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This particular volume of the Counsellor is in a way, special. It is special in the sense that it is the volume that is coming out at the period of the last lap of our march to civil rule in Nigeria. For this reason, all articles within it have been judiciously selected in such a way as to present a strong image of the preparedness of the entire members of the Counselling Association of Nigeria, for the arduous task of positively influencing, through counselling, the leadership and followership behaviour of fellow Nigerians in the third Republic. Each of the articles in this volume is therefore considered fitting for the perspective it has provided regarding how counselling functions can be used to introduce a sense of balance and direction within the context of the civil rule we are about to usher in. Any reader that usually wonders about the social relevance of Counselling in the Nigeria of today cannot but therefore find his or her doubts sufficiently cleared in the course of going through the pages of the present volume.

Dr. Augustine Nwoye
(Editor)
Generally, the record of political leadership in modern Africa has been a depressing one. In one country at least, a leader has had his political opponents hanged in the market-place. In another, such opponents have been delivered to the hyenas to devour. Indefinite imprisonment, torture and the most inhuman ways of annihilation have been commonplace where the leader has fancied himself as the fountain of wisdom and the only source of authority. It is not long since an African head of state declared his tiny country an empire, got himself neck, chest and shoulders bedecked with medallions to depict the grandeur of an emperor, and ended up with shocking charges of cannibalism.

One might say that these excesses belong to the first phase of African independence, that most of the leaders associated with these tendencies have left the scene and that the democratic fever that swept through Eastern Europe a few years ago is now attacking many societies in Africa and leaving an indelible mark. Yet reports indicate that there are pockets of resistance. Besides, it is conceivable that given the worsening economic and social conditions today, the democratic fervour that has caught the poorer countries could easily bring in its cycle a period of greater authoritarian and repressive tendencies in leaders who will declare themselves the only ones with the wisdom to save their societies from doom.

Consider the case of Malawi, a small and poor country in Central Africa. It is only a matter of months now since the Life President of the country addressed 'his handpicked parliament' in the following words:

'The Malawi system, the Malawi style is that Kamuzu says this, and then it is finished. Whether you like it or not, that is how it is going to be here. No nonsense! You cannot have everybody deciding what to do.' (Quoted from the New African, No. 287, London, August 1991, page 4).

A few years ago, also in Malawi, a very special educational institution was built in some remote jungle of the country on the orders of the President. The Kamuzu Academy, as it is christened, admitted students who the President said would form the pool from which all future leaders of Malawi, including ministers of state, would be drawn.
It was an expensively organized institution where all the teachers were recruited from abroad and its curriculum consisted mostly of Greek and Latin, the classics that are only history today even in Europe. To crown it, all the students of the Academy were reported to attend lectures and eat their dinner dressed in Victorian English suits complete with tailcoats and the searers’ studied courtesies.

These stories of Malawi and of other countries alluded to earlier have not been told merely for their comic effect. They are sad stories of the depth of delusion into which leaders can sink in positions of authority. Power can turn into a disease that infects the mind with an inflated sense of the ego or with fantasies which assume the image of reality. That is when close associates of the leader as well as the people he professes to serve become enemies who must be eliminated or suppressed.

It may be asserted that outside the crisis situations such as war, Nigeria has not had the misfortune of witnessing leaders of this description. Indeed, some of us have sometimes boasted that because of our size, our plural complexity and the high degree of our political consciousness, no such leader can ever walk our landscape. History, however, would tend to disprove our opinion on this, as small, large, simple and complex societies have been known to come under the hammer of deluded and despotic rulers.

Delusion of the sort we are considering, sometimes leading to schizophrenia in worse cases is not essentially a problem that can find a solution in political education. It has to be seen as a psychological and mental condition which manifests in the use of power but whose roots may lie deep in the incidence of maladjustment in childhood or misdirected ambitions in the years of growing up. Whichever it is, the condition referred to is, in my view, one which might have responded to an effective programme of counselling in early life. It is then that the human personality is more responsive to the psychological therapy which only the trained counsellor can administer.

One way in which the government has recently sought to deal with the problem of political leadership in Nigeria should be of interest to psychologists. There was a time when people aspired to the highest political positions without subjecting themselves to a test of suitability. In fact, there was a growing tendency in the eyes of the public to see politics as the resort of those for whom all else had failed by way of gainful employment. From this situation developed the unfortunate view that politics was for the greedy, the calculated deceiver and the never-do-wells. Perhaps something of this view still persists, and the failure of the Second Republic has often been blamed on the poor performance of misfits who found themselves in the saddle of power. If this assessment is true, it may be cheering to note that now the situation has changed somewhat.
In the present dispensation, aspirants to elective political office are screened with a view to determining how qualified and prepared they are to undertake a responsibility so physically and mentally demanding and so morally and socially steeped in the high expectations of a critical public. In addition to being a Nigerian of a certain age and playing the good citizen by showing records of tax payment 'as and when due', the aspirant should have reached a prescribed level of educational attainment, should not have been convicted of an offence involving dishonesty and should be of sound mental condition, among other requirements. The Chairmen and Councillors functioning in Local Governments today had to undergo these tests, at least those that could be administered, before they could contest elections in December, 1990. A similar exercise is likely to be mounted for those aspiring to become State Assembly men in the next few months.

For the gubernatorial aspirant the screening goes a stage further. Not only does he have to declare his assets in money and investments, he also has to supply fairly detailed information on his family background, his marital life, as well as who is his doctor and who are his close friends and associates, among many other features of his life that he is called upon to disclose. It seems obvious that when the time comes the presidential aspirant may have to undergo a tougher scrutiny. Remember that after all this, the aspirants still has to face members of his party at the grassroots to convince them that he deserves nomination to contest an election at all.

Some observers will make the point here that in the end it is not the amount of information collected from the candidate that matters but how the information is used. It may be added too that from the start it would be essential for advice to be sought from experts on the kinds, the phrasing and administration of questions to be asked of a candidate in order to elicit the quality of information that would be used in assessing him. These are some of the areas where professional counsellors could be of assistance, provided the confidential and security implications of their involvement can be taken care of.

If I were to reduce my own assessment of who was likely to make a successful political leader to a limited set of expectations, I would say that the potential leader should be KALF. Before anyone reaches out for the dictionary, let me explain that KALF is not a dictionary word but an acronym formed from the initial letters of eight words which I shall now list and comment on briefly.
First, a candidate for political leadership should be

KEEN - not purely in terms of being fully willing and eager for the position, but also of being highly sensitive and intellectually acute. In addition, he/she should be

KNOWLEDGEABLE - that is, should be generally well-informed, in particular, about the society and the people he aspires to lead. Of course, he should essentially be

ABLE - not only talented but competent for the position he seeks to occupy. In politics as in business, he cannot hope to succeed without being

ASTUTE - shrewd, sagacious, subtle, even crafty. The foxiness drawn from the Machiavellian doctrine is still a useful instrument with a human touch. The aspiration of the potential leader should be acknowledged as being

LEGITIMATE - not in a legal sense arising from a decree or an enactment, but in terms of a justification that is logically and popularly accepted. Besides, the leader should be

LIBERAL - not necessarily in ideological terms, in being accessible, open-minded and unprejudiced towards his colleagues and the generality of those he is leading. This quality should not stop him from being

FIRM - without being steadfast and resolute in ideas and action, leadership in any given situation stands the risk of falling to bits. But the leader must blend firmness with the ability when the occasion demands it to be

FLEXIBLE - that is, to yield and bend without breaking, to be adaptable. Firmness and flexibility are therefore not mutually exclusive.

Professional counsellors and other thinkers will probably disagree with the KALF theory. They are free to reject it in its entirety, to amend it or extend it. It should be explained that in formulating it, no attempt has been made to produce an expert and comprehensive blueprint on the complex subject of political leadership.
Worker-rebellion and unrest, truncated capital and recurrent budgets, and in the case of educational institutions student militanism and secret societies create a fertile ground for executive depression. After making some serious effort to whether the storms, an executive who fails to succeed becomes depressed and dejected.

If counselling is expected to promote good leadership in Nigeria, it must be tilted towards a possible solution of leadership hazards. Organizational leadership is an exercise in human and resource engineering. The magnitude of tension, anxiety, vigilance and stress involved in leadership calls for counselling as an antidote to curb leadership problems.

**Depression Defined:** Depression is generally thought of as lowered mood and affect. It may be a short-term impairment or prolonged and severe impairment of mood. Depression is characterized by feelings of sadness, worry, grief, gloom and despair. A depressed person may also occasionally produce reactions of anger, rebellion and defiance. Other characteristics of a depressed person include slowness in movement and responses to questions, disinterestedness, a near or complete absence of enthusiasm. A depressed executive may evidence some lowered self-esteem, a sense of futility and worthlessness. These features are debilitating and need to be curbed from leadership that is supposed to be effective.

Depression elicits changes in the executive's social relations with subordinates. A depressed executive tends to avoid social contacts which may even include scheduled appointments. It is also true that depression may serve as a primary emotional disorder leading to dysfunctional administrative behaviour. Katon, Kleinman and Rosen (1982) have stressed the effect of depression on somatization. According to them, depression can precipitate physical pains that hinder some executives from reaching an apogee in their leadership roles.

Depression is commonest among the executives who have experienced failure and some other forms of loss. Failure causes disappointments and a general loss of self-concept or self-esteem. Counsellors are needed to raise the level of self-concept among such executives as well as try to curb the incidence of depression.

Another group of executives who are prone to depression are those with type A personality. These executives are the ambitious, striving, achievement-oriented and goal-directed individuals with chronic sense of urgency in completing their tasks. Once the striving and tension are not rewarded, a serious depression, bordering on a heart attack may result. "The myocardial infarction produces a serious threat to the achievement of the person's values and goals." (Flynn, 1985: 311).
Intense depression can cause an executive to engage in an internal quest for self-punishment. An executive that experiences frustration and failure in the office may develop a sense of guilt and self-blame which are capable of precipitating self-punishment. The sagging spirits and lowered rate of activity may unleash a gradual withdrawal from active social participation.

Occasionally, the behaviour of a depressed executive is like a child who has done something wrong and wishes to be spanked for that misdeed so that the event may be over. But there may hardly be anybody to spank him and so he decides to punish himself. He or she may withdraw from sexual activity and incidentally punish the spouse. In fact, some of the symptoms of depression include somatic pains in specific anatomical areas; sleep disturbances and decreased appetite including lowered sexual interest. A prolonged disengagement from sexual activity may wreck a marriage.

A depressed person often thinks that harm to self or others is justified. This is why suicide may be considered an ultimate self-harm. The feeling of hopelessness and helplessness are harmful to administrative effectiveness. A hopeless executive depends on others to bolster his sagging self-worth. Counselling must therefore, perform a national service by mitigating the debilitating effect of depression on executives.

This paper is designed to present a heuristic analysis of the effect of depression on executives in social, educational, industrial and commercial organizations. A major emphasis is placed on sources of help sought by executives and the counselling modalities that are deemed appropriate for curbing executive depression. A study such as this has a potential to ameliorate the incidence of executive depression among executives.

**METHOD**

**Participants:**

The participants were 28 top management executives from Civil Service, 26 from Educational Institutions, 28 from Industrial Organizations and 30 from Commercial Organisations. Ages of the executives ranged from 46 to 50 years with a mean of 48.5 years. The executives were part of a stratified random sample drawn from a population of approximately 200 top management executives in some organizations in Cross River State. The sample was stratified by institutional types.
### TABLE 2

**RANKINGS OF SOURCES OF HELP BY EXECUTIVES IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depression</th>
<th>Rankings</th>
<th>Personal Problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Literature</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Professional Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastor</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Pastor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychologist</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Psychologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father-in-law</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Father-in-law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor (Medical)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Doctor (Medical)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 and 4 present the result of the ranks from the Industrial and Commercial Organizations for both problem types. For both Industrial and Commercial organizations the lowest group rank was recorded for "self" for both problem types. "Self" was ranked first by 59% of the executives for depression problems and 32% for personal problems. The executives from the Commercial organization ranked "Self" first by 72% on depression and by 50% on personal problems. A Wilcoxon test used to determine the difference between the rankings for the two problem types for both Industrial and Commercial organizations was significant (pL.05). But this difference proved insignificant when two Kruskal-Wallis tests were utilized to test the difference between Industrial and Commercial Organizations.
### TABLE 3
RANKINGS OF SOURCES OF HELP BY EXECUTIVES FROM INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depression</th>
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<th>Personal Problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Literature</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Professional Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative</td>
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<td>Relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastor</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychologist</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Psychologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father-in-law</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Father-in-law</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 4
RANKINGS OF SOURCES OF HELP BY EXECUTIVES FROM COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depression</th>
<th>Rankings</th>
<th>Personal Problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Literature</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Professional Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Father-in-Law</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Father-in-Law</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of this investigation have revealed that executives have no counselling help. Most of them depend on the "Self" or "professional literature" to help them resolve their psychological and personal problems. Perusal of the rankings reveals that there is little difference between executives from one organization and the other. In most cases, executives think alike in terms of potential help in resolving their problems.

The role of Counselling in curbing depressing and personal problems cannot be contested. The executive stress and the middle age plans have recently accentuated the need for leisure and relaxation techniques. Bored and disinterested, place bound, unpromoted executives who sit out their last twenty years on the job become restless and depressed. Those who work too hard to achieve numerous goals of life become fatigued and experience psychosomatic ailments.

A cognitive behavioural approach for coping with depression is deemed appropriate. Executives need to rationalise their depression and avoid those behaviours that induce it. They may need to learn, unlearn and relearn certain behaviours associated with depression.

Some behaviours which counsellors should encourage in order to alleviate depression include:

(i) Improving social skills, because effective interaction minimizes emotional leprosy.

(ii) Increasing pleasant activities, because such pleasant activities can heal psychologically.

(iii) Relaxation training to ease muscle and emotional tension.

(iv) Time management skills particularly for the type - A personality executives with a chronic sense of time urgency.

(v) Positive thinking techniques to employ when negative thinking becomes a source of depression.

(vi) Problem-solving skills to be taught during group and individual counselling. Such problem solving techniques may equip the executives to manage their problems, control their behaviour and counter the negative events that bolster depression.
Counsellors must deliberately research into pleasant activities that illuminate the life of individuals including the lives of executives. The use of a Depression Inventory will help in identifying depression phenomena that cause dysphoric mood. An exercise in positive reinforcement, particularly regarding pleasant experiences on daily basis can combat depression most successfully.

Conclusion

Depression, a type of mood impairment brought about mainly by failure, frustration and social as well as other psychological problems is inimical to leadership effectiveness. It kills initiative, encourages dependence and bolsters inertia and apathy. Effective counselling, employing behaviour modification modalities has been amply articulated as an antidote to curb depression. Positive experiences that tend to reduce and lighten mental load have been found to curb dysphoric mood so that our organizational leaders can strive towards leadership excellence.

REFERENCES


STUDENTS' PERSONALITY TYPES AND THEIR CHOICE OF COLLEGE MAJORS:
IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING FOR EFFECTIVE CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

BY

JOHN Y. MAISAMARI (PH.D., MCAN)
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF ABUJA
ABUJA

ABSTRACT

Psychodiagnosis as a basis for better vocational counselling practice was investigated in this study. The focus was to determine the relationship that exist between personality types and choice of college majors by undergraduate students of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. A slightly modified version of Holland's self-Directed Search (SDS) was administered to 564 randomly selected male and female graduating final year undergraduates, majoring in 33 special areas, to elicit the degree of relationship between the major courses chosen and the scores achieved on the SDS inventory.

Three congruency groups - congruent, partially congruent and incongruent - were identified. Results of discriminant analysis revealed several interesting findings that have implications for counselling for effective citizenship training.

INTRODUCTION

Institutions of higher learning, such as our universities are expected to play important roles in the Development of the country particularly in the development of middle and high level manpower sectors of the economy. Most of our people such as our policy makers and the general
public believe that through education it is possible to develop the critical manpower skills and knowledge required for effective national development.

However, it is the author's contention that education as envisaged by the Nigerian government and its public alike cannot play its manpower development role effectively unless our University students are able to make choices of field of study that will eventually lead them to vocations (careers) suitable for them.

The author, for instance, has observed that some students choose to read courses in Universities without knowing the full implications of any such choices to their later career lives. Some of them have had to change from one course to another in the course of time after registration and on admission or even after studying in such courses for a period of one or two sessions. Thus there is some need to help the students in their choices of courses and careers. One good method by choice to do this is by the use of Holland's personality theory of vocational choice. The theory proposes that a fundamental relationship exists between an individual's personality characteristics and his choice of vocation or career. In line with this conviction Holland (1966, 1973) has classified occupations according to personality types likely to go well with them. He, Holland, developed the "Self Directed Search (SDS)" for assisting students to make realistic career choices. Before being recommended for use in the vocational guidance of college students, one would like to know if Holland's methodology is applicable to the vocational training programmes of the under-graduates of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The attention is to test Holland's Hypotheses from an African perspective.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND VOCATIONAL CHOICE

Holland's theoretical rationale is based on the assumption that vocational choice is an expression of one's personality (1966, 1973). The contention is that whatever people are engaged in voluntarily or otherwise, they do so because they want to gratify their personality characteristics through these activities. In other words, in the process of making a vocational choice, if there are many occupations from which choice can be made, people will seek out and consider only those vocations that are likely to foster rather than hinder their personality characteristics. Holland holds the view that if people express their personality characteristics in vocations, then most of the people in the same vocations are likely to possess similar personality characteristics.

Consequent upon this assumption, Holland grouped all occupations, environments and people into six types or a combination of types: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A); Social (S); Enterprising (E) and Coventional (C). Holland represents the relationships among
the six types on a Hexagon where similar types are placed closest
together and dissimilar types are placed further apart. The theory
is suitable for vocational counselling for effective citizenship training.
On the strength of the afore-mentioned assumptions, Holland's theory
suggests the following among other predictive outcomes and behaviours
with respect to people in different vocations:

That people whose personality characteristics
are congruent with their vocations or environments
are likely to experience a "more stable vocational
choice, higher vocational achievement, better
maintenance of personality stability and greater
satisfaction.....". (Crites, 1969, p.116).

Holland's vocational theory also assumes that people are most
satisfied, productive and stable in work environments that are
congruent with their personality types. Congruence is typically
assessed by examining the match between an individuals personality
profile on an occupational interest inventory and types associated
with the individual's occupational choice. It follows, therefore, that
an individual should avoid work environments which do not match or
fulfil his or her career needs and personality.

THE PROBLEM

The present study was undertaken therefore to examine the
relationship that exist between personality types and vocational choice
process as determined by the major course areas of specialisation
of undergraduate students of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria in
the context of Holland's personality theory of vocational choice. Most
of the researches testing Holland's theory in Nigeria have utilised
secondary school students as the research population. Research on
the SDS with undergraduate students as subjects has been especially
limited.

Therefore, the degree to which University undergraduates are able
to choose courses of study (vocations) that are compatible with
personality categories in the context of Holland's personality theory
of vocational choice are certainly worth examining.

In recognition of this fact, this study was directed at finding answers
to such questions as these:

1. What are the major personality types identifiable among
   undergraduates of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria?

2. Are the students vocational choice congruent with their personality
types in the context of Holland's theory?
The main objective of the study was to conduct a discriminant analysis of Holland's classification system using the Self Directed Search (SDS). The analysis would show whether or not, there are significant relationships between the personality type grouping of the undergraduates of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and the personality categories in the context of Holland's theory of vocational choice.

HYPOTHESES

The study was designed to test the following hypothesis:

1. There is no significant relationship between the personality types of the undergraduates of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and their vocational orientations in the context of Holland's personality theory of vocational choice.

METHOD

Subjects:

Subjects used for this study were 564 randomly selected male and female graduating - final-year undergraduates majoring in 33 special courses/areas from 26 out of the 73 Departments of the 11 Faculties of the Ahmadu Bello University. These subjects were classified into Holland's six personality classifications, as follows: REALISTIC - 97 male and female undergraduate students from the Departments of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Agronomy, Animal Science, Crop Protection, Agricultural Engineering Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering and Mechanical Engineering; INVESTIGATIVE - 69 male and female undergraduate students from the Departments of Biological Science, Chemistry, Mathematics and Physics; ARTISTIC - 82 male and female undergraduates from the Departments of Architecture, Fine Arts, Industrial Design and English; SOCIAL - 188 male and female undergraduate from the Departments of Education, Medicine, Physical and Health Education and Sociology; ENTERPRISE - 74 male and female undergraduate students from the Departments of Business Administration, Economics and Political Science; and CONVENTIONAL - 54 male and female undergraduate students from the Departments of Accounting Public Administration and Vocational and Technical Education.
Instruments

These included a slightly modified version of Holland's Self Directed Search (SDS) as adapted by Gesinde, (1973) and a questionnaire developed in part by the researcher to form part 1 of the main SDS instrument.

Self Directed Search was adapted and used to elicit the subjects vocational orientations: It consists of two booklets: the assessment and the occupational classification; but in the present study only the assessment booklet was used. The SDS uses a broad range of content activities, competencies, and vocational and personal interests to assess a person's resemblance to each type. The assessment booklet has or contained 66 items of preferred activities, 66 competency items, 84 titles of occupational preferences, 6 ability self-rating areas and 6 skill self-rating areas (228 items in all). The comprehensiveness of this instrument, is demonstrated by the fact that a person's resemblance to each of Holland's six personality types is ascertained five times rather than once. This seems to give it an advantage over the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) also developed by Holland. A subject's responses to the 228 items of the SDA yield a set of six scores.

Questionnaire: This was designed to obtain among other things information on the following:-

1. Sex
2. Faculty, Department and Course Specialisation
3. List of Courses applied for on Admission
4. Whether or not one was given his/her first choice and what reason(s) if any for not been given, etc.

Administration of the Instruments

Instruments were administered after lecture hours or at such other times agreed upon with the respondents so as not to disrupt their lectures. The setting for the instruments administration was in each Faculty/Department's lecture Hall/Rooms. During the administration subjects were free to ask questions if any part or item of the instruments were not clear to them and they were given individualised attention. Some lecturers of the sample courses also assisted in the administration of the instruments.
Treatment of Data

The completed Self Directed Search Instrument and the Questionnaire used was self-scored. Each response area of the SDS contained six vocational orientations - Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C), and these from now on will be referred to by initials, R, I, A, S, E, and C. For each response, each subject's three highest ranking orientation were obtained by weighting each of the Five first place orientation by 3, each second place by 2, and each third place by 1 and summed up. On the whole, the three orientations achieving the highest total scores when arranged in order of magnitude, became the individual's three-letter code.

After the three-letter code of each subject or individual has been identified, the researcher decided on whether or not the subject's basic personal orientation represented by the first letter of the three-letter code) was congruent or incongruent with his or her vocational training code. For instance, since the students in the Faculty of Engineering were in the Realistic (R) training programme their school is represented by the letter code "R" and the Faculty of Education is represented by the letter code "S" since the students were in a social training programme, and so on.

Congruency was achieved if the first letter of a subject's or student's code matched his school (i.e. Faculty/Department or subject area) code; if the second or third letter of his vocational orientation code matched his school code, that subject was regarded as being partially congruent. If none of the three-letters of his code matched his school code, that student was declared incongruent.

Variables of Importance to the Study

The following independent variables were considered important to the study.

1. Student's major fields of specialisation.

2. Congruency, partial-congruency and incongruency.

The dependent variable was the relevance of training inferred from the students basic personal orientation and the personality categories in the context of Holland's personality theory of vocational choice.

Chi-Square (X²) analysis was used to test the relationship between the personality types of the undergraduates and their vocational orientation. The .05 level of significance was set for the acceptance or rejection of the null hypotheses.
Results

Analysis of Relationship Between Scores of the Self Directed Search and Major Areas of Specialisation.

The first research question sought to determine the nature of the relationship between scores achieved on the Self Directed Search (SDS) and major course areas of specialisation. As indicated in the section of the treatment of data, for each student, the three personality types achieving the highest total scores when arranged in a descending order of magnitude in the context of Holland's six personality types becomes his or her three-letter code. For example, if a student achieved the following scores: R (28), I (19), A (37), S (48), E (45) and C (29), his or her three-letter code will read SEA. Simply interpreted this student is primarily the social type, secondarily the enterprising type and thirdly the artistic type respectively.

It would be recalled that the main objective of this study was to conduct a discriminant analysis of Holland's classification system using the Self Directed Search (SDS) instrument to see whether or not, there is any relationship between the personality type of groupings of undergraduates of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, with the personality categories of Holland's theory of vocational choice.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Types Classified by Discriminant Function</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Groups (Actual)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realistic (R)</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative (I)</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic (A)</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social (S)</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprising (E)</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional (C)</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>564</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table I: above shows the discriminant analysis of the Holland's classification system using the SDS. The table gives the actual classifications of the entire 564 sample students used for the six (6) groups in this study; and the classification derived from the use of discriminant analysis. For example, discriminant analysis revealed that the Realistic group had only 29 realistic persons, 45 Investigative persons, 1 Artistic person, 4 Social persons, 15 Enterprising persons, and 3 Conventional persons. What this means is that, even though there were 97 subjects in the Realistic group, only 29 of them are of a Realistic personality type (i.e. those who would be identified as agricultural and engineering students by means of discriminant analysis) as determined by the student's vocational choices on the SDS. The findings further showed that the Investigative group had 3 Realistic persons, 42 Investigative persons, 4 Artistic persons, 16 Social persons, 1 Enterprising and 3 Conventional persons. Thus, although there were 69 Investigative subjects in the group, only 42 of these were of an Investigative personality type (would have been identified as science students in all their various fields by means of discriminant analysis) as determined by the student's overall vocational preference on the SDS. Generally, the "purest" groups under this assessment are the Social, Investigative and the Enterprising groups respectively. For the Social, 138 (or 73.4%) of the sample 188 subjects for the groups were of a Social personality type, 42 (60.9%) of the 69 students in the Investigative group were of an Investigative personality; while 40 (54.1%) of the 74 respondents in the Enterprising group were of an enterprising personality type. The "least pure" groups were the Realistic and the Artistic groups.

Generally, the findings in table 1 above show the distribution of the entire 564 sample students used for this study according to Holland's typology as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality Types</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Realistic (R)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative (I)</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic (A)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social (S)</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprising (E)</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional (C)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>564</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Furthermore, considering the pattern of vocational orientations discussed as provided by Holland's typology, and also the results of the hypothesis tested, it is possible to assume that Holland's SDS instrument is applicable to the vocational choices of undergraduates of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and indeed to Nigerians. Hence, with the instrument it was possible to place students of each vocational school group into three groups: Congruent, Partially Congruent and Incongruent. The performance of each school's vocational choice just showed numerical differences that were still consistent with Holland's theory.

CONCLUSION

The natural conclusion is that Holland's personality theory is applicable to the student's vocational choices and can be used for counselling students intending to choose courses or careers. However, beyond the test of significance, it is reasoned that the application of Holland's theory of vocational guidance in counselling students should be done with caution and in combination with data from other sources. This is because in each of the six groups: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional it was observed that the theory was not applicable to a sizeable proportion of the students (over 47% or 258 of the entire 564 sample students). Hence, a blanket application of the theory alone to counselling students is absolutely ruled out.

RECOMMENDATION

The major recommendation stemming from this research is that Holland's personality theory of vocational choice has implication for counselling for effective citizenship training. Hence, it can be applied in guiding students' vocational choices, provided that data from the Self-Directed Search (SDS) are used in combination with data from other sources. However, it is recommended, on the basis of this study, that Holland's constructs can be useful in the counselling of clients who express vocational uncertainties.
REFERENCE


LEADERSHIP AND CITIZENSHIP IN NIGERIA:
MILITARY BIAS

BY

MAJOR REV. FR. E. F. BAKO
CHAP (RC)
AHQ CAMP, LAGOS.

ABSTRACT

This paper attempts to discuss the kind of leadership that could be evolved for total emancipation of Nigeria as a nation.

The concept of leadership in military arena was discussed as it affects leadership behaviour and characteristics, the followership and locus of leadership.

A brief recommendation was made at the end of the paper which includes involvement of counselling principles as a guide to individuals who find themselves in the corridors of power.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership to any human society is of significant importance to the overall development and progress of such a society. In a situation where a leader exists and functions at an effective level, the tendency is that his followers who constitute the citizenship, will no doubt do everything within their power to make the group goal accomplishable. This they do by suggesting to, assisting, and co-operating with the
leader. In most human organisations, and even among the animal kingdom, God has so made it that as a social organisation, there is always that feeling that someone should be in the forefront of a group to direct the affairs of such a group. Such a person is expected to guide the activities of such a group, to minister to the needs of others, to direct the cause of the group towards desireable and laudable goals. By so doing, the group experiences growth, development, understanding among members, unity and social cohesion.

Leadership, effective leadership of course, goes a long way in making a group successful. Be it in the home, at work and other social organisations like the school, hospital, the police, the Army, the Navy, the Airforce or even among the ants the implications of not having a leader or a capable one is very seriously fathomed when the leaders of a body of ants is taken off the file such a body makes. Once the leader is taken, the next thing that occurs is disarray, disruption and confusion among the other ants that make the file. This is simply the lesson of a leaderless community or one where the leader is not as effective as he should be.

CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP:

A lot of definitions have been proffered to explain the concept of leadership but the fear is that none of these definitions is seen as being all comprehensive or all accepting.

Kats and Kahn (1978) defined leadership as the influencing increment over and above mechanical compliance with routing directives of the organization.

Koonty and Donnel (1959) see leadership as influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal. To them, the power of the interpersonal process of the leader is seen as being important.

Terry (1960) however conceives of leadership as the charism of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives.

Solarin (1983) defining leadership sees it simply as the ability to suffer. This is because the leader is expected to minister to the needs of his followers. Consequently, he should be prepared to suffer to attain the group goal.

Jesus (33) defines a leader as one who is greatest by serving the followers.

Stod-Gill (1976) however conceives of leadership in its ideal form, while according to Bakare (1990) a leader is one who gets his followers to do something more than his formal authority can require him to do. And in his view leadership is an interpersonal relation in which others comply because they want to, not because they have to.
In the most realistic sense of the word then it is difficult to come by such leaders as is exposed above. This is because for a leader to carry the followership above, charima alone may not be enough as there will always be dissenters, saboteurs or coup plotters. As a result, there must be a principle of collective responsibility as manifested by laid down rules and regulations of the group.

**TYPES OF LEADERSHIP:**

Contrary to what used to obtain in the beginning of psychological research on leadership, when leadership was seen as a function of leader's personality such as autocratic, laissez-faire and democratic, these days there are contemporary leadership study that focusses on three factors which make leaders effective. Namely, the leader, the follower and the context of operation of locus of leadership.

This new dimension has made it imperative that both leader characteristics and behaviour be focused on in determining the success of any leader performing in any given organisation.

Prominent among such leader behaviours are initiation, membership, representation, production, recognition, domination, integration, organisation and communication. Since the leader will not come by these behaviour in isolation, there must therefore, be a group that will form his followership; and such a group should constitute individuals who share the leader's views and visions. They should be those who wish to attain the same objectives with the leader, and are prepared to follow the organisation's rules and regulations. They should be ready to shoulder some responsibilities as far as the pursuance of the organisational goals are concerned. Most importantly, they reflect the total aspirations of the leader as far as the commitment of the group is concerned. Their ability to do this goes a long way in making a success of their leader and the organisation. In the converse however, leaders who establish certain organisational pattern and deviate from such may inadvertently be directing their followership away from the original objectives of such an organisation; thus causing the members of the organisation to pursue other goals within the organisation than those on which the body was essentially established. Leadership is thus a critical factor in building a nation's citizenship.

**LEADERSHIP IN MILITARY:**

The concept of leadership in the Armed Forces is in some respects different from Stod-Gill's submission in the sense that there are a lot of sanctions that go with authority, responsibility and privileges in the Armed Forces.
The Armed Forces do not emphasise on willing followership, rather it recognises coercive or authoritarian submission of members. Once an individual attains a status in the Armed Forces, others who happen to be his subordinates must always accord him the compliments and respect due to him, no matter what tribe he comes from, his level of education, his religious background or his psychological structure. Military tradition demands that you submit yourself to the order of your superior without question. No wonder then why such slogans like "Obey the last order" and "Zombie" all of which are usually associated with life in the Armed Forces. There, once an order is given, it is not subject to query or disobedience. However, even in the military context, one is not bound to obey bad orders.

Perhaps it is because of this kind of tradition that the institution of the Armed Forces has survived series of upheavals without any of its traditions being bastardized.

Apart from bastardization, the Armed Forces' leadership, in all respects, compared to other social organisations, exude effective organisation and this may not be seen as a capital flaw in the sense that the soldier is trained for military activities and not political.

Within the rank and file of the Armed Forces there is apparent peace, tranquility, unity of purpose, a collective sense of orientation and esprit de corps which gives direction to their activities. In true sense of the word, then it could be said that the Armed Forces as an organisation is a unified whole regardless of the source of leadership with which it is being administered.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELLING PRACTICE:**

It could be said that at all levels of our awareness it may be important that a little of military organisation pattern be injected into the body politic of the nation (Nigeria) for us to be effective as a nation in all our undertakings. And as regards the possibility of de-emphasising the totality of military influence in our leadership pattern, the lessons accruing from psychological studies on leadership could be adopted through the help of counsellors employed into the corridors of power. By so doing more of rational and emotional tendencies will come to bear on our activities, for sound, realistic and not cosmetic development and growth.

In the light of the above it is this author's recommendation that Nigeria's leadership should combine the tradition of the military with those of psychological education to forge the best form of leadership for the country.

Counsellors should be absorbed into the corridors of power so as to influence leadership policies. This, they can do, by developing leadership policies through programmes which will be inculcated into the diverse sectors of the nation's government be it in education, politics, economic, or military.
REFERENCES


ACHIEVING NATIONAL GREATNESS THROUGH FOLLOWERSHIP EVALUATION OF LEADERSHIP: A CASE REPORT

BY

DR. J.A. OMOTOSH  
Dept. of Guidance & Counselling, University of Ilorin

DR. K. ANSAH-YAMOAH,  
Dept. of Guidance & Counselling, University of Ilorin.

ABSTRACT

This paper identifies evaluation of staff as one of the routes to programme effectiveness and efficiency. It points out that the dual issues of research and teaching are necessary for consideration in breeding the type of citizenship and leadership who will contribute their quota to making Nigeria become a just and egalitarian society. It makes a case for the need to give equal weight to both criteria when evaluating academic staff for promotion. Emphasis is particularly given to the need for the followership to participate in evaluating the leadership, illustrating with an actual case how this was done on a miniature scale in one Nigerian University. The implications for counselling and the leadership role which counselling schools are to play are outlined.

Introduction: Today's Growing Influence of the Followership

A phenomenon of rapid changes has gripped the whole world in recent years. The latest, large-scale example of rapid change is the total demise of the 74-year-old "iron curtain" of the communist apparatus of USSR following Gennadi Yanaev's feeble Coup d'etat of Monday, August 18th, 1991. Earlier on in the year the world witnessed the so-called "Mother of Wars" in the Gulf Region.
Elsewhere in the world today, particularly in the so-called Third World countries the masses have been clamouring for more independence and greater participation of the followership in governance. In Ghana, Ethiopia, Somalia, Togo, South Africa, Cameroun, Zambia, the Baltic States, Yugoslavia, Iraq, Poland, etc the story is the same. In these and other countries, the followership is voicing its disdain for leadership which has held on tenaciously to power. Peoples everywhere are exerting greater and greater influence on their rulers, asking for more participation in governance.

The picture portrayed above pervades all tertiary institutions in Nigeria today. There is a rising demand by Nigerian students for greater participation in institutional governance, more than they had done in the past. They want to be included in planning the ways and manner in which their parents' tax money is spent, and in the learning-teaching situation, etc. In short, today's students have made a strong point for inclusion of their representatives on both the academic and administrative boards that plan their destinies. It is on record that they have made considerable gains in this respect. And who would dare to deny them of such rights? In a gradual albeit sure way, the old order whereby institutional governance rested solely in the hands of administrators and faculty members is changing and giving way to new. Today, student opinions in institutional matters cannot be swept aside with a mere wave of the hand as it used to be the case in yore days. Students' voices matter today and are very critical and vital in institutional decision-making.

Today's students are better informed and are more abreast with current affairs than their predecessors. Thanks to the knowledge boom and thanks to a vastly-improved communication system and the mass media. Today's students are beginning to impress it upon their professors that they know what the nature of their learning should be and the type of instructional strategies that are best suited for achieving it. They are saying that they know what educational preparations are most relevant for meeting the challenges of a fast-changing society. And in most cases they are right for it is they and their parents/guardians who are closer to the hub of activities in the world of work and in the society at large.

As we all learned from Alvin Toffler (Future Shock), change is coming at us so fast that many people are going into shock. It is a rising rate of change that makes reality seem, sometimes, like a kaleidoscope run wild. According to Toffler, "Change is avalanching upon our heads and most people are grotesquely unprepared to cope with it".

In all of the cases cited above the demand for change is a demand for a tilting of power from the leadership to the followership; a demand by the followership that they be allowed to have a say in their governance, including a right to choose their leaders and to
evaluate these leaders' performance. Both in the political arena as well as in academic, the demand is the same: "Give us the opportunity to have a say in choosing and evaluating those who lead us; that is the only way to be a great nation".

The Teaching Versus Research Dilemma

The type of heat generated on the teaching vs. research dilemma as experienced in some advanced countries over a decade or two ago was to a large extent non-existent here in Nigeria. Here the issue seems to have been settled largely in favour of research. That is why for instance, the now famous cliche 'publish or perish' seems to have gained silent acceptance. In spite of this apparent calm, however, the issues raised in the section above seem to point to the fact that the issue may not be that way for too long.

The teaching vs. research dilemma has prompted Ozman (1967) to recommend that college and university faculties should be divided not only into departments, but into two distinct sections within departments: one section for those who teach, and the other for those who do research and publishing, giving equal status to each, since one is no more important than the other. Thus a good teacher could become a professor without publishing anything, according to Ozman.

That classroom teaching was the dominant raison d'etre for institutions of higher learning in this land in the past goes without saying. Interestingly enough, the position has remained unchanged up to the present time. The general public has often demanded for the implementation of research findings. However, more often than not, these have not been forth coming in the way with the rapidity the taxpayer expects it to be. The public wants to feel the impact of applied research as opposed to basic research. By and large, basic research or unapplied research findings have failed to meet the general expectations of the public. What with the continually falling standards of education? What with the high graduate unemployment rate that reflects more on a nonfunctional education system than on the global economic recession that has often been cited as the cause? What with the mounting dropout rate in our school? What with many other educational problems that seem to stultify solution in spite of our much learning? Or, probably, such problems dwarf our attempts to solve them because of our "Little learning", a view that would corroborate Alexander Pope's piquant verse in his
An Essay on Criticism:

A little learning is a dangerous thing;
Drink deep, or taste not the plerian spring;
There shallow draughts intoxicate the brain;
And drinking largely sobers us again.

The "Publish Or Perish" Syndrome

Writing on "The Precarious State of Teaching", Snow (1973) noted that faculty members, are increasingly inclined to devote a major share of their efforts to many enterprises outside the classroom, allowing their energies to be diverted from teaching. Further, Snow noted that recognizing publication as the route to academic advancement, faculty members struggle to produce the book and articles which they hope will justify their claims to promotion and prestige. They negotiate research contracts, serve as paid consultants, and conduct private business on the side. On the other hand, Snow went on, few rewards or distinctions seem to accrue to those who excell as teachers. Under such circumstances, there is a very real and everpresent hazard that the calibre of teaching within colleges will not be maintained at the highest levels of excellence and may even deteriorate.

This view is a corroboration of an earlier one by Woodring (1964) who observes that the prestige of the university rests on the publications of the faculty, thus forcing an emphasis on faculty publication performance. It was his view that administrative personnel as well as heads of departments Chairmen had little knowledge of their faculty's teaching competencies, and through long tradition they seldom visit classrooms. They can, however, read a colleague's publications. Woodring therefore makes the case for the need for a balanced faculty.

Sample's (1972) finding is that most major American universities refuse to face the conflict between research and teaching either claiming that the two are equally important or publicly supporting teaching while privately favouring research. His concluding remarks are that the conflict between research and teaching, left unresolved, pits the professor against the student in a contest difficult for either to win. The faculty member assumes that research is the principal goal and therefore views most of his student contact as potential threats to his professional aspirations. The student, on the other hand, thinks development of his mind and intellect should be the central concern of the university and feels cheated upon finding that most professors do not share this concern.
The majority of studies done abroad to resolve the teaching-research dilemma have tended to place the former over the latter in the order of priority. Martin and Berry (1969) for instance, noted that professors are caught in the dilemma of an interdispositional role conflict; teach for the university or publish for the profession. The university, they say hires a professor mainly to teach but retains or promotes him largely on the basis of his scholarship. The authors advocate a separation of research and teaching functions as a way of resolving the inherent role conflict.

Followership Participation in Leadership Evaluation: A Proposal

There is, of course, more than one road to evaluating faculty; student evaluation of faculty and teaching just happens to be one of them. Unfortunately, however, this road for whatever reasons, has remained untried for a long time in our educational history. Now that students are beginning to exert a considerable influence on the educational scene in Nigeria, there is no doubt that they will soon intensify their call on school administrators to allow them participate in evaluating their lecturers and their work, on what basis then can students make such demands?

In order for one to answer that question one would refer to Aristotle, who mentions in Politics that we get a better notion of the merits of the dinner from the guest than from the cook. In the same vein, Burton (1956) remarked that students are in a better position than are teachers or administrators to judge the quality of instruction that they are receiving. The prime requirement, according to Burton, is that the instructor himself be willing and able to face up to what his students think of his work. We, as college teachers in a developing country, can hardly be indifferent to what our students feel and think. When it is remembered that student ratings can be a source of personal evaluation and guidance to us in making what we present to the students more relevant to the society, we are likely to be more accepting of their evaluation.

Take the beginning instructor for instance. He tends to be so busy with his thoughts and grammar that he often does not have enough time to observe how well he performs in delivering his "stuff". Yet, if he is to become used to the teaching milieu he should be influenced by the reactions of his students. By means of rating devices he can achieve this end if he can feel that he has control over how the ratings are taken and also interpreted.
Followership Participation in Leadership Evaluation in Universities: A Case Report

A recent experiment carried out by one of the authors goes to confirm the fact that the student does have an opinion about faculty which he (the student) will record sincerely if given the opportunity. Following the final examinations in three of the four Guidance and counselling classes which he taught at the faculty of Education, University of Jos in the summer semester of 1985, he administered an Instructional Method and Lecturer Evaluation (IMLE) form to his students to use in evaluating his teaching and himself. The return rate was extremely encouraging (Table I). More revealing were the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of students</th>
<th>No. in class</th>
<th>No Participating</th>
<th>Questionnaires Returned Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. P.G.D.E.</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. 1st Year Masters</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. 2nd Year Masters</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>98.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

obtained from the open-end questions where respondents were asked to make suggestions for improving:-

(a) the lecturer's teaching, and

(b) the course content.

The original questionnaire was developed independently by the authors without recourse to any existing one. In spite of this handicap it serves as a very useful purpose for the kind of evaluation that was deemed required by a beginning instructor that he is. Presently, the IMLE is undergoing modifications so as to make it more standard. The major points to be noted from this empirical study are:-

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(1) the high rate of return is a likely pointer to the fact that students are actually 'itching' to provide a feedback to their instructors,

(2) the feedback is generally constructive and helpful to the instructor, and

(3) it is easy to construct an individual evaluation form as well as a group form; it only demands a desire and a commitment to do it.

Discussion

Since the primary mission of every University is the education of the young adults, then the calibre of the faculty should be such that this aim can be more easily realized. One of the ways that Nigerian Universities have used for raising a strong crop of faculty members is through regular evaluation of the faculty. By and large, Nigerian university faculty members are very serious academicians in their various disciplines. Many are, in fact, internationally recognized and of renown. This is highly commendable especially when one considers the peculiar circumstances under which they operate. This does not however mean that further improvement is impossible. It certainly is, and faculty evaluation is done by one's superior colleagues as is largely the case in our educational system, it allows one to see himself as other professional colleagues see him. However, when the evaluation by a professional colleague is supplemented by those of the evaluated faculty's students with whom he has greater intellectual interaction in the classroom the evaluation is bound to be even more objective, possessing greater validity. Not only will it be possible to see himself as others see him, but also he will know what sort of things are still lacking in himself as a teacher and in the content of his work so as to make it more relevant to the needs of the day.

When the purpose of one's life work is to help Nigeria to build (1) "a free and democratic society"; and (2) "a just and egalitarian society;" (National Policy on Education, (rev.), 1981), by influencing others then the view of those others must count. One cannot effectively help another person if the needs and desires of the helpee are not known. And one of the best ways that the students we teach can make their needs and desires known is through the forms they complete as they evaluate both our work and us. This is what the writers believe to be a strong rationale behind the need for student evaluation of faculty members. Students' views and evaluation of
us and our work cut across those ethnic, religious and sexual barriers that other views may be subject to and so they are more objective and constructive. In fact, several studies have shown that students' evaluations of faculty are not only valid but that they have no correlation with the grades they (students) receive, or expect to receive, in a course. (e.g. Blum 1936; Detchen, 1940; Largen, 1966; Voeks, and French, 1960; etc.).

Detchen (1940) has found that the student does have an opinion about faculty which he will record sincerely if given the opportunity. His opinion can contribute towards a better planning for his welfare and is desirable because it supplements the opinion of the expert. Detchen is of the view that it would be an error to test the validity of student opinion with that of the expert because the expert cannot judge the teacher's affect upon the student; only the student can know this.

Most of the studies that have rated the qualities considered desirable in university professors have often cited among others, the following fairness, mastery of subject, interesting presentation of material, well-organised material, clearness of exposition, interest in students, helpfulness, ability to direct discussion, sincerity, and keenness of intellect. Also, a lot of instruments have been developed and 'standardized' for use in evaluating professors and teaching. Those mentioned in Miller (1974), Miller (1975), and Fieldman and Newcomb (1976), are very useful and can be easily modified for local use to complement our traditional faculty instruments.

**The Role of Guidance Personnel: An Epilogue**

Guidance programmes are based on the conviction that education should help to liberate individual students from any form of domination that hinders their full self-actualization. Hence, it should help the student to choose and reach the goals he has set for himself, and to take full responsibility for those choices he makes. Given such a milieu, we in guidance and counselling believe that the student will develop as a self-confident person capable of directing his life. This philosophy stresses the importance of the individual person as one that can contribute in a large measure towards creating a world for himself that is worth living in.

It is against this background that these authors view the issue of student participation in faculty evaluation. The situation where a student has all of what he learns in the classroom come to him in a cut-and-dry fashion is in opposition to the spirit and philosophy of guidance stated above. Any action, overt or covert, that limits a student's chance to participate in fashioning a programme of learning for himself is very limiting. We believe that a student who is deprived
of the chance to contribute to how and what he learns and is only
told what to learn, whether those things are relevant or irrelevant
for his life, is actually being cheated and abused. His development
will be stunted and twisted and he will be in perpetual psychological
servitude. He will not be able to think for himself whereas as Cote
(1972) put it: "it is and has been the free thinking individual who
has given most to the world."

Here then is a call to guidance and counselling personnel in
particular to lead the way in creating a milieu in the classroom that
is conducive to achieving full-throttle learning. If the counselling
approaches we have been exposed to, and the skills we have made
to become part of our lives, are things to go by then we should be
in the forefront leading other educationists in creating new frontiers
in learning in this land so that our education will be of greater
relevance for us now and for our children in the years ahead. We
can do this by having constant self-evaluation of our teaching and
of ourselves as we ask our students, who are keenly to rate both.

Leadership evaluation by students, when judiciously used to
complement traditional methods of evaluation, can assist the
administration of faculty colleagues in discerning which individuals
are performing at acceptable levels. As Miller (1975) put it: "This
function is not punitive but diagnostic, it can be one of the fairest
ways of making sound decisions about professional performance."
Nigeria today no longer needs to indulge in the wastages that our
past educational era has known.

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4. Detchen, L. (1940). "Shall the student rate the professor? The

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One of the defining characteristics of such people is good risk-taking behaviour. They have high need for achievement and set out to perform in situations in which there is some moderate risk of failure - a risk which can presumably be reduced by increased efforts and skills.

A strong relationship has been established between risk-taking behaviour and economic development (for example McClelland (1961; 1965; 1969) in U.S., Japan, Germany, Brazil and India, Cartes (1961) in Spain, Decharmes and Moelles (1962) in the U.S., Bradburn and Berlew (1961) in England, Hayashi, Rim and Lynn (1970) in Britain, Japan, Ireland and Israel). They all believe that variations in prosperity of countries at different times can be shown to be related to variations in risk-taking behaviour of their citizens.

There are also both empirical and theoretical convergence that good risk-taking behaviour could be classified as leadership behaviour (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; and Cartwright and Zander, 1960). This is because they see leadership behaviour as an act that is functionally related to goal achievement and this includes making suggestions for actions, evaluating movement towards a goal, preventing activities irrelevant to a goal and offering solutions for goal achievement. Thus good risk-taking behaviour could be associated with leadership in a wide range of situations because people with good risk-taking behaviour have the propensity for performing leadership role at low cost. According to Brown (1965) those who are outstandingly influential, those who assume leadership are for some reason inclined to take moderately calculated risks than those who are less influential.

Furthermore evidence abound that good risk-taking behaviour leads to good citizenship (Kelly, 1980; Handy, 1985; and Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). They believe that people with good risk-taking behaviour help to boost the productive capacity of their countries thereby improving the economic growth of those countries. These go with the thesis by McClelland (1950) that variations in prosperity of countries at different times can be shown to be related to variations in risk-taking behaviour of their citizens.

It is probably based on the above background that the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) mapped out Entrepreneurial Development Programme (EDP) as one of its programmes. The purpose of the EDP is to develop the tendency of Nigerian youths to recognise a business opportunity, persisting to exploit such opportunity, and influence, by their skills and actions, that the exploited opportunity turns out to be successful on the long run by mastering, manipulating, organising, overcoming obstacles and maintaining high standard of work.
DISCUSSION

Table 1 and 2 show that Nigerian adolescents have poor risk-taking behaviour (N = 433, X = 2.60). The Tables however reveal that when considered according to sex, and school location, both male and female subjects in both urban and rural located schools have poor risk-taking behaviour. When considered according to sex and location only male subjects from rural areas have good risk-taking behaviour (Table 2).

These findings are quite significant. First the assertion made by Irukwu (1989) and Ikeyina (1989) that the underdevelopment and low productivity observed in many sectors of the economy is as a result of an absence of a class of risk-takers motivated and trained to organise resources for efficient production is supported.

The findings further strengthens the relationship between risk-taking behaviour and economic and technological development originally propagated by McClelland (1961) and supported by other researchers (Cortes, 1961, Hayashi, Rim and Lynn, 1970). They believe that citizens of developing countries have poor risk-taking behaviour and low need for achievement. This observation is true for both male and female subjects in urban and rural areas of Nigeria. However the fact that male subjects of rural areas have good risk-taking behaviour shows that the assertion of McClelland and others should not be taken in entirety. It shows that risk-taking behaviour could be observed among some categories of citizens of a developing country, though still underdeveloped, is experiencing gradual economic growth as is the case with Nigeria. Ray (1981) had observed that in such a situation, risktaking behaviour could be attributed to need deprivation of the citizens, forcing many of them to adopt good risktaking behaviour.

The following results show that, although the Entrepreneurial Development Programme mounted by the NDE is quite laudable, it may be more fruitful to start boosting the risk-taking behaviour of Nigerians much earlier in life instead of leaving it till they leave school to seek employment.

The null hypothesis was further tested to determine whether a significant difference exists in risk-taking behaviour of adolescents according to the three variables - sex, school, location and SES.

Taking sex, the mean score for male subjects was 2.81, and the mean score for the female subjects was 2.36. The Analysis of variance indicated a significant difference in the risk-taking behaviour of these 2 categories of adolescents. $F(1,431) = 15.768, P < .05$ (See Table 3). The hypothesis is therefore rejected. From the mean score it is evident
that the male subjects scored significantly higher than the female subjects. These findings reveal that situation in other countries as evidenced by the researches of Bose, Snehangshe, Gupta and Lindgren (1979), Sid and Lindgren (1981), Smithe and Lindgren (1978), is also applicable to the Nigerian situation. It further confirmed the findings of Ogunlade (1979) and Eyo (1986). All these researchers have been able to establish the fact that males have better risktaking behaviour than females in that they (males) have a higher need for achievement than the females. Further studies by Hoffman (1974), Horner (1972), Silvestri (1987) to explain the low score in risk-taking behaviour of females against that of males reveal that generally, women's achievement goals conflict with their affiliation goals. The cultural constraint imposed on them make them to disguise their abilities and withdraw from the main stream of thought, activism and achievement in the society.

The above finding shows that if such a situation persists in Nigeria, the current call on women by the government to participate actively in nation building (through the creation of Better Life Programme and the Directorate of women affairs) in order to help boost the economic situation of the country might be met with very little success. These programmes were initiated as a result of the governments realization of the role of labour as a factor of production and manpower as a key factor in the manipulating of other factors of production. Hence, the quantity, quality and utilization of human resources have become central in any nation's development process and women, constituting more than 50% of this labour force have increasingly gained prominence. Unless, therefore, an intervention training programme is mounted to help boost the risk-taking behaviour of this category of subjects, they will not participate actively to meet the challenges imposed on them by recent developments in the country aimed at reducing loss of valuable human resources.

In recent times the realization that overall national development may be difficult to achieve without grassroot development has brought about shift in emphasis to rural development. The main purpose of this current emphasis is to enhance self employment and greater productivity among rural dwellers which will in turn improve the nation's economic development. With this in mind the researcher decided to look at location as one of the variables in risk-taking behaviour of adolescents.

The summary of the ANOVA shown in Table 3 reveal that a significant difference exists in the risk-taking behaviour of subjects in urban area ($X = 2.45$) and those in rural area ($X = 2.84$), $F - (1,431) = 9.409, P = .05$ thus rejecting the null hypothesis. Another interesting trend emerging from a closer examination of the detailed distribution
of subjects given in Table 2 show that subjects from rural areas consistently scored higher in the R T M than their counterparts from urban areas among the sexes. This finding contradicts the findings of Shinha and Cahuby (1972) in India and Bhattacharya and Cahuby (1972) in India and Bhattacharya and Bhardway (1983) that subjects from developed villages have higher risk-taking behaviour than those from underdeveloped ones. This finding brings back to mind the hypothesis of Ray (1981) that in certain situations, the deprivation of needs among certain citizens could force them to adopt better risk-taking behaviour and have stronger drive for advancement than they would ordinarily have.

Further information on Table 2 shows that among the sexes it is only males in rural areas who have good risk-taking behaviour (X = 3.08).

All these findings reveal that the attempt by the Federal Government in integrating rural dwellers by boosting rural development for better national is quite laudable. However since women are in the majority in the rural labour force (Mbanefo 1990) - an aftermath of rural - urban male migration - any genuine rural development programme must have women integration and participation as it's cornerstone. Although the government had made efforts towards this through the better life for rural dwellers programme the findings of this study show that deliberate efforts should be made to improve women's risk-taking behaviour, in order to ensure their integration and full participation if a genuine rural development programme must be achieved.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In Nigeria the problem of low productivity, evidenced by poor economic growth witnessed in all sectors of the economy has been linked to an absence of a class of risk-takers motivated and trained to organise resources for efficient production (Irukwu 1989, Ikeyina 1989). This study confirms this assertion by revealing that most Nigerians have poor risk-taking behaviour. The implication is that with such category of people, hoping for responsible citizenship and leadership is far fetched in the 1990s. The sluggish performance of key productive sectors could therefore only be improved if training programmes are mounted early enough to boost the risk-taking behaviour of Nigerian adolescents who will be future leaders. This will have strong implication for national development.
Recently the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) started a programme called the Entrepreneurial Development Programme (EDP) to help boost the risk-taking behaviour of Nigerian citizens. This is done by giving all applicants to the NDE an intensive 2-week orientation course to develop their tendency of recognising a business opportunity, persisting to exploit that opportunity, and influence by their skills and action that the expected opportunity turns out to be successful on the long run, by mastering, manipulating, organising and overcoming obstacles in maintaining high standard of work. This researcher is recommending that this programme be mounted early enough in people's life so that good citizenship and effective leadership behaviour be adopted by Nigeria.

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Analysis of Leadership Behaviours In Nigerian Secondary Schools

by

Dr. F. O. Onyejiaku and P. I. Nwadinigwe

ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on leadership behaviour in secondary schools. The sample for the study was drawn from nine states in the country and comprised 114 teachers and 80 students. Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was the instrument used for the study. Simple percentages and Analysis of Variance were used to analyze the data. Of the four dimensions investigated (consideration, initiating structure, production emphasis and social awareness) consideration and initiating structure showed the highest variability in leadership behaviour in Nigerian secondary schools.

INTRODUCTION

The study of leadership behaviour in Nigerian secondary schools at this time is quite timely considering the frequency and sad consequences of student demonstrations, protests, and often violent riots in our post primary and tertiary institutions. Often these student reactions are blamed on school leadership behaviours.

The oldest study of leadership behaviours in different social settings and organizations focused on the traits and organisations and intelligence of leaders, that is finding characteristics which all leaders possessed and which followers lacked. Most of the empirical studies on this approach found very weak relationship (Bird, 1940; Mann, 1959; Davis, 1969). It has been found that effective leaders tend to be higher in achievement needs, power needs, self confidence, motivation, originality and stress tolerance than less effective leaders (Yukl, 1981).
Bales (1950) distinguished two basic leadership styles, one oriented toward the task and the other oriented toward socioemotional relations with their followers. The task oriented leader contributes ideas to the group, seeks and gives information and opinions, coordinates group activity, energizes the group and evaluates group performance. The socioemotional leader gives praise, mediates conflicts, encourages participation and provide feedback to the group on group processes (Stephen and Stephen, 1990). In a number of studies using tripartite leadership styles (democratic, autocratic and Laize-faire); democratic style is people oriented in that it invites group participation in decision making, while the autocratic style is task oriented in that it involves the leader making decisions for the group.

The most notable research directed toward the determination of dimensions of leader behaviour was by Hemphil (1950), Halpin and Winer (1952) and a few others. These studies defined leadership in terms of behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. After factorial analysis of leader behaviour, Halpin and Winer (1952) distinguished four major dimensions of leadership behaviour which later research has indicated may have general validity and application. These four major dimensions, on which the present study is based, are briefly described below:

1. **Consideration:** This dimension reflects the extent to which the leader shows behaviour that is indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in relationships between himself and the members of the group. Leaders high in this behavioural characteristic encourage their co-workers to communicate with them and share their feelings. This dimension accounted for almost half of the variability in behaviour between different leaders in Halpin and Winer's study.

2. **Initiating structure:** This dimension which accounted for more than 33 percent of the variability in Halpin and Winer's (1952) study represents the extent to which the leader organizes and defines the relation between himself and his fellow group members. It refers to the leader's task of getting the group moving toward its designated goal.

3. **Production emphasis:** This dimension accounted for about 10 percent variability in the study. Production emphasis represent a cluster of behaviour by which a leader stresses getting a job done. Thus the emphasis is on motivating the group or members in the establishment to perform their job satisfactorily.
4. Sensitivity (social awareness): This dimension accounted for about 7 percent in Halpin and Winer's study. The leader characterized by this factor is willing to accept changes in ways of doing things. He does not "blame" members who make mistakes and he does not make scapegoats of his followers. He is always very sensitive to what goes on in the establishment.

The Problem

The school is one of the most social and psychological set up which provides the child with experiences in leadership behaviours and followership. In most cases administrators, teachers, school prefects and other members in the school manifest behaviours which determine the degree of effective leadership in school. When leadership behaviours in school run counter to members expectations (teachers and students alike) there is bound to be protests and demonstrations which often give rise to destruction of lives and property. There is a lot of literature on principals leadership styles in the country using democratic, autocratic and laize-faire styles as major dimensions. These studies have yielded varying results.

The present study is designed to analyse leadership behaviour in secondary schools using the four dimensions outlined above. To the best knowledge of the researchers, these leadership dimension have not been studied in relation to Nigerian educational institutions.

The study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the general perception of secondary school teachers and students with regard to leadership behaviours in secondary schools?

2. To what extent does teachers and students differ in their perception of leadership behaviour in secondary school with special reference to consideration, initiating structure, production emphasis and sensitivity, (social awareness)?

3. Does teaching experience influence teachers assessment of leadership behaviour in secondary schools?

Subjects

The subjects in the study were drawn from nine states in the country. The majority of the teachers were the sandwich student teachers in the University of Calabar who came from Cross River,
Imo, Abia, Akwa Ibom, Rivers, Delta, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Anambra, Edo and Oyo States. The students were drawn from four schools in Calabar Municipality. Altogether, there were 114 teachers and 80 students.

Instruments

The instrument used for the present study was the modified form of Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaires (L.B.D.Q.) devised by the Personnel Research Board of Ohio State University (Schriesheim & Kerr, 1974). Each subject in the present study (teachers and students) was required to indicate the frequency which an effective leader in the school should engage in each form of behaviour by checking one of the four responses (adverbs) provided: always, often, occasionally or never weighted from 4 through 1. The responses with the highest scores were deemed to be the most effective leadership behaviours.

Data Analysis

For this study, simple percentages were used to analyze leadership behaviours as perceived by teachers and students. Analysis of variance was used to analyze data on the four dimensions in relation to teachers experience and teachers and students differentials in perception.

From the analysis the frequency and percentages of teacher and students perception of leadership behaviour for each of the items in the questionnaire was obtained. The result is as shown in Table 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>ALWAYS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td>A leader in any educational institution should:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Rule with iron hand</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Criticize poor work</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Speak in a manner not to be questioned</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Assign particular tasks to his followers</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Maintain definite standard of performance</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Make sure that his post in the organisation is understood by everybody.</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Ask that members follow standard rules and regulation</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Let staff and student members know what is expected of them</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>See that staff and students are working up to capacity</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Believe that hard work should be encouraged</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Keep to himself</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Be easily understood</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57
From the table, the item analyses of the leadership behaviour as perceived by the teachers and students alike was obtained. It was observed that for initiating structure (item 1-10) teachers exhibited generally higher perception of the attributes to be associated with an effective leader in the school setting more than the students.

To determine whether significant difference exist in the pattern of perception by the two groups, on the variable, independent t-test statistical technique was used. The result is as shown in table 2.

**Table 2**

Independent t-test on the difference in perception by teachers and students on Initiating Structure as Leadership quality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>x</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>32.28</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30.55</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>31.78</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at .05; df = 192; Critical t = 1.97

The result showed that a t-value of 3.39 was obtained as the difference in perception of initiating structure as attributes of effective leadership in educational institute. This value was significant when compared to critical t-value of 1.97 given 192 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance. Despite the significant difference observed, the high mean (x) value from the groups showed existence of consensus about the relevance of appropriate initiation of structure in enhancing effective leadership.

Items 11-20 on table 1 showed that a t-value of 3.39 as obtained is the difference in perception on initiating structure as attributes of effective leadership in educational institution. The value was significant when compared to critical t-value of 1.97 given 192 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance despite the significant difference observed, the high mean (x) value from the two groups must be noted.
Items 11-20 on table one showed the percentage and frequency of item analysis of teachers and students perception of effective leadership behaviour as determined from consideration for others. Generally an observed higher percentage response from teachers over those of students existed. To determine whether such difference was significant, an independent t-test analysis was done. The result is presented in Table 3.

Table 3:
Independent t-test analysis of teacher and student perception of consideration for followers as leadership quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>33.26</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30.60</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>4.67*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>32.55</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at .05, df = 192, critical t = 1.97.

The result showed that significant t-value of 4.67 was observed as compared to critical t-value of 1.97, given 192 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance. This implies that teachers perceive the effective leaders as endowed with consideration of followership attribute more than the students.

Items 21-30 showed the frequency and percentages of teachers and students perception of production emphasis relevant for effective leadership. Teachers were observed to have generally high percentage perception of such attributes more than the students. The verification of whether such difference was significant, was done using independent t-test analysis. The result is as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Independent t-test on the teachers and students perception of production Emphasis as attributes of Effective Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>33.65</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30.20</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>7.84*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>32.10</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at .05, df = 192; critical t = 1.97
The result showed that significant t-value of 7.84 was observed as compared to the critical t-value of 1.97 given 192 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance. This implies that teachers perceive effective leaders to be endowed with emphasis on productivity attributes more than the students. The relatively high mean (x) value observed showed that both teachers and students see such attributes as necessary in effective leaders.

Item 31-40 showed the frequency and percentages of teachers and students' perception of the level of sensitivity to others as relevant for effective leadership. Teachers were observed to show higher perception of relevance of the factor on appropriate leadership more than students. However, the verification of whether such difference in perception was significant, necessitated the use of independent t-test analysis. The result is presented in table 5.

**Table 5: Independent t-test analysis of teachers and students perception of sensitivity as attributes of Effective leadership.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>35.17</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>28.16</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>14.93*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>33.43</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 df = 192; Critical t = 1.97

The result showed that significant t-value of 14.93 was observed as compared to the critical t-value of 1.97 given 192 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance. This implies that teachers perceive effective leaders as endowed with sensitivity attributes more than the students. Their significant nature of the attribute in enhancing effective leadership is manifested in the relatively high mean (x) values observed.

On whether the level of experience of teachers significantly affect their perception of effective leadership qualities in the educational institutions the teachers responses on the elements constituting leadership qualities were categorised according to level of experience (1 - 5 years categorised as low, 6-9 years experience as moderate while 10+ years were classified as high). The mean (x) scores and standard
deviation were consequently computed. The One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to determine the influence of level of experience on perception of effective leadership qualities. The result is as presented in Table 6.

Table 6: One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on the Influence level of experience on perception of effective leadership qualities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low experience</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>135.21</td>
<td>7.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately experience</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>135.61</td>
<td>6.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly Experienced</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>136.00</td>
<td>5.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variance</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Ms</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>406.78</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>512.12</td>
<td>113</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P > .05; df = 2/113; Critical f = 3.07.

The table showed that an insignificant f-value of 0.73 was observed as compared to the critical f-value of 3.07 given 2 and 111 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance. This means that the effect of level of years of experience on the perception of effective leadership qualities was not above the level normally attributed to chance factor. Consequently it could be deduced that years of experience does not significantly influence a teacher's perception of leadership qualities.

Discussion

From the findings it could be observed that teachers generally exhibited higher perception of the basic elements associated with effective leadership qualities more than the students. This finding plausibly results from a higher crystallisation of goals and attributes due to age, experience and maturation. The teachers as adults have the capacity to realistically appraise events, qualities and attributes in more unified manner more than the adolescents who tend to be

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idealistic in their approaches to issues. Such idealism manifest in varied dimension as noticeable in their perception of other qualities associated with effective leadership.

It follows that when thrust with the leadership function/role adolescent prevarication become more pronounced as idealism tends to conflict with realism.

Similarly, since effective leadership implies model citizenship structure, the relatively high though significant different mean (x) score derived from both teachers and students shows the existence of consensus about, the qualities associated with effective leadership. It follows that for leaders to be effective in school setting, where school objectives and philosophies are derived from the societal goals they have to be model citizens. Such qualities manifest in the leadership attributes.

Another finding of this study show that level of experience does not change or differ significantly with teachers perception of what good qualities a leader should possess. This finding is explained from the concept of determination of "good" and "bad" by people. It is common knowledge that those good qualities or attributes about people remain the same in all situations. Hence where a leadership attributes is x-rayed by adults, the quality of being an adult imbues an individual with the rationality to appraise objectively what factors will be commonly accepted as good, despite age or experience that goes with it. The factor of these adults being in the same work environment conditions all to have similar perception about reality in all dimensions - leadership qualities inclusive.

CONCLUSION

From the findings, it could be concluded that effective leadership and citizenship which is derived from it, is a goal to be desired and pursued by all. However, teachers tend to have a more reality based perception of attributes associated with effective leaders more than the students. Such high perception of effective leadership qualities was observed not to be affected by the level of experience of the teachers.

Implication: The fact that effective citizenship and leadership is desirable in the educational institution places heavy responsibility on every person in the educational setting to enhance such qualities.

It is encouraging that teachers have high perception of such qualities since the counsellor necessarily has to highlight such attributes to both miscreant teachers and others who manifest positive leadership qualities. The teacher as a model for the student has to be on his
toes to avoid the confusion, disillusion and frustration the student who looks up to him for direction will feel on finding the teacher behaviour and role taking incongruent with his expectation. The students will be helped to view positively those qualities that enhance effective leadership, so that they can internalize them. Such internalisation will not only breed a balanced healthy leader but will help in preparing a better tomorrow for all.

The exposure of the necessity for effective leadership qualities in the youth must not be lost sight of by the counsellor. Counselling activities and intervention strategies should be a necessity for every counselling unit in the educational setting to expose students to healthy attributes of good leadership. This attributes will enhance effective citizenship, which is the desire in every society.

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SEX DIFFERENCES IN PERSONALITY: IMPLICATIONS FOR SELECTION OF LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP TRAINING IN NIGERIA

ALPHONSO I. IKEOTUONYE, Ph.D., MCAN

ABSTRACT

The major objective of this paper is to explore the extent to which sex differences in personality have contributed to the preponderance of male leaders. This exploration is mainly of research evidence in literature available to the writer. This effort has become necessary in that, as at now, there is no scientific basis to suggest that the world has known more male than female leaders because of sex differences in physical or biological characteristics.

However it is possible that sex differences in certain traits may explain an aspect of the preponderance of male leaders. But those differences cannot account for the whole situation. It is reasoned that explanation for the remaining aspects may be rooted in culture, religion and tradition.

INTRODUCTION

All over the world, there has been very easily observable sex difference in the selection and election of leaders in favour of males. In various countries, female leaders past and present are few while male leaders are usually numerous. A handy illustration
is political leadership: In the whole world in modern times, female Heads of State past and present can still be counted on the fingers of one hand. Since Independence in 1960, Nigeria has had eight Heads of State, all of them males. Even at lower levels of political leadership down to small community leaders, it is only recently that females are making their presence felt. In other types of leadership, the picture is similar.

This paper is interested in exploring the extent to which sex differences in personality have contributed to the differences in the selection or election of leaders. The term personality is used here in a very broad sense to include an individual's physical or biological characteristics, cognitive characteristics such as intelligence and aptitudes, and noncognitive or affective traits such as interests, values, emotions, and so on. Thus, in looking at sex differences in personality, the paper will explore sex differences in three broad areas: physical, cognitive and affective characteristics.

Physical Characteristics:

Sex itself is a biological variable differentiating females from males. Thus, a number of physical differences between the sexes are rather obvious and universal. The build of males is different from that of females. For example, there is a sex difference in the general frame of the body. It is known that the typical female has the shape of an eight while the typical male has the shape of an y. In addition to sex differences in body frame, there are sex differences in height, weight, sizes and shapes of various parts of the body. It is equally important that in the human, there are sex-linked genes, namely, pair 23. According to Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1979), "Pair 23 determines the sex of the individual and carries genes for certain traits that are called "sex-linked". Hence some attempts have been made to explain certain differences in chromosomes. A typical example of chromosome-associated behaviour is aggression.

It is relevant at this juncture to discuss the level of activity among males and females. In infancy, the activity level of both sexes appear to be the same. After infancy, observable sex differences tend to show boys as more active than girls, particularly in social situations. But what else would be expected in a cultural milieu that expects girls to show less activity than boys! Again, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) examined the results of various studies on sex differences in activity level and concluded that much of the variable could be measurement artifact.

In various psychomotor abilities such as colour perception, aiming, finger dexterity, card sorting, and discrimination reaction time some clearly real but often small sex differences have been observed, but without any consistent superiority of any of the sexes (Nobel 1978).
Having enumerated the common observable biological
differences between the sexes, it must be pointed out that, within
each sex, there are even more differences in the enumerated
characteristics. Among males as among females there are
differences in body frame, height, weight, sizes and shapes of
various parts of the body. Leaders among males have come from
people of various physical characteristics. This statement also
holds true for female leaders. The only generalization that may
find acceptance among males and some females is that females
are on the average physically weaker. But even this generalization,
whose origin is obscure, is now considered very offensive by some
females, particularly in the advanced countries of the world. Thus,
there is no scientific basis to suggest that the world has known
more male than female leaders because of sex differences in
physical or biological characteristics.

Cognitive Characteristics:

In this section, effort will be made to discuss observed sex
difference founded on research evidence, while little or no attention
will be paid to talks about sex differences based on myth or cultural
bias. Again, the discussion of cognitive characteristics will centre
on two major aspects; intelligence, and aptitudes.

Intelligence:

One of the best known studies of sex differences in intelligence
is that by Terman (1916). Terman administered the Standford-Binet
scale to boys and girls and found that there was a slight difference
in favour of the girls. Girls showed superiority up to the age of
fourteen. However this superiority was not statistically significant.
It is also important that in the second revision of the Standford
scale boys of all ages except five obtained scores superior to those
of girls, thus making the findings inconclusive.

Jensen (1980) administered the Raven Coloured Progressive
Matrices and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) to 333
white elementary school boys; and the obtained average item p
value (percentage passing) for both tests was 66.7 percent. The
same tests were administered to 305 girls in the same classes as
the boys; and the average item p values were 64.8 percent and
61.6 percent for the Raven and PPVT respectively. According to
Jensen, this showed a nonsignificant difference.

Ikeotuonye (1978) administered the Differential Aptitudes Tests
(DAT) to 170 secondary school boys and girls in Borno State, Nigeria.
The DAT-combined verbal and numerical score is a measure of
general intelligence. On this combined score, it was found that
the urban boys performed better than the urban girls and the rural boys performed better than the rural girls. However, it was also observed that the urban girls performed better than the rural boys, thus making the findings inconclusive in terms of generalization on sex differences. It should, however, be pointed out that the study did not actually explore sex difference by applying a statistical test; hence it was difficult to say where the observed differences were significant.

In a much later study (Ikeotuonye, 1982), the DAT was also administered to 400 secondary school boys and girls in Kaduna State, Nigeria. This time around sex differences were explored using the t-test. In the general intelligence component of the tests, it was found that the urban girls' performance was superior to that of the urban boys. Among the rural girls and boys, the reverse was the case; the boys performed better than the girls. All the observed differences were significant at the .05 level. Thus, once more it was clear that the observed differences were not consistently in favour of any of the sexes.

Jensen (1980) provided a table showing a number of studies of sex differences and their outcomes on various types of tests published since 1985. That table showed that out of 58 intelligence tests it was in three of them that there were sex differences in favour of males, while in 15 of them the differences were in favour of females. The differences were significant beyond the five percent level. However in the rest 40 tests out of the 58, there was no significant sex differences. The inevitable conclusion is that there are no observable sex differences in general intelligence.

Aptitudes:

As in the case of general intelligence, a good number of studies have explored sex differences in aptitudes. In verbal ability, sex differences are consistently observed in favour of females, particularly from adolescence to maturity (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). Ikeotuonye (1982) in the same study referred to above found that in Verbal Reasoning and Language Usage, the urban girls were superior to the urban boys. However, among the rural boys and girls, no significant sex differences were observed.

Jensen (1980) examined the results of 131 tests of verbal ability and wrote that the evidence is mixed regarding sex differences in verbal ability. However, when ages is taken into consideration, it becomes clear that on the average girls surpass boys rather consistently. Jensen concluded that sex difference in verbal ability after puberty appears to be a genuine phenomenon and not just a measurement artifact.
In quantitative ability, the trend of sex differences is just the opposite of verbal ability (Jensen 1980). However, Ikeotuonye (1982, 1986) observed that in the Numerical Ability test of the DAT, there were no significant sex differences. In a number of other studies in Nigeria exploring sex differences in achievement in Mathematics (Soriano and Awe and Ayii 1973, Nwagwu 1977, and Ameh 1980) the findings consistently showed that boys performed better than girls. The differences were significant.

Jensen (1980) also examined the results of 35 studies of sex differences in quantitative aptitude and found that in 15 of them, there were no significant differences; in four of them the observed significant differences were in favour of females, while in 16 of them the significant differences were in favour of males. Thus, superiority in qualitative aptitude of males is real.

In spatial ability, the picture seems fairly clear. Before puberty the trend of the sex differences is not clear, but from puberty the differences are in favour of males. Concerning mechanical ability, the statement of Bennett et al. (1966, 1974) on the utility of scores of the Mechanical Reasoning test of the DAT summarises the nature of sex differences in mechanical aptitude. They stated that mechanical reasoning scores are of less educational and vocational significance for girls than for boys. The mean scores for girls are lower, the reliability of measurement is poorer and the value of the test for educational or vocational guidance is less clearly established for females.

In clerical ability, the major sources of information are two studies by Ikeotuonye (1978, 1982). In both studies the girls' performances were better than those of boys. In the later study in which sex differences were properly explored, the differences observed were significant beyond the .01 level. These findings were in consonance with those by Bennett et al. (1966, 1974).

Thus, in terms of cognitive characteristics generally, the bulk of evidence indicates that females and males are at par. In fact, if particular consideration is given to the few areas, namely verbal, quantitative, spatial and clerical abilities, in which sex differences seem real, it could be reasoned that the tilt of the scale in terms of an ability obviously needed for leadership is in favour of females. There is no doubt that verbal ability is important for effective leadership.

Non-cognitive Characteristics:

This paper will now turn its attention to affective characteristics; and the following personality traits related to leadership will be discussed: aggression, emotional stability and adjustment, and dominance.
Aggression:

Aggression is one personality trait that has received considerable attention by researchers. Every human needs a certain degree of aggression for survival. In fact, Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1979) differentiates between two types of aggression: hostile and instrumental. It is stated that the sole aim of hostile aggression is to inflict injury. On the other hand instrumental aggression is aimed at obtaining rewards other than the victim’s suffering. It is also stated:

Instrumental aggression includes fighting and self-defence, assaulting someone during a robbery, or fighting to prove one’s power and dominance. It also includes prosocial aggression, defending the rights of an underdog (p. 319)

Hilgard et al. also stated that power, wealth, and status are only a few of the ends that can be obtained by aggressive means.

There seems to be a consensus among researchers on sex differences in aggression. Lindgren (1973) summarises it this way: Aggression is a typical male characteristic; that is, whether among humans or animals. Hilgard et al. (1979) writing on sex differences in behaviour stated:

The one area in which observed sex differences are consistent with popular beliefs is aggression. Boys are more aggressive than girls starting at about age two when children first begin to interact in social play. This is true in wide range of settings and for almost every culture that has been studied. Boys are not only more physically aggressive than girls, but also more verbally aggressive; they are more likely than girls to exchange verbal taunts and insults - often as a prelude to physical aggression.

Emotional Stability and adjustment:

As in the case of aggression, there is some kind of agreement on sex differences in emotionality. Anastasi (1958), Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), Pervin (1978) have all stated that males are more emotionally stable than females. Women are more neurotic and tend to score higher on maladjustment scales than men. Okoye-
Ikonta (1987) made findings similar to the above in his study of personality characteristics of professional librarians in Nigerian university libraries. It was found that the female librarians were less emotionally stable, more apprehensive, more tense or less relaxed than the male librarians. All the observed differences were significant beyond the 0.1 level.

**Dominance**

Generally, human males show a greater orientation towards dominance than human females. This is also observably true of the lower animals. However this does not imply that males usually dominate females successfully. Okoye-Ikonta (1987) in the same study referred to above, did not observe any significant sex difference in dominance among the subjects. On the other hand, Megargee (1969) found out that men or women who scored high on the Dominance scale of the California Psychological Inventory usually took over leadership from same-sex partners who scored low on that scale. However, in mixed sex groups comprising a man low in dominance and a woman high in dominance, the high-Dominant women turned over the leadership to the low-Dominant men. Thus the explanation for male dominance in leadership roles may not be sex-bound.

**Leadership:**

This paper assumes that readers have at least a general idea of the meaning of the term 'leader'. Thus, no attempt will be made to explore the numerous definitions of the term available in literature. Rather only one of the definitions considered simple and good enough for our purpose is given here. Shaw (1971) sees a leader as the member of a group who exerts more positive influence over others than they exert over him. There are various types of leadership and, of course, various levels in each category. Hence an individual can talk of political leaders, policy makers, bureaucrats, experts, religions leaders, ideologists, administrators and symbolic leaders.

Whatever the type or level of leadership, certain personal characteristics are regarded as attributes of leaders: high levels of intelligence, dominance, adjustment, activity and nonconformity. (Lindgren 1973). Thus, a leader is distinguishable by certain cognitive and affective personality characteristics. The question now is: Does either sex possess more of these attributes of a leader?

The examination of sex differences in cognitive characteristics earlier in this paper shows that there are no observable significant differences in intelligence between males and females. However, in non-cognitive or affective characteristics relevant to leadership, namely, aggression, dominance and emotional stability, males seem to have an edge over females. Perhaps the differences in these
scale of the California Psychological Inventory usually took over leadership when paired with other women who were low on the scale. However, when paired with men who were low on the scale, the high Dominant women turned over leadership to the low-Dominant men. This should be discouraged in citizenship and leadership training situations. Female participants in any such training should be encouraged to accept their deserved role as leaders both among their fellow women and among men. In fact, a great deal of effort should go into this aspect of the training in order to effectively counter the age-long effects of tradition, culture and religion.

Citizenship and leadership training programmes specifically designed to bring about equality of the sexes should be properly graded for different levels of leadership. Of course, admission to the various levels should be based on clearly identified degrees to which potential trainees possess the attributes of leaders. As each trainee makes significant gains in the desired attributes, she advances to the higher levels of training.

Consequent on citizenship and leadership training should be a deliberate policy aimed at creating opportunities for the female graduates of the training. The writer does not see anything wrong in, for example, having equal number of female and male Commissioners in State governments, equal number of female and male Ministers in National governments. In fact, the writer has a feeling that greater discipline and less recklessness will be injected into Nigeria's political life with equal representation of both sexes in both State and Federal governments.

Summary:

The preponderance of male leaders all over the world cannot be explained in terms of sex differences in physical and cognitive characteristics. Sex differences in some affective characteristics, relevant to leadership, are real; but such differences can only explain an aspect of the phenomenon of preponderance of male leaders. It is reasoned that a complete explanation for this phenomenon is rooted substantially in culture, tradition and religion. Whatever the explanations are, leaders can be made. It is, therefore, recommended that equality of the sexes in leadership can be achieved through on-the-job training, citizenship and leadership training, and a deliberate policy on the part of governments and voluntary organisations to encourage female leadership.
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3. Associate Professor, A. I. Ikeotuonye, Dean, Faculty of Education, University of Abuja, Abuja.


5. Dr J. V. Maisamari, Faculty of Education, University of Abuja, Abuja.

6. Dr J. A. Omotosho, and Dr K. Ansaah - Yamoah, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Ilorin.

7. Dr. N. T. A. Izundu, Department of Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

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