able to identify the paths and strengths of the variables that underlie such predictions. There is also need for more elaborate investigations that would seek to

establish the causal linkages between socio-psychological variables and students cognitive achievement in Social Studies. An attempt to satisfy these needs is made in the present investigation.

Statement of the Problem

The present study seeks to find out the extent to which some socio-psychological variables (gender differences, student habits, locus of control, test anxiety, home language, attitude towards Social Studies, career aspiration and socio-economic status) provide a causal explanation of secondary school students cognitive achievement in Social Studies.

Research Questions

Based on the stated problem, the study attempts to provide answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent would the socio-psychological variables when taken together predict students cognitive achievement in Social Studies?
2. What is the relative contribution of each of the variables to the prediction of cognitive achievement in Social Studies?
3. What are the significant pathways through which the variables cause variation in students' cognitive achievement in Social Studies?

4. Which of these paths are direction, and which are not direct?
5. What proportions of the total effects are direct and indirect?

Significance of the Study

The study intends to investigate the pattern of causal linkages between some socio-psychological variables (socio-economic status, gender, locus of control, attitude towards Social Studies, home language, study habits, test anxiety and career aspiration and achievement in secondary school Social Studies using path analysis.

The study is significant because the results would shed light on the mechanism of operation involving causal linkages among the selected socio-psychological variables and cognitive achievement in Social Studies. In consequence it is hoped that the results of the study would lead to a better understanding of some social and psychological components of the problems of students' underachievement in Social Studies. It is also expected that the result of the study would provide the empirical basis for initiating viable counselling package aimed at improving cognitive achievement in Social Studies in Nigerian secondary schools.

The result of the study would arm policy makers with evidence for the need to provide adequate learning materials for the teaching of Social Studies in Junior Secondary School. The study may also

be seen as particularly relevant to curriculum development in Junior Secondary School as well as to the teaching of the subject.

The study is also significant because the result will help students to gain more self understanding, become more aware of problems militating against achievement in Social Studies and find ways by which these problems can be solved and to behave in a more positive and acceptable ways to their studies.

Furthermore, teachers of Social Studies will benefit from this study because the result will provide ample evidence for the need to relate concepts, facts and materials to the immediate needs of the students and shed light on how Social Studies can be used to solve some socio-psychological problems hindering better academic performance among students.

Scope of the Study

The study is only interested in using path analysis technique to establish an intercausal direct and indirect links and to give information on causes and effects between all the selected socio-psychological variables (socio-economic status, gender, locus of control, attitude towards Social Studies, home language, study habits, test anxiety and career aspiration) and secondary school students achievement in Social Studies.

Rationale for the Use of Social Studies in this Study

The basic goal of Social Studies education is to prepare the young people to be humane, rational and participating citizens in a world that is becoming increasingly interdependent.

Among the importance of Social Studies are:

- (i) To develop understanding of human interactions and relationship based on data, concepts, and generalization drawn from the Social Sciences.
- (ii) To enable students to function effectively as citizens.

Social Studies attempts to study man in all ramifications. It studies man in his environment taking cognizance of his life activities as well as the influence which impinges on him.

Social Studies embraces psychology among other subjects. It starts from the study of man in his community and gives cognizance to physical, social, cultural, sociological and psychological environment to mention a few. It is a subject which is intended to modify students' behaviours in such a way that the student will become more functional beings in their societies. It develops social problem solving abilities in students.

Social Studies curriculum itself could thus be perceived as a programme which a society uses to instill in students knowledge, skills, and actions it considers concerning the relationship human beings have with each other, as well as their total environment.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Poor academic performance affects the nation socially, politically and more importantly psychologically and economically. Parents, teachers and the students have always blamed one another as being responsible. It is no gainsaying that the major causes of poor academic performance are inherent in the students themselves. Although studies like those of Furneaux (1956), Lynn (1959), Kelvin (1965), Bakare (1977), Uwakwe (1979), Akinade (1982) and Adedipe (1986) have supported the fact that certain psychological factors came into play in predicting academic performance, a review of literature had shown that previous studies have not attained a reasonable degree of success, order and strengths of the interactions between the identified socio-psychological variables and academic achievement.

Literature related to this study were discussed in this chapter under the following headings:

- (i) Socio-economic status and academic achievement
- (ii) Locus of control and academic achievement
- (iii) Gender differences and academic achievement
- (iv) Home language and academic achievement

- (v) Attitudes and academic achievement
- (vi) Study habits and academic achievement
- (vii) Test anxiety and academic achievement
- (viii) Career aspiration and academic achievement.

Socio-Economic Status and Academic Achievement

Socio-economic background could be seen as a powerful predictor of academic success; though the relationship between achievement and socio-economic background is not a simple, direct one. The limited income, low level of education, verbal and cultural deprivation that are integral parts of low socio-economic status affect school participation and achievement directly, as well as through other related variables.

Majoribanks (1972) have defined home environment in terms of social status of the home, which is represented by the occupation and education of parents, or in terms of the family structures. Miller (1971) restricts the definition of home environment to the socio-economic status consisting of a high socio-economic status and low socio-economic status determined by the level of education, occupation and income in the society.

Bloom (1964) defines environmental situation as being physical, social as well as intellectual and considered that all these formed

a network of environmental forces that impinge upon the individual and influence him. Other studies have also emphasised the importance of home environment as a determinant of intellectual development as the child spends the period of rapid physical and mental growth in the home environment. Also, Fraser (1959) contended that parental education and reading habits, income occupation and living space all related significantly with I.Q. and school performance.

The importance of home environment in the academic success of pupils cannot be underrated. Miller (1971) reported that a greater proportion of school dropouts are from low socio-economic home environment. A person's socio-economic background has some influence on his upbringing and consequently his attitude and predisposition towards his goals and aspiration in life. Johnstone and Jiyano (1983) have broken down home background factors and found significant correlation to levels and types of academic attainment.

According to Duncan (1989), unequal school performance in developing countries may be accounted for by availability and accessibility of schools, economic development of the country, cultural and home based norms, socio-economic status and type of schools.

Rosen (1956) explains the differential rate of mobility as a function of difference in the motives and values of the social classes. Rosen saw that there were two components in achievement orientation of the different classes. Firstly, a psychological factor - the personality characteristics of achievement motivation which provides an initial impetus to excel. Secondly, there is also a cultural factor consisting of certain value orientations which define and implement achievement motivated behaviour. Rosen said further that middle class children are more likely to embrace the achievement value system which states that given the willingness to work hard, plan and make proper sacrifice an individual child should be able to manipulate his environment so as to ensure eventual success.

Katz (1964) studied the meaning of success among Australian adolescents and found evidence of considerable variation according to socio-economic class of origin. The major differences appeared to indicate a major difference in the frame of aspirational reference internalized by members of different social classes. In the case of the middle class adolescents, the success goal was prestige achievement attained through personal effort and worthiness. Adolescents from the unskilled working class, on the other hand, had little concern for social status.

Heyneman and Jamison (1980) found socio-economic status to be negatively associated with achievement in developing countries. In Uganda, Heyneman (1976) found socio-economic status to have a limited effect on academic achievement. Scheifelbein and Simmons (1980) review found in developing countries that socio-economic status was a significant predictor of achievement. Theison (1983) review of research in Caribbean, South American, African and Asian countries found that socio-economic status had a strong positive effect at primary and lower secondary grades, but the effect may diminish at higher secondary levels. In Trinidad and Tobago Kutnick and Jules (1988) found that students from families in middle income occupations had higher standard deviated achievement scores in science subjects than their lower income counterparts, but social background as determined by occupation did not contribute significantly to the overall variance of science achievement.

In another study, Jules and Kutnick (1990) found out that:

- (i) When all data were considered, parental occupation significantly differentiated between performance in all curriculum areas with children from middle income background gaining higher grades than those from lower income background.

- (ii) Within the traditional schools however, there was no significant difference in the performance of students from lower or middle income background.
- (iii) When the data on sex were examined, it was found that girls from homes where parents were employed in lower income occupation performed at higher levels than girls of middle income parents and both performed better than boys overall in Social Studies.

Swift (1965) found that children of middle class parents had six times as good a chance for selection at 11+ as working class children. In this study, it became clear that the lack of balance in these "class chance" was mainly due to the fact that the sons of middle class parents were to that degree better able to score on intelligence and attainment tests. Many psychologists explain this by suggestion that there is basic intellectual superiority in middle class which is maintained by selective mating and a tendency to inherit innate intelligence.

Parents of different socio-economic status take different interest in the academic performance of their children. This interest shown by parents have been found to boost the performances or repress the performance of the pupils. In Wall's (1962) study, he found out that children particularly boys do very much better at

school if their parents are interested in their progress and that children whose parents are rated "very interested" are children mostly from high and middle socio-economic status homes. He said further that this group of children improve in test scores between age eight and eleven, but those whose parents are uninterested show remarkable deterioration in scores and these are children of low income earners.

In a similar study, Cohen (1959) analysing the influence of socio-economic status suggested that a significant difference in motivation is found among children of working class parents who have close on the job association with people of higher status.

Douvan (1956), in an experimental design, tested the hypothesis that achievement want of middle class children is more generalized than that of working class children and hence is less likely to vary with changes in the reward offer for achievement. Her conclusion was that the achievement want of middle class child was more generalized as well as more dependable.

Werts (1967) has reported that among female students of equal ability, those from high social class background were likely to desire training in traditionally male field; whereas lower class status were associated with choice of traditional female occupation as teacher, nurse, and social work, an aspiration which tends to influence and affect academic achievement in no small measure.

A lot of work has been done on the influence of socio-economic background on language achievement. One of the ways in which socio-economic background influences language achievement is through the pattern of socialization. According to Adelusi (1984), the lower class home is characterised by lots of noise, lack of English language stimulating objects and activities, over-crowding and support for under achievement which depress or hinder cognitive and intellectual development. Since language measures are particularly responsive to effects of social disadvantage, language development and subsequent achievement can be enhanced or depressed in the child depending on his social class membership.

Brown (1949) observed that material factors are as important as other factors in an article on learning English among a West African tribe. He said further that poverty, malnutrition, ill health, lack of good books or recreation may have an adverse effect on English Language learning.

The mode of children's conceptualization is determined by the mode of socialization, which is dependent on the child's social class membership. Bernstein et al (1958) observed conceptual development to be correlative with social class membership and socialization pattern. The greater the differentiation of the child's experience the greater his ability to conceptualize and the better his

performances in attainment tests because a learner whose level of conceptualization is high finds it easier to learn new labels for concepts that are already developed.

Deutsch (1964) in a study entitled verbal survey identified over 100 variables of home background, language functioning, conceptual behaviour, intelligence test performance, reading, general orientation, self systems and other related variables obtained results in terms of social class, race and development levels indicate that lower class children and minority group status are associated with poorer language functioning. In another study Deutsch (1967) observed that deficit in vocabulary and verbal test was associated with social-economic status.

In another series of studies conducted by Bernstein (1958), he observed that the lower the social class status of a child, the more difficult he finds ordering a sentence, connecting sentences, acquiring wider vocabulary, because his socialization context inhibits these. He concluded that if the child does not learn these efficiently and apply them correctly it will prejudice his success at the secondary school level.

Tomori (1963) and Adelusi (1978) have observed that socio-economic status is a factor of success in English Language learning. Tomori (1963) investigated certain aspects influential on the Nigerian school child's English Language learning. Some of these aspects

relate to the child's socio-economic background. Some of his observations were that the Nigerian pupil lacks not only neuro-physical coordination necessary for learning to read, but also the material facilities essential for learning other English Language skills.

Adelusi (1978) also observed that in WASC English, students from high socio-economic status homes performed better than those from lower socio-economic status homes and that more students from higher socio-economic status group have higher grades in English Language than those from lower socio-economic status group.

Heyneman's (1975) study revealed that the fact that a child comes from a higher socio-economic background in which his parents have received more formal education, or in which his father has a better paying, more secure income, or in which his home contains a greater number of modern possessions, does not necessarily mean that a child will score better on a test of academic achievement. Also Jonathan Silvery (1963), in his study in Kampala reported a "marked tendency for sons of higher socio-economic parents to perform well in mental alertness."

Currie (1974) reported an almost random correlation between parental socio-economic status and Cambridge School Certificate performance in the years 1954, 1959 and 1964. Similarly, Olson

(1974) reported low or random correlation between socio-economic status and Kenyan Cambridge School Certificate performance. Munphree's (1973) findings revealed that superior secondary school performance is obtained by children of illiterate homes than that from children of the more privileged.

The studies of Chatterji (1972), White (1977) and Morakinyo (1979) indicate the existence of relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement. While Chatterji did not find a significant relationship, White in a meta-analysis of 620 correlation coefficient from 100 studies indicate that a definite relationship exists between socio-economic status and achievement. He noted that the frequently obtained correlation ranged from .10 to .70.

Locus of Control and Academic Achievement

The concept of internal versus external control of reinforcement stemmed from the social learning theory introduced by Rotter (1954) which refers to the disposition to perceive one's reinforcement as contingent on one's own efforts or on factors beyond one's control. Externally controlled persons believe that their reinforcements are controlled by outside agents - luck, chance, fate, powerful others. Those who believe that they have some control over their reinforcement are considered to be internally

controlled. The theory provides a useful means of measuring individual differences in the extent to which reinforcement is viewed as a consequence of one's own behaviour or otherwise. The theory has proved to be a highly useful personality dimension for understanding the role of reinforcement in a variety of the behavioural situation.

According to McClelland (1958), the need to achieve or the urge to improve or achievement motivation is a relatively stable personality characteristic rooted in middle childhood experience. He also observed that in the same situation, some persons seem to be highly motivated to achieve and some are not so motivated at all. This difference in individual level of motivation under the same condition can be interpreted as difference in readiness or need to achieve or inclination to be concerned with achievement.

Lefcourt (1966) ascertained that locus of control has been found to be an effective predictor of a wide variety of behaviour. Among the many relationships uncovered are the findings which suggest that internal and external control orientation may be important determinants of learning outcomes.

There is some indication that internals as compared to externals more actively seek information relevant to problem solving (Davis & Pharse, 1967); tend to retain more information when this

information is relevant to personal goals (Seemon, 1963) and tend to better utilize information that has been equivalently acquired and retained by internal and external (Pharse, 1968).

In Coleman (1966) study, he found that sense of control over the environment was the best single predictor of Negro students' academic achievement. In another study by Coleman (1966) he revealed that a sense of internal control was closely related to academic achievement in white pupils and was by far the most important variable in accounting for difference in academic achievement among black school children. Perception of internal control predominated among black pupils with high achievement scores.

Krovetz (1974) using 120 students - 83 males and 37 females found that internally oriented subjects perceived the task to be more skill-controlled than externals did, while externals subjects stressed the influence of chance more than internals did.

Rotter and Mulry (1963) found that internals spend more time on an angel-matching task when they were instructed that performance involved skill than they did if instructed that performance was a matter of luck. Externals tended to take longer time under chance controlled conditions than under skill determined conditions, although these decision time differences were not statistically significant.

Lewts and Silverman (1968) using a level of aspiration task found no interaction between internal and external and instructional condition. In a re-analysis of the data using subjects' perceptions of the nature of the task to provide the skill-chance dichotomy, however, found a significant interaction between internal and external and skill versus chance. Internals spent more time on the task when they perceived it to be skill determined.

Julian and Katz (1968) using a synonym and antonym word-pair identification task found that internals mean decision time was higher for the set of 13 actual word pairs. The difference in mean time spent by externals on nonsense and actual word pairs was not significant. There were no differences between internals and externals in overall time. The finding suggests that internals spend more time on difficult items than on easy items, while externals' decision time is not related to item difficulty.

The way the two groups (I-E) perceive information differ. For example, Seeman and Evans (1962) studied two groups of hospitalized tuberculosis patients, they found out that the one with internal locus of control had more objective information concerning their illness while the other with external had less information. The same can be carried to the ways and manners the two of them perceive learning materials. In Seeman (1965) study involving

memory for various kinds of information among prisoners in a reformatory home, information was presented to prisoners concerning factors related to achieving successful parole, the present reformatory setting and long range prospects for a non-criminal career. He found out that a non-significant correlation between the internal and external scores and the amount of parole materials recalled. There were no differences between internal and external retention of the other kinds of information suggesting that internals are superior in recall only when information is relevant to control of personal goals.

✓Kassin (1979) in an experimental study conducted to explore cognitive processes associated with locus of control beliefs found that internals and externals did not significantly differ in their ability to recall items from an array of 21 letter strings generated from a finite state grammar, but internals were better able to discriminate grammaticality and non grammaticality in a new set of letter strings, internals were also found to extract more invariance and hence learn more about underlying structure than externals.

Pharse (1968) gave subjects information about several people with whom they would supposedly interact. One week later although both internals and externals retained the same amount of information, internals employed it more effectively than externals when asked to

determine the marriage suitability of these people. In a similar vein, Bartel, Ducatte and Wolk (1972) reported that in a free recall paradigm, even though subjects did not differ in their overall recall performance, internals displayed significantly more clustering than externals and a higher correlation between organisation and recall. Wolk and DuCette (1974) asked subjects to circle typographical errors in a paragraph and then tested them for recall on the content. Internals performed better than externals for both the international and incidental learning tasks. They claimed that the magnitude of the difference between internals and externals increases with reasoning task difficulty.

Timothy (1979) in his own study of 105 subjects found that internal and external locus of control subjects attributed responsibility for their positive and negative outcomes on a university examination. Internals and positive outcomes subjects attributed responsibility to internal causal factors while negative and external outcome subjects were more external at their causal attribution.

With focus on academic performance, Alasan (1985) studied the academic performance of 200 adolescents and the attribution they ascribed to such performance. He found that there is no relationship between achievement and locus of control, even though

performances of internals and externals are not significantly different.

✓ Igbalajobi (1985) also studied attribution in a university examination of 95 first year psychology students of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife among the results of the study that was successful students perceived internal factors as more important causes and unsuccessful students perceived external factors as more important causes of their own performance than the performance of the average student.

Asonibare (1985) investigated the variations existing among Nigerian secondary school students' attribution of reinforcement contingencies in relation to how superstitious the students are. A total number of 400 students were randomly selected from five secondary schools in Ilorin. Results indicated that students' claim of responsibilities for failure and success was largely internal, and this did not depend on how superstitious the students were as there was no relationship between superstitious belief and whether a person attributes successes and failures to internal factors.

✓ Glamor and Minton (1974) found that internally oriented individuals were internal in their attribution for success but external in their attribution to failure. This result was interpreted to support the assumption that internals maintained their view of

greater sense of personal efficacy or ability by accepting responsibility for success and rejecting responsibility for failure.

In another study, Brooks and Hounshell (1975) designed a study to determine if vertical organisation of school had a differential effect on the science achievement of students who varied from one another on the locus of control construct. The result showed that students with an external locus of control who were in the non-graded schools scores significantly lower in the science achievement criterion than students with an internal locus of control in the same setting and also scored lower than their counterparts, students with an external locus of control in the graded schools. These findings point to the fact that the interactions between a student's locus of control and his classroom environment may significantly affect his science achievement.

Gilmor and Reid (1979) assessed causal outcomes on student's own university examination as a function of their locus of control expectancies. One hundred and five undergraduate students enrolled in 3 third year psychology courses and taught by the same teacher were used as subjects. Subjects who recorded their performance as negative rated the contribution of lack of ability, lack of effort, bad luck and task difficult to their performance. Taken together, the result offers support for the hypothesis that internally

and externally oriented subjects interpret their performances in a manner consistent with their locus of control.

Yeany (1980) studied the effects of diagnostic prescriptive teaching strategies and locus of control on various cognitive levels of science achievement of introductory biology students. Data on locus of control were collected with Rotter's (1966) LOC measure during the week prior to treatment. The result showed no significant effect of locus of control on achievement and no significant LOC treatment interactions were found. In relation to locus of control there were two significant differences in attitude which indicated that internals were more positive in their attitude towards the instructor and tasks than externals.

Gender Differences and Academic Achievement

There have been extensive research work on gender differences in learning and performances in academic endeavours, but there has never been an agreement on which sex is more favoured. A few earlier studies found some significant sex difference in achievement favouring girls in most of the school subjects studied. (Stroud and Lindquis 1942); yet most societies believe that boys generally do better than girls in school work.

Speculations about the sources of these sex differences in performance of ability tests has been widespread along the lines of the nature-nurture debate. Some other researchers suggest that sex differences may be attributed partially to sex role differences in the form of cultural attitudinal, and experimental factors. Carey (1958) for example showed that a discussion designed to promote more favourable attitudes towards problem solving - a masculine activity - improved the performance of college women but had no effect on men. Secondly, a programme designed to counter the stereotype notion that reading is a feminine activity improved the achievement of first grade boys with low reading readiness (Tregaskis, 1992). Also, Hilton and Berglund (1974) discovered that from age 10 to 16 the growing superiority of boys over girls in Mathematics achievement parallels boys growing interest in scientific activities. These studies taken together suggest that certain ability test may arise in tandem with the appearance of appropriate sex role interests and anticipated careers.

Parson (1976) has found that females with a sex role orientation which incorporates strong feminine features with a few weak masculine characteristics have a lower expectation for success which may result in poor achievement.

A high feminine and low masculine orientation in females and fear of success in masculine sex typed subject areas may result in poor performance in mathematics. The contribution of high feminine and high masculine sex role orientation may lead to better performance in subject areas which are traditional to females (Bem, 1975).

The American research into sex differences in aptitude and achievement have been surveyed by Tyler (1956), Anastasi (1958) and Maccoby (1966). They report that girls usually do better in verbal and linguistics studies than boys, and boys generally show stronger numerical and spatial aptitudes and performed better in tests of mathematical reasoning. However, in another review, Tyler (1969) emphasised that the differences within the sexes in these areas are not large when compared with difference within each sex group.

Sex differences in mathematics achievement have been regularly reported, males and females show equivalent performance until approximately ninth grade when males begin to outperform females (Wood, 1976). The reasons for that difference are not clear. One could argue that the socialization of most women discourages their interest in mathematics.

Morgan (1987) in summarising findings of a participation and equity publication of girls education and career choice concluded

that girls were found to under participate in certain school subjects and lack confidence in their own ability.

Finn (1979) claimed that mixed classrooms inhibits the academic performance of girls. He said further that they are reluctant to compete with boys because this conflicts with their models of femininity. The study of Jules and Kutnick (1990) buttress this assertion. They found that single sex schools had higher mean scores in achievement test than co-educational schools. Jules and Kutnick using a sample of 992 subjects in secondary schools found that girls scored significantly higher than boys overall and in each curriculum areas; they also found that girls-only-schools had higher average scores than boys-only-schools.

In an investigation of differences in intellectual performance of boys and girls, Field and Cropley (1968) studied 218 children (106 girls and 112 boys). The result shows that 30 per cent of the girls tested were limited to concrete operational thought and 11 per cent of the boys were similarly restricted. They also found a significant difference between the performance of the two sexes on a standardized test of achievement in science and that quite a strong relationship existed between these performances and the students' levels of cognitive functioning. This result suggests that girls would experience more difficulties than boys in the study of similar

science courses. In a related study, Rowell (1969) study revealed significant differences in the performance of boys and girls in examination of chemistry, physics and the understanding of science.

There has been an extensive documentation attesting to the fact that females generally excel at tests involving clerical and perceptual speed abilities (Fairweather, 1976; MacCoby and Jacklin, 1974). These studies report that females outperform males on standardized ability tests and sub-test defined variously as perceptual clerical speed and accuracy or digit symbol and coding. They also report male superiority on tests involving maze block designs, spatial cum mechanical relations and orientation and visual reasoning and specialization. MacCoby and Jacklin (1974) report no sex difference on mechanical reasoning in 22 of 25 comparisons on children under age 13, but male superiority in 8 of 10 comparisons of adolescents and adults over that age.

Barnett (1968) found girls to demonstrate higher verbal abilities and skills than boys while boys tended to demonstrate higher proficiency in pure and applied science like mathematics and mechanical skills.

Also Comber and Keeves (1973) report that science appears to be a predominantly masculine field of interest and that boys consistently evinced more favourable attitude to science than girls.

In a study conducted by Balogun (1979) using students in forms three to five and some university students, he investigated the role of sex in achievement in science, selection of science subjects and careers. He came up with the following findings among others:

- (i) there were no significant differences in the cognitive achievement of the secondary school boys and girls,
- (ii) more boys than girls tended to select the three basic sciences,
- (iii) there were significant differences in science attitudes of boys and girls in co-educational schools,
- (iv) vast majority of girls were interested in science and science careers especially in applied ones.

Some other studies have found some significant sex differences in achievement favouring girls in most school subjects. Klausmreir and Wiersmar (1964) compared the performance of boys and girls in divergent thinking tests and found that girls scored higher than boys on divergent thinking.

In the area of language learning, girls have always been known to do better than boys. For instance, Marry and Merry (1958) reported that despite variations in sampling and methodology, almost all their investigations showed that girls were superior to

boys in practically every phase of language development, adding that in general, girls speak earlier than boys and excel in word usage.

In an experimental study by Burstal (1975), he reported that:

- (a) throughout the period of his experiment girls in the experimental sample scored significantly higher than boys in all tests measuring achievement in French.
- (b) From the age of thirteen onwards the low achieving boys in the sample tended to drop French to a significantly greater extent than the low achieving girls.
- (c) Attitudes of the girls towards the learning of French were consistently more favourable than those of boys.

In Carroll (1975) study, it was reported that more female students than male learned French, and that girls often had higher tested verbal ability than boys. This study also showed that there was a predominance of women majoring in all languages at the university level. The findings of this study seems to have supported an earlier one by MacCoby and Jacklin (1974). They had reported that beginning around eleven years of age, girls exhibit greater verbal ability than boys while at about twelve or thirteen years of age, boys are ahead of girls in mathematical ability.

In another study in Nigeria, Ezewu (1980) compared the performance of boys and girls in Mathematics and English Language in ten classes of ten secondary schools. His finding was that generally, girls performed better in English than boys in all the classes but only two of the differences were statistically significant. He found it difficult to conclude that girls are superior to boys in English Language and learned as a second language in Nigeria.

The United States National Assessment of Education Progress reported that in the areas of science, Mathematics and Social Studies boys and girls demonstrate almost identical achievement levels at age nine, but by age thirteen, female students have begun to slip behind the males.

Robenge and Floxer (1979) using a cross sectional sampling reported some differences on particular operations within cognitive levels but found no main effect for sex in the two groups.

Greenblatt (1962) reports that in the elementary grades, boys and girls do not appear to differ in reported liking for Mathematics as a school subject. Similarly, Hardin and Dede (1975) state that interest inventories show negligible sex differences in seventh grade preferences for science but significant differences start to appear after the eighth and ninth grades.

Fox and Denham (1974) have observed the predominantly male interest in the physical sciences and equal male-female interest in biological sciences. Kodsche and Newberry (1965) noted that girls prefer subjects involving "living matter" whereas boys are more interested in "non-living matter."

Language and Academic Achievement

It is a point well known that language plays important roles in some cognitive processes particularly as it is the end product of a number of internal processes, perception, concept-memory and cognitive, all of which require language for their development. Though there seems to be a consensus among leading psychologists that cognitive development is not entirely dependent on language, but they agree that language facilitates cognitive development. According to Bresheuvel (1952), the language spoken by a people determines to a very large extent the nature of their thought processes particularly the extent these function at conceptual level. Also, Whorf (1941) demonstrated that language which one speaks leads one to conceive the world in a certain unique way.

The importance of English Language cannot be over emphasised in learning. In fact it has become the language of the trade. It is also known that half of the world's scientific knowledge is

available in English, this places English in a prominent position internationally. According to Bernstein (1966), many other languages would have to adopt new lexicons to handle concepts and terminology relevant to modern science and technology. He said further that English is the major vehicle for the dissemination of the present century knowledge. It is the language through which modernization for many countries takes place.

It could be observed that most Nigerian children are victims of partial language deficiency or lack of proficiency in the English language which has become the language of arts, science and technology in Nigeria. In most cases the child speaks very little English at home, that which he probably acquired in school (Carroll, 1962).

A lot of empirical works abound either in support or otherwise of the effect of language on academic achievement of the child. It is well established that language is an important variable in learning and intellectual development. Vygotsky (1962) has demonstrated the importance of language to thought. He asserted that in childhood learning language and thought are closely linked.

Anastasi (1958) also postulated that if an individual has a moderate understanding of English, such an individual may lack the facility in the use of English or the rank of vocabulary required

to compete fairly on a verbal test. Ferron (1967) surveyed a number of studies and concluded that the West African child is greatly handicapped in tests of intelligence particularly when he has to learn through a foreign language.

In a study conducted by Yoloye (1965) though primarily conducted to investigate the effect of language competence on performance in intelligence tests, he found that measurements of intelligence tend to reflect the learner's mastery of the language. He concluded that the stronger a child's control of the language in which intelligence tests are presented the higher the intelligence scores would be. In essence the level of competence of Nigerian learners in English language determines to a large extent their level of performance in academics generally. The study of Itsuoko (1987) corroborates Yoyoye's study.

Ayodele (1984) using 269 Nigerian students and 60 British students in his study conducted to find out the reading speed and reading efficiency found that British students are not only significantly faster at reading but also superior with regards to reading efficiency. Also the British subjects rate of comprehension did not fall significantly with their speed of reading, whereas Nigerian subjects tend to comprehend less the faster they read. What this means therefore is that Nigerian students have a serious problem in using English language to tackle their academic tasks.

Goldman and Taylor's (1966) study indicated that language background affects performance in intelligence tests. They carried out a survey of research studies in literature on the educational problems and potentials of coloured immigrant children in Britain and concluded that language was a major factor in culturally induced backwardness of immigrant children and affects assessment of ability and actual school performance.

Carroll (1962) carried out an English language survey in West Africa and found among other things that the mean score of European subjects in all the test put together was 106. African subjects had an overall means score of 56 in the vocabulary test. European subjects had a mean score of 34. This study indicated the tremendous handicaps which children who have to learn through the medium of a foreign language normally suffer.

It has been shown by various researchers that lack of proficiency in English language affects the performance of subjects whose first language is not English in test of intelligence. As Vernon (1969) pointed out, unless a child can acquire complete facility in the second language, where it is the official language, he is inevitably retarded in reasoning as well as in attainment. This study is also buttressed by Ferron's (1967) survey. Ferron surveyed a number of investigations and concluded that the West

African child is greatly handicapped in tests of intelligence particularly when he has to learn through a foreign language, this is because of his lack of proficiency in English language.

The role of linguistic skill in performance is further confirmed by Bernstein (1931) who found a considerable weight of evidence that the verbal inferiority of working class children may account in part for the socio-economic differences in performance in intelligence and other cognitive tests.

In another study Bernstein (1966) pointed out that children from certain socio-economic backgrounds are handicapped in the school testing by lack of an elaborated code type language. To him, middle class children are exposed to an elaborate code which has distinctive syntactical features as well as more cognitively abstract referential functions than the restricted code of the lower classes. The absence of exposure to this elaborated code in lower classes is held to be influential in causing the poorer tested performance of the lower class on a number of intellectual tasks. Lawton (1968) believe that Bernstein's theory is important in that it relates social structure, verbal planning, language and educability.

† In a related study, Foster (1973) tested the hypothesis that the higher the socio-economic status, the more complex the use of language. Using 20 subjects from a higher college, they found a

few differences between students from high socio-economic background and low socio-economic background.

Wax and Wax (1964) found proficiency in English language in the United States essential for scholastic success among Indian children in the United States.

A comparison of the scores in two tests of children from English speaking homes and of children from homes in which another language may have been used in addition to English was made by Pintner (1982). He concluded that with tests verbal in content as well as directions, a greater handicap for non English children is probable.

In his own study of the syntactic structure of the written English of British and Nigerian secondary schools students, Tomori (1967) found that everything the average Nigerian testee knows in English is a behaviour pattern learnt in a second language learning situation. It should be noted that English language is not a direct opposite of any second language. In a situation where a child's thinking processes and ideas are formulated in the language of the environment if such is carried to learning other concepts and ideas in other subjects, this is likely to result in poor performance in that subject area.

Be that as it may, Alderman (1982) claims that higher levels of English language proficiency should mean that great certainty can be placed in the result of verbal aptitude test given in English, but not necessarily that the scores of verbal aptitude test will themselves be higher. He said further that foreign students with weak command of English language as a second language may perform poorly on tests of academic aptitude given in English regardless of the level of academic aptitude apparent on tests given in the first language as a second language may attain a score of a test of academic aptitude given in English language that corresponds more closely to score on comparable test given in their first language.

Davis (1967) studied the English proficiency of some overseas students in Britain and found that East and West African students in his samples were among the group that showed the poorest performance, and therefore, the greatest deficiency in English.

A report by the West African Examinations Council as reported by Obemata (1992) indicated that in three consecutive years, 1988, 1989 and 1990, the results in English Language in the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination were consistently poor with only 7.7%, 9% and 6.3% respectively passing at credit level. The results are a reflection of the low level of proficiency in English in Nigerian secondary schools.

Vernon (1969) pointed out that unless a child has acquired complete facility in the second language, where it is the official language, he is inevitably retarded in reasoning as well as in attainment.

Attitudes and Academic Achievement

Although there have been many investigations of the relationship between children school related attitude and their academic performance, the findings remain inconsistent and inconclusive. For example, Williams (1970), Keeves (1974) and Husen (1974) found significant relationships between school attitude scores and measures of academic performance. Malpase (1953) found that attitudes were related to achievement when it was measured by end of term grades but not related to achievement when measured by standardized tests. Aiken and Dreger (1961) found that attitudes were a significant predictor of Mathematics achievement for females but not so for males; while Jackson and Lahauderno (1967), Goldfried and D'Zurilla (1973) found no significant relationship between attitude scores and achievement. Jackson (1968) suggests that no apparent relationship exists between attitude and achievement and that the relationship is the same for boys and girls and does not depend on whether achievement is assessed in terms of course grades or test scores.

Psychologists have time and again emphasised the role of attitude in learning. According to Okoye (1982) if we develop a negative attitude towards examinations, this negative attitude may seriously interfere with one's performance in the examination. To him, attitude works hand in hand with learner's will power. A candidate who has a negative attitude towards a particular examination may find this attitudinal frame of mind negating his performance in that examination.

Some other researchers have argued that there is no clear cut relationship between attitude and achievement of students. They have shown that there are significant differences not only between the attitudes of different groups of students, but also that attitudes to different school subjects vary. Using a 70-item attitude to reading scale, Kennedy and Halisnki (1975) found that girls gain significantly higher scores than boys. Additionally, able students and those in accelerated streams had more positive attitudes to reading than the less able and those in regular streams. Khan (1969) in his investigation linking achievement to attitude also found that their correlation varied according to sex.

Jordan (1941), in a correlational study involving five subjects, found a correlation between attainments and attitude to English among 11-15 year old boys. Majoribank (1970) investigating the

relationship between school related attitudes and English at different levels of cognitive ability found that at each attitude level, an increase in cognitive ability was related to increase in achievement in English and that measures of ability were more powerful predictions of achievement than were attitude scores. Briggs (1959) found attitudes to Arithmetic more strongly related to attainments in that subject than they were in any other subject.

Ramsett (1974) studied the relationship between learning Economics and students' attitude. They discovered that learning Economics is closely associated with students' attitude towards the subject, that attitude is significantly associated with students' performance on test of understanding Economics. Ramsett and associates then concluded that attitude and subject matter are not separable, but instead they are closely related, mutually enforcing aspect of the learning process. Johnson (1968) however reports that significant differences in total recall in comprehension could be traced to difference in attitude.

Fraser (1980) explored grade level and sex difference in attitudes to English, Mathematics, Social Studies and Arts among a sample of 1,817 year 7-10 students. He found a significant decline in attitude to each school subject with grade levels. Girls expressed significantly more favourable attitudes towards English, Social

Studies and Arts but significantly less favourable attitudes towards Mathematics. Students' attitudes generally were most favourable towards English, next towards Mathematics, next Social Studies and least favourable towards Arts. The study revealed that girls hold more favourable general school attitude and that boys express more favourable attitude to school science subjects. The study of Abiri (1966) corroborates this. He found that young Nigerian pupils in grammar schools generally had favourable attitude to education. He also said that boys' attitudes tended to be more favourable than girls. He concluded by saying that boys' attitudes to books tended to improve with age.

Researches suggest that boys and girls differ in relative attitude depending on the particular school subject considered. A comprehensive study involving 1,204 students in 19 secondary schools from four major regions in England revealed that girls expressed more favourable attitude than boys towards English and Arts but less favourable attitude than boys towards Mathematics (Ormerod, 1975). Haladyna and Thomas (1977) study in the U.S.A. also indicated that girls held significantly more favourable attitudes towards Arts than did boys. Boys' attitudes to Science have been found to be significantly more favourable than girls.

Schofield (1982) gathered data on Mathematics attitude and achievement of elementary school children using 1,896 pupils and found that observed relationship between attitude and achievement were significantly stronger in boys than girls. He also found that relationship between the two appeared to increase with successive grade levels.

The relationship between attitude and achievement in Mathematics is not clearly defined. Riedesel and Burns (1973) reviewed the teaching of school Mathematics and contended that although it would seem that attitudes to achievement in Mathematics should be positively substantially related, there was at present no research to support such a relationship. Also Aiken (1970) in reviewing studies examining the relationship between attitudes and achievement in Mathematics through elementary high school and college levels, usually found low positive correlations which did not always reach the statistical significance.

Lum (1960) asserted that achievement differences noted in people of similar aptitude may be attributed to attitudinal and motivational differences. Schofield (1980) maintained that high achievement and high attitude in teachers are positively associated with high achievement and high attitude in pupils and attitude towards reading influence achievement in reading.

Study Habits and Academic Achievement

Several writers (English and English, 1959; Armstrong 1967, Robinson 1970) have attempted to define study behaviour as systematic behaviour patterns formed and specifically directed at learning to pass examinations and get better grades.

Akinboye (1976) sees study as determined purposeful behaviour patterns geared toward learning. It is the total of all the behaviour patterns (ideational, verbal, psychomotor, emotional neurophysiological) determined purposes and enforced practice that the individual adopts in order to learn and achieve competence. It therefore means that positive or negative habit towards studies could bring about poor or improved academic performance. According to Azeez (1990), poor study habits rank highest among other factors as being responsible for poor academic performance. Also, Bakare (1977) has said that if a school subject is poorly studied at the acquisition stage of learning, it will be poorly stored at the retention stage and it will be poorly produced at the reproduction stage and this could bring about poor or lowered academic performance even among students who are regarded as naturally bright.

Similar to Bakare's assertion is the view of Perry (1959) and others who found that even good students have deficient study skills. Robinson (1974) said that ineffectiveness and poor

performance on study may be due to inefficient study skills worries and other non adjustive factors connected with study.

It has been a persistent assumption by students, teachers, and counsellors that students' study behaviour has a significant effect upon performance in examination. According to Lavin (1965), study behaviour and study attitudes each contribute independently to academic performance. Biggs (1970) for instance found that a 72-item study behaviour questionnaire reduced to six orthongonal factors in a first year undergraduate population, organisation, rolerance of task ambiguity, cognitive simplicity, intrinsic motivation, openness of academic values and independence among arts students, the last five correlated significantly with first year performance. In science, only matriculation correlated with first year performance. He concluded that the nature of arts and science tasks require quite different strategies on the part of students. In a later study, Biggs (1971) found that the effectiveness of different study strategies depended upon the academic values of the students and upon the mode of evaluation used by the teacher.

Also, in another study, Biggs (1972) found that students were very much concerned about their methods of study. He found that as many as 45 per cent of the matriculated students in his study sample expressed actual dissatisfaction with their existing study

methods, and over 90 per cent of the total wished to improve their study method.

Weigal and Weigal (1963) opined that the use of study skills correlated with high academic achievement. Pond (1964) discovered that his study that high achievers had more regular study habits than low achievers. Rose and Klees (1977) concluded that wise use of good study methods leads to success.

Mills and Eckett (1934) were of the view that scholastically superior students possessed better study habits than students of low achievement.

Several studies have indicated that each succeeding generation of human beings improves in academic achievement. Tuddenham (1948) in a comparison of the academic achievement levels of the soldiers of World Wars I & II showed that the World War II soldiers scored two years higher in their mental age than those of World War I. Similarly, Bloom and Broder (1965) showed that high school seniors in 1955 consistently scored five per cent higher than a comparable group of higher school seniors in 1943. These earliest studies showed increasing intellectual attainment which could have required the acquisition of better study habits by students.

Some correlational studies however have shed light on the psychological concepts involved in the relationship between study

habits and academic performance. Norton (1959) found that differential aptitude tests were the most significant predictors for both sexes considered together, and that study habits as measured by instructor rating were not associated with academic achievement in the ninth grade general science. Shepps (1971) found that the survey of study habits and attitudes predicted achievement for boys but not girls. Wittmaier (1972) found that students with low test anxiety score had more effective study habits and avoided delaying academic tasks.

Owolabi (1980) using 100 students in a correlational study found among others that:

- (i) there was no relationship between study habits and academic performance of Nigerian secondary school students,
- (ii) no significant difference exists between the academic performance and study habits of male and female students.

Unlike Owolabi, Agbomi (1979) found that a significant difference exists between study habits and examination anxiety among a group of students. This could be that since poor study habits lead to faulty learning, retention and reproduction, the subjects are likely to be too anxious during the testing period, this

Test Anxiety and Academic Achievement

The effect of anxiety on complex cognitive or intellectual tasks are notoriously inconsistent. Theoretically anxiety is said to induce a generalized attentional deficit (Saranson, 1972) due to the tendency of anxious subjects to divert attention toward self deprecatory cognition.

Anxiety is an unpleasant, complex and variable pattern of behaviour which individuals show when reacting to internal (i.e. thoughts, and feelings) or external (i.e. environment situations) stimuli. Anxiety in the various forms of its manifestations can have debilitating effects and incapacitates both physiologically and cognitively. In Yoruba mythology, anxiety is regarded as being more dreadful than death.

According to Spielberger (1979), some dosage of anxiety is necessary for healthy personality because it helps react against danger and that it has adaptive effect which helps to promote one into action in tackling some of the problems of daily living of which learning is one.

The theoretical explanation of the effect of anxiety on human performance is based on Hull's (1943) theory of learning which makes much use of the concept of drive and reinforcement. As elaborated by Miller (1984), anxiety acts like a powerful drive which not only

motivates behaviour but also reinforces the response which have the effect of reducing the strength of anxiety states.

In a principle expoused by Herkes and Dodson in 1908 now referred to as Yerkes-Doson law, the law postulates that the relationship between drive and performance is circumvelinear because low drive is sub-optimal, high drive supra optimal to learning. However, the optimal levels varies with the difficulty of the task. Thus, there is a certain level of drive which is optimal for learning at each difficulty level so that optimal intensity becomes lower as problem difficulty increases. This therefore means that high level anxiety will motivate and lead to improved performance on very simple tasks while the level of anxiety that will be facilitatory to performance on difficult tasks will be low.

Eysenck (1981) considers that anxiety has both cognitive and motivational/psychological effects. Cognitively, anxiety reduces working memory capacity by generating task irrelevant cognitions. Motivationally, anxiety is considered to increase efforts, such that anxious subjects are often able to maintain performance efficiency at the cost of increased efforts.

Discussing academic performance and test anxiety, Liebert and Morris (1967) from an S-R perspective see test anxiety as a response to evaluative conditions. The response, they stated, consists of

two major components - "worry" and "emotionality". It is hypothesised that by worrying about the self in relation to examination, the test anxious individual divides his attention between self relevant and task relevant responses. He therefore cannot do as well as the less test anxious individual who concentrates on the demands of test and does not worry unnecessarily about self relevant issues.

Current test-anxiety theory is also based primarily on an interference model. Anxiety is thought to produce task irrelevant responses in the testing situation that interfere with the task-relevant responses necessary for good test performance. Support for the existence of such responses has come from the work of Morris and Liobert (1970) on the emotional and cognitive component called worry, has been shown to correlate strongly with academic performance. Wine (1971) suggested that the debilitating effects of test anxiety on performance may have attitudinal explanations. Wine feels that high test anxious students become preoccupied with (task irrelevant) worry responses and do not devote enough attention to test taking task and hence leading to decrease in academic performance.

Most studies conducted on test anxiety have always supported the notion that high test-anxiety levels and performance decrement

are correlated. Current studies have shown that the major effect of anxiety in an evaluative situation is an inferring agent. High anxiety level produces task irrelevant responses that compete and interfere with task-relevant responses necessary for good performance in evaluative situations (Moulder and Sarason, 1952).

The interference model assumes that the effect of test anxiety on performance occurs in the testing situation, that is anxiety during test interferes with the student's ability to retrieve and use information that is known well.

To Holroyd, Westbook, Wolf and Bodhorn (1978) test anxiety represents a problem of broader behaviour scope and that test anxiety and academic performance relationship is at least partially a function of differential study related behaviours between high and low test anxious individuals. Supporting this view, Wittmaier (1972) showed that high test anxious students had significant lower levels of study skill competence when compared to low anxious students. Mitchell and Ng (1972) found similar results and concluded that a reduction in test anxiety is no guarantee of subsequent improvement in academic performance when the level of study habit competence is ignored.

According to Hunsley (1987), high levels of test anxiety are believed to adversely influence students' self appraisal and appraisal

of evaluative situations. he also said further that test anxious students tend to engage in more negative thoughts (negative internal dialogue) during evaluative tasks.

Spence (1958) used various types of tasks in human learning and scores on manifest anxiety scale and he postulates that high anxiety facilitates performance in simple tasks while low levels of anxiety become more facilitatory in tasks which are complex.

In simple learning tasks, high level of anxiety facilitates performance during early stages of learning but later becomes debilitating to performance. Since anxiety is associated with arousal, it is believed that anxiety is an important factor in memory and recall. Thus in a similar fashion, moderately high level of anxiety will facilitate the process of memory while excessively high levels of anxiety inhibit the process of memory recall.

High level of anxiety has also been found to interfere with performance as reported by Alpher and Harber (1969). This is because anxiety generates a great deal of stress especially before and during examination and this interferes with students' academic performance.

The studies of Allen et al (1972) relating test anxiety to academic performance in college students have generally supported the findings that test anxiety is associated with a significant

performance decrement reflected in students' GPA. If a child becomes a victim of overdosage of anxiety before entering the examination hall, the child may experience performance decrement at the examination, leading to possible examination failure.

Culler and Hollahan (1980) study shows that high test anxious students have poorer ability and poorer study skills. They concluded that part of the academic performance decrement for high test anxious students may be due to less knowledge of the relevant material as a function of differential study skills.

It has also been said that poor ability produces anxiety. In their study Benjamin et al (1981), using 146 students in a psychology class, found that high anxiety students did poorly than other students on the short answer questions. They said further that high test anxious students had problems with the retrieval of information required on the test. In a related study, Caligton and Omelieh (1987) said that anxiety temporarily disrupts otherwise normal intellectual functioning. They investigated the hypothesis that anxiety inhibits test performance by temporarily blocking previously learned response. Using 189 subjects in an introductory psychology course, they found that high anxious individuals as compared with low anxious individuals would retrieve a greater degree of information not previously available to them when they were assessed under reduced threat.

Some other researchers such as Wait et al (1958), Davidson (1959) have shown that the relationship between anxiety and academic performance is not a bivariate but a multivariate one. They reported that other factors such as intelligence, or scholastic aptitude play an interactive role between anxiety and academic performance.

Also, it has been argued that test anxiety affects academic performance because test anxious students develop feelings of inadequacy, loss of status and esteem, and helplessness. They also tend to blame themselves for poor performance thereby responding to examination stress with deep emotional reaction and negative self centred thoughts which eventually impair performance (Morakinyo, 1984).

Because of their greater sensitivity to environment stimuli, children of high intelligence may be more fearful and presumably more anxious than children of low intelligence (Boston, 1939) but although this may be the case with fears of failure. Persons of low intelligence may have more failure experiences and thus become more fearful of failure (Mahome, 1966).

Cox (1964) also said that high levels of anxiety have been found in lower streams where schools are streamed on the basis of ability and it has been shown that even a single experience of

success can cause decrease in test anxiety while an experience of failure could cause an increase.

In explaining the relationship between anxiety and intelligence, Phillips, Martins and Mayers (1972) recall that Sarason and his associates took the position that anxiety is the aetiological factor in academic performance. This is due to finding by Zwibelson (1956) that when a test is administered in a highly test-like atmosphere, the relationship found is greater than when it is administered in a more neutral and relaxed atmosphere. Similarly, Paul and Erikson (1964) found that examination scores correlated negatively with test anxiety in real test in an introductory psychology course, while the scores on anxiety and examination were unrelated in the experimental form.

There is evidence that a certain amount of anxiety in otherwise normal children provides a motivation for learning. Wall (1958) asserted that children who improve are those who are mildly anxious about their work. Equally, to him it seems that children who are without anxiety do not do as well as might be expected.

Career Aspiration and Academic Achievement

Aspirations are shown to be among the significant determinants of eventual educational attainment and career success. Of the many

tasks of the teenage years, one of particular significance is that of preparing for and choosing an occupation. Connell et al (1975) found that achieving success in this task was one of the two frequently expressed concerns of Sydney teenagers. However, choosing a career is not possibly done in isolation, but success in school performances play a major role in eventual entry into an occupation.

There have been a lot of studies on the relationship between career aspiration and school performances, also sex differences in career aspiration as it affects learning outcomes and urban-rural orientations, careers and learning outcomes.

With respect to sex differences, studies have shown that girls tend to choose different types of jobs from boys centring their choices on teaching, nursing and white collar occupations (Connell et al, 1975). Girls also have been found to choose from among a smaller range of jobs compared to boys (Douvan and Adelson, 1966). Hollander (1971) found adolescent girls to be more decided on an occupational choice than boys. While such findings are of value to those interested in vocational development, one suspects that such sex differences as have been found would also reflect the influence of different socio-economic backgrounds and vary from one age and grade level to another.

Sex stereotyped perceptions of career and occupations are formed at an early age. For example, studies by Looft (1971) and Siegel (1973) have found that clear occupation stereotypes are already held by first and second graders. Although the above studies show that occupational stereotypes are formed quite early other evidence suggests that actual performance in academic subject areas and preference by students for these subjects are not clearly differentiated by sex until a much later date.

In relation to social background factors, Brook et al (1974) found that elementary school children of higher socio-economic background had higher vocational aspirations than children of lower socio-economic backgrounds. Furthermore, Clark (1967) found that middle class boys expressed a greater preference for white collar and professional jobs when compared with lower class boys. Such a difference was not however found for girls, who, no matter what social class, preferred the job of teaching and nursing.

One other way of attaching importance to value orientation is the increasing affiliation of formal education to vocational choice. The modern youth attitude towards occupations held in high regard by the society of which he is a member is being rapidly circumscribed by the requirement of an extended training only available within formal education. Thus, regardless of his attitude

towards education itself, his desire to succeed in his schooling may be determined by his aspiration to attain a particular vocation. Occupational aspiration thus becomes a second key element in academic motivation and achievement of students.

Research efforts in the United States have shown that urban and rural communities bound to a greater extent by the custom and values of earlier generations tend to limit educational and occupational aspirations studies by Grigg and Middle (1959). Haller and Sewell (1963) found urban high school boys having higher educational aspirations than rural high school boys. The same relationship is obtained for occupational aspirations. This is to say that where educational aspiration is high, there is the tendency to have high occupational and career aspirations.

As early as 1949, Hollingsheed in his study has found that educational and occupational aspirations of adolescents were directly related to social status origin. The study of Kahl (1953), Stephenson (1957) all found a significant positive relationship between social status and education and occupational aspirations.

In a number of studies involving competitive game-like situation (McClelland 1958; Litwin, 1966) found that achievement-oriented subjects consistently showed a greater tendency to choose alternatives or performed tasks which had an immediate probability of success.

Milliken (1958) using 9, 169 high school seniors found that students are generally realistic in their stated interest when it is related to their tested abilities.

Balogun (1978) studied the science occupation and objective of their relationship with some educational variables using 158 preliminary year students established that of the subjects generally required for admission into science and technology programmes, only biology and chemistry correlated significantly and positively with the occupational objectives of the students.

Durojaiye (1973) looked at the relationship between perceived occupational prestige and the type of education a secondary school pupil gets. He found that grammar school pupils used amount and level of learning as indices of occupational prestige, whereas secondary modern and commercial pupils rated high income as the index. He concluded from this that the type of formal education one received influenced ones rating of an occupation's prestige.

Okeke (1973) looked at the question of opportunities that are available and their impact on choice of occupations. His position was that performance in the relevant school subjects shaped the future careers of pupils and therefore he asked for diversification of the school curricular.

Kenneth (1977) studied occupational choice for a cross-section of 876 Sydney students, he found out that clear sex differences in

occupational choice were observed. Girls chose different types of jobs from boys, and confined themselves to a more restricted range of jobs. He also found that adolescents from lower class background tended to choose jobs requiring less further education and a lower status while adolescents from higher social-class background chose jobs requiring more further education and higher in status.

In concluding the review of related literature therefore, it is pertinent to say that most of the studies reviewed in this study had not attained a reasonable degree of success in identifying the order and the strength of the interactions between the identified sociological and psychological variables and cognitive achievement in Social Studies. What most of the studies have done was to examine some of these variables with achievement purely from the bivariate stand point. Furthermore, these studies did not investigate the patterns of direct and indirect interactions between these variables in terms of causal linkages and cognitive achievement in Social Studies. However, the present study intends to investigate the combined effects of these variables in explaining cognitive achievement in Social Studies.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present study is a correlational study. It is to be carried out (ex-post facto) and according to Kerlinger (1975).

"Expost factor research is a systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have a direct control of independent variables either because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relations among variables are made without direct intervention from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables."

The researcher in this study, therefore examined the relationships between achievement in secondary school social studies (criterion variable) and the independent variables as they have occurred, rather than creating the manifestations himself.

Subjects:

The subjects for this study are 624 Junior Secondary School class three students randomly drawn from thirty secondary schools in Oyo State. Junior Secondary School class three students were used for this study because this is the highest class where Social Studies is being taught as a compulsory subject and a large proportion of the syllabus in this subject would have being covered

with the students for the purpose of the achievement test.

Samples and Sampling Procedure:

The three hundred and nine (309) Secondary Schools in Oyo State were stratified into urban and rural schools. 30 secondary schools which accounted for about 10% of the total schools in the state were used for this study.

Stratified random sampling method was used to select the 30 schools (see Appendix for list of schools) in this order based on the proportion of the school available: boys only school - 3 from rural, 7 from urban; girls only school - 2 from rural, 8 from urban; co-educational school - 5 from rural, 5 from urban. Simple random sampling (balloting) was however used in selecting an arm of J.S. Three Class used. Where students in the arm exceeded 22, random sampling method was also used to select 22 out of the total number of students in the class.

In all, the sample consists of 624 (337 boys and 287 girls) from 30 secondary schools (225 from boys only; 191 from girls only; 208 from co-educational schools). Their ages ranged from 13 years to 17 years (mean age = 15.63).

Instrumentation:

Six instruments were used to collect the data for this study. The instruments were all administered on the students during the normal school period.

1. Achievement Test in Social Studies:

This consisted of sixty multiple choice items. The 60 items were selected from initial pool of 80 items developed by the investigators. The syllabus of all the secondary schools involved in this study was screened and all the common topics that have been taught by majority of the schools were included in the test blue print from where the 80 items were generated. The 80 items were then trial tested on 200 J.S. three students and after the item analysis, 60 items were eventually selected. The 60 items were pre-tested on 236 J.S. III students in six different schools in Oyo State. A reliability estimate of 0.88 was established for this test using Kuder Richardson formular 20.

2. Social Studies Attitude Scale

The scale consisted of 23 attitudinal items on Social Studies on a five point Likert type scale in which students were required to

indicate the extent of their agreement or otherwise on each item. The items covered attitudinal statements on what students feel about Social Studies.

The items were pre-tested on 236 students. The pre-test result showed that none of the items is ambiguous and a cronbach alpha value of 0.66 (a measure of construct validity and internal consistency reliability of the items) was produced.

3. Socio-Economic Status Scale

This was constructed by the investigator. It contained information on the family background of each subject such as the number of people in the family; educational level of parents; parental occupation; type of house lived in; area of the town; and an inventory of some of the modern equipment and electronics in the home.

4. Home Language and Career Aspiration

These two variables were numbered 13 and 14 respectively in the socio-economic scale. Home language was to isolate the type of language spoken at home by the students, while career aspiration was to identify the type of job the child would like to engage in future.

5. Study Habit Inventory (SHI)

The SHI was developed by Bakare in 1977. It is a self report inventory which enables the individual student to describe the situations, habits and conditions which affect his use of study time and his subsequent performance on tests and examinations. It is a 45 item inventory in the form of direct questions to which students are required to provide answer on a five-point scale of how frequently he behaves in that way.

The inventory has been standardized. Bakare (1977) found its test re-test reliability to be 0.83. In another study, he found the test re-test reliability to be 0.64. A number of studies have been conducted to investigate the validity of SHI. It has been found to discriminate between groups of passing and failing students. It has also been found to correlate negatively with general anxiety, test anxiety and personal problems, but positively with academic self concept and academic performance (Bakare, 1977).

For the purpose of this study, a pre-test on 236 J.S. III students gave a test re-test reliability of 0.96 and a cronbach alpha value of 0.80. The instrument was used without any modification.

6. Sarason Test Anxiety Scale

This scale was developed by Sarason in 1978. It has 37 items requiring True or False response. Sarason himself reported test re-test reliability of 0.8 after several weeks interval. In addition, Wagama, Cornuer and Comier (1982) found a test re-test reliability of 0.87. Akinboye (1983) reported high internal consistency reliability of 0.85 for Nigerian students and that the items loaded heavily when factor analysed on a single main factor. Also, Morakinyo (1984) reported a test re-test reliability of 0.86 when administered on Nigerian students. For the present study the instrument was trial tested on 236 J.S. III students and one of the items was dropped for having a negative item-total correlation. The results of the trial testing produced a cronbach alpha value of .72.

7. The Rotter Internal-External Control Scale

The Rotter I-E scale consists of 23 pairs of statements, using a forced choice format, and a six filler questions. Each pair contains one internal statement and one external statement and subjects make dichotomous choice between the two alternatives.

Rotter (1966) reported some information on the psychometric properties of the instrument. He obtained an internal consistency reliability coefficient of 0.70 from a sample of 400 college students. He also obtained a test - re-test reliability coefficient of 0.72 for

college students. Horsch et al (1969) reported a reliability varying between 0.47 and 0.83 for varying samples and intervening time periods.

Other researchers have found the reliability coefficient of 0.70 to 0.92 (Anastasi 1976, Olayinka, 1977). Igwe (1991) also reported a test re-test reliability coefficient of 0.64 and a cronbach alpha value of 0.71. Despite the above information on the psychometric properties of this scale, a cronbach alpha value of 0.52 was established by the present investigator using 236 students that were randomly drawn from six secondary schools in Oyo and Osun States.

Data Collection Procedures

Data for this study were obtained using the six instruments discussed above. The guidance counsellors and the career masters in the participating schools assisted especially in maintaining order and discipline during the test administration. The investigator administered the questionnaire in the following order: (i) Socio-economic status scale, (ii) Rotter I-E scale Sarason Test Anxiety Scale, (iii) Study Habit Inventory, and (iv) Attitude Towards Social Studies scale. This was to elicit necessary information on the socio-psychological construct being considered in this study. Also, achievement in Social Studies was dependent on the variables, thus it was administered last.

Data collection lasted for about four weeks. However, to control extraneous variables and contamination, the instruments were retrieved from all the subjects. Where two schools close to each other were used, the second school was visited immediately after the first school.

Scoring the Instruments

All the instruments used in this study were coded by the investigator and the scoring done by computer. The scores of responses were used for running the regression analysis by the computer.

Data Analysis

The nine variables involved in this study were numbered one to nine as follows:

- X_1 = Socio-Economic Status
- X_2 = Locus of Control
- X_3 = Gender
- X_4 = Home Language
- X_5 = Attitude towards Social Studies
- X_6 = Study Habits
- X_7 = Test Anxiety

X_8 = Career Aspiration

X_9 = Achievement in Social Studies.

The data collected were analysed on the basis of the research questions. As the study problem was focused on causal explanation, the research emphasis was thus on formulating and testing an explanatory model involving all the nine variables of this study. It was within this context that the relative importance of the exogenous variables in their relationship with the criterion variate became particularly more meaningful. The investigator thus employed two related statistical analysis that aided explanation: multiple regression and path analysis.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analyses were used to provide information on the joint and relative contributions of the eight variables to the prediction of students' achievement (X_9) in Social Studies. Research Questions 1 and 2.

Path Analysis

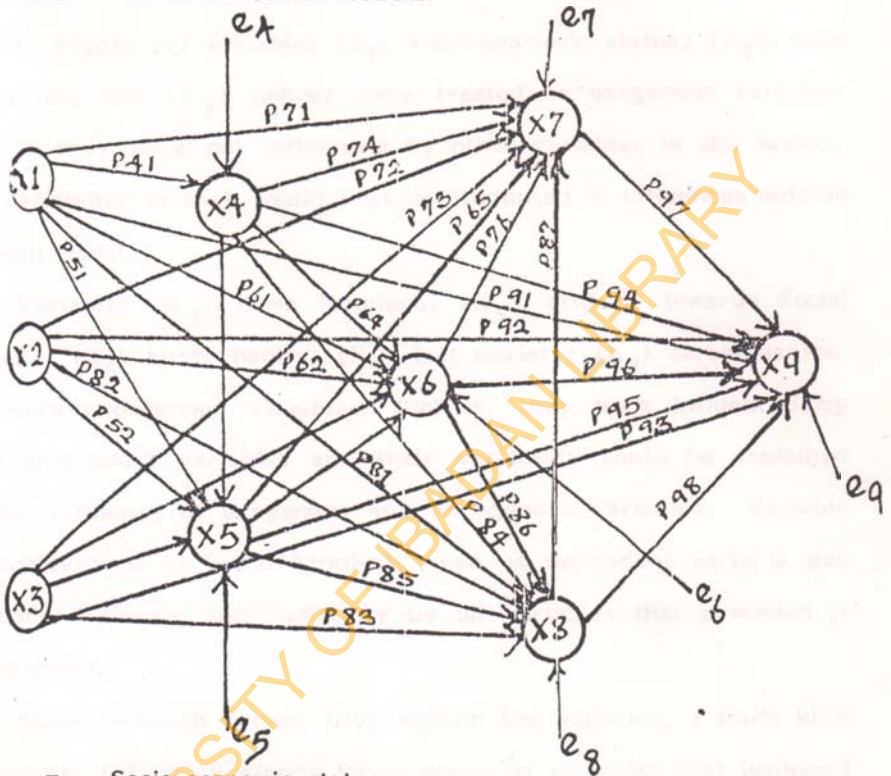
Path analysis provided the basis for the researcher to explore the tenability of causal linkage among the independent variables (Research Questions 3, 4, 5) of the hypothesized causal model. This

was however subject to the following assumptions of the recursive system:

- (i) There was no reciprocal (or mutual) causation between variables.
- (ii) The residuals were uncorrelated with variables preceding them in the model and among themselves.
- (iii) Each of the endogenous or dependent variable was directly related to all the variables preceding it in the hypothesized causal sequence.

The hypothesized path model showing the hypothesized path from socio-psychological variables (VARS 1-8) to achievement in Social Studies (VAR 9) is shown on page 75.

Fig. 3.1: HYPOTHESIZED MODEL



- X_1 = Socio-economic status
 X_2 = Locus of control
 X_3 = Gender
 X_4 = Home Language
 X_5 = Attitude Towards Social Studies
 X_6 = Study Habits
 X_7 = Test Anxiety
 X_8 = Career Aspiration
 X_9 = Achievement in Social Studies

$e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7, e_8, e_9$ = Residual Variables (to indicate the effects of Variables outside the model).

In Figure 3.1 variables (X_1) socio-economic status; (X_2) locus of control; and (X_3) gender were treated as exogenous variables (that is they were not influenced by other variables in the model). Any variability in them would thus be attributed to influences outside the path model.

Variables (X_4) home language; (X_5) attitude towards Social Studies; (X_6) study habits; (X_7) test anxiety; (X_8) career aspiration were endogenous variables, that is, they were influenced by other antecedent variables and their variability could be explained by the influence of exogenous and endogenous variables. Variable 9, (achievement in Social Studies) taken as dependent variable was influenced directly and indirectly by all variables that preceded it in the model.

Since research cannot fully explain the variance, a third kind of variable (e) which stands for unmeasured variables that impinged upon the endogenous variables was included in the path model. The P's (path coefficients) represent the impact of one variable on another.

Theoretical Bases for the Model

According to Blalock (1964), the following factors must be considered in generating the hypothesized causal model:

1. Temporal Order

If a variable occurs in time before another one with which it is known or assumed to be causally related, it is obvious that the latter will be a function of the former, and not vice versa.

2. Research Findings

Research can identify a causal order among a number of variables.

3. Theoretical Grounds

A particular causal order can be hypothesized by a researcher who then goes ahead to test his theory. Consider variables X_1 (1 = 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9). Figure 3.2. It is known that X_9 is causally dependent on X_6 (Akinboye, 1973; Bakare, 1977). Achievement in Social Studies will be a function of attitude towards the subject and the type of study habits possessed by the individual at least on a temporal ground. The type of attitude possessed by an individual could affect the study habits of such individual and this is likely to affect his achievement.

Bakare (1977) claims that a bright child may perform poorly if he develops poor or negative study habits.

The causal order of the six variables can be visualized as in Figure 3.2 either on a temporal grounds or as a result of research findings.

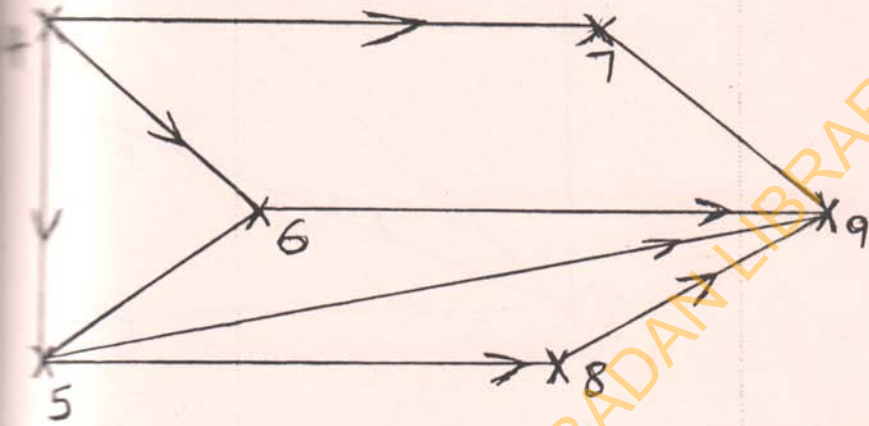


Figure 3.2: Causal Paths Among X_i ($i = 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9$)

The variables X_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$) are independent variables and therefore preceded all the other endogenous variables by definition and theory. The three variables are independent of each other and so there are no causal interactions between them but are related to some other variables in the model.

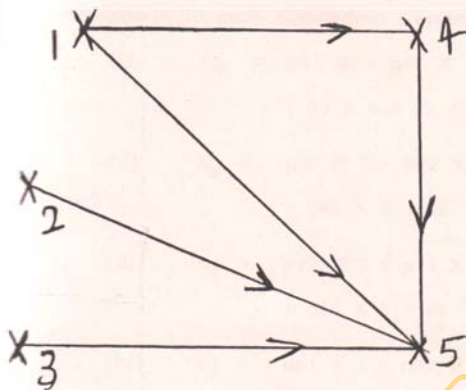


Figure 3.3: Causal Paths Among X_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$)

Figure 3.3 causal paths among X_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$). Omitting variables X_6, X_7, X_8, X_9 for now, the integration of Figures 3.2 and 3.3 give a simpler form of Figure 3.1, the hypothesized model of the nine variable system.

Identifying and Trimming the Paths in the Model

In order to identify the important paths, the researcher explored all hypothesized linkages by forming the following set of structural equations (a recursive system) from the theoretical (hypothesized) causal model. Each of these structural equations

corresponds to each dependent variables, X_1 (1 = 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9).

$$(i) \quad X_9 = p_{91} X_1 + p_{93} X_3 + p_{94} X_4 + p_{95} X_5 \\ + p_{96} X_6 + p_{97} X_7 + p_{98} X_8 + e_9 \quad \dots \quad 3.1$$

$$(ii) \quad X_8 = p_{81} X_1 + p_{82} X_2 + p_{83} X_3 + p_{85} X_5 \\ + p_{86} X_6 + e_8 \quad \dots \quad 3.2$$

$$(iii) \quad X_7 = p_{72} X_2 + p_{73} X_3 + p_{74} X_4 + p_{75} X_5 \\ + p_{76} X_6 + e_7 \quad \dots \quad 3.3$$

$$(iv) \quad X_6 = p_{61} X_1 + p_{62} X_2 + p_{63} X_3 + p_{64} X_4 \\ + p_{65} X_5 + e_6 \quad \dots \quad 3.4$$

$$(v) \quad X_5 = p_{51} X_1 + p_{52} X_2 + p_{53} X_3 + p_{54} X_4 \\ + e_5 \quad \dots \quad 3.5$$

$$(vi) \quad X_4 = p_{41} X_1 + e_4 \quad \dots \quad 3.6$$

It was therefore necessary to run six regression analysis in order to compute values of the path coefficients for the hypothesized causal model. The significance (at pre-specified level of 0.05) of the path coefficients that is considered meaningful constituted the basis for trimming the hypothesized causal model. Thus only meaningful paths with significant coefficients (at 0.05 level) were retained. The trimming helped the researcher to ascertain whether a more

parsimonious model would be produced without much loss of information. Only strong paths (with coefficients significant at 0.05 level) were retained.

Verifying the Efficacy of the New Model

To verify the efficacy of the new model attempts were made to reproduce the original correlation matrix of the variables using the path coefficients in the new model. These correlations were reproduced from a set of normal equations (developed from the new model shown in Table 3.3). The new correlation matrix was compared with the old one in order to ascertain the efficacy of the model. The discrepancies between the original correlation data and the new ones are considered to be very minimal. This indicates that the original correlation data are consistent with the new model. Otherwise, the model would have been rejected.

TABLE 3.1

NORMAL EQUATIONS FOR REPRODUCING THE OBSERVED CORRELATIONS

r12	=	p21	3.7
r13	=	p31	3.8
r14	=	p41	3.9
r15	=	p51 + p52 + p53 + p52r12 + p53r13	3.10
r16	=	p61 + p65 + p51 + p64 + p65 + p52r12	3.11
r17	=	p71 + p41 + p74 + p72 + p73 + p75 + p76 + p56 + p52	3.12
r18	=	p81 + p82 + p52 + p85 + p85 + p53r23 + p83	3.13
r19	=	p91 + p91 + p72 + p97	3.14
r23	=	p32	3.15
r24	=	p42	3.16
r25	=	p52 + p51 + 54 + p53r23	3.17
r26	=	p62 + p53 + p65 + p61r12	3.18
r27	=	p72 + p71r12	3.19
r28	=	p82 + p53 + p85 + p81	3.20
r29	=	p92	3.21
r34	=	p43	3.22
r35	=	p53 + p52r23 + p51r12 + p41 + p54	3.23

TABLE 3.1 (Contd.)

r36	=	p63 + p53 + p65 + p62	3.24
r37	=	p73 + p63 + p76 + p53 + p65 + p76	3.25
r38	=	p83 + p53 + p85	3.26
r39	=	p93	3.27
r45	=	p54	3.28
r46	=	p64 + p54 + p65	3.29
r47	=	p74 + p54 + p75	3.30
r48	=	p84 + p64 + p86	3.31
r49	=	p94 + p64 + p96	3.32
r56	=	p65	3.33
r57	=	p75 + p65 + p76	3.34
r58	=	p85 + p65 + p86	3.35
r59	=	p95 + p85 + p98	3.36
r67	=	p76	3.37
r68	=	p86 + p65 + p86	3.38
r69	=	p96 + p76 + p97 + p86 + p98	3.39
r78	=	p87	3.40
r79	=	p97	3.41
r89	=	p98	3.42

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study was concerned with providing a causal explanation of students' achievement in Social Studies on the basis of the seven psychological variables and one social variable. Specifically, the study was conducted to attempt to provide answers to the five research questions posed. The statistical results and discussions are presented in this chapter.

Research Question

To what extent would the independent variables (Variables 1-8) when taken together predict students' cognitive achievement in Social Studies?

Results

The total contribution of the eight independent variables (Variables 1-8) to the prediction of the criterion variable. Variable 9 is shown in the table below.

TABLE 4.1

Summary of Regression Analysis on Sample Data

Multiple	R	.78		
	R ²	.61	R ² change	.61
Adjusted	x ²	.60	F change	119.43
Standard Error		6.57	Signif. F change	0.0

Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS
Regression	8	41241.078	5155.51
Residual	613	26460.354	43.165
F =	119.44	Signif. F =	0.0

The table above shows that the use of the seven psychological variables (locus of control, gender, study habits, attitude, test anxiety, home language career aspiration and social factor - social-economic status) to predict students' achievement in Social Studies yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) = .78 and adjusted R² = .61 as shown in the table.

Discussions

The results of this study in relation to research question 1 revealed that the eight independent variables when taken together seem to be quite effective in predicting secondary school students academic achievement in Social Studies. The magnitude of the relationship between the eight predictor variables and their criterion variate is reflected in the value of $R = .78$ and adjusted $R^2 = .61$ as shown in table.

It could then be said that taking all the variables together they contributed about 61 per cent variance on the achievement of students in Social Studies. More importantly, since the value of F-ratio = (119.43) is significant at 0.0 alpha level it means that the probability of the effectiveness of the prediction occurring by chance is ruled out.

Many researchers, educators, psychologists and sociologists have at different times pointed out the importance of social and psychological factors (Social-economic status, locus of control, test anxiety and career aspiration) to school academic achievement and performance. For example Jiyono (1983) postulated that a person's social-economic background has some influence on his upbringing and consequently on his attitude and predisposition towards his goals and

aspirations in life. Johnstone (1983) broke down home background factors and found significant correlation to levels and types of academic attainments. In a similar vein, Rosen (1986) said that there were two components in achievement orientation - the psychological factor of personality characteristics of achievement motivation which provides an initial impetus to excel; secondly, the cultural factors consisting of certain value orientations which define and implement achievement motivated behaviour.

The study of Obemeata (1986) also reveals that educational achievement of students is the result of the functioning of their psychological propensities. The study of Bakare (1975), Uwakwe (1979), Akinade (1982), Adedipe (1986) lend support to the assertion that students' academic achievement generally hinges heavily on psychological variables. Balogun (1979) gave the following factors among others that are generally considered to affect learning: learning style, language competence, reading skill, attitude to learning, sex and socio-economic status.

Also, the type of schools, the parental encouragement, the personal attention given to the child's educational and social needs all could have accounted for the favourable cognitive development of the majority of the students and this could have contributed to the high percentage observed in this result.

The importance and the potency of the psychological variables could not be doubted in relation to the result observed in this study. Most of the psychological variables examined in the study have at various times proved to be potent factors in contributing to high academic achievement in various school subjects. For example, a child's favourable and positive performance in any school subject could be as a result of his favourable and positive study habits (Var. 6) in other words this could have boosted the result observed in this hypothesis.

Furthermore, test anxiety is another psychological factor which could either impair or enhance academic performance. It has often been said that a little dosage of anxiety is needed for healthy personality, and anxiety prompts one into action in tackling some problems of daily living of which learning is one. Some moderate dosage of anxiety could have raised the performances of the subject in this study.

The same could be held as truth for other variables like locus of control, gender, home language, attitude towards Social Studies and career aspiration, since they contribute significantly though jointly to the result presented under *research question 1*.

Research Question 2

What are the relative contribution of each of the eight independent variables to the prediction of cognitive achievement in Social Studies?

Results

The results of the relative contribution of each of the eight independent variables to the prediction of students cognitive achievement in secondary school Social Studies are presented.

Table 4.2 (below) shows the various contributions (B's) to prediction of each of the eight predictor variables at 0.05 level of significance.

TABLE 4.2

Relative Contribution of each of the eight Independent Variables

Var. No.	Variable	STD REG WT. (B)	SE (B)	df	T-Ratio	P-Level
1	SES	0.661	0.037	0.449	15.543	0.05
2	Locus of Control	0.016	0.025	0.971	.645	N.S.
3	Gender	0.135	0.288	0.771	4.688	0.05
4	Home Language	-0.062	0.318	0.627	-1.949	0.05
5	Attitude towards Social Studies	-0.071	0.029	0.733	-2.394	0.05
6	Study Habits	0.093	0.032	0.590	5.383	0.05
7	Test Anxiety	0.046	0.275	0.839	1.661	N.S.
8	Career Aspiration	0.046	0.030	0.666	1.472	N.S.

Discussion

The findings of this study in attempting to answer research question 2 are worthwhile. The eight predictor variable contributed differentially to students' cognitive achievement in Social Studies. The degree and levels of their contributions are shown in the standard regression weights (B) value observed in each of the variables.

From the table, it is obvious that socio-economic status (VAR.1) contributed more to the prediction with $B = .661$. More importantly the probability that this prediction occurred by chance is virtually zero as indicated by the significant T-value of .000.

The present study has expounded and confirmed the importance of socio-economic status to learning and academic achievement. From figure 3.1, it can be seen that socio-economic status has a direct effect on achievement (VAR.9) and indirect effect on achievement through home language (VAR.4), attitude towards Social Studies (VAR.5) and study habits (VAR.6). There is a strongly evidence from the result observed that the family social structure is still very much important in providing characteristics that are needed to succeed in school. The importance of socio-economic status in academic achievement have consistently received attention and controversy over the years. For example, Banke and Finlayson (1973) have reported that most sociological studies found that children from lower class

socio-economic backgrounds on the average perform less well academically than those from middle and upper socio-economic background. The study of Heyneman and Jamison (1980) found socio-economic to be negatively associated with achievement. In Uganda for example, Heyneman (1976) found socio-economic status to have limited effect on academic achievement. In Nigeria Hassan (1983) has found extremely low predictive value of socio-economic status and academic achievement. The studies of Thesison (1983) and Avoshe (1985) have supported the hypothesis that socio-economic status has a strong positive effect on primary and lower secondary grades, though the effect may diminish at higher secondary level. The above findings seem to support the finding of the present study more so that it was found that socio-economic status contributed about 66 per cent to the total prediction of the result.

Gender differences (VAR. 3) is another important variable contributing relatively to the prediction of cognitive achievement in Social Studies with $B = .135$; this is next to socio-economic status. In the first instance Social Studies is a compulsory subject in the Junior Secondary School as such all students must have a credit pass in it, this could have made the students work hard to perform better in this subject. However, Balogun (1979) has reported non significant differences in the cognitive achievement of the secondary school boys and girls.

From the table, (Table 4.2) it is obvious that (VAR. 6) study habits contributed significantly to the prediction with $B = .092$ significant at 0.05 alpha level. The B value observed is hardly surprising bearing in mind the importance of study habits to academic achievement. Study habits seem to encompass all the expressions of feeling that one may possess either to excel or not. Bakare (1977) have said that the study habit inventory (one of the instruments used in this study) correlate positively with academic self concept and academic performance. The present study has given support to this assertion. It can also be seen from the postulated model the central role study habits played. Variables like variable 4, home language, variable 3 gender, variable 5, attitude towards Social Studies have direct link with it, while study habits itself have direct link with variable 7, test anxiety; variable 8, career aspiration and variable 9 achievement. All these no doubt contributed to the value observed.

Another important variable that contributed significantly to the prediction though negatively is home language (VAR. 4) (Table 4.2). The importance of language to academic achievement cannot be over emphasised. Language plays important roles in cognitive processes and it is the end product of a number of internal processes, perception, concept, memory and cognition. For this variable to have contributed negatively to the prediction of cognitive achievement in

Social Studies is an indication that the students' mastery of English language, the official language in schools and language used in the teaching of Social Studies is poor, and that students think and communicate in their home language which invariably affects their conception of ideas and thinking processes which mar recall of facts in Social Studies. Also, if facts are to be translated from the home language to English before questions in Social Studies are answered such facts would have been distorted and the original meaning of such fact altered at the recall stage and this could lead to poor performance or lead to negative effect on cognitive achievement in Social Studies.

Attitude towards Social Studies (VAR. 5) also made a negative contribution to the prediction of cognitive achievement in Social Studies. Psychologist have time and again emphasised the role of attitude in learning. Negative attitude towards Social Studies have been found to interfere with ones performance in the subject. Okoye (1982) has said that attitude work hand with will power. A candidate who has negative attitude towards a subject may find this attitudinal frame of mind negating his performance. In essence it could be seen that the negative attitude of the students to the learning of Social Studies contributed significantly though negatively to the prediction of cognitive achievement in the subject.

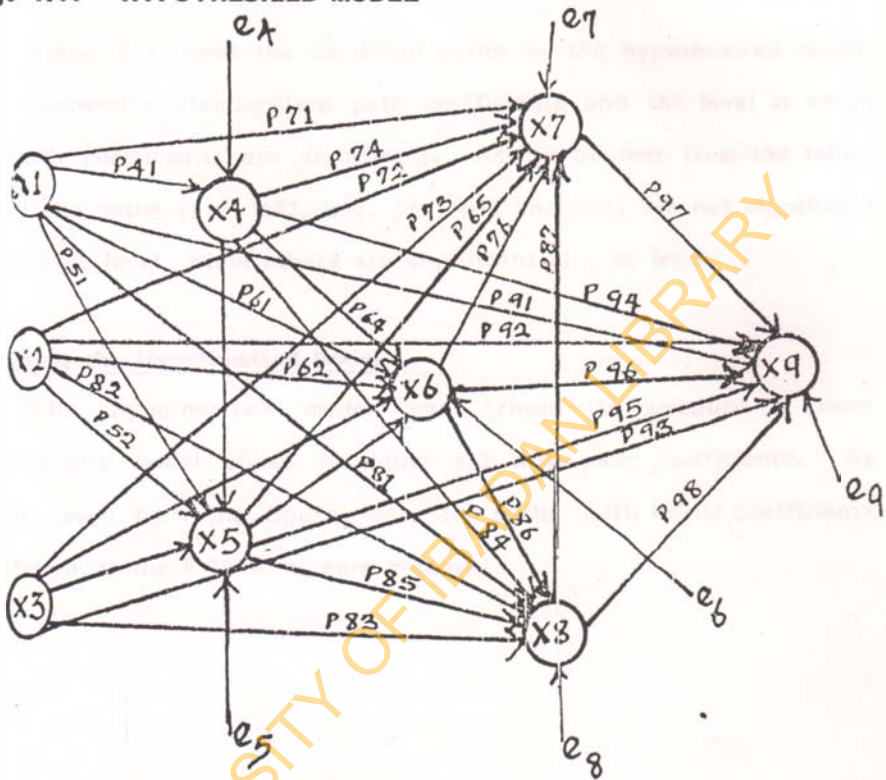
Research Questions 3, 4 and 5

To facilitate the understanding and flow of discussion that focus on research questions 3, 4 and 5, it is necessary to present the following background information.

The Hypothesized Model

The hypothesized nine variable model presented in chapter three as figure 3.1 is reproduced for convenience as Figure 4.1. The figure shows the path coefficients (P) and the zero order correlation (See page 96).

Fig. 4.1: HYPOTHESIZED MODEL



- X_1 = Socio-economic status
 X_2 = Locus of control
 X_3 = Gender
 X_4 = Home Language
 X_5 = Attitude Towards Social Studies
 X_6 = Study Habits
 X_7 = Test Anxiety
 X_8 = Career Aspiration
 X_9 = Achievement in Social Studies

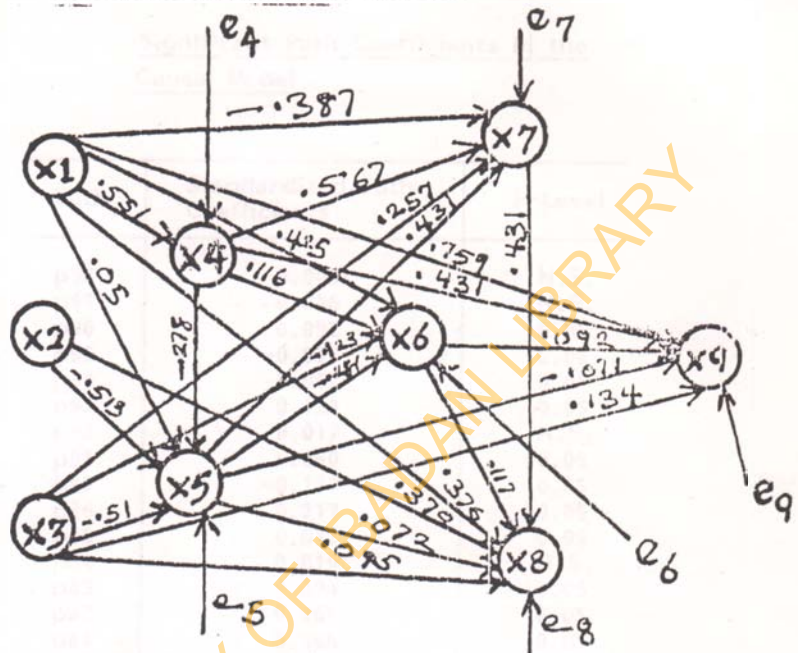
$e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7, e_8, e_9$ = Residual Variables (to indicate the effects of Variables outside the model).

Table 4.3 shows the identified paths for the hypothesized model, their respective standardized path coefficients and the level at which the path coefficients are significant. As can be seen from the table, six of the paths (p98, p97, p92, p84, p72 and p62) are not significant at the 0.05 level, while others are significant at 0.05 level.

Trimming the Hypothesized Model

The hypothesized model was trimmed to produce a more parsimonious model shown in figure 4.2 with path coefficients. As can be seen from the figure, only the paths (with initial coefficients significant at the 0.05 level were retained.

Fig. 4.2: A MORE PARSIMONIOUS MODEL



- X_1 = Socio-economic status
 X_2 = Locus of control
 X_3 = Gender
 X_4 = Home Language
 X_5 = Attitude Towards Social Studies
 X_6 = Study Habits
 X_7 = Test Anxiety
 X_8 = Career Aspiration
 X_9 = Achievement in Social Studies

$e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7, e_8, e_9$ = Residual Variables (to indicate the effects of Variables outside the model).

TABLE 4.3

Significant Path Coefficients in the
Causal Model

Path	Standardized Path Coefficients	P-Level
p98	0.046	N.S.
p97	0.046	N.S.
p96	0.092	0.05
p95	-0.071	0.05
p94	-0.062	0.05
p93	0.134	0.05
p92	0.017	N.S.
p91	0.660	0.05
p87	-0.117	0.05
p86	0.217	0.05
p85	0.072	0.05
p84	0.019	N.S.
p83	0.094	0.05
p82	0.069	0.05
p81	0.366	0.05
p76	-0.087	0.05
p75	0.096	0.05
p74	0.567	0.05
p73	0.257	0.05
p72	-0.037	N.S.
p71	-0.289	0.05
p65	-0.281	0.05
p64	0.116	0.05
p63	-0.123	0.05
p62	-0.024	N.S.
p61	0.423	0.05
p54	-0.278	0.05
p53	-0.051	0.05
p52	-0.076	0.05
p51	0.05	0.05
p41	0.543	0.05

TABLE 4.4

Original and Reproduced Correlations of the Nine Variable System

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	1.000**	-.065	.387**	.541**	-.289**	.522**	-.256**	.494**	.759**
2.	-.065	1.000	.030	0.233	-.058	-.036	.046	.104	-.027
3.	.387	.030	1.000**	.191**	-.122*	.096*	.125**	.213**	.414
4.	.541**	.023	.191**	1.000**	.404*	.433*	-.176**	.309**	.386**
5.	-.289**	-.058	-.122**	-.404**	1.000**	-.434**	.174**	-.133**	-.296**
6.	.521**	-.036	-.96*	.433**	-.434**	1.000**	-.245**	.388**	.461**
7.	-.256**	-.046	-.125**	-.176**	.174**	-.245**	1.000**	-.276**	.138**
8.	.494**	.105	.213**	.308**	-.133**	.380**	-.276**	1.000**	.407**
9.	.759**	-.027	.414**	.396**	-.296**	.461**	-.138**	.407**	1.000**

** = .001

The original correlations are reported in the upper half of the matrix. The reproduced correlations are reported in the lower half of the matrix.

As can be seen from the correlation matrix table (Table 4.4), the discrepancies between the original and the reproduced correlations in the observed data is consistent with the more parsimonious model. The more parsimonious model is thus tenable in explaining the inter-relationship between the independent variables (Var. 1-8) and the dependent variable (Var. 9).

Research Question 3

What are the significant pathways through which the independent variables (Var. 1-8) cause variation in students' cognitive achievement in Social Studies. (Var. 9).

Results

The significant pathways are the pathways which are statistically significant and meaningful. These are listed in table 4.5. According to Land (1969) path coefficients less than 0.05 may be treated as not meaningful.

TABLE 4.5

Significant paths through which X_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 8$) caused variation in var. 9 $P = 0.05$.

P	91			
P	93			
P	94			
P	95			
P	96			
P	41	P	94	
P	61	P	96	
P	51	P	65	P 96
P	63	P	96	
P	51	P	95	
P	54	P	65	P 96
P	41	P	64	P 96
P	41	P	74	P 97

Research Question 4

Which of these significant paths are direct and which are indirect.

Results

Classification of significant pathway under direct and indirect paths are shown in Table 4.6. An indirect path (i.e. a compound path) is considered significant if the constituent single paths are significant.

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TABLE 4.6

Significant Pathways and their Nature

Pathway	Nature of Path
P 91	Direct
P 93	Direct
P 94	Direct
P 95	Direct
P 96	Indirect
P 41 P 94	Indirect
P 41 P 64 P 96	Indirect
P 41 P 74	Indirect
P 41 P 96	Indirect
P 63 P 96	Indirect
P 52 P 95	Indirect
P 65 P 96	Indirect
P 61 P 96	Indirect

Research Questions 5

What proportion of the total effects are (i) direct (ii) indirect?

TABLE 4.7

The Variables and their effects on Variable 9

No.	X_i	X_i (i = 1-8)	Total Effect	%	T.I.E.	%	Direct Effect	%
1		1	1.000	10.003	0.241	3.175	0.759	6.830
2		2	-0.065	1.88	-0.057	-0.01	-0.122	-1.870
3		3	0.387	9.98	-0.270	0.652	0.414	9.350
4	VAR 9	4	0.541	9.79	0.145	3.66	0.396	6.330
5		5	-0.289	-9.49	-0.06	0.21	-0.289	-9.700
6		6	0.522	10.08	0.61	1.320	0.461	8.76
7		7	-0.256	-	.00	.00	-	-
8		8	0.474	-	.00	00	-	-
					0.609	9.0	1.619	23.44

T.I.E. = Total Indirect Effect

T.E. = Total Effect

D.E = Direct Effect

Joint Discussion on Research Questions 3, 4 & 5

There is a very close relationship between research questions 3, 4 and 5 so much so that it is not easy to discuss one without reference to the others. In view of this, it is deemed necessary to discuss them together rather than in isolation.

Significant Pathways through which the Independent Variables caused Variation in Achievement

Since the magnitude of the beta weights is assumed to be directly proportional to the degree of the effects of the influencing variable, it is easily seen that socio-economic status (SES) (VAR 1) is the most effective variable in predicting achievement in social studies. It has a path coefficient of 0.759 measured at alpha level of 0.05. This empirical result is hardly surprising since it has been well established that the foundation of a child's cognitive development is laid at home and often than not the educational level of parents, the occupational achievement and the values placed on education significantly affect the child's performances in school. As far back as 1959, Fraser had contended that parental education and reading habits, income, occupation and living space are all indices of socio-economic status and are significantly related to intelligent quotient and academic performance. Also, the studies of Duncan

(1989) Katz (1964) Jules and Kutnick (1990), Deutsch (1964), Tomori (1963), Adelusi (1978) have all supported the assertion that socio-economic status played a prominent role in the academic achievement of students. Scott-Jones (1984) claims that the context in which parents and children live are important in understanding the family's influence on cognitive development and academic achievement.

From the more parsimonious model (Fig. 4) it could be seen that socio-economic status (VAR 1) has a direct effect on achievement (p91) one of the five variables that have such direct linkage. It also has an indirect linkage on achievement through home language (VAR 4) and through study habits (VAR 6). In essence, socio-economic status influences achievement through home language and study habits. In other words a child from a home where the mother tongue dominates his communication at home and in school, such language may have an effect on the study habits of the child which may invariably affect his achievement in school learning. According to Bernstein (1985) the lower the social class status of a child, the more difficult he finds ordering a sentence, connecting sentences, acquiring wider vocabulary because his socialization context inhibits these. The resultant effect of this is that the child lacks good and proper study habits and this would result in poor academic achievement. The fact that a child

who comes from poor home background is deficient in English Language which is the official language in schools and of almost all the school subjects cannot be disputed at least at the Junior Secondary School level. Tomori (1963) and Adelusi (1978) have attested to the fact that socio-economic status is a factor of success in English Language learning and in the learning of other school subjects whose contents are taught in English Language.

Another significant pathway through which the independent variable caused variation in students achievement (VAR 9), is through p_{61} p_{96} , also from the more parsimonious model (Fig. 4.2). The indication here is that socio-economic status is a very strong variable in predicting achievement in secondary school Social Studies. Its direct effect on achievement is 0.759 (Table 4.7) and its indirect influence on home language (VAR 4) is 0.541 (Table 4.7). Also its indirect influence on study habits (VAR 6) is 0.521. All these are pointers to the fact that socio-economic status is a very potent variable in predicting achievement in secondary school Social Studies.

According to Table 4.6 the second most important of the eight independent variables is study habit (VAR 6). It has $p_{96} = 0.461$ significant at 0.05 alpha level. This result indicates that a student's achievement in Social Studies is a function of the extent to which the student exhibits or possesses positive or negative study habits towards

the learning of Social Studies. In other words if a student exhibit positive study habits in his study of Social Studies, the student is likely to achieve higher or score higher in the subject than another student who exhibit a negative study habit towards the study of the subject. In essence negative study habits tend to impede performances. Robinson (1978) have ascertained that ineffectiveness and poor performance on study may be due to inefficient study skills among other factors. In Bakare's (1977) view if a school subject is poorly studied at the acquisition stage of learning it will be poorly produced at the reproduction stage and this in effect will lead to poor performance. The result of this study can thus be used to predict achievement in Social Studies.

It has been a persistent assumption by students teachers and counsellors that students' study behaviour has a significant effect upon academic performance. It is generally known that students who are more of the time concerned about their study methods perform generally better in their studies and this could be true of Social Studies in the present study. The study of Brown (1985) gave credence to this. He found that many failing students had poor study habits; he then concluded that such failing students could improve their scholarship by improving their study habits. Also, stressing the importance of study behaviour and study attitudes Lavin (1965)

says that study behaviour and study attitude contribute independently to academic performance. The importance of study habits to academic performance have also been stressed by Blaha and Chanin (1982). They have proved from their numerous studies that highly intelligent students fail not only because they do insufficient study, but due to poor study habits.

The result observed in relation to study habits and academic achievement in this study is not surprising bearing in mind the complex nature of study itself. Akinboye (1976) had said that study is the totality of all the behaviour patterns. It thus means that its influence on academic achievement cannot be undervalued. This is also manifested in the indirect effects on achievement (VAR 9) of variables X_1 (Socio-economic) status, (X_3) gender, (X_4) Home language, (X_5) attitude towards Social Studies through variable 6 (study habits). It is the only variable in the model that has as many as four other variables passing through to affect other variables and achievement. It could then be concluded that out of all the seven psychological variables in the model, study habits appeared to be more viable and potent at predicting achievement in secondary school Social Studies.

Another important and significant pathway is p93 (VAR 3), gender and its prediction of achievement. It has a path coefficient

0.414 (Table 4.6) at 0.05 alpha level and it has a direct link with achievement (VAR 9) and indirect link with achievement (VAR 9) through study habits (VAR 6) (Fig. 4). It contributed about 9.98% to the total effect of the prediction. This result indicates that the gender of the student is another important variable for consideration in Social Studies achievement of secondary school students. The fact that Social Studies is a compulsory subject at the junior secondary school level and the importance attached to the subject that unless a student pass it, the student may not be allowed to proceed to the next class could have been a motivating factor which could have boosted the students' performance in the subject.

The fourth most significant of the eight independent variables is home language (VAR 4). It has a path coefficient of -0.62 (Table 4.3). It has a direct link with achievement (VAR 9) and indirect link with achievement through attitude towards Social Studies (VAR 5) and study habits (VAR 6) (Fig. 4).

The importance of home language to the prediction to achievement in Social Studies is not a surprise one. A deficit in this area may be particularly troublesome because language acquisition also influences other developmental processes especially those related to cognitive and social understanding.

In the first instance, Social Studies at the secondary school level is taught and learned in English Language and except a child is well groomed in this language such a child might run into problems especially when some simple terms and facts in the content areas cannot be translated into the local or home language without altering the original meaning of such words. In other words; a child from the home where English Language is the language of the home may have a good and quick grasp of the content of a lesson, understand notes given, understand questions asked and answers examination questions in simple and better language than a child from the home where the local language dominates his conversation and behaviour. The study of Vygotsky (1962) has supported the claim. He asserted that in childhood learning language and thought are closely linked. In other words if a child thinks in the language of the home it may affect his understanding of same concepts in Social Studies which are written and expressed in English Language. It is also noted that English Language is not a direct translation of any local language. In a situation where a child's thinking processes and ideas are formulated in the language of the environment or the local language if such is carried to the learning of Social Studies, this may likely lead to misconstruction: of such ideas and facts will be distorted and this can

lead to the child not performing very well in the subject. Tomori (1967) buttressed this fact. He claimed that anything the average Nigerian testee knows in English was a behaviour pattern learnt in a second language learning situation.

Lack of proficiency in English Language affects the performance of subjects whose first language is not English. According to Vernon (1969) unless a child can acquire complete facility in second language where it is the official language, he is inevitably retarded in reasoning as well as in attainment.

Another area of interest is the inter causal connection between socio-economic status (VAR 1) and home language (VAR 4) and achievement (VAR 9). It could be seen from Figure 4.2 that socio-economic status and home language are powerful variables in predicting achievement in Social Studies. It could then be explained that socio-economic status played a prominent role in English Language acquisition and in consequence use of such language in learning. One of the ways in which socio-economic status influences language and academic achievement is through the pattern of socialization. According to Adelusi (1984) the lower class home is characterised by lots of noise, lack of English Language stimulating objects and activities and these hinder cognitive and intellectual development. Foster (1973) reported

a remarkable difference in the performances of students from high socio-economic background and those from low socio-economic background and those from high socio-economic background on the positive side.

However, teaching strategies in Social Studies can be directed towards the development of language competence. For example higher level concept can be reframed in terms of lower language level and also higher language demands can be accompanied by a more supportive explanation.

Attitude towards Social Studies seems to be another psychological variable that could be used for predicting students achievement in Social Studies. It has a path coefficient of -0.295 to the total effect of the variation observed in the study. It has been recognised over time that attitude towards a subject influences performance in that subject (Krewer and Walberg, 1981, Okpala, 1985, German, 1988). The assumption that a person would perform better in any task to which he is favourably disposed (Odunbunmi and Balogun, 1985) has now been corroborated by this study. Indeed attitude towards a subject is said to be the very basis of cognitive development (Emina, 1986).

Direct and Indirect Pathways and Their Proportions

There are five direct and eight indirect paths altogether (Table 4.6). The direct effects (DE) of all the variables are 23.44 per cent (Table 4.7) while the total indirect effect are 9.0 per cent. The total effects which are accounted for by all the variables are 32.44 per cent. In other words, 32.44 per cent of the variation in Social Studies achievement are explained by the direct effect (DE) and total indirect effect (TIE) of the eight predictors, while 67.56 per cent are unexplained variance attributable to the residuals or the variables exogenous to the system.

The study findings that only one social and seven psychological variables accounted for 32.44 per cent in Social Studies achievement is commendable particularly where there are almost infinite numbers of other social and psychological variables which can cause variation in Social Studies achievement. The unnamed and unmeasured variables, the residuals, together seem to account for the 67.56 per cent in the variation of Social Studies achievement. The results of the study thus indicate that these variables (one social and seven psychological variables), particularly the five with significant direct paths, must be very important and should be regarded as such in all matters that has to do with improving student's achievement in Social Studies.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter consists of a summary of the findings discussed in the previous chapter, their educational implications, and the subsequent recommendations. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are also presented.

Summary of Findings

This study sought to obtain empirical evidence of the inter-causal link between academic achievement and some socio-psychological variables and to ascertain the extent to which some of these variables predict achievement in Social Studies. The study made use of ex-post facto design involving a sample of 624 J.S. Three students in 30 secondary schools in Oyo State. Each student responded to five different questionnaires and an achievement test in Social Studies. Stepwise multiple regression analysis and path analysis were employed to analyse the data collected in order to attempt providing answers to the five research questions raised in the study. The research findings are summarized as follows:

1. Only five of the variables viz: socio-economic status, study habits, gender, home language, attitude towards Social Studies influenced achievement in Social Studies.
2. Socio-economic status (VAR I) seems to be effective in the prediction of variation in Social Studies achievement.
3. Locus of control, career aspirations, and test anxiety did not make significant contributions to the prediction of variation in Social Studies achievement.
4. Five variables viz: socio-economic status, sex, home language, attitude towards Social Studies and study habits have direct connection with achievement.
5. Most of the variables having indirect effect on students' cognitive achievement in Social Studies do so via study habits, thus confirming the importance of study habits to cognitive achievement.
6. Study habits played a prominent role in the model whereby most of the variables having indirect connection with *variables like test anxiety* and career aspiration passed through it.

7. There is no relationship between:
- (a) Locus of control and achievement in secondary school Social Studies.
 - (b) Sex and career aspiration.
 - (c) Attitude towards Social Studies and career aspiration.
 - (d) Locus of control and study habits.
 - (e) Test anxiety and achievement.
 - (f) Career aspiration and achievement.
8. The total effects of the direct path were 23.44 per cent, while the total effect of the indirect paths were 9.0 per cent giving total of 32.44 per cent and leaving 67.56 per cent to the myriad of other unnamed and unmeasured variables called residuals.

Implications and Recommendations

The implications of the findings of this study have far reaching effects on Nigerian education.

1. The fact that socio-economic status exert a strong positive and direct influence on students' achievement in Social Studies serves as a confirmation of some earlier findings that socio-economic status is significantly and positively related to achievement. There is therefore the need for practising guidance counsellors

to channel their efforts at getting more information relating to the home background of their students during counselling since such information might enhance the type of treatment package and professional assistance they might want to give to their students when they are not performing as they should.

2. Also, for the fact that all the variables when taken together to a large extent predict achievement in Social Studies is enough evidence to hold to the fact that the variables are potent factors in determining achievement. As such more effort should be made at providing counselling services to the students at every level of education. It is through doing this only that some of these variables can be adequately and effectively managed. This will also be in the line with the National Policy on Education which stipulated the provision of guidance counselling services to students at all levels of education.

3. The findings provide ample evidence that the home of the child exerts significant effect on his achievement, it is therefore necessary for parents to provide as much as possible relevant academic materials that would encourage children to participate in cognitive stimulating activities and motivate students to learn in order to facilitate the development of intellectual and

educational potentials in the children. In line with this, there is the need for parents to maintain a small sibling size in the home, since such a manageable size as Majoribanks (1978) asserted would enable them provide adequate parental stimulation and attention, academic motivation, learning opportunities and assistance required by the child for maximum performance.

Limitations of the Study

The study findings are limited by the following factors. Achievement in Social Studies is judged only from scores earned by students in pencil and paper cognitive tests.

The fact that social and psychological variables are measured through the use of questionnaire (a self report techniques) only, a procedure which is highly feasible although not as desirable as subjecting the testees to direct observation over a long period of time. However, such a direct observation over a long period of time would be a task too difficult to undertake particularly in a situation where there is the need to observe so many variables and the need to achieve sample to be an adequate representative sample of the students.

This study has only investigated cognitive achievement in secondary school Social Studies and it has not place any emphasis on affective outcomes of learning in secondary school Social Studies.

The fact that standardized regression weights (unlike unstandardized weights) may change from sample to sample as a result of sampling fluctuations (Darlington 1968). This poses a limitation on this study at least in its:

- i. efforts to identify the relative contribution of the independent variables to the prediction, and
- ii. power to generalize from one study to the next.

However, standardized regression weights are used so that path coefficients could be identified and beta weights derived from the multiple regression procedures.

Areas for further Research

Some of the research findings could be followed up in subsequent studies, but the following areas in particular could be considered:

1. Achievement, as defined in this study did not consider the affective component which could be assessed through observational techniques of how some of the topics in Social Studies have relevance to the life of the students and thus brought some changes to their life. A useful follow up activity could therefore be geared towards determining the extent to

which the social and psychological variables explain achievement and how these variables have brought some changes into the life of the students and their purposeful interaction with their environment.

2. In measuring the social and psychological variables of students who participated in this study, the researcher made use of self report technique only. This study could therefore be replicated probably at a smaller scale during which these variables could be measured using the reports of others especially observational techniques and procedures.
3. The present study did not investigate the extent to which social and psychological variables could explain students' achievement in secondary school subjects other than Social Studies. A study of this type will be useful in revealing the relative effectiveness of these variables in explaining students' learning outcomes in some other subjects either in arts or in the sciences.
4. The results of this study has proved that there is no relationship between:
 - i. test anxiety and achievement in Social Studies
 - ii. career aspiration and achievement in Social Studies.

These two variables have often been given prominence in secondary school counselling as factors that could determine academic achievement, studies could still be conducted in these areas to investigate the relative positions of these two variables to achievement in any other secondary school subject.

5. Socio-economic status was measured using the usual gross indicators (education, occupation, number of children etc). A study which employs more sensitive socio-psychological measures of the home like parental motivation, urge for success, amount of assistance provided by parents etc. will definitely contribute something new to knowledge.

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APPENDIX I

INTERNAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
 INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Socio-Economic Status Scale

Kindly respond correctly to all the questions contained in this questionnaire. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Name:

Age: Sex:

Name of School: Class:

1. Which area of the town do you live?
2. Name of Primary School attended:
3. Number of father's wives:
4. Number of father's children:
5. Number of mother's children:
6. Your position among your father's children:
7. Your position among your mother's children:
8. Educational level of parents (Tick only the highest attained).

- a. No. Schooling
- b. Elementary Schooling
- c. Secondary Schooling
- d. Teacher Training
- e. Advance Teacher Training
- f. Professional Training (Trade Centre, Poly)
- g. University First Degree
- h. University Higher Degree (M.A., M.Sc., M.Ed., Ph.D).
9. Parent's occupation (Tick only one for father and only one for mother).
- i. Medical Doctor
- ii. Engineer
- iii. Lawyer
- iv. Accountant
- v. Senior Civil Servant
- vi. University Lecturer
- vii. Nursing Sister
- viii. Managers of a firm
- ix. Technologist
- x. Officer in the armed forces (Police, Soldier, etc.)
- xi. Nurse
- xii. Non-graduate Teacher
- xiii. Clerk
- xiv. Below Officers rank in the armed forces

Father	Mother

Father	Mother

- xv. Contractor
- xvi. Company Owner
- xvii. Business Consultant
- xviii. Labourer
- xix. Cleaner
- xx. Driver
- xxi. Cook
- xxii. Gardener
- xxiii. Tailor
- xxiv. Carpenter
- xxv. Bricklayer
- xxvi. Goldsmith
- xxvii. Mechanics
- xxviii. Farmer.

10. Type of house lived in (Tick one)

- a. A whole house
- b. A duplex
- c. A flat
- d. A room and a parlour
- e. One room apartment
- f. An extended family house

11. Which of these do your parents have at home?

- a. Library/Study room
- b. Radio

- c. Complete set of sound system
- d. Television
- e. Video Camera
- f. Video Set
- g. Stand-by Generator.

Father	Mother

12. Number of cars in the family

13. Which of these languages do you speak at home? (Tick)

- a. English Language
- b. Yoruba
- c. Igbo
- d. Edo
- e. Hausa
- f. Others (specify)

14. List and describe three occupations you would like most to engage in when you complete your education.

	Occupation	Description of all you know about the occupation
1st Choice		
2nd Choice		
3rd Choice		

APPENDIX II

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Students' Attitude Towards Social Studies
Scale

Name: Sex: Age:

School: Class:

Kindly rate the items in this questionnaire as each item applies to you using.

- SA = Strongly Agreed
A = Agreed
D = Disagreed
SD = Strongly Disagreed

1. Social Studies is a simple subject
2. What we learn in Social Studies is useful in everyday life
3. Social Studies should be taught at all levels of education
4. I enjoy study Social Studies
5. Social Studies is difficult when it involves cramming
6. I would like to know more about Social Studies

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Social Studies is a simple subject				
2. What we learn in Social Studies is useful in everyday life				
3. Social Studies should be taught at all levels of education				
4. I enjoy study Social Studies				
5. Social Studies is difficult when it involves cramming				
6. I would like to know more about Social Studies				

20. Social Studies is not as interesting as other subjects.
21. I like reading my Social Studies text books.
22. I want to emulate the heroes we read about in Social Studies.
23. I very often think about topics and ideas which I learnt in Social Studies.

SA	A	D	SD

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APPENDIX III

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Dear Student.

Kindly respond correctly to all the items in this questionnaire. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

1. **Name:** 2. **Class:**
3. **School:** 4. **Sex:**

SARASON TEST ANXIETY SCALE

1. When taking an important examination, I found myself thinking of how much brighter the other students are than I am.
2. If I know I was going to take an intelligence test, I would feel confident and relaxed before hand.
3. While taking an important examination, I perspire a great deal.
4. During examinations, I find myself thinking of things unrelated to the actual course material.
5. I feel very panicky when I have to take a surprise examination.

True	False

6. During test, I find myself thinking of the consequences of failing.
7. After important tests, I am frequently so tense that my stomach gets upset.
8. I am afraid up to wishing to run away when it is time for final examination.
9. Getting a good grade on one test does not seem to increase my confidence on taking another test.
10. I sometimes feel my heart beating very fast during important tests.
11. After taking a test, I always feel I could have done better than I actually did.
12. I usually get depressed after taking a test.
13. I have an uneasy, upset feeling before taking a final examination.
14. When taking a test my emotional feelings do not interfere with my performance.
15. During a course examination, I frequently get so nervous.
16. I seem to be terribly defeated while working on an important tests.
17. The harder I work at taking a test or studying for one, the more confused I become.

True	False

18. As soon as an examination is over, I try to stop worry about it, but I just can't.
19. During examinations I sometimes wonder if I will ever get through the secondary school work.
20. I prefer writing an essay than take an examination.
21. I wish examination did not bother me so much.
22. I think I could do better on tests if there were not time limits.
23. Thinking about the grades I may get in an examination interferes with my studying and performance.
24. I wish there were no examinations.
25. If I don't know a thing, there is no point worrying about it.
26. I really don't see why some people get so upset about test.
27. Thoughts of doing poorly interfere with my performance on test.
28. I don't study any harder for final examination than for the rest of the test during the course.
29. Even when I am well prepared for a test I still feel very anxious about it.

True	False

30. I don't enjoy eating before an important test.
31. Before an important examination, I find my hands trembling.
32. I seldom feel the need for cramming before an examination.
33. The college ought to recognised that some students are more nervous than others about tests.
34. It seems to me that examination periods ought not to be made the tense situation which they are.
35. I start feeling very uneasy just before getting a test paper.
36. I dread course where teachers has the habit of giving test intermittently.

True	False

APPENDIX IV

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN.The Rotter Internal-External Control Scale

Dear Student,

Kindly respond correctly to all the items in this questionnaire.

1. Name: 2. Class:
3. School: 4. Sex:

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
b. The trouble with most children now-a-days is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.

	2	1
	T	F
1. a.		
1. b.		
2. a.		
2. b.		
3. a.		

2

1

T	F

4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
- b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
- b. Most student don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
- b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
- b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
- b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they are like.
9. a. I 'have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
- b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

2 1

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|---|---|
| | |
10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
- b. Many times exam. questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
- b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
- b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
- b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyway.
14. a. There are certain people who are just not good.
- b. There is some good in everybody.
15. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
- b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
- b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little to do with it.
17. a. As far as world affairs are concerned most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
- b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
18. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
- b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
19. a. One should always be willing to admit mistake.
- b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
20. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
- b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
21. a. In the long run the bad things happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
- b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

	2	1
	T	F

2 1

T	F

22. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
 b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
23. a. With enough effort we can wipe political corruption.
 b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
25. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
 b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
26. a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
 b. There's not much use in trying hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.
27. a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
 b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
28. a. What happens to me is my own doing.
 b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

Study Habits Inventory

2 1

29. a. Most of the time I can't understand why politician behave the way they do.
- b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on local level.

T	F

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Study Habits Inventory

by CHRISTOPHER G. M. BAKARE, Ph.D.

FORM S (SECONDARY SCHOOL FORM)

Name Date

Class, Year or Course Age Sex: M. F.
(In years) (Circle One)

School or University.....

DIRECTIONS

The following is a list of questions concerning students' habits and methods of study. Read each statement carefully and answer it as accurately and as truthfully as possible. Put an X in the circle within the column that best describes your habit. For example, the first question is:

1. When your assigned homework is too long or unusually hard, do you either stop or study only the easier parts of the lesson?

Almost Never	Less than Half of the Time	About Half of the Time	More than Half of the Time	Almost Always
<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If, in your case, this happens to be true less than half of the time i.e., sometimes, place an X as shown in the example.

Psychoeducational Research Productions

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Almost Never	Less than Half of the Time	About Half of the Time	More than Half of the Time	Almost Always
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SECTION A: Homework and Assignments

1. When your assigned homework is too long or unusually hard, do you either stop or study only the easier parts of the lesson?
2. If you have to be absent from class, do you make up missed lessons and notes immediately?
3. Even though an assignment is dull and boring do you stick to it until it is completed?
4. Do you put off doing written assignments until the last minute?
5. Do you complete and submit your assignments on time?
6. Do you begin your assignments as soon as the teacher gives them to you and not allow them to pile up?

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SCORE

TOTAL SCORE SECTION A	
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SECTION B: Time Allocation

7. Do you waste too much time talking or listening to the radio for the good of your studies?
8. Do you find that having many other things to do causes you to get behind in your school work?
9. Do problems outside of the classroom—with other students or at home—cause you to neglect your school work?
10. Do you study for at least three hours each day after classes?
11. Is your time unevenly distributed; do you spend too much time on some subjects and not enough on others?
12. Do you spend too much time reading fiction (novels), going out etc., for the good of your school work?

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TOTAL SCORE SECTION B	
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SECTION C: Reading and Note Taking

13. In taking notes, do you tend to write down things which later turn out to be unimportant?
14. After reading several pages of an assignment, do you find yourself unable to remember what you have just read?
15. Do you find it hard to pick out the important points of a reading assignment?
16. When reading a long assignment do you stop now and then to try to remember what you have read?
17. Do you have to re-read material several times because the words don't have much meaning the first time you go over them?

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Almost Never	Less than Half of the Time	About Half of the Time	More than Half of the Time	Almost Always
-----------------	----------------------------------	------------------------------	----------------------------------	------------------

18. Do you have trouble picking out the important points in the material read or studied?
19. Do you go back and recite to yourself the material you have studied, rechecking any points you find doubtful?
20. Do you miss important points in the lecture while copying down notes on something which has gone before?
21. Do you pronounce words to yourself as you read?

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<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SCORE

SECTION D: *Study Period Procedures*TOTAL SCORE
SECTION C

22. Do you keep all your notes for each subject together and carefully arranged for studying?
23. Do you need a long time to get warmed up when you want to start studying?
24. Are you unable to study well because you get restless and unable to sit for long?
25. When you sit down to study, do you find yourself too tired, bored or sleepy to study well?
26. Do you prefer to study your lessons alone rather than with others?
27. Do you seem to get very little done for the amount of time you spend studying?
28. At the beginning of a study period, do you plan your work so that you will make the best use of your time?
29. Do you find yourself beset by too many health problems to study efficiently?

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<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TOTAL SCORE
SECTION DSECTION E: *Concentration*

30. Do you find that day dreaming distracts your attention from your lessons while studying?
31. Do you find it hard to keep your mind on what you are studying for any length of time?
32. Do outside interruptions disturb you while studying?

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TOTAL SCORE
SECTION ESECTION F: *Written Work*

33. Do you correct errors on the papers which your teachers have marked and returned to you?
34. Do you have trouble saying what you want to say on tests, essays and other written work?
35. Do your teachers criticize your written work for being poorly planned or hurriedly written?
36. Do you give special attention to neatness on essays, reports and other written work?

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<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TOTAL SCORE
SECTION F

Almost Never	Less than Half of the Time	About Half of the Time	More than Half of the Time	Almost Always
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SECTION G: *Examinations*

37. Do you do poorly on tests because you find it hard to think clearly and plan your work within a short period of time?
38. Do you get nervous and confused when taking a test and therefore fail to answer questions as well as you otherwise could?
39. When getting ready for a test, do you arrange facts to be learned in some planned order?
40. Are you careless about spelling, punctuation and grammar when answering test questions?
41. Are you unable to finish tests within the time allowed although you work until the very last minute?
42. When tests are returned, do you find that your mark has been lowered by careless mistakes?
43. Do you finish your examination papers and turn them in before time on the examination?

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SCORE

TOTAL SCORE
SECTION GSECTION H: *Teacher Consultation*

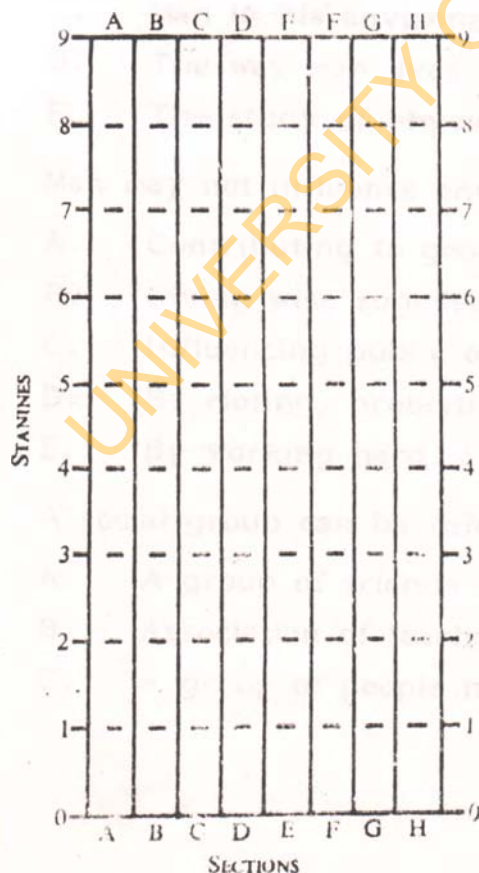
44. When you are having trouble with a particular subject, do you try to talk it over with the teacher?
45. Do you hesitate to ask a teacher for further explanation on a point that is not clear to you?

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TOTAL SCORE
SECTION H

Do not write below this line

DIAGNOSTIC PROFILE



SECTION	SCORE	STANINE
A		
B		
C		
D		
E		
F		
G		
H		

TOTAL

APPENDIX VI

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF IBADANAchievement Test in Social Studies (ONE HOUR)

INSTRUCTION: The present test does not in anyway affect you.
But, try to be sincere with your answer.

Read the questions very carefully, each of the questions has five possible answers, shade the corresponding letter in your answer sheet.

1. Social Studies deals with one of the followings:
 - A. Highlands, lowlands, and rivers
 - B. Animals, forest and man
 - C. Man in his environment
 - D. The way man lives
 - E. The study of physical environment.

2. Man may not influence environment in one of these ways
 - A. Contributing to good government
 - B. Giving wise suggestions
 - C. Influencing public opinion through discussion
 - D. By rioting, protesting and carrying placards
 - E. By working hard.

3. A social group can be referred to as
 - A. A group of friends
 - B. Association of teachers
 - C. A group of people having a dance party

- D. A number of people who maintain common interest
E. A group of people wearing the same type of dress.
4. The nuclear family can be regarded as a
- A. Social family
B. Religious family
C. Biological family
D. Extended family
E. Polygamous family
5. Polygamy is best understood as
- A. A marriage of one woman to several men
B. A marriage of one man to one woman
C. A marriage done in the church
D. A marriage between one's aunty and uncle
E. A marriage between one man and several women.
6. A natal family is a family
- A. Which one is born into
B. Where one is married
C. Where the father is no longer alive
D. Where one joins at ones will
E. Where a child is adopted into.
7. The basis of kinship rests on one of these group of elements.
- A. Marriage, nuclear family
B. Extended family, adoption
C. Natal family and conjugal family
D. Marriage, adoption, common ancestor
E. Common ancestor, adoption, natal family.

8. To become a member of an age group you must be
- A. Baptised
 - B. Initiated
 - C. Circumcised
 - D. Educated
 - E. A student.
9. Which of these religion does not exist in Nigeria
- A. Bhudism
 - B. Islamism
 - C. Christianity
 - D. Guru-Maharaji
 - E. Hare-Krishna.
10. Legal Institutions deal with
- A. Law
 - B. Issuing driving license
 - C. Building courts of law
 - D. Marriages
 - E. Training lawyers.
11. What can be considered as the overall importance of Physical Features?
- A. It broadens the outlook of a nation
 - B. It brings about how towns are formed
 - C. It teaches us more about rivers and lakes
 - D. It helps to determine the type of human settlement
 - E. Helps to determine where crude oil could be got.

12. Which of these is part of our civic responsibilities?

- A. To recite the national pledge
- B. To honour and respect these in government
- C. To leave our water tap running for a whole day
- D. To pay our tax
- E. To participate in the process of government.

13. Which of these best defined culture?

- A. People's way of dressing
- B. People's way of living
- C. Work of art of a place
- D. People's way of dancing
- E. People's way of greetings.

14. Which of these is not an aspect of culture?

- A. Types of food
- B. Rules and regulations
- C. Religion
- D. Beliefs
- E. Modern system of education.

15. Co-operation may bring about one of the following:

- A. Unhappiness
- B. Greater achievement
- C. Civil wars
- D. Transfer of technology
- E. Paying more taxes.

16. The average weather of a place over a number of year is called
- A. Climate
 - B. Atmosphere
 - C. Rainy season
 - D. Dry season
 - E. Average rainfall.
17. Which of these winds bring harmattan into the country?
- A. Cool wind from the atlantic
 - B. South West winds
 - C. Northern winds
 - D. North East winds
 - E. South East monsoon winds.
18. Which of these forest is found in the Southern part of Nigeria?
- A. Grassland
 - B. Sahel Savannah
 - C. Sudan Savannah
 - D. Tropical rain forest
 - E. Plain land.
19. Which of these is not a characteristics of a formal educational institution?
- A. Established by law
 - B. A well define programme
 - C. At least ten pupils
 - D. Haing a teacher
 - E. All pupils to be under age.

20. Leadership and followership work together to achieve
- A. Failure
 - B. Force
 - C. Loss
 - D. Desired objective
 - E. Domination.
21. Which of these is not a function of a leader?
- A. He must be able to defend the society
 - B. He must not use force on his followers
 - C. He must aspire to achieve positive goal
 - D. He must be able to embezzel public fund
 - E. He must be able to unite the society.
22. Growth is best defined as:
- A. The rate at which buildings are springing up
 - B. Increase in the quantity of goods produced
 - C. The rate at which a child is growing
 - D. The rate at which a town is expanding
 - E. Increase in the number of motorable roads in an area.
23. When Nigeria sends Cocoa to a foreign country, the trade is ,...
- A. Internal trade
 - B. Import trade
 - C. Export trade
 - D. Inter-trade
 - E. Trade within the country.

24. One of these may not be an aspect of development
- A. Economic development
 - B. Political development
 - C. Social development
 - D. Youth development
 - E. Educational development.
25. Islam was introduced to Nigeria by
- A. The Yorubas
 - B. The Hausas
 - C. The Arabs
 - D. The Togoese
 - E. The Libyans.
26. The Christian Missionaries did all these but one:
- A. Stopped the killing of twins
 - B. Established schools
 - C. Encouraged human sacrifice
 - D. Stopped human sacrifice.
 - E. Established churches
27. Science explains all these phenomena but one
- A. Why a seed germinated
 - B. Why the earth is spherical
 - C. Why light travels faster than sound
 - D. Why human beings exist
 - E. Why water boils when heated.
28. The people of Akwa in Anambra State are noted for.....
- A. Farming
 - B. Cattle rearing

- C. Pottery
 - D. Iron smelting
 - E. Selling second hand clothes.
29. Which of these could be regarded as a negative effect of modern technology?
- A. Improved health service
 - B. Easy means of communication
 - C. Space exploration
 - D. Use of nuclear bombs during wars
 - E. Establishment of satellite stations.
30. These four states are not served by railway lines in Nigeria
- A. Ondo, Lagos, Oyo, Gongola
 - B. Bendel, Cross River, Kaduna, Imo
 - C. Ondo, Bendel, Cross River, Gongola
 - D. Plateau, Borno, Sokoto, Anambra
 - E. Ondo, Plateau, Ogun, Imo.
31. Which of these is not among the most important sea ports in Nigeria?
- A. Lagos port
 - B. Koko port
 - C. Burutu port
 - D. Calabar port
 - E. Port Harcourt port.
32. Mass media includes all these but one
- A. Radio
 - B. Newspaper
 - C. Television

- D. Town crier
E. Magazine.
33. The most current system of communication is through
A. Telegram
B. Telephone
C. Telex
D. Television
E. Redifusion
34. Oral literature and drama are based on
A. Books written by Chinua Achebe
B. Stories read in books
C. Interpretation of archaeological discoveries
D. Stories passed on by words or mouth
E. Stories taught in schools.
35. The talking drum is popular among the
A. Yorubas
B. Igalas
C. Idomas
D. Tivs
E. Igbo.
36. The assertion that modern man first appeared in Africa was put forward by
A. S.G.A Daniels
B. Thurstan Shaw
C. Charles Darwin
D. L.S.B. Leakay
E. Graham Connah.

37. Modern man belong to a single species called
- A. Hylobatidae
 - B. Hominoidea
 - C. Pongiae
 - D. Oreplithecidae
 - E. Homosapiens.
38. Recism refers to
- A. Belief that all men are equal
 - B. Appendage given to all men over the world
 - C. Belief that one race is superior to another
 - D. A term used for all pure races
 - E. Belief that all races are mixed.
39. A government by elders is known as
- A. Autocracy
 - B. Gerontocracy
 - C. Democracy
 - D. Authocratic
 - E. Laiser faire.
40. Which of these may not be regarded as a function of the police in Nigeria?
- A. Prevention of crimes
 - B. Collection of taxes
 - C. Protecting life and properties
 - D. Maintaining law and order
 - E. Quelling riots.

41. is the name given to a party programme
- A. Programmes
 - B. Manifestoes
 - C. Articles
 - D. Constitution
 - E. Draft.
42. The main aim of formal and informal education is to.....
- A. Teach numeracy
 - B. Train professional men
 - C. Pass on the culture of the people
 - D. To produce young school leavers
 - E. To save children from misdemeanour.
43. Socialization is best described as
- A. A process of social learning
 - B. A process of exposing the child to the evils of the society
 - C. A process of formal education for the child
 - D. A process of initiation into an age group in a community
 - E. A process of belonging to a social club in the community
44. Which of these is not an agent of socialization
- A. The mass media
 - B. The prison yard
 - C. The peer group.
 - D. The school
 - E. The family.

45. One of these is against fundamental human right
- A. Right of own property
 - B. Discrimination
 - C. Freedom of speech
 - D. Right to free movement
 - E. Right to belong to any religion.
46. Which of these does not belong to the secondary sector of an economy?
- A. Manufacturing
 - B. Agriculture
 - C. Processing
 - D. Construction
 - E. Electricity generation.
47. The major problems facing agriculture in Nigeria today include all these but one:
- A. Influence of eather
 - B. Young men not willing to work in farm
 - C. Using outdated implements for farming
 - D. Lack of enough land for farming
 - E. The danger of tse-tse flies hinder raising cattle, goats and sheep.
48. Irrigation is used for farming in one of these places:
- A. Port Harcourt
 - B. Benin City
 - C. Bakori
 - D. Zaria
 - E. Sokoto.

49. To increase agricultural commodities one of these must be done
- A. Stop all children from going to school
 - B. Employ more agricultural experts
 - C. Establish more University of Agriculture
 - D. Carry out more campaigns to the rural dwellers
 - E. Use more machines.
50. Crude oil cannot be got from one of these States:
- A. Cross River
 - B. Oyo
 - C. Akwa Ibom
 - D. Rivers
 - E. Bendel.
51. How many continents are in the world?
- A. Seven
 - B. Six
 - C. Uncountable
 - D. Ten
 - E. Twenty.
52. One of these is not a Continent of the world:
- A. Asia
 - B. Antaractia
 - C. Mexico
 - D. North America
 - E. Europe.

53. Which of these countries is not found in African Continent?
- A. Angola
 - B. Ethiopia
 - C. Senegal
 - D. Zambia
 - E. Argentina.
54. One of these Lakes is the longest fresh water Lake in the world
- A. Lake Chad
 - B. Lake Tangayika
 - C. Lake Victoria
 - D. Lake Rudolf
 - E. Lake Rivi.
55. The Pygmies can be found in all these areas but one
- A. Nigeria
 - B. Burundi
 - C. Congo
 - D. Gabon
 - E. Rwanda
56. The contribution of black man to world civilization is more glearing in
- A. Their religion
 - B. Their political set up
 - C. Their technology
 - D. Their work of art
 - E. Their economic développement.

57. Which of these is the highest mountain in the world?
- A. Mount Everest
 - B. Kilimanjaro mountain
 - C. Adamawa Highland
 - D. Ahaggar Plateau
 - E. Dar-Fur mountain.
58. Which of these is the longest river in the world?
- A. River Niger
 - B. River Orange
 - C. River Nile
 - D. The Congo River
 - E. River Zambezi
59. Why is transportation impossible in some of the rivers in Africa?
- A. The rivers are too narrow
 - B. Shallowness of the rivers
 - C. Some of the rivers does not flow well
 - D. Presence of rapids on the rivers
 - E. The rivers dry up during dry season.
60. Which of these is the commonest means of talking to people at a distance?
- A. Television
 - B. Telex
 - C. Walkie-Talkies
 - D. Telephone
 - E. Radio.

APPENDIX VII

LIST OF SCHOOLS USED FOR THE STUDY

Loyola College, Ibadan
Holy Trinity Grammar School, Ibadan
Bishop Phillips Academy, Ibadan
Sango High School, Ibadan
Community Grammar School
St. Louis Grammar School
Ikolaba High School
Girls Community Grammar School, Ijokodo
Orogun Grammar School
Immanuel College High School
St. Patrick's Grammar School, Orita-Basorun
Queen of Apostles Secondary School, Oluroyo
Ajibode Grammar School, Ajibode
Ojoo High School
St. Theresa's College Oke-Ado Ibadan
United Secondary School, Ijokodo
Kumapayi Community High School, Kumapayi
Idito High School, Erumu

Lalupon Community Grammar School

Alegongo Community High School

Basorun High School, Bode-Wasinmi

Community Grammar School, Alegongo

Wesley College, Aba-Nla

Prospect High School, Aba-Nla

Iroko Community School, Iroko

Community High School, Otun-Agbaakin

Community High School, Ejioku

Community School, Apapa-Odua

Aponmode Moniya High School, Moniya

Anglican Grammar School, Agbirigidi

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