About the Journal

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Editorial

Dear authors, reviewers, and readers

It has been a month since I was given the privilege to serve as the Chief Editor of the International Journal for Innovation Education and Research (IJIER). It is a great pleasure for me to shoulder this duty and to welcome you to **THE VOL-1, ISSUE-3 of IJIER** which is scheduled to be published on **30th November 2013.**

International Journal for Innovation Education and Research (IJIER) is an open access, peer-reviewed and refereed multidisciplinary journal which is published by the International Educative Research Foundation and Publisher (IERFP). IJIER aims to promote academic interchange and attempts to sustain a closer cooperation among academics, researchers, policy makers and practitioners from a wide range of disciplines, which contribute to state of the art in science, education, and humanities. It provides a forum for the exchange of information in the fields mentioned above by welcoming original research papers, survey papers, and work-in-progress reports on promising developments, case studies, and best practice papers. The journal will continue to publish high-quality papers and will also ensure that the published papers achieve broad international credibility.

The Chief Editor, appointed by the Associate Editors and the Editorial Board, is in charge for every task for publication and other editorial issues related to the Journal. All submitted manuscripts are first screened by the editorial board. Those papers judged by the editors to be of insufficient general interest or otherwise inappropriate are rejected promptly without external review. Those papers that seem most likely to meet our editorial criteria are sent to experts for formal review, typically to one reviewer, but sometimes more if special advice is needed. The chief editor and the editors then make a decision based on the reviewers' advice.

We wish to encourage more contributions from the scientific community to ensure a continued success of the journal. We also welcome comments and suggestions that could improve the quality of the journal.

 I would like to express my gratitude to all members of the editorial board for their courageous attempt, to authors and readers who have supported the journal and to those who are going to be with us on our journey to the journal to the higher level.

Thanks,

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Bats Diversity in Kolej Universiti Sains dan Teknologi Malaysia (KUSTEM)

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Abstract

The study of bats diversity was conducted in Kolej Universiti Sains dan Teknologi Malaysia (KUSTEM) from July until December 2004. The objective is to examine the diversity of bat species in KUSTEM area for conservation purpose. Ten mist nets were used as the capturing device. Species identification was based on the forearm measurement, weight, sex, maturity status and their reproduction. Bats were released after identification. A total of 99 individual bats were captured, comprising of two families and four species. Three species were frugivorous bats, Cynopterus brachyotis, Cynopterus horsfieldii and Eonycteris major from the family Pteropodidae. One insectivorous species, Kerivoulla papillosa was captured from the family Vespertillionidae. Cynopterus brachyotis is the highest captured individual and species, representing 70.97% of total capture. Shannon-Weiner index is 0.8569 and Simpson index is 0.4504. The bat diversity in KUSTEM is influenced by the capture device and duration of study.

1. Introduction

Malaysia is endowed with a great diversity of bat species with 132 species, 21 of them are Megachiropterans and 111 Microchiropterans, and 12 species of bats are endemic, where they can only be found in Malaysia [1]. More than a quarter of Malaysian bats, 34 species are red-listed by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) because of the risk of Extinction and the declining number of bat species [2]. Generally, bats in Malaysia are from the fruit-eating species, the frugivores or the insect-eating species, the insectivores.

Bats play an important role as seed dispersers, pollinators and consumers of various types of insects [3]. At least 31 Malaysian plant species rely on bats to pollinate them such as *Durio zibethinus* (durian), *Ceiba pentandra* (petai), *Mangifera indica* (mango), *Musa paradisiaca* (banana), guava, jackfruit and papaya. Bats also act as a natural biological control of insects by eradicating them as a source of food. Insectivorous bats are primary predators of vast number of night flying insects including leafhoppers and mosquitoes [4]. However, bats are facing a significant threat primarily from habitat loss [5]. Therefore, there is a vital need to document their diversity to ensure their continuous survival in maintaining the ecosystem functioning.

Most of the studies in Peninsular Malaysia have focused on bats conservation in forest reserve such as Krau Wildlife Reserves, Pantai Acheh Forest Reserve, Temenggor Forest Reserve, Sekayu Forest Reserve and in national parks [5, 6]. The present study is another effort to increase awareness and further understanding of bats diversity which have never been conducted in Kolej Universiti Sains Malaysia (KUSTEM). KUSTEM was built on mangrove land, which is a potential area for high diversity of bats [7]. Thus, bat diversity in KUSTEM is assumed to be high according to the natural settings of KUSTEM surroundings. By conducting this study, a baseline inventory data can be established for conservation purpose and future monitoring in KUSTEM.

2. Methods

Five sampling plots was selected randomly in KUSTEM campus (05° 24' N, 103° 05' E) near mangroves, coconut tree, banana trees, jambu laut trees (*Eugenia grandis*) and open areas. The selection of this sampling plot is due to their possibilities as roosting sites for bats and expected flying paths of bats. A total of 10 mist nets (9 m × 4 m) were set for each sampling plot, respectively. The mist nets are made of nylon and black in colour. The mesh size is 2.5 mm. The mist nets are erected with the height reaching 4 m and each mist net was supported by two aluminium poles. The nets were set in the late evening and opened around 1830 to 1900 hour and re-checked the next morning during peak activity of bats. It was closed the next morning. The captured bats were kept in a soft cloth bag. Bats were held in the palm of the hand and the fingers curled around the body with the head between the thumb and first finger for measurements. Bats identification was done using keys from [2]. Bats were marked using wing bands to enable identification of recaptures for population size estimation and later released near the location of capture after all identification process has been completed. Data was analysed using Shannon Weiner diversity index and Simpson index. Net effectiveness, bat abundance, percentage of recapture, relative abundance and biomass were also calculated. Schnabel method is used to calculate the population size.

3. Results

A total of 99 individual bats from family Pteropodidae and Vespertillionidae were captured during the six months period of sampling (Table 1). Three species captured belongs to the family Pteropodidae, *Cynopterus brachyotis, Cynopterus horsfieldii* and *Eonycteris major* whereas only one species, Kerivoulla papillosa from the family Vespertillionidae. The most frequently captured bat during the sampling period was the lesser short-nosed fruit bat, *Cynopterus brachyotis* with a total of 71 individuals (70.97%).

Sampling carried out in July recorded the highest capture of individual bats with 29 individuals (29.3%). The lowest capture was in December with only 11 individual bats caught (11.1%). Sampling plots near to fruiting trees recorded the highest number of species and individuals (48) comprising of all the four species. 64.6% of the bats were captured in the earlier part of the night and 35.4% were captured in the period emerging to dusk. A total of 61 females and 38 males were captured with a majority of the bats are adults (83 individual) and only 16 individual are juveniles (Table 1). The net effectiveness was 0.33 individual/net/day, which implies that a total of 3.3 individual were caught with 10 mist nets used during the sampling period. Bats abundance was 0.275 individual/m^2. 6.1% of individual bats were recaptured, 5 of which were *C. brachyotis* and 1 of *C.horsfieldii* (Table 1). *C.brachyotis* has the highest relative abundance (70.97%) and the lowest was *K. papillousa* (3.21%). The biomass for the bats is 37.48 g/individuals. The population size of the sampling plots is 632.83 (p=0.05) which was influenced by the percentage of recapture at the sampling plots.

Shannon Weiner index for this study is 0.8569 while evenness is 0.6181. Simpson index is 0.4504 with a maximum diversity of 0.7577. Daily species accumulation curve have reached an asymptote level during the fifth sampling night, with no additional species for the next 25 days of sampling.

Table 1 Summary of the data analysis for bats captured in this study

| No. species	No. of individuals	Male	Female	Recapture	Relative abundance
Pteropodidae					
1.*Cynopterus brachyotis*	71	28	43	5	70.97 %
2.*Cynopterus horsfieldii*	9	2	7	1	8.60 %
3.*Eonycteris major*	16	5	11	0	17.20 %
Vespertillionidae					
1.*Kerivoula papillosa*	3	3	0	0	3.21 %
Total records	99	38	61	6	100.0
No. of species	4				
No. of families	2				
Biomass (g/individual)	37.48				
Net/day	300				
Net effectiveness (ind/net/day)	0.33				
Bats abundance (ind/m^2)	0.275				
Population size	632.83				
Shannon-Weiner Index	0.8569				
Evenness	0.6181				
Simpson index	0.4504				
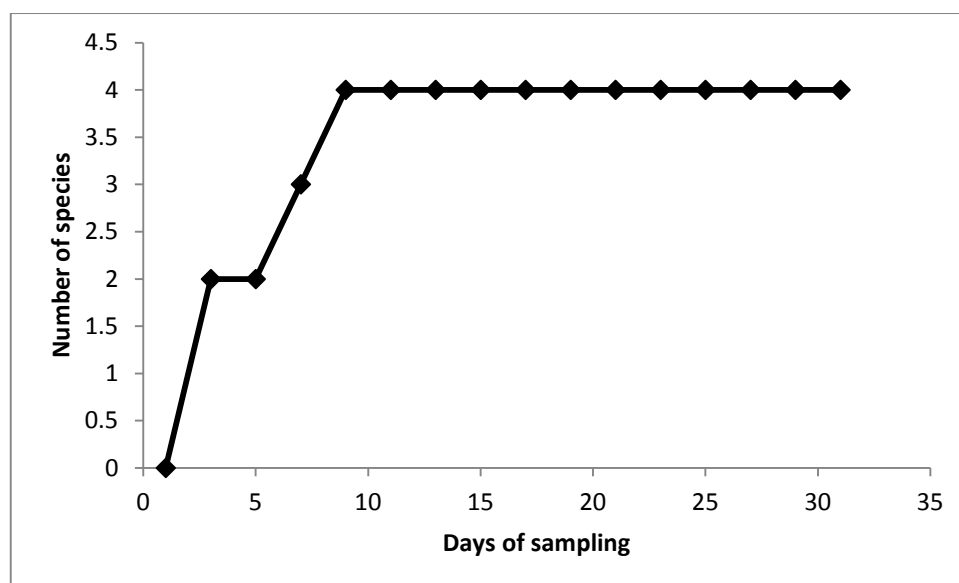
Figure 1 Species accumulation curve of bat species captured according to days of sampling in KUSTEM (July –December 2004)

4. Discussions

Overall, 99 individual bats were captured during the sampling period of 30 days within six months. The captured bats in KUSTEM only represent a small portion of bat communities distributed in Malaysia. In comparison with other studies in terms of sampling period, the capture of bats in KUSTEM is relatively lower than the others due to the nature of the sampling location. [4] reported a total of 329 individual bats captured along Kerian River, Perak sampled within February 2009 to February 2010. A total of 79 individual bats were captured in Kuala Atok, Taman Negara Pahang within 7 days of sampling [9]. Family Pteropodidae is the dominant family in the present study which belongs to the Megachiropterans or fruit bats.Megachiropterans are more dominant since KUSTEM surroundings consist of various fruit vegetations as well as mangroves. Banana trees are food sources for fruit bats and mangroves are known as a potential roosting and foraging area for bats [3, 7]. The highest capture of *C.brachyotis* is consistent with other previous studies [8, 9]. *C. brachyotis* and *C.horsfieldii* occupies most available habitats including coastal, urban, agricultural and disturbed areas. The high number of capture for this species is contributed by various vegetations reported as roosts such as beneath fronds of coconut tree, mast trees and man-made structures [10]. Sampling in July had the highest capture because of non-rainy nights compared to the monsoon season in December [11]. Highest number of bat captures occurred in the earlier part of the night as the first peak of bats activity occurs shortly after sunset as a form of initial foraging and emerging from day roosts [12]. A higher percentage of females were captured due to the earlier flight ability for females [13]. Net effectiveness is low for this study as the height of the mist net used only reach 4 m which is not sufficient to catch bats foraging in high areas [2]. The recaptures are also low due to the fact that the bats often avoid being trapped repeatedly. *Eugenia grandis*, a congeneric plant species available in KUSTEM and the presence of banana and coconut trees are factors in maintaining the weight of bats by ensuring continuous supply of food source to bats [14]. The diversity of bat species in KUSTEM appears to be relatively low in comparison with that reported for other disturbed habitats in Peninsular Malaysia [4]. The species accumulation curve has reached an asymptotic level on day 5 suggesting that additional effort may not yield species anymore in KUSTEM. This also indicates that the netting effort of 30 net-nights was adequate to sample the bats population in KUSTEM.

5. Conclusion

Overall, the diversity of bat species in KUSTEM is low with only four species captured. Low diversity of bats in KUSTEM is influence by the use of efficient capture device. The mist net used can only reached to a certain height which is only capable of capturing understorey bats. The probability of capturing insectivorous bat could be enhanced by using another sampling device, the harp trap. A baseline inventory of bats diversity in KUSTEM is provided which contributes as one of the conservation effort to ensure their survival and function as seed dispersers and pollinators.

6. Acknowledgement

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Creativity in Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract

The author deals with a topic quite often discussed by not only pedagogy and psychology. Creativity is present everywhere and the author suggests it should be a part of University education preparing pre-service teachers. Even though there are researches proving that creativity can be learnt and developed (to certain extent) it is still missing at our schools. Students and pupils still claim that they are asked to memorize the facts rather than to discuss their own opinions and perception.

The study briefly presents part of the data gained in the research focused on using creativity at elementary and secondary schools. The interview with 22 teachers was done in 2 sessions (10 and 12 teachers to manage to administer the responses).

1. Introduction

Children and adolescents spend much time at schools. Some of them spend more than a quarter of a day at school. We should try to use that time effectively to help them to become socially and mentally mature individuals ready to think creatively, logically, look for solutions with the ability to anticipate problems and predict consequences.

Starbuck (2006) summarises the teachers's reports about their pupils when creative teaching applied:

- much more adept at processing knowledge, taking the initiative and self-evaluating their learning performance
- more motivated, reflective and resourceful
- enjoying learning more than they did and their self-confidence has grown
- communicating and working with others better than before
- remembering and understanding what they are learning better than before

2. Creativity

Although the aim of this article is not to define creativity or to discuss different theories about creativity we feel it is important to pride some theoretical background. Many people understand creativity as „something connected to arts". Hillman (1972, In: Bleakley (2004, p. 464) "describes six notions of creativity: differentiation, novelty, ferment, instrumental problem-solving, eminence and renewal." Bleakley (ibid, p. 465) also quotes Sternberg and Lubart (1999, p. 3) who define creativity as "the ability to produce work that

is both novel (i.e., original, unexpected) and appropriate (i.e., useful, adaptive concerning task constraints)." One of the most frequently mentioned categorization or typology of creativity is the Taylor's typology (Taylor, 1959 in Baker, Rudd, Pomeroy, (2001, p. 175) who identified 5 typologies for creativity: expressive, productive, inventive, innovative, and emergenative.

Zelina and Buganová (1983) define the following characteristics of creativity:

- High level of hardwork, discovery, experimenting and knowledge acquiring,
- opportunity to express one's opinions , even though these are controversial; there is a space for discussion, polemics, tolerance and recognition,
- high level to learn to present and solve problems, both practical and theoretical,
- relationship between a student and teacher is characterised by a high level of democracy, teacher presents problems, he is a stimulator, organising the searching for and discovering answers and solutions, he is in a role of facilitator in problems overcoming,
- relaxed atmosphere, no fear,
- discipline based on collaborative work, cooperation based on the rules for answer searching and problem solving,
- less force, less authoritarian teaching, discipline is more relaxed compared to traditional class,
- teacher applying creative approach appreciates students; work rather than critique and warnings.

Gáborová (2003) stresses that "creative atmosphere is the basic presumption of the development of the highly creative people, who can be identified by:

- mental health and intellectual activity,
- desire for self-realization and self-presentation,
- positive self-image, self-confidence,
- psychological security,
- personal freedom, unaccepting the limits and restrictions,
- effort to reach a constructive improvement of environment,
- they have problems to follow the rules, limits, requirements

Baker, Rudd, Pomeroy (2001) bring a brief survey of several research conducted in the field of creativity along with, sometimes, contradictory the results. Their research found out that critical and creative thinking are not closely connected.

2.1 Creativity in the Classroom

In their study Horng, Hong, ChanLin, Chang and Chu (2005, p. 352) present the results of the research aimed at finding the factors that influence creative teaching. Their findings showed that these are namely: "(a) personality traits: persistence, willingness to develop, acceptance of new experiences, self-confidence, sense of humour, curiosity, depth of ideas, imagination, etc.; (b) family factors: open and tolerant ways of teaching children, creative performance of parents, etc.; (c) experiences of growth and education: self-created games and stories, brainstorming between classmates, etc.; (d) beliefs in teaching, hard work, motivation and (e) the

administrative side of school organization." Those, in fact, correspond to those characteristics that are used when describing "a good teacher". What is important, is that prior experience with creativity, experiencing creative approach seem to be a good predisposition to become a creative teacher. In other words, we can say, that the creative environment – family, teachers, friends develop to certain extend the creativity of a person.

Torrance et al. (1990, In: Baker, Rudd, Pomeroy, 2001) enumerates the following creative attributes: fluency, flexibility, originality, elaboration, abstractness of the title, resistance to closure, emotional expressiveness, articulateness, movement or action, expressiveness, synthesis or combination, unusual visualization, internal visualization, extending or breaking the boundaries, humor, richness of imagery, colorfulness of imagery, and fantasy. The figural Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) is appropriate at all levels, kindergarten through adult. It uses exercises to assess five mental characteristics (fluency, elaboration, originality, resistance to premature closure, abstractness of titles). The TTCT is an instrument that can be used to operationalize these creative attributes.

2.2 Creative Teacher and Creative Student

"Torrance indicated 'A teacher's attempts to create are more influential to students than his or her students.' Only when teachers are willing to create, will students feel unrestrained and encouraged to be creative in class." (Horng, at al, 2005, p. 355)

Livingstone (2010) claims that "Human beings are inherently creative." On the other hand Esquivel raised a question and partly answers it: 'Can creativity be learned?' Everyone bears the potential for creativity." (Horng, at al, 2005, p. 355) „They come to school with a life history of creativity, whether it is manifested in the use of the Internet, various extracurricular pursuits, or even, occasionally, the classroom. Hence, we need not fret over how to encourage creative behavior in our schools. However, we do have an obligation to explore the means by which we may anchor creativity in the mission of our educational institutions." (Livingstone, 2010)

Fisher (2006) suggests few ideas how to develop creative thinking in young learners and claims that "children who are encouraged to think creatively show increased levels of motivation and self-esteem." He suggests including opportunities for creativity in the lessons one teaches:

- using imagination
- generating questions, ideas and outcomes
- experimenting with alternatives
- being original
- expanding on what they know or say
- exercising their judgement.

Creative learners need creative teachers. Rinkevich (2011, p. 220) highlights that "increasing creativity in teaching begins with teacher education." It is a necessity to introduce courses of creativity at teacher training programmes that would focus also on how to develop a creative student and student-centered teaching rather than teacher centered teaching. Makel (2009, In: Rinkevich, 2011, p. 220) termed „discrepancy between the

perceived value of creativity and its absence in schools the "creativity gap," and research indicates many reasons as to why this is a common occurrence."

"Lack of teacher training in creativity has also been identified in the research as a reason why more teachers do not employ creative activities in the classroom (Fleith 2000; Kim 2008). Authors stress the need for more creativity training in teacher preparation programs, which serves as a likely starting point for creative teaching." (Rinkevich, 2011, p. 220).

2.3. Creativity in Foreign Language Teaching

Teaching foreign languages gives us a freedom to choose the tools, techniques and approaches we apply in our classes. Even though we try to "suppress" the role of a teacher in a class, to have more learner-centered classes it will not be true that the position of a teacher as such is marginal. Vice versa, his position is significantly important but his role is shifted from the controller to facilitator, organizer, prompter etc.

It is very important that teacher understands that giving freedom to students does not automatically mean that they are autonomous learners ready to progress. We need to create such safe environment, atmosphere that would challenge them to be creative. Enabling students to decide how to carry out the task we encourage intrinsic motivation what means we enable learners to be creative. The student's creativity depends on how creative teacher is, how creative task is and mainly how much creativity does the teacher allows/ accepts. Concerning teaching English as a foreign language there are numerous authors providing ideas how to make one's lessons creative.

Puchta and Williams (2012) enumerate the following "13 categories of activity that help with both the development of the learners' thinking skills and their language": Making comparisons, Categorising, Sequencing, Focusing attention, Memorising, Exploring space, Exploring time, Exploring numbers, Creating associations, Analysing cause and effect, Making decisions, Solving problems, Creative thinking.

We can also mention Thammineni (2012) who enumerates several innovative activities that can be practiced in English classroom:

- Task-based activities
- Contests
- Language games
- Video or movie sharing
- Media literacy
- Translation
- Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) programs.

Generally we can say that many activities can be run creatively, or can evoke creativity and challenge it. Generally, the types of activities or practice can be divided into three main groups; namely controlled practice, guided practice and free practice. While controlled practice allows only partial freedom or creativity, the guided practice and free practice allows teacher to be creative and lead students to creativity. In fact, this is

very significant or even essential ability and skill that teachers should possess. Creative students who are allowed to present themselves and to suggest their own ideas are usually more motivated and thus their risk-taking is higher, similarly as their language ego and self-confidence is being built.

Teaching should be challenged by different positive stimuli as e.g. a variety of visual stimuli, such as pictures, use of interactive whiteboard, different information and communication technologies, open ended questions, and activities that support ideas and suggestions generations, namely problem solving task, project work, task based learning, creating stories, etc..

We have already mentioned that the term creativity is frequently connected with novelty and innovation. It has also been reported that there were no many researchers conducted to measure creativity as such. The term novelty might be ambiguous and thus the interpretation, or perception what is understood as creative might differ from person to person.

Puchta and Williamson (2012) developed a model of thinking skills work that considers the specific needs of the foreign language class. This approach integrates two significant advantages. „First, activities that are meaningful and at the same time intellectually challenging are more likely to achieve a higher level of cognitive engagement from learners than those ELT activities that can be somewhat over-simple from a cognitive point of view. Secondly, the tasks" … "have a real-world purpose; examples include problem solving, decision making, thinking about the consequences of one's own or other people's actions, and so on." (Puchta, 2012a)

In 1950s the Bloom's taxonomy and it was revised by his former student Lorin Anderson (in 1990s).
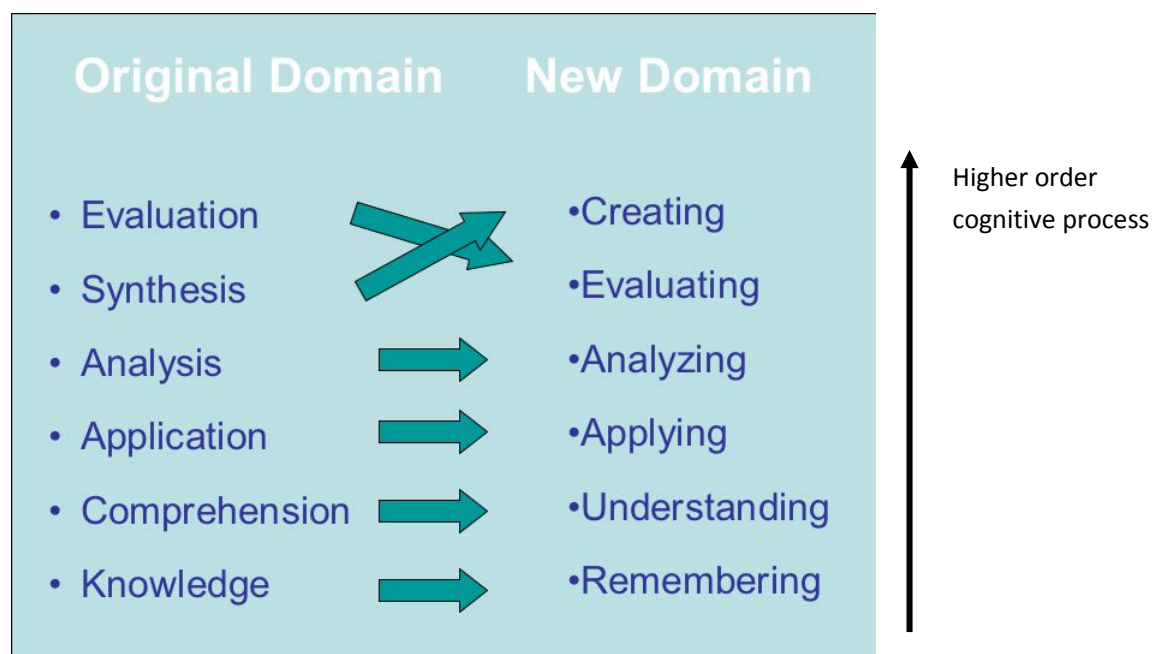

Fig.1 Revisited Bloom Taxonomy (Source: Clark, upd. 2013)

Taxonomy reflects the forms of thinking. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) characterized the level Create as follows: "Put elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganize elements into a new pattern or structure" and they mention 3 cognitive processes in this category, namely, generating, planning and producing.

Cremin (2009, p.157) suggests to promote creativity through planning, and highlights that QCA (Qualification and Curriculum Authority) also recognise the significance of building in opportunities to enhance children's involvement and autonomy, suggesting teachers need to:

- stimulate imaginations making significant connections;
- be clear about freedom and constraints;
- use a range of learning styles;
- give clear purpose – relevance to the work;
- provide opportunities for pupils to work together;
- build in autonomy.

3. Creativity at Slovak Schools

The study focused on in-service teachers at the elementary school was realized in eastern Slovakia. To get data we decided to use interview (2 separate groups) to get relevant information about the experience. We used semi-structured in-depth face-to-face interview what offered us certain flexibility. Out of 22 respondents 15 teachers were females and 7 teachers were males.

Table 1 Sample distribution

	1-4 grades	5-9 grades	sec. Schools	**Total**	Percents
males	1	3	3	**7**	31,82
females	6	5	4	**15**	68,18
total	**7**	**8**	**7**	**22**	100,00
creative T	6	3	3	12	54,55
creative S	7	5	4	16	72,73
creativity at Uni	7	4	3	14	63,64

The qualitative data we collected were analysed and they brought some surprising results or information. Teachers generally had problem to define creativity *(something different)* and then they agreed *it is something new*. We discussed the issue how new is new (whether using material prepared by teacher is considered to be even after several years). It was surprising that even though 54,55% of respondents consider themselves to be creative, it is mostly a group of young children teachers who considers themselves to be creative (86% out of their category). We tried to find out why teacher do not consider themselves to be creative and why they think they are not creative. The responses were, we may say, expected – *it's time-demanding, I do not have time, after so many years of teaching practice I have the regular lessons I know that are effective, children at*

that age want to work with textbook... .On the other hand teachers of young learners agreed it is a must to be creative and to lead learners and allow them to be creative. This led us to a question (they were full qualified teachers) whether they as students were challenged and praised for being creative. The results might be surprising but suggesting that teacher beliefs and students experience is much reflected in their own teaching. All young learner teachers confirmed they had creative lessons leading them to critical thinking and developing creativity. Whatmore, they stated they had lessons on how to develop creativity, how to *force children to think differently.* On the other hand, 5-9 grades as well as secondary teachers expressed they missed this kind of approach (except for some subjects). Only half of the lower secondary and slightly less than half of upper secondary education teachers experienced creative classes in their University studies. It is sad, that even though they would like to have some classes on how to be creative they do not consider it to be their handicap and some of them claimed that there is no space for creativity in their subjects at all that *creativity is for small kids... older must learn.* It was English-History double major teacher and she was immediately opposed by more experienced teacher who mentioned several samples activities for inspiration – like students playing instruments the music of the period studied, students coming to school in the period costumes or reading the literature from or about the studied period. This was a nice confrontation presenting the possibilities. Almost 73% of teachers consider their students to be creative (what is cca 8% more than teachers considering themselves to be creative). We have already mentioned the reasons why teacher do not teach creatively (at they perceive their teaching as uncreative). The teachers who involve creativity stated that - *it makes ME happy that children learn and ENJOY and UNDERSTAND, they want to give me reward for "funny" lesson so they learn hard even at home, I try to involve all students, I intentionally create the tasks to involve all students, to create the tasks they will like...*

4. Conclusion

Similarly to Starbuck and many other author our respondents confirmed effect of creative teaching, task and class on positive atmosphere in a class as well as self-confidence of teacher, positive motivation of learners. We also found out there might be a relationship (our sample was rather small and thus the data are not relevant for generalisation) between the approaches applied at the University and teachers' performance in service. It seems the Universities do not pay appropriate attention to pre-service preparation in the context of critical thinking development and creativity development.

Acknowledgement

5. References

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The Geography Teacher as an Effective Classroom Manager

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Abstract

The Geography Teacher in the classroom setting is confronted on a daily basis with situations which require effective decision-making. By and large, the quality of the decision s/he makes daily determines the attainment of her/his instructional goals. But unfortunately, some teachers are unable to attain their instructional goals due to their poor decision-making skills. This article is an attempt to educate teachers in general and geography teachers in particular on the decision-making skills that they have to demonstrate in the teaching learning process. The article deals with issues such as the functional roles of the Geography Teacher as regards lesson planning, lesson implementation and lesson evaluation. In performing these functions, the Geography Teacher will have to demonstrate her/his decision-making skills with regard to **what to teach, when to teach, how to teach** *and* **how to evaluate.**

Keywords: Classroom manager, teaching learning resources/activities, teaching

Skills, evaluation methods, decision-making

1. Introduction

As pertains in any business entity, the quality and performance of the manager and the conduciveness of the immediate environment to a large extent, determines the success or otherwise of the business; so it is in the classroom situation where the quality and performance of the teacher coupled with proper class management and control would lead to the attainment or non-attainment of instructional goals. The geography teacher must know that learning is sensitive to settings and contexts. Teaching is therefore, the management of pupils' experience largely in classrooms with the deliberate intention of promoting their learning. Teachers promote the range of learning processes best when they have a repertoire of teaching and decision-making skills.

Whilst all managers have something in common, specific management requires specific knowledge. Geography Teachers as managers need a special body of knowledge and skills too – they need to understand the material they teach, that is, they should have adequate subject matter and curriculum knowledge. A powerful grasp of the ways that geography can be taught and the materials for teaching it: the books, films, practical materials and field visits relevant to the study, must be critically appraised and their use fully understood.

Geography Teachers as classroom managers should set clear goals as to what they want to do in the teaching learning process. They should deploy their resources to attain instructional objectives and collect evidence to monitor progress towards the objectives. Lastly, the job of the Geography Teacher is a complex one which

entails the presentation of a model of acceptable behaviour to children and teenagers, encouraging and motivating them, and acting as a source of advice on a whole range of matters relating to their studies and personal lives. But central to the teacher's role is helping students to learn. The teacher's understanding of the art of teaching must help him address the nature of the complementary act of learning.

The aim of this article is therefore to educate the Geography Teacher and the reading public on the management skills that the Geography Teacher should demonstrate in the teaching learning process so as to ensure effective teaching and learning. The article covers decision-making roles of the teacher such as *i. What to teach and how much to teach, ii. When to teach, iii. How to teach* and *iv. How to evaluate.*

2. Decisions on What to Teach and How Much to Teach

The decision on *what to teach* should be taken long time in advance of the lesson. This is to allow firstly, the Geography Teacher enough time to read around the topic to be taught, especially where her/his command over the subject is weak. Secondly, to permit the collection of Teaching-Learning Resources (TLRs) and the preparation of other TLRs which could not be acquired commercially (Colin, 1969).

The Geography Teacher's decision on what to teach should cover the following issues:
  i.   selection of the topic for the lesson
  ii.   setting of lesson objectives
  iii.   selection of subject matter
  iv.   selection of teaching-learning activities
  v.   selection of instructional resources, and
  vi.   selection of evaluation procedures

Before the Geography Teacher decides on the above-mentioned issues, s/he should first consider (a) the background of the learners – entry behaviour, age, gender, socio-cultural, etc. and (b) the interest and level of intelligence of the class.

2.1. Selection of the Topic for the Lesson

The decision on *what to teach* has already been taken care of by the geography syllabus prepared by the Curriculum Research & Development Division (CRDD) of the Ghana Education Service (GES), making the Geography Teacher have little or no control over the subject matter to be taught. The syllabus has prescribed the topics to be taught and even the scope, the learning outcomes or objectives to be attained, the teaching-learning resources to be used and suggested teaching activities. However, after having studied the calibre of her/his students, the Geography Teacher would have to take a decision on whether to stick to the order in which the topics have been arranged or re-arrange them to suit the background of her/his students.

The re-arrangement of topics could be done by the drawing up of a scheme of work, which should allocate topics or areas of study to be done each week so that the number of lessons devoted to each can be determined (Colin, 1969). In view of the fact that not all topics require the same length of treatment, the Geography Teacher would have to decide on the important topics to be dealt with first vis-à-vis the background of the class and therefore give them more time than the less important ones. The decision on re-arranging topics by way of a scheme of work is a caution to the Geography Teacher not to turn the geography syllabus into a straight jacket in which the syllabus rigidly dictates what is to be taught and the Geography Teacher feels

compelled to include every listed item even though it may not be relevant to that particular class (Colin, 1969).

2.2. Subject Matter Selection and Control

When preparing to teach a particular topic, the Geography Teacher should be guided by the following: S/he must

- get all the appropriate books and materials on the subject matter or topic;
- study the subject matter thoroughly to ensure that he has mastered it;
- never entertain the idea that s/he already knows the subject matter and even so, he must revise it;
- endeavour to reduce the subject matter to the level of the class involved;
- take into consideration, the time allotted to the lesson so that s/he is not overtaken by the bell for change of lesson;
- ensure that the subject matter provides a link for what has already been taught and what will be taught. The scheme of work will guide her/him to do this; and

The Geography Teacher should then decide on the methods and the teaching-learning resources s/he wants to use for teaching the subject matter (Tamakloe, 2005).

2.3. Selection of Instructional Objectives

The selection of instructional objectives should be comprehensive, that is, it must include all the main taxonomies of educational objectives such as knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which constitute the holistic process of education (Haubrich, 1994). The selection should take into consideration, the needs, interests, aptitudes, intellectual abilities and temperament of the students.

The selected lesson objectives, should state what the Geography Teacher expects her/his students to learn as a result of her/his lesson and should describe *how* the students will show what they have learned (Perrot, 1982). In other words, the objectives place emphasis on what the students will do. Perrot says that the Geography Teacher must use *action verbs* such as *identify, choose, solve, analyse, explain, etc.* which have *observable products.* She warns against the use of vague unobservable verbs such as *know, believe, understand, appreciate,* etc. Finally, the stated objectives should describe not only what the students will do but also the *conditions* under which the learning will take place so that the expected performance can be observed and evaluated as shown by the following example on the topic "The Causes and Effects of Environmental Degradation in Ghana".

Among the likely learning outcomes the Geography Teacher should expect his students to attain by the end of the above-mentioned lesson are the following: To

- <u>define</u> environmental degradation in their own words;
- <u>identify</u> (e.g. from pictures and field observation) human activities which lead to the degradation of the environment;
- <u>master</u> skills in practising such methods of field observation of degraded areas and interviewing people engaged in environmentally-degrading activities;
- <u>develop</u> attitudes and values conducive to developing interest in the protection of the environment as they are taken to environmentally-degraded areas; and lastly,
- <u>cite</u> examples of the effects of human activities in areas that they have identified.

2.4. Selection of Teaching-Learning Activities

Before the Geography Teacher decides on the kind of teaching learning activities to be incorporated into her/his lesson, s/he should ask himself the following questions posed by Perrot (1982):

- Will I require some reading from the class?
- Will I give an introductory talk on the lesson?
- Will I show a film or other audio visual materials?
- Will I arrange for a class discussion?

Colin (1969) reinforces the importance of the Geography Teacher deciding on the teaching-learning activities to be used in the lesson by saying that after the teacher has generally read and collected illustrations for the lesson, s/he should decide what the students themselves are going to do during the lesson. He suggests that once the Geography Teacher has decided on the student activities to be used, and satisfied about their relevance to the topic, s/he can then develop her/his talk around those activities, explaining new facts and the techniques to be used in the activity part of the lesson.

In designing the teaching-learning activities, the Geography Teacher needs to take into consideration, the background of her/his students with regard to age, sex, previous knowledge, interest and their level of intelligence. All these play an important part in facilitating the achievement of the instructional objectives. For example, in order to help students attain the instructional objectives on the lesson on the 'Causes and Effects of Environmental Degradation in Ghana", the Geography Teacher could design the following teaching-learning activities:

- The class observing a chart, picture or film on environmental degradation;
- The class undertaking a visit to environmentally-degraded areas;
- The class being asked to mention those human activities which tend to destroy the environment;
- Class or group discussion on the effects of environmental degradation on the economy of Ghana;
- The class engage in a role-play on (a) human activities leading to the degradation of the environment and (b) conservation measures to protect the environment;
- Students go to the chalk/white board to distinguish (e.g. from a chart or pictures) activities which destroy the environment from those which do not threaten it.

2.5. Selection of Instructional Resources

Instructional resources are those materials the Geography Teacher uses to facilitate the teaching, understanding or acquisition of knowledge, concepts, skills or principles by her/his students. When preparing for a lesson, the Geography Teacher should ask her/himself questions such as "Do I need a teaching aid of any kind – written, aural or visual?", "Will an aid help me achieve my objective or make the lesson more effective?", "If the answer to the preceding question is 'Yes' then what kind of aid is best suited for my purpose?"

The Geography Teacher may select her/his instructional resources from four main classes of instructional resources. These are (a) *printed aids* – periodicals, books, newspapers, etc. (b) *visual aids* – slides, film strips, models, graphs, charts, pictorial materials, globes and maps (c) *audio aids* – tape recordings, radio and the teacher's voice and (d) *audio – visuals*- motion pictures, T.V. , dramatization, etc. (Kochhar, 1984). In addition to these, the Geography Teacher must instill in her/his students, the importance of getting all the necessary learning resources such as pens, erasers, pencils, mathematical sets and books .(Tamakloe, 2005).

Aside the instructional resources already discussed, the chalk board is one of the most valuable devices for making the teaching of geography concrete and understandable. The Geography Teacher should make sure that the chalk board is properly cleaned before s/he begins the lesson. When this is done, disruption and distraction are reduced to the barest minimum as students can easily read what the teacher writes on the board from where they are seated. Again, to ensure that the writings on the board are visible to all students, the teacher should make sure the lighting system or natural illumination in the classroom is good so that no student is compelled to strain her/his eyes to read and write what is on the board. Finally, the teacher must assemble everything needed for use on the chalk/white board before the class begins – e.g. chalk/whiteboard drawing instruments, chalk, marker, pointer, etc. All complex materials should be put on the board before the class meets as the drawing may waste time (Kochhar, 1984).

When deciding on the choice of teaching-learning resources, the Geography Teacher should be guided by the principle which emphasizes the use of variety of resources which appeal to all the five senses of *touch, taste, sight, hearing* and *smell.* Again, the selected resource must fulfill a function which is relevant to the instructional objectives. The teaching-learning resources should help her/him emphasize particular points that s/he will raise in the lesson more effectively than s/he can emphasize without those resources (Colin, 1969).

Tamakloe (2005) also adds that before the Geography Teacher decides on the teaching-learning resources to use, s/he must take into account the topic for the lesson. According to him, the selected resources such as graphs, pictures, diagrams, tables, resource persons and the environment should have a stamping-in effect on student learning. To achieve this goal, the teacher must know the appropriate time to introduce the Teaching-Learning Material in the lesson- *introduction, presentation or consolidation stage.* Finally, the Geography Teacher should show resourcefulness and creativity in assembling instructional materials.

2.6. Selection of Evaluation Procedures

Evaluation simply involves all kinds of means to ascertain the quality, value and effectiveness of desired outcomes (Kochhar, 1984). In geography, the teacher can decide on different evaluation techniques such as oral tests, essay-type tests, short answer type, objective-type tests, tests for testing skills and attitudes. In designing the evaluation tool, the teacher should incorporate student activities such as students' analysis of issues, the application of knowledge to solve abstract and practical problems. The teacher her/himself should acquire the skills of designing appropriate class tests and assignments and the award of marks/grades accurately.

Tamakloe (2005) has given the following guidelines on the setting of class tests and assignments:
- The class test or exercise should be based on what has been taught; but in the case of assignments, this rule may not apply as such tasks prepare the way for the teaching of new topics;
- They should be within the ability of *most* of the students so that they do not get frustrated;
- The teacher must ensure that s/he gives timelines for the submission of class exercises and assignments so that the students will cultivate the habit of working within stipulated time schedules;
- Any class test given must be marked promptly for the students to have a quick feedback on their performance. Prompt marking will also allow the setting of another exercise;
- The teacher should be generous with his remarks and other implications of error in exercises in order to cut down the time spent for class discussions of the exercises marked;

- Following from above, marked works should be discussed thoroughly with students. The teacher should deal generally with common errors and flaws; then discuss individual, peculiar mistakes;
- The teacher should ensure that class tests and exercises are done in specially designated books and not on pieces of paper.

To buttress Tamakloe's guidelines on evaluation, Kochhar (1984) has come out with the following principles for effective evaluation exercise:

- Evaluation should aim at testing the degree to which the objectives of teaching the lesson and the subject have been achieved. For example, in a geography lesson on the types and uses of maps, the evaluative device used to assess students should cover issues as students' ability to *identify, draw, read* and *compare* different types of maps;
- The scheme of evaluation should also ensure an effective coverage of the syllabus, through giving proper weighting to different areas of content;
- A variety of evaluative tools should be judiciously used to ensure accurate judgment of students' abilities, skills, attitudes, etc.;
- Whatever tool is used, it should be valid, reliable, objective and usable; and
- Evaluative tools should be refined constantly in order to keep pace with the advances in educational concepts.

3. Decision on When to Teach

The Geography Teacher's decision on when to teach should cover issues such as *the physical state of the classroom before the lesson* and *the mood of the class.*

3.1. The Physical State of the Classroom

The Geography Teacher before s/he starts her/his lesson should first ascertain the physical state of the classroom, whether it is conducive to learning. S/he should first move in between rows of seats (i.e. the aisles) to check the seating arrangement of the students whether all the students are comfortably seated. Though the procurement and maintenance of the classroom furniture is the responsibility of the school authorities, the teacher should ensure that there are adequate tables and chairs for the class and that the available furniture should be comfortable to sit in to keep the students alert (Singh, 1982). Lastly, the Geography Teacher should ensure that the students develop the habit of neat arrangement of teaching-learning materials and equipment to make the classroom attractive (Tamakloe, 2005).

3.2. The Mood/Readiness of the Class

Farrant (1980) opines that one important task of the teacher is to recognize her/his students' readiness for a lesson. A learner demonstrates this by an eager response to the learning task with which s/he is presented. When students' mood is properly assessed and addressed, it aids in the rapid assimilation of the lesson once learning is begun. Since it is the teacher's task to promote interest and learning, s/he must endeavour to look out for non-verbal cues such as lively, interested pupils with their heads slightly put forward and turned towards the teacher (Perrot, 1982). Such students have eyes widely open with some ready to speak.

On the other hand, pupils/students who are not ready for the lesson, may show non-verbal cues such as slouching and turning their faces away from the teacher, fidgeting in their seats, running their fingers through

their hair or furtively communicating with one another (Perrot, 1982). It is therefore, important for the Geography Teacher to monitor her/his class for these signs before s/he starts teaching and even during the teaching learning process.

The teacher also needs to work on her/his emotions. Any prior family or relationship wrangling should be buried before s/he starts her/his lesson. The most stimulating subject matter may make little impression on the class if the teacher appears disturbed and lacks enthusiasm. The teacher's mood and demeanour should indicate or tell the class that geography is interesting to her/him. Such an enthusiasm is catching and the students will readily respond to such an enthusiastic approach even though the material presented may be relatively a dull one (Colin, 1969). In short, the lesson should be preceded by a business-like orientation and a result-oriented teacher enthusiasm.

In view of the fact that students bring into the classroom environment, different mental make-ups due to the vertical or family grouping nature of most conventional geography classes, Geography Teachers need to answer a fundamental question such as "just what sort of thinking are these children in this particular class capable of achieving?"(Naish, 1982). The teacher's approach to teaching a particular group of students would therefore be influenced by her/his understanding of the nature of their mental operations. Finally, the teacher should make the students cultivate the habit of settling down before the commencement of the lesson (Tamakloe, 2005).

4. Decision on How to Teach

The decision on *how to teach* is very much related to how the Geography Teacher expects the students to learn what s/he is going to teach. In other words, the quality of student learning is very much dependent on the effectiveness of the approach adopted by the geography teacher.

The following pre-requisites have been put forward by curriculum experts as to what an effective teaching should be. The teacher should
- select lesson objectives which are   mprehensive, that is, they should include all the main taxonomies of education (knowledge, skills, attitudes and values) which constitute the holistic process of education (Haubrich, 1994). The selection should take into consideration the needs, interests, aptitudes and temperament of the learners.
- recognize the learner's personal experiences, for example, in a regional geography lesson s/he can encourage her/his students to cite examples from their locality (Ababio, 2009).
- see her/himself as a facilitator or guide rather than a dictator in the teaching learning process. Although the teacher ought not actually to supply information if sources are available, s/he can show her/his students where to look for and how to select the information (Gopsill, 1973).
- empathize with his students, that is, show concern for their personal problems, which may crop up during the teaching learning process (Ababio, 2009).
- recognize her/his students' ability to learn and therefore the need for them to be guided to learn.

Following from the above, the teacher should serve as a sounding board on which her/   his students may try their ideas, hunches, guesses, hypotheses, etc.

> Kochhar says "the best of the curriculum and the most perfect syllabus are dead
> unless quickened into life by the right method of teaching"(1984:91).

Kochhar (1984) has outlined the following characteristics of good teaching methods. Such methods should

- provide a group of related experiences and activities, arranged on an individual as well as group basis, specially designed to produce certain changes in terms of knowledge, understandings, habits, attitudes and skills.
- give scope for the creative expression of the child's/learner's individuality.
- shift emphasis from verbalism and memorization to learning through purposeful, concrete and realistic situations.
- train the students in the techniques of self-study and the methods of acquiring knowledge through personal effort or intuition.
- stimulate the desire for further study and exploration. In other words, let the students see the information as a means to an end but not an end in itself.
- awaken an interest in the materials and techniques used by the geographer. It should give students an insight into the workshop of geography to enable them to know the varied interpretations of processes, situations, events and phenomena.

Ababio (2009) has suggested the following learner-centred methods of teaching which the geography teacher could use in her/his lessons.

- Discussion (e.g. debate, symposium, panel, brainstorming, etc.)
- Question and Answer
- Fieldwork (both field teaching and field investigation)
- Assignment/activity
- Project work/Case Study
- Problem-solving
- Documentary Search
- Simulations/Games

For the geography teacher to use the above-mentioned methods effectively, Perrot (1982) has also outlined the following skills on how to teach; Skill of (a) set induction, (b) closure and (c) varying stimulus.

- **Skill of Set Induction:** It is the ability to design appropriate activities to precede a learning task so as to ensure the full attainment of the expected performance from the class. That is, the teacher's ability to gain initial attention of the class on what is to be learned by introducing an appropriate teaching technique. For example, on the lesson on the "Causes and Effects of Environmental Degradation in Ghana", the teacher could use any of the following to introduce the lesson.
  (a) Present a picture of degraded environments – water, air and land;
  (b) Provide a smooth transition from known or already covered material to new or unknown material, by the use of question- and- answer technique;
  (c) Present a structure or frame work for the lesson - use of advance organizers. As regards the lesson on environmental degradation, the teacher could use an advance organizer to tell the class the various segments of the topic, distinguishing between major points and minor points, thus moving from the most general to the most specific. For example, the teacher could first cite the major forms of degraded environments such as water, air and land and then give different examples of each of the major degraded environments cited above.

The Geography Teacher's skill of set induction could be employed to begin a lesson, to initiate a discussion, to introduce an assignment, to prepare for a field trip, to prepare for a practical session in the geography room, to prepare for viewing a film or T.V. programme, or to introduce a guest speaker (Perrot, 1982).

- **Skill of Closure**: The Geography Teacher must be able to focus the attention of the class on what has been learned in a segment of a lesson or in an entire lesson. This should be carefully planned allowing adequate time to initiate closure before the lesson is due to end. The teacher should avoid being overtaken by the bell or siren for change of lesson which indicates an ineffective end to a lesson. According to Perrott (1982), closure when done effectively reinforces what has been learned by reviewing the key points of a lesson and relating them to other materials the students have already learned.

Closure of a lesson should cover activities such as a summary of the lesson (by either a student or the teacher), the teacher inviting final round of questions from the class and lastly, evaluating students' understanding of the lesson either orally or by a written work.

- **Skill of varying stimulus:** Stimulus variation refers to those teacher actions sometimes planned and sometimes spontaneous, that develops and maintains a high level of attention on the part of students, during the course of a lesson (Perrot, 1982).
  From this definition, one can say that the geography teacher who uses monotonous style of teaching tends to lead her/his students into mental inactivity, whilst the one who varies her/his teaching style attracts her/his students' attention and stimulates mental activity.

Forms of stimulus variations which the teacher could use to bring about effective teaching include the following

(a) Teacher movements/pacing: A planned or spontaneous movement of the teacher from one part of the classroom to the other is likely to cause students' attention to be focused directly on the teacher during presentation of a lesson.

(b) Focusing behaviours: These include the use of verbal statements and specific gestures/movements or a combination of the two. Examples of verbal statements are "Listen to this", "Look at this diagram", "Watch what happens when I cut this …..", Observe the way in which ……", etc. Specific gestures may include the teacher's eye movements, facial expression and movements of the head, arms and body (Argle, 1970). The teacher can also give an indication of her/his feelings or emotions by way of smiling, frowning, raising the eye brows and nodding the head to give encouragement.

(c) Changes in speech: These include the quality, expressiveness, tone and rate of speech; change in rate, volume or tone of speech of the teacher. This, when done properly can increase the students' attention. Also, the planned silence or pausing by the teacher can capture students' attention as sound is contrasted with silence. This can also create suspense or expectation. A good teacher will always pause after s/he has asked a question and if s/he thinks a student can extend an answer s/he may pause again to prompt the student to continue, sometimes combining the pause with a smile and a nod to indicate encouragement.

(d) Changing classroom interactions: These include teacher/group interaction, teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction.

(e) Shifting sensory channels: The teacher can aid her/his students' ability to process the information being presented by making use of all the five senses – sight, touch, smell, taste and hearing. For example, when presenting the lesson on environmental degradation, the teacher could first show a short film which he follows by a question and answer sequence, and then shows the film again – i.e. **look/listen/look.**

Alternatively, a teacher teaching a lesson on "different types of rock" could first explain the concept of rocks using some visual symbols; then he provides rock specimens for the students to touch, feel and draw: this activity is followed by a group discussion – i.e. **listen/look; touch/look; listen.** Lastly, a teacher teaching

"types of soil" will first have to allow his students to feel three different samples of soil – clay, a loam and a sandy soil. This is followed by a class discussion and the setting up of the constituents of a soil – i.e. **touch/listen** (Perrot, 1982).

5. Decision on How to Evaluate

Evaluation has variously been defined. One of such definitions has been given by Kochhar (1984) who defines evaluation as the means of ascertaining the quality, value and effectiveness of desired learning outcomes. From this definition, it could be inferred that the geography teacher should be able to judge or determine the value or worth of not only the role of the class in the lesson, but also his role in the teaching learning process. The essence of such an evaluation is to help her/him take appropriate remedial action emanating from the findings of the evaluation exercise.

In trying to come to terms with how to evaluate a lesson taught, the teacher needs to ask her/himself questions such as "Have the students shown interest and that they understand the lesson?", "How effective were her/his teaching strategies?", "What would s/he accept as evidence of her/his students' learning?", "Will they have to make a written or oral presentation?", "Will s/he require them to analyse a hypothetical or existing situation or will s/he require them to complete a test?" , etc.(Perrot, 1982).

The evaluation methods/tools suggested by Brown-Nacino et al. (1982), Meehan.& Gravestock (1999) and Mulusa (1993) are
- Use of Observation Schedules(observing students' interaction with one another in and out of the classroom)
- Interviews (e.g. structured or free discussion with students)
- Class Tests (e.g. oral, objective-type, essay-type, etc.)
- Assignments (class and take home)
- Library Search – collecting data on teaching methods, student learning styles and habits, modes of assessment, appropriate teaching-learning resources, etc.
- Questionnaires – students being asked in a structured questionnaire to comment on the teacher's presentation of lessons, what they feel they have gained from the lesson or course. A well designed questionnaire is likely to reveal areas of weaknesses on the part of both the teacher and her/his students.

Conclusion

This article has attempted to highlight the decision-making roles of the Geography Teacher as a classroom manager. It emphasized the decision-making skills expected of any professional Geography Teacher to ensure effective teaching and learning in the classroom. The article discussed the roles of the Geography Teacher with regard to *planning what to teach and how much to teach, when to teach, how to teach and how to evaluate.*
 In sum, the article has challenged the Geography Teacher as a classroom manager to be circumspect in her/his choice of teaching learning activities, teaching learning methods, teaching learning resources and methods of evaluating the teaching-learning process. For the Geography Teacher to attain her/his instructional goal as a classroom manager, s/he needs a sound knowledge of all that her/his students must know, together with her/his ability to present her/his lesson to meet the individual needs of her/his students.

It is by giving consideration to such issues that the Geography Teacher can achieve a total effect that can have dramatic results in the classroom.

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Motivation and Classroom Teaching in Geography

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Abstract

Several factors influence the teaching and learning of geography in the classroom situation. Prominent among these factors is **motivation.** *Motivation may be described as a state of arousal in which an individual wishes to achieve a specific goal and exerts effort to do so. In the classroom, efficient learning would be impossible if motivation was absent. But this appears to be the situation in many geography classes. There are classroom situations in which student motivation is at a minimum and in which learning is correspondingly slow. In such unmotivated classes, there are geography teachers who leave their students with half formed and hazy concepts; teachers who make no attempt to select teaching procedures that will be interesting to students; teachers who criticize students negatively rather than constructively; such classes are also characterized by strained personal relationships between students and their teachers. To address these worrying concerns in the geography classroom, this article is devoted to the discussion of principles, practices and specific suggestions aimed at enabling the geography teacher to make more effective use of motivation in classroom situations.*

Keywords: Student motivation, motivational principle, teaching skills, teacher personality, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

1. Introduction

Teaching according to Smith (2004) is the process of carrying out activities that experience has shown to be effective in getting students to learn. To Smith, teaching is that which results in learning. Learning is the responsibility of the teacher and that if students do not learn it is the fault of the teacher. From Smith's view on teaching, one can infer that teaching and learning are intricately linked like Siamese twins. The major goal of teaching is for the teacher to teach in such a way as to promote learning. Teaching and learning should therefore go on side by side in the teaching learning process. But for effective student learning to occur in any teaching situation, motivation is necessary (Afful, 1988).

Can one visualize a classroom situation in which there is a total absence of motivation? Certainly not, but if it did, learning would be at a standstill, because for the attainment of instructional goals, the teacher has to create the conditions that facilitate learning for students. Some geography teachers, however, fail to create such conditions thus resulting in situations where in the geography classroom, students' desires are not considered and the teacher assumes total responsibility for establishing goals; no attempt is made by such teachers to surround students with new and different teaching techniques to arouse their interests. Moreover, such teachers are not sufficiently well acquainted with individual members of their class to employ motivational techniques to best advantage.

The main purpose of this article is to educate the geography teacher on how to achieve motivation in the classroom which would bring about significant learning on the part of students. To do this, the following issues would be discussed: *motivation and its purpose in the classroom; principles of motivation; main types of motivation; factors influencing motivation in the classroom and far reaching conclusions.*

2. Motivation and its Purpose in the Classroom Situation

Kreitner (1972) defines motivation as a psychological process that gives behavior purpose and direction. Geen (1986) on the other hand, sees motivation as the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of human behaviour. From these two definitions definitions, one can say that motivation is important in the teaching learning process for two reasons: (a) It becomes the main preoccupation of effective teachers who want their students to become interested in certain kinesthetic, intellectual and aesthetic activities and show corresponding demonstrable behaviour, after formal teaching has ended – that is, it emphasizes the development of students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains which constitute the core purpose of teaching; (b) It serves as a medium used by results-oriented teachers to get their students to acquire the requisite knowledge, understanding or skills in the teaching-learning process. The next section discusses the principles which the geography teacher should employ when using motivational techniques in the classroom.

3. Principles Related to Motivation

A motivational principle is a basic idea or rule that explains how motivational techniques are employed to attain instructional goals and bring about significant learning. In this section, is presented the following principles given by Callaghan (1966):

- It is possible to motivate all behavior (except those governed by autonomic nervous system);
- The mind may be stimulated by an external force, but it is the learner's reaction to the stimulus that results in learning;
- Motivation is seen as a tool to assist instruction and not an end in itself;
- If the individual pupil/student is lacking something s/he views essential to the maintenance of her/his way of life, s/he is ready to take whatever action s/he believes will supply that lack;
- Since each learner sees only what her/his experience and ability enable him/her to see, her/his level of motivation will be dependent on whether what s/he sees in a particular situation is related to her/his personal experience and ability;
- Genuine interests (not superficial) motivate students and in the absence of interests, learning does not take place;
- When a student recognizes a goal to be of personal importance to her/him, s/he is motivated. Conversely, if s/he believes that what s/he is learning will not help her/him achieve her/his desired goals, her/his responsiveness will be limited. A student who is strongly committed to a goal will exert great effort to achieve that goal. Learning that brings reward and satisfaction to the student acts as a motivator for further learning;
- The student's level of aspiration is the result of experience from which s/he develops a concept of what s/he will be able to do. Success tends to raise her/his level of aspiration, and failure tends to depress it. Motivation is thus enhanced by maintaining a proper balance between success and failure. Subject-matter that has been thoroughly learned gives a feeling of success to each student. Such success is motivational; and

- If motivation amongst students is low, students would tend to misbehave. On the other hand, if the class is highly motivated, class control and management would be excellent.

From the above-mentioned principles, one can infer that motivation is a multi-faceted concept, but that there are two main factors influencing it in the classroom. These are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This is the focus of the next section.

4. Motivational Factors of Learning

These are classified into two, namely, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivational factors.

4.1. Intrinsic Motivational Factors

The intrinsic factors are those that bring about the arousal and maintenance of energy and directionality with apparent reinforcement. Reward in intrinsic motivation is conceptualized as inherent in the activity itself. For instance, when the motive for carrying out a learning task is found in mastering the learning task itself, the stimulus is said to be intrinsic to learning. For example, a student's feeling of satisfaction in solving a problem in geography. Intrinsic motivational techniques include

- The teacher's orderly and systematic presentation of lessons.
- The citing of relevant examples, to support semantic knowledge.
- Presenting students with surprising and novel stimulus.
- Providing details about the relevance of piece of learning task for future use (utility value).
- Creating conceptual in-contiguity (e.g. use of advance organizer or a spring board puzzle).
- Building new learning tasks on what has been learned previously – that is, applying the principle of integrative reconciliation or association.
- Capitalising on arousal value of suspense – discovery, curiosity and exploration (Koomson, 1999).

4.2. Extrinsic Motivational Factors

Extrinsic motivational factors on the other hand, are those factors responsible for the arousal and maintenance of energy towards a goal as a result of reward that is extraneous to the learning process. Such factors according to Afful (1988), have only superficial links with learning – they are neither inherent in the knowledge or skill nor in the method of acquiring it. A geography student having an extrinsic motive for studying geography does not lie in the subject 'geography' or how s/he is studying it, but rather her/his desire to obtain a reward for studying it or it may be that s/he is studying it for fear of punishment or her/his determination to pass an examination in geography.

Examples of extrinsic motivational techniques which can be used in the geography classroom include

- Use of verbal praise.
- Use of test grades or marks and remarks judiciously.
- Motivation contracts – that is, having an agreement with students that if they do well in a learning task, the teacher will give them something.
- Whetting the appetite of students by assuring them of certain privileges.
- Use of punishments such as blame, criticism, rebuke and demotion of brilliant but lazy students, which may stimulate learning and
- Display of exemplary work by others (Koomson, 1999).

Research has shown that though both intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation lead to some degree of learning, getting students to learn by using extraneous rewards has been described as morally dubious for the following reasons:

- Rewards tend to control the behaviour of learners as if they have no choice for autonomy of their own;
- Rewards draw attention from what is being learned to something irrelevant to the content;
- Absence of rewards results in absence of behaviour (Koomson, 1999).

In view of these criticisms against the use of extrinsic motivational factors, learning is said to be more effective and more permanent when the student is intrinsically motivated for her/his study. This is because it is accompanied by a sense of pleasantness which may impel a student to even learn outside class hours. Since motivation is the very heart of learning, it behoves the geography teacher to use different motivational techniques in the classroom situation because the intensity of the motivation of learners determines the effectiveness of their learning.

Whilst not downplaying the educational value of extrinsic motivation, the next section is devoted essentially to a discussion of intrinsic motivation techniques which when applied properly would lead to significant learning on the part of students.

5. How to Motivate Students in Geography Teaching

There are a variety of ways by which the geography teacher can present the subject to students in an interesting and captivating way. In the main, however, students are motivated by

- The orderly and systematic presentation of the lesson by the teacher.
- Use of a variety of Teaching Methods.
- Use of Practice and feedback – that is, knowledge of results.
- Conducive learning environment – classroom arrangement, availability of teaching learning resources, rapport among students, etc.
- Teacher personality – knowledge, skills, ideas, attitudes and perceptions.

5.1. Orderly and Systematic Presentation of the Lesson

For the geography teacher to be able to motivate her/his students, s/he needs to demonstrate five important skills of presentation such as *set induction*-initiating the class into the lesson or an aspect of it through an exciting and stimulating way*; closure*-focusing students' attention on what has been learned*; stimulus variation* – use of techniques such as appropriate teacher movements, changes in speech pattern, use of verbal statements, specific gestures, appropriate use of all the five sensory channels, etc. to attract student attention and stimulate mental activity; *clarity of explanation* and *use of examples* (Perrot, 1982).

Darge (1993) suggests the following ways by which student learning during the instructional process can be promoted:

- *Varying instructional resources as appropriate* – The teacher must draw properly labeled sketches on the chalkboard and make use of (i) charts, maps and tables; (ii) models; (iii) specimens;(iv) extracts from printed matter such as newspapers, magazines, textbooks, etc.; (v) tape-recorded speeches;(vii) annual reports and research findings and (vii) resource persons;

- *Use appropriate language, pace and organization* – The teacher must use simple language – i.e. simple words and sentences. From time to time, he/she should pause to see whether students are following him/her. Signals such as 'in contrast', 'consequently', 'as a result' and in 'summary' should be used often. Important terms should be written on the board with proper spacing and in an orderly way. He/she can vary his/her style of communication by changing the tone of his/her voice and making selective use of stress, gestures, humour and movement. The teacher's pace of presentation should be such that students will be able to comprehend a limited amount of information at a given time;

- *Encouraging student participation in different ways* - To ensure active participation, the teacher can use the question-and-answer technique to help students pose questions and answer questions. Students could also be asked to inject their personal experiences into discussions and involve them in demonstrations. The teacher should not accept vague or general questions such as 'can you go over what you said once again?' The teacher must not accept students' nodding or silence as their response to a question. He/she should ask questions to check whether they have understood a point;

- *Use different stimulating techniques to maintain attention and to clarify or emphasize points* – The teacher should use gestures, eye-contact, facial expressions, intonation, pertinent local proverbs, amusing anecdotes and jokes to stimulate student learning;

- *Use illustrations from students' environment* – One way by which the teacher can motivate student learning is to employ the logical teaching technique that is, stressing what students are more familiar with before dealing with what they are not familiar with. For example, in a lesson on crop farming in Ghana, the teacher can refer to common vegetables and food/cash crops commonly cultivated in the local area.

In support of an orderly and logical presentation of the lesson, Farrant (1980) suggests that one way the teacher can motivate student learning is for him/her to carefully sequence his/her ideas and use words which are within the capacity of her/his pupils. Perrot (1982) reiterates the teacher's need for clarity of expression by saying that the teacher can help his/her pupils to understand an explanation by the use of easily intelligible grammatical sentences which to her hinges on the teacher's mastery of the subject matter, her social confidence in the class situation and above all, careful advance planning of the lesson.

5.2. Use of Variety of Teaching Methods

The geography teacher according to Colin (1969) should not limit him/herself to one type of teaching method. That he/she should from time to time experiment with new methods so as to arouse and maintain students' interest in geography. Among the methods that the geography teacher can experiment with are

- *Dalton Plan* - This method of teaching is only feasible in situations where the relevant teaching-learning resources are available. It involves students being made to undertake independent study on a particular theme by acquiring information from sources such as the library or the resource centre and making independent judgment on the exercise. The teacher acts as a guide or facilitator by giving help and guidance where necessary. At the end of the exercise, the class discusses the report of their discovery. This work can be done individually or in groups.

- *Discovery Method* - In a geography lesson, the students are made for example, to observe the weather of the local area for a period and use weather instruments (if available) to collect data on weather elements such as temperature, wind speed, wind direction, rainfall, atmospheric pressure, intensity of the sun, etc. The students can then use the data collected as the basis for a discussion on the climate of that place. The teacher can even encourage the class to collect climate data of various places in

their home districts/regions by contacting the meteorological stations in those places. A study of these data will show what the climate is in those places.

- *Project Work* – It is a teaching method which encourages independent habits of thought and a flair for finding out things. Students are encouraged to think of a theme or may be given a theme to tackle by the teacher. For example, the project may be a visit to a manufacturing firm. The teacher can divide the class into a specified number of groups based on the various aspects of the problem identified during a lead lesson on the topic – these may include, the manufacturing plant, the administrative set up, the technical division, the production unit, the quality control unit, the marketing unit, etc. Within each group, assignment cards should be given to each student specifying his/her duty in the group. At the end of the exercise, discussions would lead to conclusions which will be an indication of the data gathering skills acquired by the students.

- *Problem-solving Method* – Another method which the geography teacher should use to motivate student learning is problem-solving. This method emphasizes the solution of a pertinent problem. For example, in recent times, the school's local area might have experienced a torrential rainfall which was characterized by the occurrence of a rainbow. This may be used as a problem-solving exercise as the students might have heard tales about the occurrence of the rainbow – caused by God lighting a fire in the sky. This shows that the individual student appreciates the problem. Since the initial interest is there, he/she would like to find out facts about the rainbow such as (a) how it is formed – i.e. when parallel rays of sunlight fall on rain droplets which first refract the rays, then reflect them internally and again refract the rays when they emerge from the droplets; (b) the 'bow' or bent nature of the rainbow – which describes the fact that the rainbow is a group of nearly circular arcs of colour all having a common centre; (c) types of rainbow - there are basically two types, namely, *reflection rainbow,* formed by rays coming from the sun and *lunar rainbow* formed by rays coming from the moon.

  With the collection of these facts, the students arrive at a conclusion of the formation of a rainbow, reasons for its circular nature and types of rainbow. To test the student's knowledge whether the information gathered is authentic, the teacher should organize an experiment during which the students are made to pass streaks of light through showers of water droplets. If they are able to observe the circular pattern of the streak of light which was passed through the water droplets, they will disbelieve the original tales.

- *Discussion Method* – It is a method involving the use of questions, answers and comments on a specific theme by a group of individuals with a common interest and preparation and directed by a leader to a pre-determined conclusion. Discussion promotes the motivation of student learning in the sense that if it is properly used by the teacher, it ensures feedback and active student participation. For the teacher to use this method effectively, he/she should have developed good questioning skills and ought to have acquired a thorough knowledge of the subject/theme to be discussed. In addition, s/he should be able to demonstrate good organizational skills in terms of writing down the objectives of the discussion, planning and writing down the introduction to the discussion, planning how the discussion would be conducted, planning how he/she would conclude the discussion and debriefing the class on the success or otherwise of the discussion.

- *Lecture-explanation* – In view of the fact that this is a teacher-centred method, Perrot (1982) suggests that a lecture-explanation without student participation should not exceed 10 – 20 per cent of the lesson. To motivate student learning, the geography teacher should intersperse this method with activities such as students asking and answering questions.

- *Educational Tours or Field trips -* This is a method which motivates students greatly especially when it is premised on a lead lesson on the phenomenon or event to be toured. Apart from the joy of traveling, and seeing places, a lot of experiences are gained and lived through by the students. Old ideas are discarded as students gain new experiences. Many of the things students had imagined now come into reality and with these experiences starring the individual student in the face, his/her interest is aroused and her/his curiosity heightened which makes her/him start asking questions. Traveling opens avenue for the development of interests. New ways, new thoughts and new life flow in the student as s/he lives through the various experiences during the educational tours (Ayo, 1971).

5.3. Use of Practice and Feedback (knowledge of results)

One way that the geography teacher can encourage her/his students to practise their knowledge and skills is to create a variety of conditions (different contexts and different methods), which will help them to apply the ideas and skills to new situations (Darge, 1993). When teaching a lesson which involves a lot of verbal information, it would be prudent for the geography teacher to use extensive *elaboration*, instead of simple repetition. This would facilitate the comprehension, retention and retrieval of information by the students. Darge (1993) opines that the teacher can use elaborate techniques such as *tracing the origin of terms, paraphrasing, exemplifying, creating a mental picture, chunking (*breaking the exercise or material into manageable portions)*, categorizing information by sequence and type, depicting information in the form of diagrams, identifying implications and summarizing.*

When the geography teacher is teaching a lesson on map interpretation in Practical Geography, s/he should ensure students' practice of this skill is distributed over a period of time instead of using continuous practice. This technique helps to avoid fatigue and minimize error (Darge, 1993). Darge notes that practising segments of a skill first and then practising as a whole is an efficient method if it can be broken down into relatively distinct parts. For example, a skill-learning lesson on map interpretation could be segmented as follows. Firstly, the students should be taken through the *identification of conventional symbols on topographical maps;* Secondly, the students could be taken through the *interpretation of these symbols as used on topographical maps;* Thirdly, the students could be taken through *using a set of symbols such as those on water bodies to describe the drainage of an area on a topographical map.* Lastly, the students could be made to *interpret the relationship between physical features (e.g. relief, vegetation, etc.) and cultural features (e.g. communication lines, settlements, etc.) on a topographical map* by using conventional symbols.

Closely related to students being given the opportunity to practise what they are taught is *feedback.* Arends (1998) says prompt feedback on good performance is a form of intrinsic motivation. Feedback on poor performance gives learners needed information to improve. To be effective, it must be specific and immediate. It should also be non-judgmental. Additionally, feedback should focus on and encourage internal attributions such as effort or lack of effort rather than external attributions such as luck or lack of ability. Feedback according Arends should help students see what they did not do rather than what they cannot do. Lastly, the geography teacher should avoid using feedback to belittle students!

5.4. Environmental Factors–Creating an Enabling Environment for Student Motivation

One way by which the geography teacher can motivate students' interest in geography is to decorate the geography classroom with "geography-friendly" teaching-learning materials. For example, picture rails and bulletin boards should be hung on the walls where pictures on geographic themes can hang (Ayo, 1971)**.** Ayo adds that models made with papier marche or clay could be hung on the walls as part of the decorations and would make lessons more real to the students than other drawings and even maps.

In the geography classroom, students' seating arrangement should be such that their tables and chairs should be light enough to be easily carried by each student to be brought together to form a larger table top for group or project work. The teacher's table should be positioned in such a way that s/he could see the whole class conveniently. This could be made possible, if the table is put on a raised platform or dais (Singh, 1982).

The geography teacher's ability to use teaching aids appropriately is another motivating factor which can help create and sustain students' interest in geography. Among these teaching aids are
- *Articles, Pictures and Photographs* – The teacher can charge the class to collect these materials from magazines, books and newspapers, which could be exhibited on flannel graphs and bulletin boards. As part of their learning experiences, students should be made to look at these materials and discuss them with the teacher acting as a moderator.
- *Maps and Sketches* – Students could be introduced to both textbook maps such as atlases and wall maps on different geographic themes. The teacher can also help students develop the skill of drawing sketch maps as part of their learning tasks. This exercise should not be an event but a process so as to enable the students gain mastery of drawing maps over a period of time.
- *Collection of Specimens* – In situations where students could not be taken out due to constraints of time and logistics, the teacher can bring the environment into the geography classroom by leading students to collect samples of materials which form an integral part of their lessons. Examples of such specimens include rock samples, plant species, soil samples, manufactured items, agricultural produce, wood products, artifacts, etc. These materials should be inspected, examined and discussed in the context of the lesson for which they had been collected.
- *Models of clay, papier marche or plasticine* – Such models can be made by students based on themes in physical, human/regional or practical geography. Such a model-building exercise helps develop students' creative and artistic skills making students responsible for their own learning, which to Tamakloe (1992) turn them into self-dependent learners.
- *The Environment or Local Scenery* – In situations where time and finance would permit, the geography teacher should take his/her class to get first hand information on issues studied in textbooks or taught in lead lessons. Such out-of-class teaching aid is likely to motivate student learning as they come into contact with various objects of study in the environment. In sum, it is the proper use of these teaching aids that will make the lesson interesting and effective.

Another way that the geography teacher can use environmental factors to motivate student learning is to either cite actual examples from the students' social and physical environments or stress the utility or functional value of the subject-matter. Perrot (1982) suggests that teachers should use not only start with the use of simple examples, but also local examples out of which inferences or generalizations could be drawn (inductive reasoning). Again, she says the teacher can enrich his/her lessons by using a generalization and then apply this generalization to a number of examples which are relevant to the students' experience and

level of knowledge (deductive reasoning). For example, in geography, the teacher can use a generalization such as "cities are located at places where there is easy access to one or more major routes of transportation" (Banks, 1990:417). S/he can then ask students to come out with local examples in Ghana. The likely responses from the class may include Accra (linked by rail, international highway, air and water routes); Kumasi (linked by international highway, air and rail routes); Sekondi-Takoradi (linked by international highway, air, water and rail routes). Such practical examples would help his/her students understand better, new concepts, relationships or principles.

Students are also motivated when what they study in class is linked to their every day lives or their future career aspirations. Ayo (1971) suggests that for the teacher to be able to motivate her/his students, s/he should let the class understand or appreciate the value of geography to themselves and the various communities they come from. For example, in explaining the concept of *man-environment relationship,* the teacher should be able to let the class understand how the interplay of physical factors such as the weather, relief and drainage and man's knowledge of science and technology has resulted in different types of cultural landscapes – cities versus villages; advanced economies versus third world economies, etc.

Again, if students were made to understand that by studying geography, it would help them make an honest living in future, they are likely to take the subject more serious than before. For example, Senior High School geography students could be told that a study of the subject at this level will lay the foundation in areas such as map-work, human and regional geography. Such students should be able to find employment in the public and private sectors of the national economy, where they can serve as assistants to other professionals as Teachers, Surveyors, Sociologists, Regional and Urban Planners, Geographers, Economists, Cartographers, Agronomists, etc. (CRDD, 2008).

5.5. Influence of Teacher Personality on Student Motivation

For the geography teacher to be able to present learning tasks in a meaningful manner in order to motivate students to learn, s/he should place his/her "personality" – knowledge, skills, ideas, attitudes and perceptions at the disposal of the student.

A teacher who motivates his/her students is the one who is liked by his/her students because s/he is able to exhibit cheerful disposition, emotional stability and other qualities which are indicative of good mental health and adjustment. Having a sound knowledge in geography is the first attribute of an effective and efficient geography teacher which in a way gives his/her students the assurance of his/her ability to give them good content knowledge (Koomson, 1999). Nacino-Brown, Oke and Brown (1982) support Koomson's assertion by stating that no matter how kind, amiable and well-meaning a teacher is, s/he cannot possibly motivate student learning unless s/he has a thorough knowledge of the subject matter s/he is teaching and a good general knowledge.

Closely related to the teacher's mastery of subject-matter is a sound knowledge of the methodology to apply to deliver the subject-matter to his students. The geography teacher's ability to motivate his/her students to learn will depend upon how s/he demonstrates his/her managerial and decision-making skills in the selection, planning, presentation and evaluation of any specific learning task defined in the curriculum.

Teacher personality traits which inspire students to learn include sympathy and kindness, helpfulness, patience, a pleasing personal appearance and manner, fairness and impartiality, a sense of humour, honesty,

enthusiasm, creativeness and resourcefulness (Nacino-Brown et al., 1982). They however intimate that a very knowledgeable person completely lacking in sensitivity or human emotions is not likely to be successful in the classroom.

Darge(1993) has also outlined the following teacher personality traits which influence student learning either positively or negatively.

- *Modeling* – This is when students adopt the exemplary behaviour of the geography teacher, which is not officially taught. Sociologists call this the 'hidden curriculum'. For example, the teacher's circumspection, diligence, originality and orderliness are attributes which are likely to influence his/her students though these attributes are not explicitly stated in his/her lesson objectives;
- *Avoiding Distracting Mannerisms* such as constant tapping of the teacher's table, faltering in speech with 'ah', 'eh' or 'mm' and frequently clearing the throat;
- *Showing Some Concern* – The motivational geography teacher should react appropriately to student concerns about matters as textbooks, examination and to unexpected questions on issues they might have heard about on the radio, read in newspapers or something they might have observed in the community and
- *Showing Interest in Lessons and Discussions* – The motivational teacher should be punctual, up-to-date in content and methods, alert and responsive to questions as well as to physical reactions such as frowning and fretting. Lastly, a motivational teacher is the one who encourages free expression of personal views.

Conclusion

From what has been discussed in this article, we can safely conclude that significant student learning is dependent upon the kind of motivation students receive during the teaching learning process. It has come to light that motivational geography teachers are those who exhibit orderly and systematic lesson presentation skills, adopt humane and business-like attitude to teaching, make appropriate use of environmental factors, experiment with a variety of teaching methods, encourage student practice and give prompt feedback. This article has challenged geography teachers to be proactive in their teaching. For students to respond appropriately to what they are taught in the geography classroom, it takes the kind of geography teachers who are at abreast of different motivational strategies which can impel students to learn. Geography teachers need to recognize that their classes are made up of students with varying social, physiological, intellectual and emotional needs and failure to tailor their teaching to meet these individual differences would result in students losing interest in the subject howbeit their mastery of the subject matter.

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Nature of Teaching: What Teachers Need to Know and Do

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Abstract

Improving the quality of what happens in schools and preparing pupils/students for life in the 21st Century requires the highest quality of teaching. This article therefore focuses on professional classroom competences that every professional teacher should possess. It explores various scholarly definitions of teaching and time-tested principles of teaching and the classroom strategies available to teachers which when used judiciously will best assist pupil/student learning. The article will be useful for practicing teachers, student teachers, college and university lecturers, school-based in-service coordinators, advisory teachers and school mentors and head teachers. Though the prime aim of this article is to provoke discussion on the nature of teaching, its additional aim is to help the afore-mentioned stakeholders in the teaching enterprise reflect on their current practice and encourage them to ask questions about everyday classroom events.

Keywords: Concept of teaching, classroom competences, principles of teaching, pupil learning, phases in teaching

1. Introduction

 Whether teachers like it or not, every time they step into a classroom to teach students, they are putting themselves on the "firing line" and students will either shoot them down or acclaim them. Students assess their teachers informally, and the amount of confidence they have in them depends to a large extent on the perceived level of their competence. Teaching a subject presupposes that the teacher is proficient in the area and that there is no excuse whatsoever for the teacher to give students anything but the best. Not only do students expect that from the teacher but in a way demand it. So the question every teacher should ask him/herself before stepping into a classroom is "what are the expectations of students and how should they be met?" This article would try to answer this question by addressing issues such as the concept of teaching, principles of teaching, phases of teaching, requirements for teaching and ends with a far reaching conclusion.

2. The Concept of Teaching

 Various definitions have been given to teaching. According to Nilsen and Albertalli
(2002), teaching in its broadest sense is the process whereby a teacher guides a learner or
a group of learners to a higher level of knowledge or skills. Desforges (1995) defines

teaching as the management of pupils' experience, largely in classrooms with the deliberate intention of promoting their learning.

The following scholars have also defined teaching in various ways.

Schlechty (2004) defines teaching as an art of inducing students to behave in ways that are assumed to lead to learning, including an attempt to induce students to so behave. What Schlechty meant by teaching being 'an art' is that the teacher must create situations to facilitate learning and then motivate learners to have interest in what is being transmitted to them.

Melby (1994) also states that teaching is not merely dispensing subject or lesson-having, but an art which involves the student in the teaching-learning process where the student is given the chance to participate fully in the process – that the teacher accepts each pupil and has a favourable attitude towards individual differences. It is a relationship in which the teacher eschews sarcastic statements, ridicule and fault-finding. Thring, (2001) says pouring out knowledge is not teaching. Hearing lessons is not teaching …… teaching is getting at the heart and mind so that the learner values learning and to believe that learning is possible in his/her own case.

Smith (2004) sees teaching as the process of carrying out activities that experience has shown to be effective in getting students to learn. He goes on to say that teaching is that which results in learning – learning is the responsibility of the teacher and that if students do not learn, it is the fault of the teacher. He capped his statements on teaching by stating that teaching is undertaking certain ethical tasks or activities, the intention of which is to induce learning. Farrant (1980) simply defined teaching as a process that facilitates learning.

Frimpong (1990) defined teaching as the process whereby a teacher imparts knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to a learner or group of learners in a way that respects the intellectual integrity and capacity of the learners with the aim of changing the behaviour of the learner(s)'. From this definition, one can say that teaching involves not only how information gets from the teacher to the learner but also how the learner (i) uses it, (ii) interacts with it, (iii) receives guidance (iv) receives feedback.

Confucius cited in Knott and Mutunga said **"**in his teaching, the wise man guides his students but does not pull them along; he urges them to go forward and does not suppress them; he opens the way but does not take them to the place ….If his students are encouraged to think for themselves, we may call the man a good teacher" (1993:158).

From the above definitions on teaching, one can surmise that there are two main types of institutionalized teaching – these are (a) *formal teaching* in which the teacher directs the teaching learning process with minimal student participation and (b) *informal teaching* in which the teacher serves as a guide, facilitator, counselor or motivator and student participation is very high.

From the foregoing discussions, we can infer that teaching and learning are intricately linked together like Siamese twins. That the major goal of teaching is for the teacher to ensure that students/pupils learn what has been taught. It therefore behoves the teacher to teach in such a way as to promote learning. Against this

backdrop, teachers should note that the purpose of teaching is not the time for them to air their knowledge but to help children to learn (Colin, 1969).

3. Principles of Teaching

A principle of teaching is a basic idea or rule that explains how teaching is done or conducted. In this section, the following teaching principles given by Tamakloe (2005) are presented. These include the teacher must

- time the various stages of a lesson so that each stage receives the desired attention without exceeding the time limit of the lesson.
- detect when his/her pupils/students are getting bored or restless so that s/he can vary his/her approach or the stimulus.
- use the experiences of his/her pupils/students to initiate as well as generate further learning.
- make judicious use of available resources in the teaching-learning process.
- present what s/he teaches in an interesting way.
- write orderly layout of summaries on the chalk/whiteboard.
- express him/herself and illustrate his/her points clearly in the lesson particularly in his/her explanation of content.
- design suitable and adequate quantity of exercises and assignments for his/her pupils, and insist on prompt tackling and submission.
- use good or correct language in the teaching process.
- correct and direct his/her pupils/students without making them feel embarrassed or frustrated.
- learning situations that will serve as challenges to his/her pupils/students.
- select appropriate learning experiences of his/her pupils/students.
- employ a variety of teaching methods and techniques within a lesson.
- generate divergent thinking and creativity in his/her pupils/students
- be able to achieve the objectives of his/her lessons.
- use praise to urge his/her pupils to become eager to participate more in a lesson.
- study and become aware of the need of the individual pupils/students in his/her class.
- be able to assist his pupils/students to able to assess their own performances.
- maintain a reasonable balance between pupil-activity and teacher-activity as dictated by the nature of the lesson.

4. Main Phases in Teaching

Although what the teacher has to teach is contained in the teaching syllabus, he/she is constantly making decisions with regard to students' learning and appropriate teaching strategies and methods to employ. Among the decisions that a teacher has to take on a daily basis are how to plan for his/her lessons which cover issues such as *what to teach, how to teach what has been selected* and *how to evaluate what has been taught.* These questions are concerned with three basic teaching functions: (i) Planning (Pre-Teaching Phase); (ii) Implementation (Teaching Phase) and (iii) Evaluation (Post-Teaching Phase).

4.1. Planning Phase (Pre-teaching Phase):

The decision on how to plan the lesson should be taken long time in advance of the
lesson. This is firstly, to allow the teacher enough time to read around the topic to be taught, especially where the teacher's command over the subject/topic is weak, Secondly, to permit the collection of teaching-learning resources and the preparation of other teaching learning resources which could not be acquired commercially (Colin, 1969).

This phase requires the teacher to make decisions about the students' needs, the most appropriate goals and objectives to help meet these needs, the motivation necessary to attain their goals and objectives and the most appropriate strategies for the attainment of those goals and objectives. The planning decisions cover the pupils' progress; the availability of resources; equipment and materials; the time requirements of particular activities {Perrott et al. (1977) cited in Perrott, 1982}. It is during this phase that the teacher writes up his/her lesson plan.

4.2. Implementation Phase (Teaching Phase):

This phase requires the teacher to implement the decisions made at the planning stage, especially those related to teaching methods, strategies and learning activities. The implementation function occurs when the teacher is interacting with the students. In this phase, the teacher is expected `to exhibit teaching skills such as presenting, explaining, listening, introducing, demonstrating, eliciting responses and achieving closure. The implementation phase has segments such as *prime, presentation, summary, consolidation and check learning through class exercise.*

4.2.1. Prime Stage. It is getting students into a state of readiness to learn. This may involve a review of relevant previous learning and giving brief outline of the topic and its structure and generating student interest by indicating the importance of the topic as well as how it will be utilized. At the end of this stage, students should be aware of what is expected of them, should want to learn and should know how the subject/topic will be dealt with (Knott & Mutunga, 1993).

4.2.2. Presentation Stage. This usually takes a greater part of the implementation phase. The main body of the lesson is delivered in a systematic and logical manner. If the teacher decides to use explanation, it should be aided by visual aids.

4.2.3 Summary. At the end of the presentation stage, the topic should be summarized and the main elements reviewed.

4.2.4. Consolidation/Recapitulation/Closure. This stage is used to make students think hard about the topic and as a result learn. The consolidation stage forces students to recall the information and think it through with guidance from the teacher. The teacher can do this through the following steps:

- First pose some simple recall type questions on key elements of the topic:
- Then pose open-ended questions of a problem-solving type;
- Pause to give students a chance to think;
- Nominate at random a student to supply the answer;
- Echo the response by using the students' own words or paraphrasing them.

When the nominated student gives an incorrect answer, the teacher should refer it to another student or give clues to correct the original response. This procedure should be repeated until all the main elements and key aspects of the topic have emerged and the teacher should ensure this by distribution of questions that as many students as possible make a contribution. Another dimension to the consolidation stage, if time permits, is to give students the opportunity to ask questions requiring clarification or elaboration (Knott & Mutunga, 1993).

4.2.5. Check Learning through Class Exercise. The last stage of the implementation phase is to ensure that students have fully understood the lesson through a written test or assignment. This is done by asking several questions requiring short, or one word answers on the main points covered. These may be asked orally or shown on an Overhead Projector (OHP) or written on the chalk or white board, but should always require written answers. These should be marked there and then by each student, either personally or through exchanging answer sheets with a neighbour, whilst the teacher calls out answers and asks for results. This

can be done formally or informally but both students and the teacher will have some idea of whether the instruction was assimilated because all students were tested (Knott & Mutunga, 1993). In a one hour lesson, Knott and Mutunga opine that the teacher can allot the following duration or percentage to the five stages of the implementation phase:

- *Prime Stage* – 5 minutes or 7.5%
- *Presentation Stage* - 21 minutes or 35%
- *Summary* - 6 minutes or 10%
- *Consolidation/Recapitulation/Closure* – 22 minutes or 37.5%
- *Check Learning through Class Exercises/assignments* – 6 minutes or 10%.

5. Evaluation Phase (Post-Teaching Phase)

The evaluation function requires decisions about the suitability of objectives of the lesson and the teaching strategies linked to them, and eventually whether or not the students are achieving what the teacher intended. Teaching skills which support this function include specifying the learning objectives to be evaluated; describing the information needed to make such an evaluation; obtaining, recording, analyzing and recording that information and forming judgments. In other words, you examine carefully the results of your teaching and decide how well you handled each teaching function. On the basis of this feedback you decide on whether or not to make new plans or try different implementation strategies. In this way, your decision-making will become more accurate (Perrott, 1982).

6. Requirements for Teaching

Whilst all managers have something in common, specific management requires specific knowledge. Teachers as managers need a special body of knowledge and special skills too. The nature of the various subject areas as formal academic disciplines, the objectives for teaching them, the competencies they demand for their teaching and learning and the varied methods and materials required for teaching and learning them, makes it imperative for every teacher to possess a repertoire of knowledge, qualities, attitudes and values.

There are certain characteristics given by Shulman (1987) that every professionally-trained teacher should possess. These include *content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational context/human relations, pedagogical content knowledge/teacher craft knowledge and knowledge of educational ends.*

6.1. Content Knowledge

Content knowledge can be described as the subject matter, ideas, skills or substance of what is taught. It covers issues such as

- The teacher being familiar with the most recent knowledge in his/her discipline, history and philosophy of teaching the subject (various schools of thought), how the knowledge base of the subject informs or is informed by other disciplines.
- The teacher must have knowledge and understanding of the different fields/aspects in his/her subject That is, s/he must have a broad view of the subject in all its aspects, a firm understanding of its

concepts, principles, values, theories, generalizations, etc. and have an unending enthusiasm for its study.

- His/her content knowledge should be in-depth and must know the probable sources of knowledge in his/her subject – textbooks, journals, national dailies, unpublished materials, etc. from where s/he should tap his/her content.

Colin (1969) states that it is necessary for the teacher to read and study far beyond the level required for his/her actual lessons. For this reason, newly trained teachers must continue to study even though they have gained their teaching qualifications. The teacher should have both practical and liberal knowledge of his subject, with the latter making it possible for students to have an intelligent grasp of the salient features of world affairs. Lastly, the reason why the teacher should read broadly is that the world has now become a global village due to the modern means of technology, transport and communication. This has brought world events within the scope and experience of more people each year. Students who have access to these modern means of communication are likely to ask in class questions on issues they don't understand. The well-informed teacher should be in a position to deal with such questions expertly.

In sum, there is no substitute for a sound knowledge of the subject matter and no teacher can be excused for trying to hide a deficiency of knowledge behind a façade of teaching techniques, for if your knowledge is suspect, your teaching techniques will invariably be suspect.

6.2. General Pedagogical Knowledge

It is made up of the broad principles, approaches /strategies, methods and techniques for conveying content to learners. It covers issues such as the teacher should

- Not be content with one good teaching method, but should constantly seek new ways of approach that are likely to interest students and at the same time be more effective in imparting knowledge.
- Never consider having reached the ultimate in teaching. Teachers should always keep their minds and attitudes flexible enough to consider new methods and if these methods are good, attempts should be made to incorporate them in their schemes of work. This is because students not only accept but welcome new methods of approach which bring about receptive learning.
- Train students to observe things, record and correlate both primary and secondary data (e.g. study of maps, pictures and books).
- Teach students to learn to do things for themselves so as to be better equipped to carry across into everyday life the implications of what they learn at school. For example, a teacher teaching a topic like "the tropical grassland" in a savannah environment in a geography or social studies lesson should become the supplier of raw materials from which the students extract and interpret relevant details.
- Try as much as possible to break away from the **teaching-talking** and **talking-teaching idea** which lies behind much of the thinking of some teachers today.

6.3. Curriculum Knowledge

It is the information on various materials and programmes in the teacher's subject area which serve as "tools of the trade" for the teacher.

- This information includes the various levels at which his/her subject operates. It covers the (a) *largest level* which in the case of a subject like geography may be referred to as the *social sciences (i.e. broad field curricular).* Other types of curricular which belong to this level include, *core curricular*, *completely undifferentiated curricular* and *subject specific curricular; (b) intermediate level* – includes courses organized as segments, e.g. ECONOMICS 1, ECONOMICS 2, AUDITING 1, AUDITING 2, etc.; single semester or year courses, e.g. ESS 232, ESS/EAS 305, EPS 403, etc.; (c) *lowest level* – includes issues such as the various units, topics, lessons taught in a subject area.

- In addition to the above, the teacher should know the recommended textbooks, teachers' manuals, head teachers' handbooks, etc.

- He/she should know the materials required for teaching particular lessons; know the relevance of teaching certain topics.

- The teacher should know the *i. organizing elements* – these are the knowledge (facts, concepts and principles), skills (cognitive, affective & expressive), values (socio-cultural, intellectual, moral, etc), attitude etc. which make up the content and the learning experiences to be taught. These serve as threads in the organization of an instructional programme or course/subject; *ii. organizing principles* – these are the standards by which the organizing elements are woven together to bring about effective teaching and learning. Examples include maxims of logical teaching methods such as *teaching from the known to the unknown, from simple to complex, chronological arrangement of facts, demanding pre-requisite learning, increasing breadth of application, increasing range of activities, use of description followed by analysis, forming a general conclusion from specific cases or examples, using specific examples or cases to form a generalization, stating objectives of study, repetition, application of facts, etc.; iii. organizing centres* – these are the topics, problems, units of work or resource units which are used to combine the content and methods of teaching in the discipline with selected learning experiences in order to achieve the intended learning outcomes; *iv. organizing structures* – they are the structural elements around which the learning experiences are organized.

6.4. Knowledge of Learners and Their Characteristics

It is information on the physiological, social, demographic and mental/psychological make up of the learners which serve as one of the key determinants of successful teaching and learning. It demands that teachers should

- Possess more than adequate knowledge of their students, their characteristics (personality traits), learning styles and habits, level of conceptualization, levels of motivation (i.e. their reasons for pursuing the subject/course), degree of interaction amongst themselves in both learning and non-learning environments.

- Know the principles/theories of learning and human growth (e.g. Piaget, Thorndike, Skinner, Brunner, etc.) which correspond with learners' level of development or maturity or age –

pre-conceptual, enactive representation, iconic representation, symbolic representation and formal operations stages.

- Know their students' skills, abilities, attitudes, knowledge, interests, individual differences in learning, etc.
- Consider the various levels and types of motivation their students bring into the classroom – is the programme relevant to their interests, career aspirations, etc?
- Demographic information on their students – age range, sex ratio, number in class, etc.

6.5. Knowledge of Educational Context/Human Relations

It is information on issues such as the workings of such as the workings of a group of learners or the classroom, school organization/governance, peculiarities of local communities and cultures, etc. which impinge on the teaching-learning process. It demands that

- Teachers should know the culture and organization of their schools, the community and the cultural patterns of the society in which the school is located. All these influence to a great extent, the teacher's relations with his/her students, colleagues, school administrators and external school officials. As regards relationship with parents, the teacher can report to parents on their children's academic progress, hold parents' conferences and enlist the assistance of parents to help with some school project and encourage them to supervise their children's home work. When this is done on a regular basis, it strengthens the relationship between the teacher and parents and makes both teacher and parent partners in the grooming of the children (Callaghan, 1966).
- The teacher should be very effective in his/her working environment both in school and out of school. S/he should on first appointment acquaint him/herself with the various context in which s/he is required to work – his/her students, fellow teachers, school authorities, non-teaching staff, parents, educational authorities, etc.
- The teacher should know the factors which bring about a productive environment for teaching and learning – these factors include *discipline and order; conventions and routines in the school; his/her responsibilities as a teacher; intellectual, moral and spiritual values of the school; the schools' organogram (i.e. the organizational chart of the school showing the various administrative positions and their corresponding job descriptions, etc).*

6.6. Pedagogical Content Knowledge/Teacher Craft Knowledge

- It is the special mix of content and pedagogy which is unique to teaching. It is the teacher's special form of professional understanding and how he/she blends content and pedagogy to teach particular topics or problems consistent with students' interest and abilities. Teachers who possess teacher craft knowledge are those who
  - Foster the understanding of particular a concept, principle or theory by having knowledge of the ways of transforming the concept for students. They must have knowledge of the ways of transforming the content for the purposes of teaching.
  - In the words of Dewey (1956), must 'psychologize' the subject matter. In order to transform or 'psychologize' the subject matter, teachers must have a knowledge of the subject matter that includes a personal understanding of the content as well as knowledge of ways to

communicate that understanding to foster the development of subject matter knowledge in the minds of students.

- Are able to blend content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular aspects of subject matter (e.g. concepts, principles, theories, etc) are organized, adapted and represented for instruction.

- Are able to transform subject matter into teaching using different ways to represent it and make it accessible to learners. S/he knows what teaching approaches fit the content, and likewise, knows how elements of the content can be arranged for better teaching.

- Have knowledge of what students bring to the learning situation, knowledge that might be either facilitative or dysfunctional for the particular learning task at hand. This knowledge of students includes their strategies, prior conceptions; misconceptions students are likely to have about a particular domain and potential misapplication of prior knowledge (Shulman, 1987).

6.7. Knowledge of Educational Ends

It provides information on cultural, philosophical and ideological issues which determine the general direction of the education system and the type of curricular that a nation should have. It makes the following demands on the professional teacher:

- This trait presupposes that if an educational programme is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is very necessary for the teacher to have some conception of the educational goals being aimed at. These goals or ends become the criteria by which materials/resources are selected, content outlined, instructional procedures are developed and tests and exams are prepared. These goals are not simply matters of personal preference of individual teachers or groups, but are ends that are desired by the school staff.

- The teacher must have knowledge of the philosophy of education in order to come out with realistic educational objectives/goals. In Ghana, the educational goals among others include i. *education should result in a well-balanced people with the requisite knowledge, skills, values, aptitudes and attitudes for self-actualisation and for the socio-economic and political transformation of the nation; ii. Ghanaians should be trained to become enterprising and adaptable to the demands of a fast-changing world driven by modern science and technology to build a knowledge-based economy; iii. Education should lead to improvement in the quality of life of all Ghanaians by empowering the people themselves to overcome poverty and also raise their living standards to the levels that they can observe through the global interchange of images, information and ideas, etc. (*Ministry of Education, Youth & Sports ,2004).

- The teacher should have knowledge of the various schools of thought with regard to educational goals such as *the progressives, the essentialists, the subject specialists, child psychologists, etc.* The progressive emphasizes the importance of studying the child to find out what purposes he/she has in mind – information on this is the basis for selecting educational goals. The essentialist on the other hand is impressed by the large body of knowledge collected over many thousands of years and emphasizes this as the primary source for deriving educational objectives. The essentialist views objectives as essentially the basic learning selected from the vast cultural heritage of the past.

Conclusion

This article has discussed at length the nature of teaching from different perspectives. The issues discussed may not be exhaustive but the article describes to a large extent what every professional teacher should know and do in order to become a successful teacher. It is hoped that teachers can identify with these expectations. The article is not meant to be prescriptive but rather thought-provoking.

What the professional teacher should know is that teaching in the new paradigm of education is no longer the exclusive preserve of the teacher. Today, the task of the teacher is no more being an agent of knowledge – that is, teaching is no longer limited to imparting information in the hope that it will be comprehended by students. In the present dispensation, the teacher is not only a communicator but also a manager with the responsibility of creating the enabling environment for learning to occur. To do this, the teacher needs to have at his/her disposal a repertoire of teaching skills and employ interactive activities to bring about significant learning on the part of students. In conclusion, the extent to which the teacher is able to incorporate these interactive activities in his/her lesson is a function of his/her competence and personality (Ababio, 2009).

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Profile of the Author

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Using Social Media Data as Research Data

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Abstract

Social Media (SM) is becoming a normal part of everyday life. The information generated from Social Media (SM) data is becoming increasingly utilized as a communication channel for market trend, brand awareness, breaking news, and online social interaction between person to person. SM is also rapidly growing and maturing [1]. Further, SM is becoming a reliable tool for interdisciplinary industries like banks, travel, healthcare, biotech, software, sports etc.

SM data can also be used as a research tool to apply in different areas of Humanities, Art, Science and Engineering. There are unlimited possibilities using Social Networking Site (SNS) to collect, process and evaluate data. This paper reviews the current state of Social Networking Sites and Text-based Language Processes, and how it can be used to generate valuable information.

Key words: *Social Media, Social Network Site, Natural Process Language*

1. Introduction

Human communication via speech and symbols date back more than 30,000 years [2]. With the birth of the internet (which was originally created as a small government and university research tool) in the public domain in 1995, the way humans communicate has changed [3][4]. Even though Social Networking Sites (SNS) started in the 1990's, SNS did not become a mainstream medium of communication until 2000 [5].

Today in 2013, Social Media (SM) is becoming a norm of interaction between businesses and their customers/fans as well as person to person communication. Prior to 2008, web presence was an essential part of a business strategy; now, SM is taking over as one of the additional factors for businesses to succeed [6]. There are many SNS that serve different demographics and interests; Facebook (facebook.com), Twitter (twitter.com), and LinkedIn (linkedIn.com) are taking the lead with more than 2.2 billion registered users combined [7].

Every day, active users on these Social Networking Sites generate millions of posts and updates. In this new era of Social Media, information generated by active SM users can be used as a research tool to identify current trends, brand awareness, marketing campaign success, disease outbreaks, breaking news, and much more. Depending on the privacy rules on each social network, information can be abstracted to generate useful knowledge for everyone to review and understand.

Even though there is a vast amount of interest and enthusiasm about SM, much research and product development are done in the area of marketing and advertising. This SM data give market researchers great opportunities to find people's interests, products they like and use, current trends, etc.

Shared SM information can be used in many different areas: discovering the outbreak of a disease in any corner of the world, finding a solution to a complex problem, providing a source of information during natural disasters, or updating real time on local or global events. There are endless possibilities with regards to how SM information can be used.

2. Social Network Sites Data

Every day, active users on Social Networking Sites (SNS) generate millions of posts. SNS data are growing exponentially and are being used to identify current trends, brand awareness, marketing campaign success, disease outbreaks, breaking news, etc.

More than 200 SNS sites listed on the Wikipedia.org [7]. Each of these sites has its own unique SM presence with its own list of unique users. According to eMarket.com, nearly one in four people are using some kind of Social Networking Site around the world [8]. This is a growing trend. More and more people are using SM to get their current news and update from friends and families around the world.

Table 1. Top ten most popular Social Networking Sites [9]

Social Networking Site (SNS)	Estimated Unique Monthly Visitors
Facebook.com	750,000,000
Twitter.com	250,000,000
LinkedIn.com	110,000,000
Pinterest.com	85,500,000
MySpace.com	70,500,000
Google Plus	65,000,000
DeviantArt.com	25,500,000
LiveJournal.com	20,500,000
Tagged.com	19,500,000
Orkut.com	17,500,000
Total	**1,414,000,000**

Last updated date for above table data was 7/24/2013

Table 1 provides only a fraction of the Social Networking Sites that exist with estimated total of 1,414,000,000 unique monthly visitors. Even though these numbers change from month to month, it is a growing trend that Social Media is becoming an acceptable form of daily communication around the world.
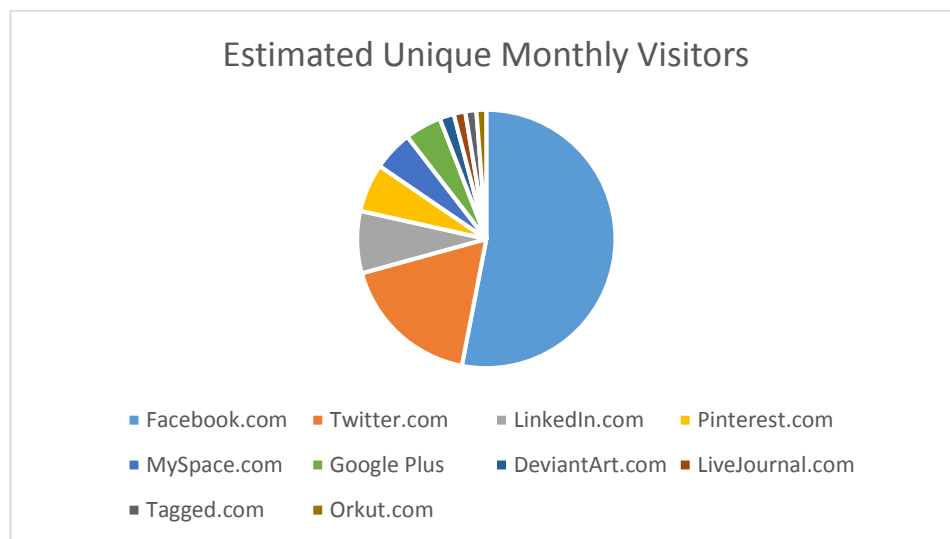
Figure 1. Data from Table 1

Facebook and Twitter are leading SNS. According to statisticbrain.com, there are 70 billion shared posts on Facebook monthly and an average of 190 million tweets daily [10]. These are large amount of monthly data generated by only two Social Networking Sites. Reviewing the top 10 SNS from table 1, we can forecast that more than 200 SNS contributes billions of daily data.

People are expressing their thoughts and sentiments in real time in SM. These SM data can provide a wealth of research materials for business users as well as university researchers. Filtering, validating, and capturing useful information from unstructured SM data are always going to be a challenge.

Due to the rapid change of SM data, real time data analyses are vital in getting valid information [11] to review users' sentiments. Text-based Natural Language Process (NLP) can play an important role in analyzing these SM data. In the next chapter we will discuss the NLP.

3. Natural Language Processing (NLP)

NLP is described as a computer system which processes human language in the context of its meaning [12]. Even with the advancement of computer languages and artificial intelligence, humans and computers do not talk the same language. Computer systems use byte-code.
Table 2 provides a list of NLP toolkits with a description of each and the implementation architect used. Each of these toolkits provides a different option to retrieve and process textual data.

Table 2. Natural Language Processing Toolkits

Name	Description	Implementation Architect Based On	URLs
LingPipe	Processes text using computational linguistics. It automatically classifies Twitter search results into categories.	Java	http://alias-i.com/lingpipe/index.html
Apache OpenNLP	Performs tokenization, sentence segmentation, part-of-speech tagging, named entity extraction, chunking, parsing, and co-reference resolution	Java	http://opennlp.apache.org/
Stanford Parser and Part-of-Speech (POS) Tagger	Reads text in some languages and assigns parts of speech to each word (and other token), such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.	Java	http://nlp.stanford.edu/software/tagger.shtml
OpenFst	Keys applications in speech recognition and synthesis, machine translation, optical character recognition, pattern matching, string processing, machine learning, information extraction and retrieval, among others.	C++	http://www.openfst.org/
Natural Language Toolkit (NLTK)	Works in computational linguistics using Python.	Python	http://nltk.org/
Opinion Finder	Processes documents and automatically identifies subjective sentences as well as various aspects of subjectivity within sentences, including agents who are sources of opinions, direct subjective expressions, speech events, and sentiment expressions.	Java	http://mpqa.cs.pitt.edu/opinionfinder/
GATE	Uses for all types of computational tasks involving human language.	Java	http://gate.ac.uk/
NLP Toolsuite	Collections of NLP components.	Java	http://www.julielab.de/Resources/Software/NLP_Tools.html

NLP can play an important role in understanding SM users' sentiments. SM text-based posts can be processed using NLP to get positive, negative, and natural feedback. This feedback can be used to further process these data.

4. Using Social Media data as research data

Starting fall 2013, Nielsen, a leading global information and measurement company that provides market research, started to use Twitter SM data to complement rating systems that exist today [13]. Nielsen purchased SocialGuide.com, whose APIs are focused on the Twitter data on TV viewing. It mainly uses hashtags (#) search and retweets to see how many people are actually talking about a given show in a given period of time.

4.1 Current Social Media Analysis Model

Figure 2 shows how most of the SM analysis are done. In this model, data are filtered and evaluated according to hashtag (#), mention, follow and/or followers information. It provides a lot of information about current trends, popularity of person or subject, breaking news, etc.
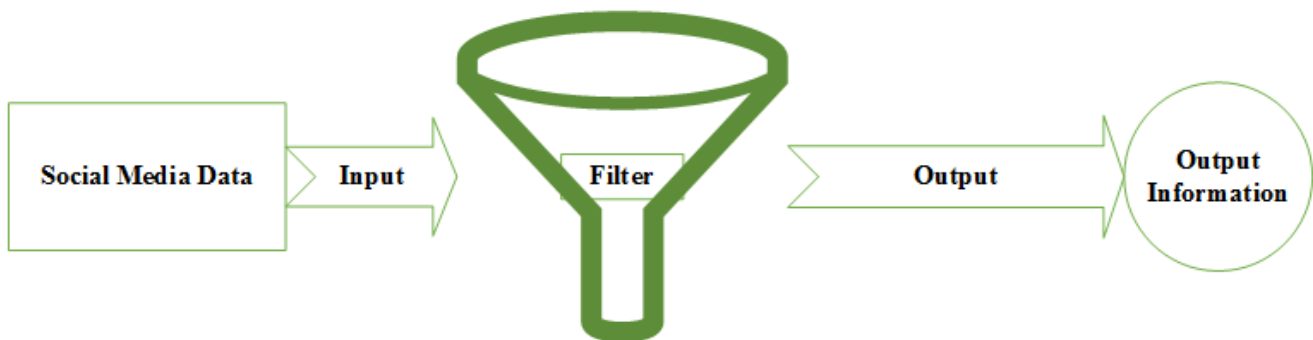
Figure 2. Social Media data process

Even though most Social Media analyses are done in a real time manner, they fail to provide a deeper look into users' sentiment. As researchers, we are missing out on valuable information. To understand the true meaning beyond Hashtag (#) and mentions, we need to further analyze these SM data using other processes.

4.2 Developing Social Media Users' Sentiments Model

Understanding users' sentiment from unstructured Social Media data provides its unique challenges. Some SNS like Twitter only allow 140 characters for a person to express his/her thoughts and sentiments. There are multiple factors involved in outputting useful information to generate a Sentiments Model by using these SM data. Section 3 provides a listing of Natural Language Processing Toolkits. NLP can be used to process users' sentiments.

Figure 3 is showing a recommended input/output Users' Sentiments Model, which can process Social Media data. Once data is filtered, it is sent to the model for further processing. Inside the model, SM data will be processed using NLP and/or some other Text-based processing to understand users' sentiments. Those sentiments will be analyzed, evaluated and processed to get some useful information. Once the information is ready, it will be sent to the output system.
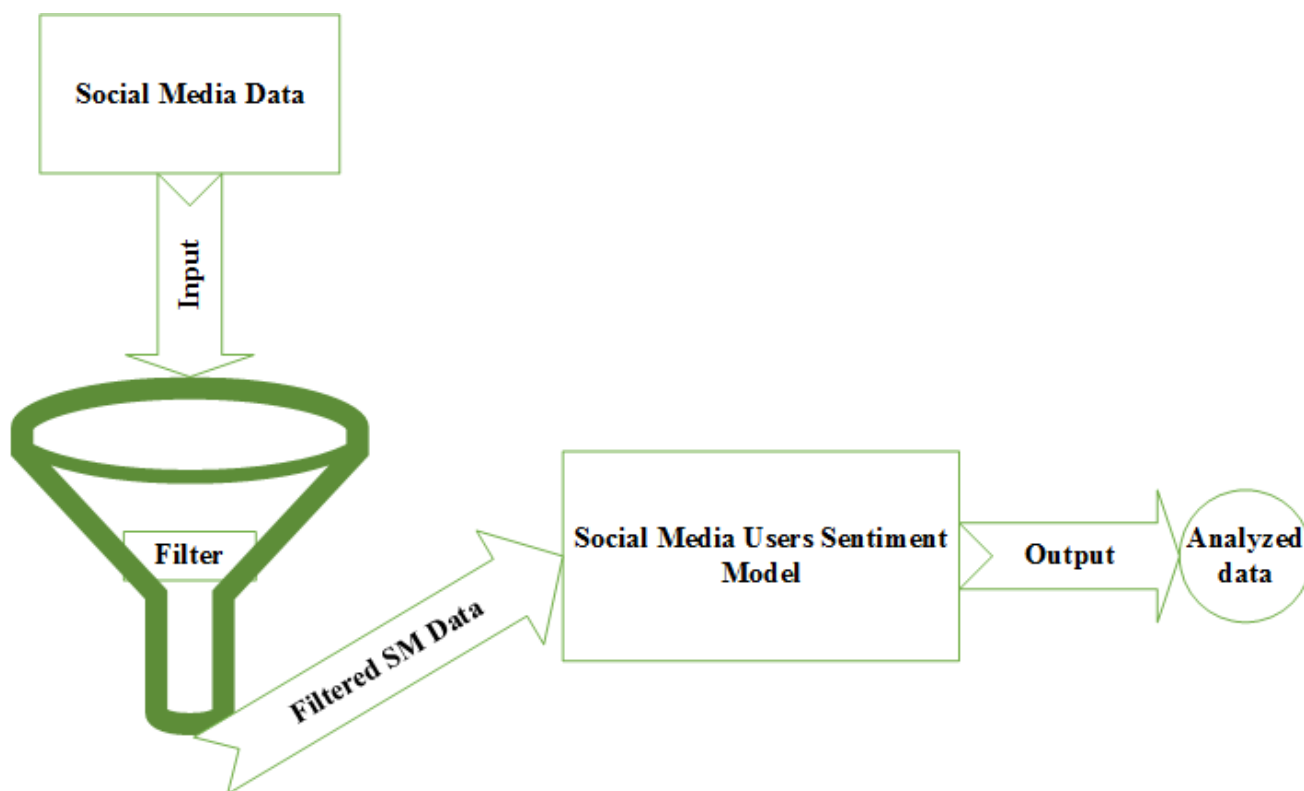
Figure 3. Users' sentiment model

In this model, most of the work is done at the Social Media Users' Sentiment Model stage. Using NLP sentiment analysis is just the first phase of the model development. Even in this initial stage of development of the SM Users Sentiment Model, we see a great potential for a wider variety of uses for interdisciplinary industries.

5. Conclusion

Over the last several years, SNS have been growing rapidly. Businesses have been paying close attention to the growth of the SM boom and the opportunities that this is providing them. This growth is hard to ignore. The active users' participation with and contribution to SNS' data gives researchers like us untapped resources that can be used for finding solutions to complex problems.

Even though understanding a true user sentiment on unstructured data still provides immense challenges, a new way of analyzing SM users' sentiment goes beyond the current state of SM data analysis. It also provides a great opportunity for our research topic.

5. Future works

In future research works, we will extract SM data and develop a Social Media Users' Sentiment Model to process those SM data.

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Evaluation of Lactose in Milk and Dairy Products

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Abstract

Milk is an emulsion containing fat, protein, carbohydrate, vitamins, minerals and water. Lactose is the main carbohydrate presented in milk and dairy products. This sugar is composed by one unit of glucose and one of galactose. Metabolism of lactose depends on enzyme lactase which hydrolyzes this sugar. In some cases, lactase may be absent or an insufficient quantity in human body. Deficiency in lactase production causes numerous symptoms such as diarrhea; abdominal pain and bloating that characterize lactose intolerance. The aim of this work was to evaluate concentration of lactose in milk and dairy products to determine the effect of the processing and to calculate the quantity of each product which can be consumed without symptoms in lactose intolerant. Results obtained show lactose concentration of 4.42% w/v in Milk; 3.5% w/w in Minas cheese; 9.9%w/v in condensed milk and 4.76%w/v in yogurt. Portion innocous ranged from 60 to 170 mL depending on each product.

Keywords: Milk, dairy products, lactose

Introduction

 Milk is an emulsion produced by mammary glands which has white color, mild taste and flavor. It contains water, protein, fat, carbohydrate, minerals and vitamins. Milk is produced by goats and cows, is the most consumed for human people [1,2]. Lactose is practically the unique sugar presented in milk and its concentration ranges from 4.0 to 5.0% v/v [3,4]. Lactose is hydrolyzed producing glucose and galactose by lactase action in the intestine. It is a reductor sugar and can be determined by tritimetric method using Felhing licor (solution of cupric ions in alkaline medium) [5].
 Concentration of lactose can change a lot in dairy products. Yogurt production is done by fermentation of lactose that produces acid lactic and the concentration of lactose decreases compared to initial ingredients. During Minas cheese process, lactose is eliminated in serum depending on pressing improved, so the concentration in the final product is lower too. On the other hand, in condensed milk, the concentration of lactose increases due to water evaporation. [6, 7, 8].
 Milk and dairy products are extensively consumed by humans, however many people have lactose intolerance. This is a syndrome caused by absence or partial reduction of lactase in intestine. Lactose intolerance can be classified as primary, when there is an intrinsic defect on lactase, or secondary when an

injury occurs in intestinal mucosa. The syndrome usually develops in people after age of 5 years old; however it can appear at any age [9].

Reduction or absence of lactase prevents lactose hydrolysis, which cannot be absorbed through intestinal wall. Thus, lactose accumulates in the intestine where it is fermented in lactic acid and gases. Diarrhea, abdominal pain and bloating are the most common symptoms [10]. The treatment of the disease consists in removal of dairy products from the diet. However, reduction or removal of milk and dairy products may affect the absorption of calcium, causing different health problems [11]. Depending on the degree of lactase deficiency, a small amount of lactose can be included on the diet without causing noticeable symptoms [12]. Normally, an amount of 6g of lactose is considered the limit which does not cause symptoms in people with lactose intolerance [13].

Material and methods

Milk, yogurt, condensed milk and Minas cheese were evaluated to determine concentration of lactose. Tritimetric method using Felhing licor (solution containing cupric ions in alkaline medium) was applied to measured lactose in these products. A solution of each product was made using 50 mL (or 50 g) dissolved in 2 mL of acetic acid (2.0% v/v) and distilled water. The mixture was heated for 5 minutes at $80^{\circ}C$, after this, the samples were transferred to volumetric flasks of 200 mL and volume was completed with distilled water. After filtration the solutions obtained were used to react with 20 mL of standard Felhing licor [14].

Results and Discussion

Table 1 – Concentration of lactose in different dairy products

Products	Lactose (% w/v)	Standard deviation (S)	Coefficient of variation (%)	Number of analysis
Milk	4.42	0.06	1.4	10
Yogurt	4.76	0.09	1.9	8
Condensed milk	9.9	0.9	9.1	10
Fresh cheese	3.5*	0.1	2.9	8

* % w/w

Table 1 shows results obtained for concentration of lactose in each product. Lactose was evaluated by tritimetric method using Felhing licor which reacts with reductor sugar. This method is not specific to determine lactose, but in milk and dairy products lactose is practically the unique redactor sugar presents. In tritimetric method coefficient of variation above 1% is expected, however this performance depends on characteristics of samples, conditions of analysis, number of repetition, etc. So, 5% of coefficient of variation is acceptable for the major of analysis [15]. In this work, coefficient of variation was acceptable for all products, except condensed milk. For this dairy product, concentration of lactose was higher and the dilution used was not enough to obtain a great volume during the analysis. The average volume consumed of condensed milk solution was 2.7 mL and just the burette error (0.05 mL) means a variability of 1.9%. For the other products, volume spent was higher and reproducibility was better, above 5%.

Concentration of lactose in milk of (4.42 ± 0.06)% w/v which is very similar to that reported in the literature. In other work, concentration of lactose ranged from 4.28 to 4.61% w/v in different samples of cow milk [16],

however, for other dairy products, results are influenced by the type of process and addition of other ingredients.

In yogurt, lactose is converted in lactic acid during the growth of microorganisms, reducing concentration of this sugar. However, concentration of lactose in this product is not very different compared to fresh milk, because normally milk powder is additioned in formulation to standardize the quantity of solids required in yogurt. Fermentation of sheep and goat milks used 12% w/v of powder milk [17]; in other formulation was added 3% w/v of powder milk in yogurt from cow milk [18]; in other work it was evaluated powder milk in yogurt ranging from 6 to 12% [19]. Therefore, concentration of lactose in yogurt normally ranges from 3.0 to 5.5% [20]. Thus, the result obtained in this work was similar to data reported in the literature and it is according to label that indicates addition of milk powder in formulation.

During condensed milk process occurs evaporation that eliminates water and increases concentration of different compounds including lactose. Lactose concentration in condensed milk depends on the amount of evaporated water and the amount of sucrose added in formulation. So, the result obtained was similar compared to other works [21, 22]. In relation to Minas cheese, it is common a decreasing in lactose concentration, since lactose is removed in serum. However, values of lactose range a lot depending on processing time, type of milk, maturation and other aspects. Concentration of lactose in Minas cheese newly processed ranging from 2.19 to 3.03% w/w [23], but in other work with the same type of cheese produced in Brazil, just 0.55% w/w of lactose was detected in the artisanal cheese [24]. Considering these aspects, results obtained here were according to expectation.

All products evaluated showed concentration of lactose according to processing, raw materials and formulation. From the results obtained it was possible to determine the amount of each dairy product which can be consumed by people with lactose intolerance. The effects of lactose vary from person to person according to lactase levels produced, but the amount of lactose above 6g is indicated to prevent symptoms [13]. The maximum amount that can be consumed of each dairy product evaluated is showed in Table 2.

Table 2 – Estimative of portion of milk and dairy products for lactose intolerance

Product	Lactose (%w/v)	Maximum portion (mL)
Milk	(4,42±0,06)	135
Yogurt	(4,76 ± 0,09)	126
Condensed milk	(9,9 ± 0,9)	60
Minas cheese*	(3,5 ± 0,1)	171

* portion in g

According to table 2, smaller portions of dairy products can be consumed even for lactose intolerant people without clinical symptoms. Minas cheese is the best option due to lower concentration of lactose. However, yogurt can be consumed without significant effects, because microorganisms presented in this product helps to reduce the effects of low lactose absorption, allowing consuming larger portions of this dairy product [13].

Conclusion

Concentrations of lactose obtained in this work were similar to the data reported in the literature and also on the type of processing and ingredients used. The knowledge about concentration of lactose in dairy products is important to determine the amount of these products that can be consumed by lactose intolerant people without health risks. It is important analyzing concentration of lactose because it varies greatly in

different dairy products and in different formulations of the same dairy product. In addition, it is not common to find clear information about lactose content on labels of dairy products and in the literature.

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A THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF *UTENDI WA MWANA KUPONA*: A SWAHILI/ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE

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A THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF *UTENDI WA MWANA KUPONA:* A SWAHILI/ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

This paper has the objective to make a thematic analysis of a classic poem Utendi wa Mwana Kupona using a Swahili/Islamic approach. The poem is believed to have been written by Mwana Kupona binti Mshamu in 1858. The poem is intended to be a motherly advice to her daughter about her religious and marital duties in a Swahili society.

As a background to this paper, it was found out that Swahili culture has been greatly influenced by Islam. Ever since Arab, Persian, Indian and other merchants from Asia and the Middle East visited the East African coast to trade or settle, the Waswahili people embraced Islam. The Islamic religion influenced Swahili culture greatly. One of the more direct influences was the adoption of the Arabic script which the Swahili used to write their poetry and used it for other communication.

The Arabic language had a lot of impact on the Kiswahili language, enriching it with new vocabulary, and especially religious and literary terminology. This is why a majority of the Waswahili are Muslims; hence Islam is an attribute accompanying the definition of 'Mswahili'. A modest estimate would put words borrowed from the Arabic language into the Kiswahili language at between twenty to thirty percent.

The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries saw a rapid development of written Kiswahili literature, especially in verse form. The majority or almost all of the poets of the time were very religious or very knowledgeable about Islam. This is the reason most poems of the time were pervaded by Islamic religious themes or other themes but definitely using an Islamic perspective. Utendi wa Mwana Kupona is one such verse. It is a mother's advice to her daughter about her duties and obligations towards God, and specifically, towards a husband.

KEY WORDS
1. Utendi
2. Mwanakupona
3. Swahili
4. Islam
5. Thematic
6. Verse
7. Culture
8. Analysis
9. Advice
10. Motherly

A THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF <u>*UTENDI WA MWANA KUPONA*</u>: A SWAHILI/ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE

1.0 BACKGROUND

Before the advent of Arabs and Europeans into the East African coast, Swahili society had only orator as its sole form of expression. After it came into contact with such peoples as Arabs, Persians, Indians, etc, external influence started to gradually creep into Swahili culture, ideology and way of life. However, the greatest influence upon Swahili society was the Islamic religion and its worldview. Islam was a consequence of Arab trade migration and eventual settlement on the East African coast even before the sixth century A.D. The Swahili learnt and used Arabic script to write poetry (the oldest written genre), religious instruction and other forms of communication.

Mazrui and Mazrui (1995) argue that the linkage between the Kiswahili language and Islam, gave birth to some of the greatest classical poets who were either very religious themselves or very knowledgeable about Islam. It is no wonder then that this poetry is pervaded by religious themes. Islam has had a tremendous influence and effect upon Swahili culture and to-date, the majority of the Swahili are Muslim hence Islam is an attribute accompanying the Swahili, but not necessarily part of their definition.

Being a language of the Qur'an and very susceptible to Islamic teachings, the Arabic language has enormously enriched this language. This is one reason the early Christian missionaries like Edward Steere in Zanzibar and Dr. J.L. Krapf and J. Rebman in Mombasa, readily used the language to spread Christianity as early as the 1850s. At present, a modest estimate would put words of Arabic derivation or borrowing into the Kiswahili language at between twenty percent (Mazrui and Mazrui, 1995) and thirty percent (Chimera, 1998).

The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries saw a rapid development of Kiswahili literature and especially poetry. A number of poems were written touching on different subjects but almost all using an Islamic perspective in their thematic assertions. Some of the earliest verses composed are *Utenzi wa Tambuka* (The Poem of Tabuk), Hamziyya (The Hamziyya), Utenzi wa Ngamia na Paa (The poem of camel and gazelle), Utenzi wa Ayubu (The poem of Ayub), Utenzi wa Shufaka (The poem of compassion), Utenzi wa Masahibu (The epic of tribulations) and *Utenzi wa* Miqdad *na* Mayasa (The poem of Miqdad and Mayasa).

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Utendi wa Mwanakupona was composed by *Mwana Kupona binti Mshamu* for her daughter *Mwana Hashima binti* Sheikh around 1858. The poem was intended to be a mother's advice to her daughter. It is evident the mother had been ailing for a while and hence decided to exhort her daughter (as religion and tradition directed), in her marital life and specifically on her duties towards God (Allah), the Holy Prophet Muhammad (*Mtume*), her husband (*mume*) and other members of the society.

This paper has as its objective, to make a thematic analysis of the composition using a Swahili/Islamic perspective. The issues expressed in the verse, relate directly to Swahili culture and society, and the teachings of Islam. The poetess intended the Swahili people to be her immediate audience. As such, it is hoped that this poem would be understood better from this perspective.

3.0 ANALYSIS

Utendi wa Mwana Kupona comprises of 102 stanzas. Though lacking in literary and aesthetic appeal, it has been read in Swahili households and especially by young maidens about to get married for a long time. The poem is divided into a number of parts, each one discussing a specific issue.

3.1.0 Religious obligations

Part one of the poem is the introduction where the poetess calls out to her daughter to come sit close to her for she wished to narrate, *kukwambia* (to tell you) a story to her. The wording of the third stanza attests to the close affinity between oral and written literature otherwise referred to as the oral/written interface. This formulaic introduction was and still is a feature of Swahili/Islamic poetry and even modern Kiswahili prosodic verses. This aspect also impresses upon the intertextual links between poems composed in the Swahili cultural and regional contexts. Stanza 3 reads;

> *Moyoni nina hadithi*
> *Nimependa kukwambia*
>
> In my heart I have a story
> I wish to narrate to you.

Stanzas 4-11 express the poetess's objectives as well as offering prayers to Allah (God) and salutations to the *Mtume* (Prophet). It is worth mentioning that in the sixth stanza, the poetess reiterates the Islamic view of the temporal nature of human existence and the human beings failings/weaknesses.

> *Mwanadamu si kitu*
> *Na ulimwengu si wetu*
> *Walau hakuna mtu*
> *Ambao atasalia* (stz. 6)
>
>
> The human being is nothing
> And the world is not ours
> And there is no one
> Who will remain (eternally)

This theme was and still is popular with Swahili/Islamic poets (Knappert, 1967). An instance is Ali Nassir's *Al-Inkishafi* where the poet expresses it thus,

> *Suu ulimwengu uutakao*
> *Emale ni lipi upendeyao?*
> *Hauna dawamu hudumu nao*
> *Ukimilikishwa wautendaye?*
>
> The world you so crave for
> What good in it attracts you?
> It will not last, neither you with it
> What would you do with it were it given to you?

This view is derived from the Qur'anic verse that states;

> Nothing is the life of this world but play and
> amusement. But best is the Home in the
> Hereafter, for those who are righteous will ye not
> then understand? (Al-An'am, 6:32).

In the 8th, 9th and 10th stanzas there are instances where the poetess uses metaphorical language to foreground and impress upon the daughter, the import of her message to her. In stanza 8, she says *twaa nikupe hirizi* (take this here amulet) while in stanza 9, she refers to it as *kidani cha lulu na marijani* (a pearl and red coral necklace). The two-the priceless amulet and necklace, are meant to guide and protect the daughter through her life's journey.

Stanza 12 lays the basis of Islamic faith and ideology. The poetess impresses upon the daughter to adhere to and understand the basic tenets of a muslim's faith. These are explained by the mention of some basic concepts of the religion of Islam. Foremost, she is to uphold the religion and the pillars upon which faith is constructed. The stanza reads,

> *La kwanda kamata dini*
> *Faradhi usiikhini*
> *Na sunna ikimkini*
> *Ni wajibu kuitia (*stz 11*)*

> Foremost, hold steadfast onto religion
> Obligation do not ignore
> And if necessity uphold tradition
> It must be included.

Qur'an says;

> There is no god but He; that is the
> witness of Allah, His Angels and
> those endued with knowledge,
> standing firm on justice. There is
> no god but He the Exalted in Power,
> the Wise (Al-Imran, 3:18).

The Holy Prophet has said that a person who loves my Sunnah (tradition) loves me, and will be with me in paradise (Tirmidhi).

This stanza is the basis upon which Islamic faith and ideology is based. First, is the pronouncement of the *shahada* (oneness of God) and belief in the *Nabii* (prophet) followed by performance of the *wajibat* (obligatory) acts which are referred to as <u>faradhi.</u> The acts proposed and practiced by the Prophet in his lifetime (*sunna*) would earn an individual <u>*thawab*</u> (blessings). The daughter is impressed upon to cultivate a good character and be truthful in order to gain the confidence and goodwill of fellow members of society.

The second most important piece of advice the poetess gives her daughter is the cultivation of character. She admonishes,

Pili uwe na adabu
Na ulimi wa thawabu
Uwe mtu mahabubu
Kula utakapongia (stz. 13)

Secondly, observe noble character
And speak only about good
You will become a loved person
Wherever you go

Truthfulness, is a trait the poetess impresses, would give all members of society faith in her; she would be loved. Stanza 14 exhorts the daughter to be truthful in these words,

La tatu uwe sadiqi
Wambiwao ulithiqi
Mtu asoshika haqi
Sandamane naye ndia (stz. 14)

Thirdly be truthful
believe whatever you are told
an unjust person
should not be your friend

It cannot be overemphasized that the truth, sets one free. And that is the mother's message to her daughter. She is asked to be conscientious, to weigh out matters, and to avoid the company of the unjust. In stanza 15, the poetess advises her daughter to humble herself before those in authority over her. Her words are,

Tena mwanangu idhili
Mbee za maqabaili
Uwaonapo mahali
Angusa kuwenukia (stz. 15)

My daughter humble yourself
Before those in authority
Whenever you should meet with them
Hasten thee to show respect.

The use of the word 'maqabaili' (those in authority) in this stanza has raised a lot of controversy since it has been interpreted variously by scholars and critics of different schools of thought. Mulokozi (1982), is of the view that the stanza portrays woman as a faithful serf to her lord with no feelings of her own. Ndungo (1985), is more acrimonious in her view not only of this stanza but the poem in its totality. She asserts that in certain Islamic sects (no mention of any sect is made) do not advocate for the education of women; that women are only taught to be good wives to their *mabwana* (lords/husbands). These two scholars belong to the socialist realist school of thought – they have used an approach that is more useful in analyzing historical, economic and labour relations, other than religious doctrine. Suffice to say that the word 'maqabaili' has been interpreted out of context; this paper would wish to adopt the meaning of 'leaders' in line with the qur'anic verse that expresses this view:

> O ye who believe! Obey Allah and
> Obey the messenger, and those charged
> With authority among you… He who obeys
> the messenger, obeys Allah: But if any turn
> away, we have not sent thee to watch over them.

> (Annisaa, 4: 59)

Stanzas 17-21 admonish and guide the daughter towards cultivating an impeccable personality. She is advised to keep good company, to be in good relations, not to be suspicious or involve herself in matters of no concern to her (*situkue dhana kwa mambo usoyaona*) (stz. 19) (Do not judge matters of which you know nothing about), *sandamane na wainga* (do not befriend fools) or *wasoyua kuitunga* (those who know not proper etiquette), *ziumbe wasio tanga* (persons who not know what path to pursue (stanza 21). All this is meant to guide the young maiden into growing up to be an upright, intelligent, faithful and religious person – acceptable before her creator Allah (God) and fellow human beings.

3.1.1 **A wife's obligations and duties**

Obligations of a wife and duties are expressed in stanzas 23 to 26. Since each and every mother (or parent) would only wish what is best to their children, the poetess uses parabolism to impress to her daughter the imperatives to becoming a good wife. Foremost, stanza 23 exhorts her thus,

> *Nda Mungu na mtumewe*
> *baba mama muyawe*
> *na ya tano nda mumewe*
> *mno imekaririwa.*

> First, God and His prophet
> Father and mother know this well
> and fifth is your husband
> it has been reiterated.

We have already discussed the issues or concepts of God and His prophet. After the declaration of the faith (*shahada*) a Muslim is obligated to be kind to parents and treat them with love, humility and hold them in high esteem. This is because; one is because of their parents. The Holy Quran says,

> Thy Lord has decreed
> That ye worship none but Him
> And that ye be kind to parents.
> Whether one or both of them
> attain old age in thy life,
> Say not to them a word of
> contempt, nor repel them
> but address them
> in terms of honour
> (Bani Israil, 17:23)

In line with the above Qur'anic teachings, the poetess (parents) as mentioned earlier, uses parabolism to impress upon her daughter the status of a husband in this life and the hereafter. She says,

> *Siku ufufuliwao*
> *nadhari ni ya mumeo*
> *taulizwa atakao*
> *ndilo takalotendewa* (stz. 26)
> *kipenda wende peponi*
> *utakwenda dalhini*
> *kinena wende motoni*
> *huna budi utatiwa* (stz.27)

> When you are resurrected, with
> your husband will be the decision.
> He will be asked what he wishes
> that is what will be done.

> If he wishes for you to enter paradise
> Therein you will be blissfully
> If he says you go to hell
> be sure it will be fulfilled

Islam does not expressly declare this, for it will be against Allah's (God's) important attribute of being the Just, standing in justice over all of His creation. This is figurative language – language using parabolism. Being a caring mother's way of impressing upon the daughter to fulfill both her religious and wifely duties to the best of her ability i.e. in Islam both worldly and religious affairs are complimentary – one strengthening and turning tenet and concept into action. One's good deeds in this life, are compensated by Allah's grace and a place in peponi (paradise). The Quran says the following about deeds (good or bad) and how they are compensated for,

> If ye did well, ye did for
> yourselves; if ye did evil
> (ye did it) against yourselves
> (Al-Isra, 17:7)

> Whoever works righteousness,
> man or woman and has Faith, verily,
> to him will We give a life
> that is good and pure, and We
> will bestow on such their reward
> according to the best of their
> actions (An-Nahl, 16:97).

Stanzas 28 to 50 enumerate a Muslim couples relationship though the husband's obligations, duties and functions are not mentioned by the poetess. However, it can be deduced that good, bogets good and that a

husbands roles and duties are to be referred in this context. It is to be understood that a husband should reciprocate a wife's performance of her duties in the sacred union. The Quran enjoins that,

> Is there any reward for
> Good other than good?
> (Ar-Rahman, 55-60)

The above verse, would surely provide the husband with the awareness of his duty towards his Creator and his wife. The realities of the next life (hereafter) are hoped to be enough for him to be accountable for each and every of his actions – seen or unseen, of commission or omission. Briefly, a man's duties are expressed thus in the Quran,

> Men are the protectors
> And maintainers of women,
> Because God has given
> The one more (strength)
> Than the other and because
> They support them
> From their means
> (An – Nisaa, 4:34).

Being the protector and supporter of women, Islam teaches husbands to strive to be faithful to their wives, to support them spiritually and materially, to enforce Allah's commands, to work for their wives and family, to offer guidance in both worldly and spiritual matters, to cook for them, wash for them (or provide a servant in lieu of); in totality, to provide spiritual and material comfort to the best of their ability. The Qur'an is explicit on this complimentary role of the ideal muslim couple. It reiterates,

> The believers, men and women are
> Protectors, one of another, they enjoin
> What is just and forbid what is evil:
> they observe regular prayers,
> Pay zakat and obey Allah and His
> Messenger. On them will Allah pour
> His Mercy: For Allah is Exalted in
> Power, Wise.
> (At – Tauba, 9:71)

The poetess goes out of her way to insist her daughter cultivates faith in God and her spouse, to be generous to him and avoid acts that would result into misunderstandings and harmful conflict. She is advised to bid her husband farewell whenever he leaves home for work, welcome him back home warmly and make the home a conducive place to live in. In total, it is a wife's duty (as indeed it is the husband's) and obligation, to make each other feel loved, wanted and respected. This is expected to be reciprocated by the husband whose kindness is reiterated by Prophet Muhammad in these words,

> Kindness to the members of the
> family is an act of worship
> as when one puts a piece of
> food in his spouse's mouth (Bukhari).

This is why the poetess uses the word *kijana* (young child), metaphorically to reiteratethe level of kindness expected between a couple. However, the use of this word in stanza 35 has raised a lot of debate and controversy. For instance, Khatib (1985), views Mwanakupona's verse as poisonous advice that puts the human being's development into retrogression and specifically for enslaving woman.

Senkoro (1988), critiques the poem by saying it portrays a stereotypical image of woman as an ornament. This is the image, status and identity of woman in the feudal system that existed in Swahili society in the 19th century before the advent of European colonialism. This critique is faulty bearing in mind the critic did not put into consideration the ideology behind the poem, the setting or context and the objective – which is essentially a mother's advice to her daughter about her future relations and especially, on her religious and wifely duties.

Stanzas 37 to 42, impresses upon the daughter to observe hygiene and, personal cleanliness and adornment for the sake of self and spouse (husband). She is exhorted her *kupea na kuosha choo* (stz. 37) (to sweep and wash the toilet) and *kowa na kuisinga* (stz.38) (wash and groom yourself) *ukae kama arusi* (stz. 39) (be beautiful and appealing as a bride),*nyumba yako inadhifu na mumeo umsharifu* (stz.42), (clean your house and respect and hold your husband in high esteem). All this is in line with human logic, African tradition and Islamic teachings. The Holy Prophet is reported by Bukhari to have said,

> Islam is a clean religion,
> so cleanse yourselves
> physically and spiritually for
> only the clean will find abode in
> paradise

The theme of woman's freedom is handled in stanza 44. The poetess impresses upon her daughter to observe chastity and to seek permission whenever she wanted to leave her marital home. This is in line with Islamic teachings. Furthermore she is admonished to dress in a manner that would preserve her chastity and guard against people disrespecting her. This is the reason she is advised,

> *wala sinene indiani*
> *sifunue shiraani*
> *mato angalia tini*
> *na uso utie haya* (stz. 46)
>
> observe silence on your way
> uncover yourself not
> lower your gaze
> and shyness in your eyes

The Holy Qur'an has the following to say about a muslim woman's dressing code in order to preserve her integrity and chastity,

> And say to the believing women
> that they should lower their
> gaze and guard their modesty;
> that they should not display
> their beauty and ornaments
> except what (must ordinarily)
> appear thereof; that they
> should draw their veils over
> their bosoms and not display
> their beauty except to their
> husbands, their fathers, their
> husbands' fathers, their
> husband's sons, their brothers
> or their brother's sons or
> their sister's sons, or
> other women or the slaves
> whom their right hands
> possess, or male servants
> free of physical needs, or
> small children who have
> no sense of the shame
> sex; and that they
> should not strike their feet
> in order to draw attention
> to their hidden ornaments
> And o ye Believers
> Turn ye all together towards
> God, that ye may
> attain bliss.

In the same vein , the Qur'an admonishes muslim men to guard their chastity, their honour and their faith by guiding them thus,

> Say to believing men that they
> should lower their gaze and guard
> their modesty; that will make for
> greater purity for them: and God
> is well acquainted with all that
> they do.

3.1.2 Relations with Others and Prayers

Foremost, in stanzas 52-55, the poetess recollects her life with her late husband. It is revealing that whatever it is she is telling her daughter, is part of Swahili culture and tradition – compounded with

Islamic teachings – and passed on from generation to generation, mother to daughter, father to son. Above all else, it is a parent's (mother's) experience, adherence and faith talking here. She recollects,

> *Alinioa babako*
> *Kwa furaha na ziteko*
> *Tusondoleane mbeko*
> *Siku zote twalokaa* (stz .52)

> I was married to your father
> in laughter and happiness
> Never did we put each other to shame
> all the years we lived together.

After stanza 55, the poetess invokes and seeks Allah's guidance, blessings, forgiveness for herself, other people and a cure for her illness. This is in true Swahili (African and Islamic spirit – she is being mindful of other people's welfare and well-being despite being unwell herself. In stanza 94, Mwanakupona reiterates the guiding principles of her verse – that is a priceless gem and guiding light for the continued guidance of young women about to wed or who are recently married. She says,

> *Someni nyute huramu*
> *Mutii waume wenu*
> *Musipatwe na zitunu*
> *Za akhera na dunia* (stz. 94).

> Read O ye maidens
> Respect your husbands so
> You may evade suffering
> Of the hereafter and present (life)

4.0 Summary and Conclusion

This paper had its objective an analysis of themes in *Utendi wa Mwanakupona*. The poem fuses Swahili culture with Islamic ideology in its thematic assertions. This is as a result of the age long association and close relationship the Swahili people have had with Islam, brought to them by Arab merchants and migrants on the East African coast centuries ago. The poem has intertextual links with other verses of the period like the use of formulae, Islamic viewpoint and the graduation of verses into about three parts – the introduction (prayers), the message and conclusion (summary and prayers).

It was found out that the verse uses a Swahili/Islamic viewpoint to divulge a wife's duties and obligations toward the creator, the Holy Prophet, the parents, the husband and fellow human beings. Though the husband's duties and obligations in marriage are not discussed, we saw it prudent to quote Qur'anic verses and traditions of the Holy Prophet mentioning them so that the scholars, and critics who are of the view that the poem put woman into servitude, understand the import of the poetess's message given the setting, the ideology and time of this composition.

The poem is a summation of the traditions and religious teachings every Swahili mother (and father) would happily and dutifully impart to their daughters (and sons). Being a central human institution and the cradle of human perpetuation, marriage has to be nurtured and upheld by imparting only the best of cultural traits and religious teaching for its sustenance. This is the reason the poetess metaphorically refers to her composition as a *hirizi* (amulet) and *kidani* (precious necklace) for the continued guidance of young maidens (and young men) just about to be married (or wed).

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CONFLICT AS AN ORGANIZATION'S ELEMENT OF ADJUSTMENT

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ABSTRACT

Many organizations today are engrossed with many problems amounted from human interaction, interrelationship and interdependence among its members. The nature and environment of work largely determine the intensity and extensiveness of the interaction, interrelationship and interdependence of each person or group of persons within each of the organization. Conflict, is an important concept in adjustment because it makes threat or frustration inevitable precisely the action designed to satisfy one goal necessarily threaten or frustrate the other. Conflict may be problematic to the success of an organization but it could also be instrumental to, evoking a new culture that will be more enduring, give opportunity for cooperation, resource discovery, conducive working environment, and attainment of the corporate goals of the organization (Ayodele, 2002). There is no completely satisfactory solution to conflict as long as the individual remains committed to both goals. Since conflict is a universal problem, how it is handled is of the utmost importance. This study attempts to examine the dimension of conflict resolution in the contemporary world of work.

INTRODUCTION

It has been rightly observed that all activity within an organization are initiated, determined and controlled by the persons who make up the organization. And it is a truism that where more than one person come together for the purpose of pursuing or actualizing a set goal, there is bound to be inter and intra-personal relationship among such people before set objective can be achieved (Ogunyemi, 2004).

Also, the greater the inter-personal interactions, the more a person becomes more exposed to increasing number of conflicts, and the more he acquires and perfect the social skill of handling such conflicts. Inherent is conflict. Whenever and wherever human beings' interact for the purpose of achieving a goal there is bound to be some degree of misunderstanding simply because people do not view things the same way. It is just human nature to have different point of view on issues. Thus, many organizations

today are engrossed with many problems amounted from human interaction, interrelationship and interdependence among its members. It should be noted, therefore that the nature and environment of work largely determine the intensity and extensiveness of the interaction, interrelationship and interdependence of each person or group of persons within each of the organization. Therefore, to what extent would the organization, group of persons or individual be able to (i) identify the sources of conflict, (ii) identify negative conflict and (iii) develop a conflict resolution techniques or skills to adequately reach or achieve the organizational goals. Organizations are dominants components of contemporary society. They surrounded us, we are born into them and usually die in them. Our life space in between is filled with them. Organizations are important elements which make up the social web of modern societies. Most citizens of modern societies are born in hospital, educated in a school, work in one organization or the other, and to the degree that they participate in religious and political activities, these too frequently take place in organizations (Amitai Etzioni, 1969). Modern man can be said to be robed with organizations it is therefore important to understand the basic concern of organization if one will appreciate the modern man and the society in which he lives. We need organization to get things done, for they do things that individual cannot do by themselves. For instance, when the amount of mental energy needed to accomplish a certain task requires more than one individual to make available single-handedly, organization then come up to be the only arrangement to get there tasks done.

Organization Conceptualized?

Organization has been variously defined and described by various scholars on their various perspectives. According to Amitai Etzzioni (1969) and Scott (1964) defined organization to be social units (or human grouping) deliberated constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals. To Scott, Organizations are defined as relatively specific objectives on a more or less continuous basis.

Also Chester Barnard (1998) defined organization as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons. To him, activities are accomplished through conscious, deliberate and purposeful communication, as willingness on the part of members to contribute and a common purpose. Edgar Shein (1970) Also defined an organizations as the rational co-ordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goals, through division of labour and junction and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility.

According to Gibson et al, organizations are as devices for pooling and harnessing talent and ability together into an effective whole that can achieve for them some desired objectives. All these definitions have contributed one thing or the other to the understanding of what the subject matter, organizations is. They are all the view that, an organizations is the grouping together of individuals to accomplish goals that they can not achieve alone.From my own understanding, organization is a group of people whose activities are consciously coordinated towards a common objectives. Looking at this definition, an entity needs to meet with these two requirements to be considered as an organization.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN ORGANIZATION
Besides being purposeful group with a set of interrelated objectives, organizations
share a number of characteristics.
i) **Purpose or objective or goal**: This provides a rallying point for all activities of its
　　　members. Apart from serving as common bond for unification of an organization

resources to achieve result, goals are means for measuring an organization performance.

ii) **Task of activity**: Every organization carries out a major task of one kind or another that relates to and is directed towards the realization of its mission or objective.

iii) **Resources**: Every organization is involved in transforming resources to achieve results. The major resources used by an organization are people (human resources), capital, materials, technology and information.

iv) **Dependence on environment**: One of the most significant characteristics of an organization is its relationship with outside environment. No organization is an island unto itself. Organizations are totally dependent on the outside world (external environment) both for the resources they need and for customers that would consume the result they desire to attain which goods and services.

v) **Sub-units**: Complex organizations form sub units, responsible for specific objective and tasks. These sub units and tasks are called division or departments. Sub units are division departments groups of people whose activities consciously coordinated towards common objectives.

Having known what organization is through the definitions and characteristics, it is very important to note that, during the process of managing an organization, that is, the coordination and directing of both the human and materials resources, and while attempting to implement the policy the parties involves.

Conflict is part of organizational life and they may occur within the individual, between individuals, between the individual and groups and between groups. While conflict is generally perceived as dysfunctional, it can also be different perspectives. One top executive of a major company maintained that if there was no conflict on issue, it could not have been sufficiently analyzed, and the final decision on the issues was usually postponed until all aspects were critically evaluated.

CONFLICT CONCEPTUALIZED?

Ordinarily, conflict could be seen as a struggle, a battle, and mutual antagonism. Some people seem to thrive on creating conflict while others will do their best to avoid conflict basically; there are different perceptions to the definition or the ways in which conflict is viewed. Some viewed or defined conflict in term of behavior, interest, values, ideology and emotional commitment that may not be rational and substantive to define when the conflicts are broker. Wagner III and Hollenbeck (1995) corroborate the above assertion by saying conflict exist when "there are differences between personal values and role expectation". This view was equally shared by Thompson (1997) who says unfortunately at the heart of many organization conflicts are differences concerning values, beliefs and interest" Essentially, the causes or sources of conflict are those set of differences that may exist among individuals or group in their bid to ensure a better working condition, correcting an unfavorable organization policy or on the other hand when the management wants to ensure they make maximum use of human resources available not minding the workers hopes and aspirations.

According to Thompson (1997) the following are the source or cause of organizational conflict: Interpersonal differences, differences in values and believes and differences in interest Charles and Garch (1992) also concluded, by highlighting the following as the main sources of conflict in an organization, differentiation, task relationships and scarcity of resources. Vayrynen (1991) in his own views argued the organization conflict has its which active roots incompatible value and ideologies which have been

resistant to resolution but may be transferred in other to make their outcome less destructive. Conflict may be problematic to the success of an organization but it could also be instrumental to, evoking a new culture that will be more enduring, give opportunity for cooperation, resource discovery, conducive working environment, and attainment of self set goals and enlistment of the organization (Ayodele, 2002)

The above position is supported by Alani (1991) who stated that. Organization conflict is not always dangerous to the achievement of organization objectives or goal due to the fact that it provides functions consequence on the organizations in the sense that a new leader may emerge or old goals may be restated which may be more . beneficial to the organization. Gannon (1990), though, supported the fact that conflict could be beneficiary, he also gives some caution according to him "conflict in organization is healthy because of the fact that it indicate that the individual and groups are vibrant". However, he went on to say that "An excessive amount of conflict distractive, destructive, and may prevent the attainment of the goals of the organization/prevent it.   According to Pettinger (1999) in his own View on effect of conflict on the "organizational conflict is higher desirable and constructive because it energizes relationship but it might neither or die if one was ever able to eliminate conflict". The argued further that not all organizational conflict is constructive, some are destructive and one must endeavor to eliminate them. The solution of conflict in an organization may not be a serious task as educating the organizations on the inheritability of conflict, re- orientating them to know that, a conflict is easier eliminated or resolved when embraced positively and that, it takes a great deal of patient to identify the route of conflict and that, it conflict can only be eliminated or resolved totality by attacking it from the source. A conflict must not be avoided. This is in support of Alani (1991) who disagree with the position of the traditional conflict theorist that says, "Conflict should be avoided in order to protect the individuals and the organization. Conflict is a situation of disagreement between two parties. A conflict situation is therefore one that is characterized the inability of those concerned to settle out their difference.

Concept of industry involves an exchange relationship between the major actors; employers and employees as well as the state. Industrial conflict must therefore be defined as inability of these parties either between employer and employee or within their group to reach an agreement on any issues connected with the objective of employer-employee.

LEVELS OF CONFLICT

Conflict is a state in which two parties are in opposition to each other. Behaviour may be planned and formal, or unplanned or spontaneous. T may be verbal or physical, ranging from passive resistance to active aggression. Conflictual behaviour includes directs interference with and resistance of the action of one party by another as well as expression of negative attitudes.

Conflict may be interpersonal or inter-group, interpersonal conflict may be between a superior and his subordinate or between the individuals at the same level of the organizational hierarchy. Inter-group conflict may arise between two trade unions, between two departments or between management and workers while attempting to implement the policies and programme of their organization.

- ❖ Intra-personal conflict: conflict within the individual, arising from uncertainty about organization expectations; or the situation where work conflict with other demands personal to the individual.
- ❖ Inter-personal conflict: conflict between individuals usually caused by personality difference e.g. conflict between the manager and the subordinates.

❖ Intra-group conflict: conflict between individuals and group arising from the methods adopted by an individuals to the group norms e.g. conflict within the trade union members, conflict within the junior staffs e.t.c.

❖ Inter-group conflict: this is the conflict that occurs between group in the same organization arising from series of factors such as role conflict, power struggle etc, for example, line and staff conflict, labour management conflict e.t.c.

❖ Inter organization conflict: conflict between organizations usually caused by economic factors: innovations, price war, market share conflict e.t.c.

CAUSES OF CONFLICT

The following are the various causes or sources of conflict in an organization:

i)   Communication service: this refers to those disputes arising from semantic difficulties, misunderstanding and noise in communication channels/. Research have demonstrated that semantic difficulties arises as a result of training, selective perception and inadequate information of the activities of other units within the organization of the activities of other units within the organization. Similarly, research also suggests that ambiguity and uncertainty all stimulate misunderstanding which can lead to organizational conflict.

ii)   Structural source of conflict: this refers to those disputes arising from a number of structural variables which have been identified as sources of conflict in organization. In particular, size and increasing sixe and specialization have found to lead to conflict. Although less style of supervision environment does not necessary exclude conflict entirely. Similarly, conflict is frequently present where different reward systems are provided for two or more groups and especially where one group gains at another. Conflict also results when the power held by one group is views as excessive by a group is less powerful.

iii)   Personal source of conflict: this source of conflict emphasizes the human aspect of organization. A considerable body of literature indicates that certain personality attributes including high authoritarianism, high dogmatism and low self esteem, are important source of conflict. In addition, empirical evidence suggests that conflict also stems from where dissatisfaction with roles requirement and incongruence in status hierarchy.

iv)   Growth and complexity of organization: this create social distance and reduces communication and interaction between organization members. It leads to wrong enactment or perceptions situations and issues between one department and another.

v)   Competition for resources: interpersonal and inter-group conflicts often occur where two parties compete for resources. The resources which include money, materials, power, prestige, position and status are generally valued by organization members and the competition to obtain them usually evokes a vigorous exercise of power and intense display of emotion. Such conflicts frequently manifest themselves between individuals who have diverse personalities and predispositions and are vying for positions and personal power and prestige. These type of conflict

vi)   also occur between functional departments between workers union and management.

vii) Competition for territory: according to Rush Brookes and Glover (1983) the word territory in the context of organization means the rights, duties and jurisdiction of any job holder and the privileged and practices which may be evolved over time. Conflicts arising from territory can be a result of territorial violation, or inter-territorial jealousy or over crowding.

viii) Orientation towards and conflicting external norms and rules: the conflicts and pressure in the ecosystem may be carried over into an organization. Many organizations have several publics-in-contact. For example, business relate directly to customers, to suppliers of various materials, to government agencies, to unions and to other groups. The internal organization of such concern frequently reflects these basic divisions. Thus, an enterprise will have a sales department, a purchasing department, a labour relation department etc. some of the internal organization conflict which develops between department result from their strtuctural differences and diverse orientation towards different public. Conflicts occur between various department because they deals with different pressure from diverse outside groups. In other words, many conflicts between departments in an organization are subjected to a member of constraints external to the conflicting departments themselves. For example, if the law requires one department to do one thing and another department is making it, conflict may arise because of incompatible needs or preferences regarding some action.

STAGES OF CONFLICT

Conflicts by its nature's changes over time whenever group cannot accomplish its set goal or complete a task, the group's member experience frustration. Then those involved may perceive that conflict issue exists and formulation and consider multiple points of view (POV) to gain a better understanding of the conflict issue. Those affected respond, resolving the conflict or many ignite more conflict. There is therefore the need to diagnose the nature of the conflict by considering it is a sequence of conflict episodes. Researches have shown that regardless of the level of conflict, there can be a progression of conflict in a dynamic process. The dynamic process of conflict suggests that conflict develops gradually; various antecedents would cause some of which may not be noticed early or initially by parties. When conflict begins, the people concerned that conflict manifestation is through a process. For any manger who is willing to
understand the dynamics of conflict, and its management, it is important to know the process.

CONSEQUENCES OF CONFLICT IN ORGANIZATION

The following are consequence of conflict in an organization;

1) Organizational conflicts divert attentions from organizational goals attainments and create resentment and anxiety among members which make the organization unable to function properly.
2) Organizational conflict usually causes delays in organizational action and reduces efficiency and co-ordination.

3) Conflicts in an organization can erode and destroy the basis for co-operation and team work among organization members.

4) Recruitment and persistent conflicts can cause a feeling of alienation, a loss of moral and other forms of discontent which make individual to withdrawal completely from the organization.

All the above are destructive consequences of conflict. But, there are others positive consequences of organizational conflict which are as follows:

I)   Better / good decision making in an organization through organizational conflict, the parties involve can come together and make a better through effective bargaining and eventually reach a better agreement.

II)   Strike which is one of the consequences of organizational conflict if well managed, usually improve the standard of living of the workers

III)   Organizational conflict usually gives the worker the sense of belonging in the decision making of an organizational.

IV)   Organizational conflict improves understanding among the parties in an organization.

MANAGEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

The approaches to conflict management are varied as it causes sources and context. Conflicts cannot be eliminated, but it could be minimized to reduce its negative impact on the well-being of the organization.

Organizational conflict could be managed through the following means:

i)   Competition: when one party seeks to achieve certain goals or further personal interest, regardless of the impact on the parties to the conflict, he or she competes and dominates. These win-lose struggles, in formal groups or in an organization, frequently utilized the formal authority of mutual superior as the dominant force, and the conflicting parties will use his or her own power based in order to resolve a victory in his or her favour

ii)   Collaboration: when each of the parties in conflict desires to satisfy fully the concern of all parties. We have cooperation and the search for a mutually beneficial outcome. In collaboration, the behaviour of the parties is aimed at solving the problem and at clarifying the different rather than accommodating various points of view. The participant consider the full range of alternatives, the similarities and differences in view point become more cleared focused, and the causes or differences become outwardly evident. Because the solution sought in advantageous to all panics, collaboration is often thought of as win-win approach to resolving conflict.

iii)   Compromise: when each party to the conflict must give something, sharing occurs, resulting in a compromised outcome. In compromising, there is no clear winner or looser. Rather, there is rationing of the object of the conflict or where the object is not divisible. One rewards the other by yielding something of substitute value. The requirement the each party gives up something. In negotiations between union and management compromise is required in order to reach a settlement and agree upon a labour contract.

iv)   Accommodation: when the parties seeks to appeals the opponents, they may be willing to place their opponents' interest above their own, in order to maintain the

relationship, one party is willing to be self-sacrificing. This is what is referred as accommodation.

v)   The use of formal rules and agreed procedures: this can be used to resolve recruitment superior subordinate conflicts and to settle continued disciplinary matters and grievances.

vi)   Collectives bargaining: this is a method of fixing wages and conditions of services after a due process of negotiation between the representatives of the management and the organized workers' union and settling disputes. It is the method whereby management and labour come together to negotiate and reach agreement over procedural rules and substantive issues of industrial relations. Because of the relatively equal strength of both sides, the method of reaching decisions is usually that of compromise. The process is collective because it replace individual workers feeble attempt to usually gain improvement for himself with the pooled experience and strength through a single union that is backed by collective strength, it is bargaining because it is adapted in practical solutions, and because their is a constant process of give and take. Thus, the knowledge of management supplement that of workers, each side yielding here and gaining there

vii)   Arbitration by a third party: this is used when the division between the warring faction is intensed that open confrontation can not be used because the faction are not ready to come together for a round table conference. The faction have taken definite positions and their decisions are very fundamental. The arbitration approached is then used to break the deadlock. The arbitrator,who acts at the requests of an chosen by both parties in conflicts examine the facts and make a decision to settle the conflict. Although this approach may not eliminate the causes of the conflict,it could prevent its escalation and minimize its negative effects. A major weakness of this approach is that the 'solution' arrived at by the arbitrator alienate one of the parties in conflict because the arbitrator act as a judge.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDATION

Conflict is an inevitable factor in any human organization. As long as human being, interact with one another conflict is inevitable because we always run into others who 'have a difference value system from ours. Conflict is not bad it's our intention, perception thought, values up-bringing, personality that make it so. It was observed from that most employees from the population studies make use of different methods in resolving their conflicts; most of which do not benefit themselves or others. The word of Ayodele (2002) is of great important here. He said, "Conflict may be problematic to success of organization but it could also be instrumental to evoking a new culture that will be more enduring, give opportunity for cooperation, resource discovery, conductive working environment, attainment of sets goals and upliftment of the organization.

In conclusion, "conflict in an organization is healthy because of the fact that it indicate that the individual and groups are vibrant "(Gannon, 1999). Organization conflict on the other hand is distractive, destructive and may prevent the attainment of the goals of the organizational to prevent it. However, the elimination or resolution of conflict in an organization on the inevitability of conflict, re-orientating them to know that conflict is easier to eliminated or resolved when embraced positively. And it takes a great deal of patient to identify the route in totality by attacking it from the source. A conflict must not be

avoided.Conflict must arise in the management of an organization because conflict   is an inevitable phenomeneous human's life, in as much there is an interaction, there must be conflict. In an organization, conflict will arise among the junior staff, among the senior staff within and among department management, trade and between other organization during the process of implementing organizational policies and programme but in order to maintain harmonious relationship within an organization, these conflicts must be adequately managed through scientific methods.

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Decolonial Multicultural Education in Post-Apartheid South Africa: The Dichotomy of Pluriversality in Curricula Craft Context

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Abstract

This article explores decolonial epistemic priorities in Open and distance learning (ODL) multicultural teacher education and training praxis, raises questions about the andragogical approach, and challenges the primary educational goal for students, opining that multicultural teacher education and training has become fixated on a simplistic decoloniality of Western knowledges and practices. Using the internet based asynchronous OBB system; I adopted a qualitative discursive analysis to identify linguistic conventions within the academic discourse message board community of practice as regards the dominate views and values that can be embedded in curriculum craft in post-colonial states. I put forward a case to prioritise the development of learning dispositions in multicultural students that encourage openness to further inquiry and productive ways of thinking in and through complex and contested knowledge terrains with the hope of engendering the concept pluriversality. I argue that this andragogical approach adds a critical dimension to the decolonial task in imbedding first nation's indigenous knowledges, views and/or perspectives rather than mimicking fixated Western priorities.

Introduction

In his introduction to Globalization and the Decolonial Option (2010), Walter Mignolo invites researchers to consider decolonial thinking "as a particular kind of critical theory and the de-colonial option as a specific orientation of doing". As a type of critical theory, decolonial thinking becomes an option from which educationists can be critical of existing master/universal narratives that pervade in society and academia. Because the modernity/coloniality/decoloniality project seeks to avoid becoming yet another master theory, scholars are confronted with the challenge of not falling into the trap of thinking about coloniality (colonial matrix of power) "as a model, a theory or an object of study". To prevent this from happening, Africanists ideologues ought to delink themselves from "the hegemonic and Eurocentred matrix of knowledge". Likewise as Africans, coloniality implies delinking our thinking from disciplinary constrictions and not thinking about modernity/coloniality/decoloniality from the strict vantage points of established disciplines. Instead, the project preoccupies itself with unearthing and articulating alternative ways of thinking from its dwellings in double consciousness, mestiza consciousness, border thinking, subaltern epistemologies, borders and peripheries of master narratives, and the undersides/darker sides of modernity.

Across the globe first nations, in common with other colonised populations, also assert a "definitive rejection of "being told"...what they are, what their ranking is in relation to the ideal of *humanitas* and what they have to do to be recognised as such" (Mignolo, 2009:161). Race remains a major determinant of graduation rates in post-colonial higher education institutions in South Africa. For contact universities in

almost all areas, the black student completion rate is less than half the white student completion rate (National Planning Commission, 2012). The figures are particularly bad for first nation students of whom only one in five graduated in regulation time. The difficulties black students and first generation students have in completing their degrees on time have major implications for social mobility and the effectiveness of the education system at creating the equitable skills base that will be essential for overcoming the inequalities of apartheid (National Planning Commission, 2012). The study therefore sought to understand how decolonial multiculturalism contexts are include in multicultural teacher training and/or education in South Africa. The following question served to frame the locus point of the study;

What are the views of open and distance learning (ODL) academics on the need to imbed first nation (indigenous) knowledges in order to pluriversalise multicultural teacher education curriculum in post-apartheid dispensation in South Africa?

Discourses of Decolonial Theories

Decolonial theories can be understood contextually by being viewed as the manifestations of and direct challenges to postcolonial education practices. Postcolonial as a concept enters critical discourse in its current meanings in the late 1970s and early 1980s, but both the practice and the theory of postcolonial resistance go back much further (indeed to the origins of colonialism itself). Thus a number of writers who were "postcolonial" *avant la lettre,* including figures like Frantz Fanon and Albert Memmi, the Caribbean negritude writers, and some US critics whose work also presages some of the positions now labelled postcolonial. The concept means to suggest both resistance to the "colonial" and that the "colonial" and its discourses continue to shape cultures whose revolutions have overthrown formal ties to their former colonial rulers. This ambiguity owes a good deal to post-structuralist linguistic theory as it has influenced and been transformed by the three most influential postcolonial critics Said (1978), Spivak, (1987) and Bhabha, (1994)

Many genealogists of postcolonial thought, including Bhabha (1994) himself, credit Said's Orientalism as the founding work for the field. Said's (1978) argument that "the Orient" was a fantastical, real material-discursive construct of "the West" that shaped the real and imagined existences of those subjected to the fantasy, set many of the terms for subsequent theoretical development, including the notion that, in turn, this"

> *"othering" process used the Orient to create, define, and solidify the "West". This complex, mutually constitutive process, enacted with nuanced difference across the range of the colonized world(s), and through a variety of textual and other practices, is the object of postcolonial analysis.*

Post-structuralism is generally used to refer to a quintet of French theorists whose major influence occurred in the 80s -- Jacques Derrida, Michel Foucault, Jacques Lacan, Julia Kristeva, and Roland Barthes. If structuralism relies upon the logic of language, post-structuralism reveals rhetoric as the subversive, poetic sub-conscious of that logic. These writers are post-structuralist in the sense that they demonstrate the dependence of all structures on that which they try to eliminate from their systems. Divergent from one another in many respects, these writers all have in common an attempt to uncover the unquestioned metaphors that undergird social and disciplinary norms, particularly as manifested in philosophy (Derrida), historical writing and the professions (Foucault), psychoanalysis (Lacan), and literary studies (Kristeva and Barthes. Mimicking western cultures

Divergent from one another in many respects, these writers all have in common an attempt to uncover the unquestioned metaphors that undergird social and disciplinary norms, particularly as manifested in philosophy (Derrida), historical writing and the professions (Foucault), psychoanalysis (Lacan), and literary studies (Kristeva and Barthes). All to one degree or another cross disciplinary boundaries, however, and all use variants of rhetorical analysis to reveal the constructed nature of such taken-for-granted objects and concepts as "humanity," "history," "the body," "the self," or "experience," and the co-dependence of such apparent oppositions as "power/resistance," or "masculine/feminine." Rather than attempt to list all the important works by these prolific writers, I cite here only collections that can be used as introductions to their larger bodies of work, followed by a few American applications of their ideas.

Orientation of study

The Maoist era of China as a country has been becoming more capitalist and it appears that Communism is slowly on its way out. Perhaps it has been realized that Communism does not work while Capitalism does, and China has been looking to Western societies for inspiration. Yunxiang Yan (1997: 113) supports this argument when he notes, "There is a new tendency to absorb foreign cultural influences, a trend that the Chinese political system resisted during the Maoist era (1949-78)". The government is not absorbing foreign influences because China thinks foreigners are more correct or superior than China; the Chinese government is only interested in the ideas of the West because they want to achieve economic success.

However, the people in the Sub-Sahara and China included, view Americans differently than the government. Young citizens think of foreign influences, such as flashy lifestyles for example as a culture they want to mimic. Americans are thought of as modern, exotic and exciting. Flashy and leafy suburbs are in fact thought of as a promise for the modernization of Sub-Saharan Africa and other third world countries. In the eyes of the post-colonial residents, mimicking western cultural identities are the promise of modernity. The study was framed by the inkling to understand and appreciate post-colonial curricula craft in higher education institutions in the Sub-Sahara Africa given the hegemonic and Eurocentred matrix of knowledges.

Decoloniality has been called a form of "epistemic disobedience" (Mignolo 2011: 122-123), "epistemic de-linking" (Mignolo 2007: 450), and "epistemic reconstruction" (Quijano 2007: 176). This is because pluralism emphasizes a celebration of diversity divorced of any real critical analysis of oppressive dynamics or socio-historical context. Like liberal multiculturalism, pluralism operates as a form of regulation because it fails to explore or problematize disparities in power and privilege or the hegemony of whiteness and Western norms in the United States culture such as "economic mobility, middle-class affluence, [and] family values" (Quijano 2007:17). Thus, pluralistic multiculturalism denies students' real experiences with oppression, and operates through whiteness by assuming a right and invisible norm through which difference is celebrated, as long as that difference doesn't stray too far from expected conformities (Richardson & Villenas, 2000).

Deconial Multicultural Education in South Africa

Contemporary decolonial educationists include ever-expanding applications and conceptualizations of gender and queer theories, as well as multicultural and first nations studies at various educational levels particularly in post-apartheid Africa. Expanding recognition of the articulation between scholarship and activism in fact begins to dissolve the arguably artificial boundary between decolonial educational policies, between decolonial thought and action by recognizing that the way in which scholars view "the causes,

forms, and consequences of social movements has significant implications for how [they] understand their potential, the stakes involved and the meaning of the political [or decolonial] itself." Scholars-those usually concerned primarily with analytics-who fail to recognize the connection between politics or decoloniality and the production of knowledge are those most likely to reflect "an underlying acceptance of capitalist modernity, liberal democracy, and individualism" (Juris & Khasnabish 2013: 6) values which decoloniality seeks to challenge.

Pluralistic multiculturalism, as a means to equal opportunity for non-dominant culture students, offers marginal culture members mainstream culture literacy so they can gain greater cultural capital and succeed in the dominant culture, as well as empowerment through validation of their own backgrounds. Educationists highlight successful minority examples to emphasize a "you can do it too" attitude, while ignoring power relations, growing economic disparities, and the powerlessness, violence, and poverty that so many marginalized children experience in South Africa. Thus, pluralistic multiculturalism misleadingly treats psychological affirmation devoid of political empowerment as the key to emancipation.

Kincheloe & Steinberg (1997) interestingly wrote:

> *Such multiculturalism consistently mistakes European ways of seeing for universal, neutral and objective methods of exploring reality. Such methods insidiously support the status quo, conveying in the process the deficiency of non- Western ways of producing knowledge. Make no mistake; the concept of difference is valorised in this context, but always from the position of whiteness.* (p. 18)

Thus, the safe diversity paradigm of pluralistic multiculturalism enables the normalized Western *us* to understand the different, ethnic *them* through a lens of privilege and power devoid of critical analysis or self-reflection, further exploiting marginalized people and reinforcing disparities (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 1997).

Decolonial Education epistemics and multiculturalism

In its critique of a "modern/colonial/capitalist/patriarchal world-system" decolonial theory addresses the continuity of colonial power relations through the categorization and representations of gender, race and class. It therefore aims for a transformation of Eurocentric epistemologies, stressing the importance of the production of knowledge in different (local) geopolitical contexts. By giving bodily experiences involved in the production of knowledge a central place, proponents of decolonial theory support a serious rethink of social sciences' canons and methods.

In other words, colonialism has been one of the historical experiences constitutive of coloniality; but coloniality is not exhausted in colonialism, as it includes many other experiences and manifestations which still operate in the present day South Africa. Even when the process of colonization has finished, coloniality remains operative as a form of power which produces, uses, and legitimizes differences between societies, subjects, and forms of knowledge. Although decolonial thought does seem to recognize constants in the human being - especially what Paulo Freire (1972) calls the impulse to "be more" - it views the present human subject as constructed to a large extent by coloniality.

Central concepts such as *pluriversalism*, *coloniality of power*, *border critical thinking* and *transmodernity* fail to engender hegemonic influences on socio-economic fabric of multicultural peoples as those in charge of transforming education systems remain transfixed in colonial mind-set. First nation knowledges remain "remain unimportant and irrelevant as Western crafted modernity continues to dominate education

discourse. Moreover, the discourse about the relevance of the *decolonial turn* in the context of research on processes of Europeanisation and migration patterns in the globe continue to influence issues of economy and education.

Imbeddedness of pluriversality in Decolonial Education

Decolonial education not only aims at problemitizing the coloniality of knowledge incarnated in Eurocentric academic institutions and modernist narratives. It also aims to bring about other worlds. Hence, decolonial education gives rise to an ethics and a politics of *pluriversality* (a combination of the words "pluri" and "universality"). Standing in opposition to global and totalitarian designs, created in the name of universality (which usually means a particularity claiming to be universal), pluriversality is an attempt to make visible and viable a multiplicity of knowledges, forms of being, and visions of the world. Pluriversality is equality-in-difference, the possibility that many worlds can fit in one world. It is the future alter-native to modernity / coloniality.

This pluriversality is envisioned as taking place on all levels of life. In intellectual life, it is envisioned as taking place especially through what some decolonial thinkers call "transdisciplinarity" and "transculturality." Transdisciplinarity means crossing the lines of the plurality of disciplines. It means different disciplines working together and not simply borrowing a few of each other's' insights. Of course, such transdisciplinarity would require important transformations in the present university and academic bureaucracy which usually operates by establishing unbreachable borders between programmes, departments, and faculties. For its part, tran-sculturality means a real dialogue of wisdom which shows that the *hubris* of "point zero" is not only impoverished and unsustainable but also culturally marked. It means a dialogue which abandons any pretence to pure objectivity as impossible and reveals such pretence as nothing more than a covert technique for imposing one particular culture on others.

The project of decolonization

The project of decolonization proposes a displacement of the theo- and ego- hegemonic logic of empire into a geo-political and a body-logic of knowledge. This project arises from a de-classification and de-identification of imperially denied subjects, as a de-colonial policy and epistemology that affects both the political and economic control of neoliberalism and capitalism, each frameworks of the imperialist project. The decolonization process begins when these same agents or subjects, who inhabit the denied languages and identities of the Empire, become aware of the effects of coloniality on being, body and knowledge. This process does not imply a call to an external element/actor/project but a movement towards an exteriority which make visible the difference in the s*pace of experience* and *the horizon of expectations* registered in the colonial space. Is this a proposal of cultural relativism? No. What Mignolo suggests is *a questioning of the posture taken from divisive borders.* In other words, the borders that both unite and separate modernity/coloniality.

Clearly, we are advocates for the analysis of settler colonialism within education and education research and we position the work of Indigenous thinkers as central in unlocking the confounding aspects of public schooling. We, at least in part, want others to join us in these efforts, so that settler colonial structuring and Indigenous critiques of that structuring are no longer rendered invisible. Yet, this joining cannot be too easy, too open, too settled. Solidarity is an uneasy, reserved, and unsettled matter that neither reconciles present grievances nor forecloses future conflict. There are parts of the decolonization project that are not easily absorbed by human rights or civil rights based approaches to educational equity.

Decolonial Education in multicultural teacher education and training

Alternate pedagogical approach for equipping students with understandings and analytical tools that can make explicit the conditions of the knowledge complexity Indigenous peoples confront as they move forward in their efforts to "decolonize" knowledge, assert Indigenous analysis, reassert Indigenous "ways of being, knowing and doing", or generate new knowledge to transform Indigenous social conditions (Nakata, Nakata, Keach and Bolt 2012). The inclusionary framework developed currency through broader educational agendas of, for example, "Inclusive Curriculum" (e.g., Blackburn, 1985), "Social Justice Education" (e.g., Connell, 1992), and "Multi-cultural Education" (Banks & McGee Banks, 2009) which all come together to represent the institutional accommodation of diversity more generally and embed the agendas of social justice and reconciliation with Indigenous Australia, more specifically.

The synergies with Latin American decolonising approaches drawn from the work of Paulo Freire (1972), Donaldo Macedo (1999), Walter Mignolo (2007), and others (e.g., De Lissovoy, 2010; Monaldo-Torres, 2011) are evident in Australian approaches. Critical Theory's great attraction lies in its promise of overcoming 'dominant' power relations and delivering "empowerment" to Indigenous people on the ground in the form of practical action in Indigenous interests. An assumption is that this knowledge production is transparent and Indigenous participants are self-knowing, apolitical agents of knowledge when producing knowledge in their own contexts and on Indigenous terms. The "knowledge in action" approach (following Habermas, 1984-1987) also marries well with Indigenous approaches to re-utilise the colonially usurped traditional knowledge of Indigenous collectives. Critical theory, particularly as it came to apply in teaching and learning areas (e.g., Murphy & Fleming, 2009), is also drawn into the production of ideological and oppositional analysis via "grassroots" knowledge production in Indigenous communities in a way that animates political resistance to dominating Western theory and intellectualism.

Methodological frame for the study

In her study of chat rooms, Balfour (2004) concludes that the concept of Internet community is indeed based on a particular communication system, a specific linguistic behaviour. Dingwell (2004) agrees, citing conventionalized language use as an indicator of an Internet chat community. As sources of common linguistic behaviour, online message boards (OBB) can then be considered communities of practice (CoPs). At an asynchronous level, different kinds of discussion forums exist including bulletin boards. These have become precursors for other asynchronous facilities such as Usenet newsgroups and mailing lists. Bulletin boards represent a forum for people with one or more common interests to interact, and thus a community of practice (CoP) approach to their interaction should be applicable, based on this "mutual engagement in an endeavour".

Using the internet based asynchronous OBB system; I adopted a qualitative discursive analysis to identify linguistic conventions within the academic discourse message board community of practice. Determining the extent of linguistic systematicity within the community demanded a large amount of data (110 356 words), while an examination of variations within the identified system rather required a micro-analysis. In order to recognize potential patterns warranting careful investigation, a corpus of OBB postings was composed from three different university sites. OBB postings reveal an exploitation of both the written and spoken qualities of Internet discourse, establishing the medium as the ideal forum for members of the academic to interact. Contributors took advantage of this unique platform to exhibit their knowledge of multicultural curricula craft, allowing their own multicultural identities to emerge through interaction with others who possess or value the same expertise. Individual multicultural identities are discursively

constructed within OBB postings via three distinct strategies of discourse: positioning of self, positioning of other, and performing identity through verbal articulations.

I followed the postings of 12 academic lecturers over a period of four months representing different demographics. In each of the four months there were between five and eight participants, ranging in ages between 35 and 60. The groups were largely made up of Black, White, academics of Asiatic origin and bi-culturals, the so called Coloured people in that same age range.

After four months addresses were edited out, the corpus totalled 110 356 words (tokens) with 13 124 distinct types. Atlas-ti was used to analyse the corpus in terms of key words, word frequency, and sorted lists. The results of the analysis reveal that the referential content of OBB postings were about the positioning of *self* and *other*, while their form represents performance strategies, each contributing to discursive constructions of multicultural identities. Ethical approval for the research was gained from the University of South Africa Ethics Committee and the research was conducted within guidelines of the University of South Africa Ethics Committee. Pseudonyms were deployed to ensure participants' anonymity during the write-up. Any identifying information that appeared in any of the interviews was either removed or substantially altered.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study used the following question to analyse discourses of academics on imbedding appropriate South African teacher education curriculum methodologies given the complexities of multicultural divergences;

Moderator posting: X

How can South Africa's teacher education universities (TEUs) develop decolonised and multicultural reformations of knowledges and polities in the training of teachers? **Posted: 25 May 2013: Time: 10:15 PDT**

The moderator's question was informed by decolonial thought that insinuate that a powerful challenge to Eurocentrism in education has come from the burgeoning postcolonial literature (e.g. Barkawi and Laffey, 2006; Blaney and Inayatullah, 2002, 2003; Darby, 1997, 2004; Hobson and Hall, 2010). Although highly influential in redirecting and maintaining theoretical and analytical attention to the significant absence of the non-West in education theory, postcolonial education has, thus far, not succeeded in supplanting Eurocentric education. There was need therefore to understand how multicultural teacher educators transform their curricula by imbedding first nation (indigenous) knowledges.　Substantial amount of participants discourses seem to suggest that;

"Among others, decolonizing Africa implies opening colonial Africa's geopolitical, social, racial, and epistemic frontiers, and dismantling the incorporated and institutionalized forms of coloniality that it foments and defends. The decolonization of Africa also passes through the support and solidarity with rebel dignities throughout the world, within and beyond Africa. The actions of these rebel dignities destabilize and negate the Africa that sustains itself upon violence and the nullification of other ways of being and acting in the world". **Posted: 01 April 2013 Time: 08:40 PDT**

An important aspect of this failure has been its susceptibility to what Hedley Bull (1966) called the fallacy of the "domestic analogy". Decolonizing from this global coloniality becomes the main epistemological horizon of the decolonial option. Decoloniality means here decolonization of knowledge and being by epistemically and affectively de-linking from the imperial/colonial organization of society. In spite of this veritable history of anti-Eurocentric thought and practice, mounting critique, obvious counter-facts, and logical tensions, Eurocentrism continues to exert influence in the academy, in national and international policy making centres, and among the elites and the intelligentsia of non-Western "developing" countries (Friedman, 2006; Ganji, 2008; Jones, 2003: ix–xl; Landes, 2003; Sen, 1999). This influence is certainly closely related to the ideological dimension of Eurocentrism, the fact that it sustains and is sustained by the global dominance of the Western-cantered configurations of economic, technological, and military power.

By means of analyzing these narratives of re-existence for Fanon education is always political education. In practice all education is political and education is political in all its forms of socialization and in its disciplines. In other words education helps us organize our lives, helps us think and act, help us think and create images of justice. Fanon means something different by political education. Just as for Fanon culture has to become a fighting culture, education has to become about total liberation. Decolonial education has to be a total critique and a transformative experiential process. Indeed this notion of education as transformative is often recognized on the private level in the rhetoric of individual entrepreneurship that often powers the discourse of the university's value, but the issue for a decolonial *national* education is an education that helps create a social consciousness and a social individual. Fanon is not concerned with educating the power elites to lead but to promote self-confidence among the mass of people, to teach the masses, as he puts it, that everything depends on them. This is not simply a version of community or adult education and certainly not of a hyperdermic notion of conscientization. Let me give an example that focuses less on content than form.

In the revolutionary moment of the anticolonial struggle Fanon writes of the "honest intellectual", who, committed to social change, enters what he calls an "occult zone," engaging the notion of the transformation of reality with a real sense of uncertainty while also coming to understand what is humanly possible. This zone is a space that is being shaped by a movement which, he says in "On National Culture", is beginning to call everything into question (1968 227).

This postcolonial concern has been articulated through two composite leitmotifs: difference-resistance and hybridity-ambivalence. The first motif tends to involve an apotheosis of a pristine "self" as the basis of resisting the "other". The second motif, which is currently dominant, by contrast, displays an anti-foundationalist thrust that problematizes all boundaries, epistemological and ontological, between the self and the other, the West and the non-West. The resulting tension has impelled some postcolonialists to veer between the two motifs (Said, 1993; but see Selby, 2006) or seek to reconcile them tactically (Spivak, 1993). Influenced by poststructuralism, later postcolonialists have instead concentrated on postcolonial conditions of hybridity and ambivalence in order to illuminate the ways in which subaltern praxes subverted the Eurocentric vision of a universal, singular, and mono-temporal history for non-Western modernity (Bhabha, 1994; Spivak, 1994).

In such cases it is not assumed that you have to be talking about your culture but can function as a theoretically minded person. As we know: the first world has knowledge, the third world has culture; Native Americans have wisdom, Anglo Americans have science. The need for political and epistemic de-linking here comes to the fore, as well as decolonializing and de-colonial knowledges, necessary steps for imagining and building democratic, just, and non-imperial/colonial societies. The process of

decolonization which Zeleza (2003: vi) calls the "proudest moment" of African nationalism, is believed to have marked the triumphalism of black liberatory nationalism over white exploitative and oppressive colonialism.

Thus decolonization was just a facade barely disguising the continuation of colonization by other means and leading to the mere "flag" (or juridical) independence of utterly impotent and powerless quasi-states lacking the substance of sovereignty (Muiu and Martin 2009: 56).

Recommendations

In this format, multicultural education becomes an exotic treat to be consumed by privileged whites for their intellectual titillation, or perhaps to improve their business acumen among non-dominant and foreign prospects. In some cases, as described earlier, multiculturalism is used as an avenue for assimilation of non-dominant groups to Eurocentric discourses.

Conclusion

Decolonial theories can be understood contextually as the manifestations of and direct challenges to postcolonial education practices. Therefore the challenge concerning formal education is seen by Afrocentrists to be that African student teachers are taught to perceive the world through the eyes of another culture, and unconsciously learn to see themselves as an insignificant part of their world. An Afrocentric education does not necessarily wish to isolate Africans from a Eurocentric education system but wishes to assert the autonomy of Africans and encompass the cultural uniqueness of all learners.

At teacher education institutions African values, it is believed, would eliminate the patterns of rejection and alienation that engulf so many first nation students in Africa. The study findings indicate that the movement for African-centred education is based on the assumption that an institution immersed in African traditions, rituals, values, and symbols will provide a learning environment that is more congruent with the lifestyles and values of first nations in Africa. Findings also indicate that there is rigidity in teacher education methodological approaches and that has a tendency to detrimentally influence critical dimension to the decolonial task in imbedding indigenous knowledges, views and/or perspectives rather than mimicking fixated Western priorities.

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TAMING THE GREEN-EYED MONSTERS: REDUCING BACKBITING VIA ENAICMS JEALOUSY INTERVENTION

Taming the Green-Eyed Monsters: Reducing Backbiting via ENAICMS Jealousy Intervention

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ABSTRACT

Issues related to jealousy in organization are rarely discussed openly among the management and employees. Yet, this strong emotion can lead to numbers of unpleasant impacts such as lowering employees' job motivation and decreasing company's productivity. A study conducted with 209 employees from a prominent private organization in Malaysia has shown that jealousy is the most influential factor that contributes to interpersonal relationship problem, which consequently affect the employees' job performance. With the usage of on-line survey namely Employee Need Analysis Inventory Online Counseling Management System (ENAICMS), it is found that employees with interpersonal relationship problem faced communication problems with the management and colleagues, as well as commitment to work in team. The chaining problems may eventually harm the organization if appropriate actions are not taken. This conceptual paper aims to illustrate how ENAICMS Jealousy Intervention can help the organization to reduce envy and jealousy problem among employees. Interventions such as individual and group counseling, workshop, awareness program, and transforming organization's policy are explained in detail.

Keywords*: Employee Need Assessment Inventory (ENAI), Employee Assistance Program (EAP), jealousy, counseling interventions, job performance and job motivation*

Introduction

"People don't become soulless zombies when they arrive at the workplace", Crabtree (2004) had brilliantly stated this phrase in his article to illustrate the impact of workplace relationship in one's personal life. Moreover, he also emphasized that it is becoming increasingly apparent that workplace relationship *are* personal. An earlier study following the lead of Brief and Weiss (2002), Watson and Slack (1993) as cited in **Boone (2001)** mentioned that job satisfaction is an important life domain, thus it may lead to more general life satisfaction and better emotional adjustment.

The fact that people in organization striving to keep personal and professional feelings realm separate, has lead to ignorance of **the existing** negative emotions especially jealousy. According to Dogan and Veechio (2001), envy and jealousy have been recognized as powerful forces and it has been a managerial tradition to discount or try to ignore these emotions. The belief that organization interactions should be grounded in rational economic-based has left strong feelings and emotions a tiny space in business-related social interaction. Holding firmly to this belief may cause the management to overlook one important thing which is the potentials of these negative emotions to bring tangible impact upon organization's productivity and performance.

Studies related to affect in organizations had begun in 1930s due to the perceived need for understanding worker's feelings (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Many of the earliest researches have shown that job dissatisfaction is caused by maladjustment emotional tendencies, and daily affect levels have significant relationship with daily performance levels. In fact, current studies related to emotion in organization showed almost similar results. For instance, a study by the Gallup Management Journal found that negative workplace relationship is the factor of employees' job disengagement (Crabtree, 2004). Worse, Dogan and Veechio (2001) claimed that if feelings of envy and jealousy persist, it may contribute to job withdrawal, and the people who leave the company may be the employees that managers value most highly.

The terms "envy" and "jealousy" are often used interchangeably in our everyday language, even though they actually carrying different meanings. Envy is defined as the discomfort felt when another's achievement or accomplishment are perceived superior than ours, while jealousy is experienced when a personal relationship is threatened by a rival (Boone, 2001). However, in Malay language, both terms are described by one word which is *cemburu*, albeit there is an idiom which has the same meaning – *iri hati.* Thus, in this current study, the term "jealousy" used by participants in describing their interpersonal problems is referred to both "envy" and "jealousy" definitions. Further findings are discussed in the following sections.

Most people may readily acknowledge their feelings of pride, shame, and guilt rather than discussing about jealousy that they possessed, even though the feeling is considered normal and experienced by every person (Bedeian, 1995). This is because envy and jealousy have always been portrayed as a feeling related to hostility and aggression. Both emotions are viewed as dangerous, capable to disrupt interpersonal relations and trigger violence. In fact, the word envy itself derived from the Latin word, *invidere,* which means to look at another with malice (Boone, 2001). Possessing and portraying negative emotions are usually unaccepted in most cultures and religions. Hence, for a person to admit having those kind of feelings is definitely difficult to deal with. Besides, an anthropologist, George Foster,

mentioned that admitting to envy is tantamount to conceding inferiority with respect to another thus it is often hard to be done without damaging one's ego (Bedeian, 1995).

By not admitting and putting further efforts to control the growth of jealousy within oneself, a person may remain trapped in unhealthy negative emotions. This subsequently leads the person towards more harmful consequences. Jealousy can cause unpleasant implications for individual's interactions with others and for their general happiness (Bedenian, 1995). Not only that, it can also lowering the person's work motivation, creates conflicts and unhealthy competitions among co-workers, drop in productivity, and increase in job

dissatisfaction. Furthermore, there might be health implications involve such as cardiovascular disease.

According to Dogan and Vecchio (2001), with the existence of jealousy, employees tend to spend less time working and more talking to coworkers about the issue or scrutinizing events to determine if their fears were justified. This may influence the quality of work as the feeling cause stress and undermine the ability to work collaboratively. The teamwork spirit is later affected, as they would be least likely to make friends with the person they perceived as rival (Boone, 2001).

Without any effort to intervene the jealousy, individuals may proceed to a stage, which involves an attempt to discredit the targeted person. They may venture to undercut the rival by starting a professional ambush such as negatively distorting the person's success (Bedenian, 1995), planning deliberate sabotage, manifesting rage, or pointing out the faults of the competitor (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). In addition, the person who experienced jealousy may also react by requesting a transfer or quitting the organization (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). According to Whitey and Cooper (1989), people leave when they are pushed out by dissatisfaction, and believe that improvement is unlikely to happen.

Other than affecting a person's professional life, jealousy could also influence one's personal feelings. Dogan and Vecchio (2001) mentioned that employees may experience fatigue, depression, a feeling of losing control and anger. In addition, Parrot (1991) **as cited in** Boone (2001) listed six (6) types of

emotions derived from jealousy which are longing, inferiority, agent-focused resentment, global resentment, guilt, and admiration. As there is a wide range of reactions to jealousy, some people may react in more positive manner than others such as "admiration" which is considered to be an appreciation and acceptance of another's positive qualities, or experience a motivation to work harder.

But due to the conceptualization of jealousy which is closely related to a sense of injustice and a feeling of fear that is perceived as a disadvantage, people most of the time react negatively following the arousal of jealousy. Some people experienced inferiority which impacts their self esteem and may result in depression, despair and anxiety. Some may focused on anger and hatred towards the targeted person. Others may experience the feeling of unfairness of life, fate and luck, while certain people may face moral struggle and feel guilty due to the negative thoughts towards the target.

Parallel to the above study is findings by Smith et al. (1999) where envy was correlated significantly with hostility, resentment, and maladaptive traits linked to inferiority such as depression and neuroticism. The study also showed that envy is negatively correlated with adaptive qualities such as self-esteem, life satisfaction, and happiness.

Therefore, as the feeling of jealousy mostly affect people negatively, it is vital for the management to take actions in order to improve the working atmosphere.

Sources of Jealousy

In order to identify suitable interventions to reduce jealousy, we should first be aware of the factors that contribute to this emotion. By understanding the sources of jealousy, both managers and employees can work together to overcome the unhealthy circumstances.

There are a number of sources which could lead to jealousy among the employees within an organization. Referring to Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory **as cited in** Boone (2001), people tend to compare themselves to gain important information about the self, either using the upward comparison or downward comparison.

Upward comparison is when a person compares him or herself with individuals who perceived to be superior, while downward comparison is a person who compares with someone who is perceived as having less advantages. The purpose of comparing oneself with someone superior (upward comparison) is to have a benchmark on achievement, and to improve oneself to a higher level, at least at the same level of the person.

Downward comparison on the other hand is a defensive tendency one will use to gain a feeling of comfort. By comparing with someone who perceived to be worse, he or she will feel better about his or her personal situation. Upward comparison is said to be the source of jealousy, as by comparing oneself to someone who has more advantage the person might not feel secure. In addition,

Salovey and Rodin's (1983) Domain Relevance hypothesis **as cited in** Boone (2001) suggested that individuals prone to experience envy when comparing themselves to another whose accomplishments are better than one's own in the domains of wealth, fame, popularity and physical attractiveness.

Moreover, according to Dogan and Vecchio (2001), downsizing may cause envy or jealousy to those who remain in the organization. This happens in any situation where the remaining employees feel fear whenever decisions are made on who may be the next to leave the organization by the management level. Such threatening situation leads to anger, fatigue, and depression among the competitive survivors. Besides, organizations that take programmatic actions to remain competitive among employees may foster envy or jealousy (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). Envy or jealousy is said to be the result of losing self-esteem, stress-related reaction, and a sign of insecurity. In fact, loss in work performance is actually one of the jealousy signs that may result from a desire to restore fairness in the situation. This deliberate drop in productivity can occur when employee opt to achieve a rebalancing of personal contribution and rewards by reducing their own efforts (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001).

Another source of jealousy is derived from a diverse workgroups that most of the organizations are currently practicing. With the differences in demographic background, skills and experiences, these create interpersonal conflicts among the members of the group due to the differences in opinions and ideas, as well as

decision making approaches. For an instance, if the promotion process is based on the employee's cultural background instead of the academic and work experience qualification, others may feel that it is unfair and thus, create a feeling of jealousy towards those who are deemed to be more qualified. Therefore, if the differences in culture are not being taken seriously by the management level, a sense of uncertainty, competitiveness and threat may arise.

Conflict among different generations may also cause jealousy at the workplace. Tensions exist when younger employees see the older ones as potential threats due to their years of experience, and that the older employees are more concerned on whether they will be replaced by the younger ones who are

perceived to be more enthusiastic. As for the younger generation, with better access to education, upon graduation, they tend to be hired directly at the management level. This could lead to feelings of envy among the older workers who had loyally worked in the organization for a number of years, but never had the chance to be promoted. Also, nowadays, employees from all walks of life tend to multi-task due to the increasing workload given by their supervisors. Having to juggle multiple role within a limited time frame could lead to job stress and in turn, has negative effects on mood.

Other source of jealousy as mentioned by Brief and Weiss (2002) is that individuals whose personalities are high in neuroticism, they tend to experience negative mood states such as anxiety, depression, hostility, and guilt. Brief et al.

(1995) **as cited in** Brief and Weiss (2002) indicated that individuals with high neuroticism have the tendency to brood on failures, distance themselves from co-workers and leaders which result in negative interpersonal interactions.

Current Study

A study conducted with 209 employees at a prominent private organization in Malaysia has shown that jealousy is the most influential factor that contributes to interpersonal relationship problem, which consequently affect the employees' job performance. The usage of Employee Need Analysis Inventory Online Counseling Management System (ENAICMS), which is an on-line survey, has successfully collected information regarding employees' problems that affected their job motivation, productivity and work performance.

The Employee Needs Assessment Inventory Online Counseling Management System (ENAICMS) was initially developed in 2001 by Mohd Razali and Sharulazaman as an early detection system associated with the problems faced by the employees in the organization. An early detection is believed to help organizations to perform appropriate interventions in addressing the problems faced by the employee. Types of problem are categorized as financial, work environment, family, work, health, spiritual, career, and interpersonal relationship. Ever since then, this on-line personal assessment tool received numerous national and international awards. In 2011, it received a gold medal award at Seoul
International Invention Fair in Korea, and in the following year, another gold medal was honored at the British Innovation and Technology Show in the United Kingdom. ENAI system is currently host at www.enaieap.com/cms.

The study also found that by experiencing jealousy, employees are faced with communication problems towards the management and colleagues, as well as commitment problem to work in team. Table 1 shows the result of the analysis.

Table 1. ENAI Analysis Result for Interpersonal Relationship Problem at the Workplace

Item	Very Critical (%)	Critical (%)	Less Critical (%)	Not Critical (%)	Need EAP (%)
I have problems communicating with my colleagues of the same level	0	0.5	9.1	23.9	33.5
I have problems communicating with the management	0	5.3	9.6	33.0	**47.9**
I have problems communicating with my colleagues	0	1.4	8.6	29.2	39.2
I have problems gaining cooperation from my colleagues	0.5	2.4	10.0	30.6	**43.5**
My colleagues used to bully me	0	0	3.3	19.6	22.9
I cannot work in team	0	0.5	1.9	19.6	22.0
My colleagues show their dislike to me	0	1.4	3.8	31.6	36.8
The management does not show much concern about my welfare	1.0	0	12.9	33.0	**46.9**
My colleagues do not show much concern about my welfare	0	0.5	8.6	33.5	42.6

The result shows that the item "I have problems communicating with the management" carries the highest percentage (47.9%) which requires a need for an Employee Assistance Program (EAP). The second and third highest items, "The management does not show much concern about my welfare" and "I have problems gaining cooperation from my colleagues" carries 46.9% and 43.5% respectively. Determination on types and approaches of intervention is showed in the following flowchart.

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│  Data Collection via ENAICMS │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│    Analysis ENAICMS Data     │
└─────────────────────────────┘
         Identifying process
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┌──────────────────┐                    ┌──────────────────┐
│ Types of Problem │                    │ Levels of Problem │
└──────────────────┘                    └──────────────────┘
                                          ┌──────────────────┐
┌────────────────────────┐                │   Very Critical  │
│  • Financial           │                └──────────────────┘
│  • Work environment    │                ┌──────────────────┐
│  • Family              │                │     Critical     │
│  • Work                │                └──────────────────┘
│  • Health              │                ┌──────────────────┐
│  • Spiritual           │                │   Less Critical  │
│  • Career              │                └──────────────────┘
│  • Interpersonal       │                ┌──────────────────┐
│    relationship        │                │   Not Critical   │
└────────────────────────┘                └──────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────┐
│ Determination of Intervention │
│    Types and Approaches       │
└──────────────────────────────┘
        │                    │
        ▼                    ▼
┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
│  Types of    │      │  Approaches  │
│ Intervention │      └──────────────┘
└──────────────┘      ┌──────────────────────┐
┌──────────────┐      │   Individual /       │
│ Based on Types│     │ Group counseling     │
│ of Problems   │     └──────────────────────┘
└──────────────┘      ┌──────────────────────┐
                      │      Workshops       │
                      └──────────────────────┘
                      ┌──────────────────────┐
                      │  Awareness Programs  │
                      └──────────────────────┘
                      ┌──────────────────────┐
                      │    Transforming      │
                      │  Company Policies    │
                      └──────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────┐
│  Interventions Implementation │
└──────────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
      ┌───────────────┐
      │   Follow up   │
      └───────────────┘
        │          │
        ▼          ▼
┌───────────────┐  ┌───────────────┐
│ Not Effective │  │   Effective   │
└───────────────┘  └───────────────┘
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Managing Jealousy at Workplace

Managing jealousy at the workplace requires efforts, cooperation and involvement from both managers and employees. Previous studies have suggested various ways in dealing with green-eyed within people in organization. One of the suggestions made by Bedenian (1995) is to use mediation such as employee assistance program (EAP).

EAP is a program offered to employees to help them deal with personal problems that might affect their work performance and adjustment at workplace. EAP generally includes counseling services, assessment, support and referrals to additional sources for employees. ENAICMS is a system developed to identify the employees' problems and offer suggestions on suitable interventions. By implementing EAP, this system is useful for the organization to gather early detection of employees' problems.

ENAICMS Jealousy Intervention

As illustrated in the flowchart, the types of intervention and approaches that would be used depend on the person's type and level of problem. For those who reported to have very critical and critical level of problem, they are required to undergo counseling for intervention sessions. Such intervention can be handled via individual and group counseling. As for those who experienced less critical and not critical level of problem, they are encouraged to be involved in workshops and

awareness programs. Transforming company policies and practices is suggested for employers if the related problem is caused by company environment. Each of the approach is further explained as below where the type of problems discussed in this paper is related to jealousy.

Counseling Intervention

One of the approaches that can be taken by the management in dealing with workplace jealousy is via counseling program. According to Bedeian (1995), the number of companies which instituted counseling program in their organizations has increased tremendously. Through this program, employee can learn to deal with destructive effects of workplace jealousy in more positive manner. It also helps the individual to become a strong team member and gain healthier emotional quotient.

Counseling intervention is a professional helping service offered therapeutically to the client based on psychotherapy approaches. There are number of approaches nowadays, and in fact, more than 400 types of therapies are identified around the world. Each approach has its own style to help client overcome the problem. For instance, therapies under Cognitive Behavior approach such as Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) and Cognitive Behavior Therapy (CBT) would help a person to deal with problem rationally and reevaluate inferences and perceptions.

The process of therapy starts with discovering the significant problem. The individual will firstly be identified as experiencing jealousy towards another person, or considered to be a victim of jealousy. Exploration of problem involves identifying activating events, looking at the reasons of jealousy, and finding the causes of jealousy.

The intervention stage is the next phase after the exploration of problem has been done. In this stage, counselor will help individual to reevaluate their inferences and perceptions of what had happened based on their rational thoughts. Besides, counselor also will assist the client in understanding the reasons

they are prone to envy, the coping styles and adaptive methods that are suitable for them to deal with those feelings, and how to control negative emotion as well as tolerate with uncertainty. Via group counseling, people get to share their feelings of disappointment, listen to other's experiences, learn from others, and getting support. Indirectly the persons will feel confident by knowing that they are not the only one who faced jealousy problem. Indirectly they can learn on how to increase their self-esteem, overcome negative social comparison and help the person to realize his own strengths as well as build up spirit to compete healthily. Individuals can also discuss on how to sharpen the skill of emotional control, perseverance, and tenacity in the face of hardship.

Workshops

Conducting workshops regarding jealousy is one of the ways to help employees to overcome jealousy. Under ENAICMS, workshop is offered to employees who are at the level of less critical or not critical on jealousy. The purpose of this intervention is to expose the employees about jealousy, the effects of jealousy and prevent from the seed of jealousy to grow further.

Various themes of workshops can be conducted such as "how to overcome jealousy", "tips on recovering personal power", and "healthy steps in dealing with jealousy". Besides, "assertive communication" workshop can also be conducted to help employees to be open in solving conflicts and dissatisfaction. Other than that, organization can also help individual to adapt with unofficial workplace rules and be alert to institutionalized practices intended to obviate envy (Bedeian, 1995).

Awareness programs

Awareness program is also offered to employees who answered less critical or not critical level of jealousy on the on-line survey items. Employees are exposed on brief information about jealousy, the causes and signs of jealousy, as well as ways to overcome jealousy.

Pamphlets, flyers, and simple articles about jealousy can be distributed among employees to increase awareness among them. Besides, morning sharing sessions can also be implemented where each employee will take turn to talk about

jealousy such as "creative ways to overcome jealousy". Other than that, understanding other's culture is also vital as different culture has different perspectives in authority and favor different approaches in decision making. Some may think the manner or behavior shown by employer or coworkers portrayed as a lack of appreciation, and this can lead to jealousy. Hence, talking about one's culture can also help. Moreover, organization can think of other creative ways such as launching a program called Fighting the Jealousy Day.

Transforming Company Policies and Practices

Role of employer is undeniably important. Under this intervention, a counselor will act as the mediator and suggest things that may need to change such as improving performance evaluation and creating fair environment. There are number of roles that can be played by the management to improve the situation.

It is important for an employer to avoid creating situation that can trigger the feeling of unfair treatment. Even though it is difficult for us as a human to avoid viewing certain individuals in more

positive light than others, employers need to be objective as rewards and recognition which are parceled out in an evenhanded and fair manner is less likely to generate jealous feelings and be more productive (Half, 1993).

Performance appraisal system must be seen as fair and consistent. When performance and evaluation processes are perceived by employees as unfair, they

contribute to feelings of envy and jealousy (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). The system should rely on objective rather than subjective measures of performance. With objective and consistent measures, employees are less likely to feel resentment toward their peers.

Effective leaders usually will recognize that jealousy, envy, disappointment, anger, joy, fear, ambition, pettiness, love, hate and feelings of inadequacy go with the territory of supervising people. The management is supposed to be alert with the potential of conflict (Half, 1993) and signs of jealousy, as well as taking immediate action to alleviate the problem.

Employers should also practice open-door policy and make themselves available to the employees. Encourage open and informative communication is important to create an environment where employees feel comfortable approaching managers or coworkers if they are experiencing problem. Employers should embrace, accept and understand one's emotions which might show through the way of running the department.

Crabtree (2004) mentioned that in an employee engagement survey, it is found that there is a strong agreement with the statement "This person sets me up for success" among engaged group. Managers who want to boost workgroup engagement levels might benefit from developing, trusting and supportive relationship with their employees. Developing and maintaining strong relationships with employees is a key to creating a strong, productive workgroup. Moving

toward an "us" rather than a "we-they" mindset is an option the management can consider. Organizations such s Disney Production and Wal-Mart steer away from the use of "employee" in favor of "associate" and "team member" (Bedeian, 1995).

Furthermore, the organization can encourage teamwork spirit and implement mentoring system. Via mentoring system, the team members can blend personal empowerment with cooperation. Positive relations among employees can also be encouraged. When each member benefits from the success, it is less likely the feeling of insecurity and resentful aroused.

Hold regular meetings can also be one of the options. Everyone is encouraged to discuss any concerns including tension among employees. This provides opportunity for employees to voice opinions and discuss sources of stress.

Research Limitation

The rationale of conducting this research was to identify the employees' problems and determine suitable approaches in tackling the problems. This research used quantitative method as the design approach and the instruments used in this research was the ENAICMS. In any research conducted by passionate researchers, there are several limitations involved throughout the entire phase of executing this research.

The first limitation is that only one organization was chosen to obtain the needed information for this study. Therefore, the result may not be able to be generalized due to the difference on working conditions and the demographic factors of employees from one organization to another. Another limitation

is that the system may have its own weaknesses for the design is still considered to be at an early stage of development and thus, require further improvement.

Recommendations

After conducting and analyzing the research, the researchers concluded on several recommendations that could be used as future guidelines in similar research area. From the perspectives of human resource practitioners, the findings of this research study help to quickly identify the difficulties faced by employees that could directly affect their job performance, working relationship and overall well-being. Thus, it is imperative for the human resource practitioners to be well-versed on interventions to assist the employees in reducing their problems.

On the other hand, it is recommended for the human resource practitioners to be more aware on the subtle changes made by the employees, and immediately tackle the situation before it gets any worse. This can be done by observing their working relationship, create awareness program on work life balance and implementing team building programs.

Also, the Employee Assistance Program (EAP) should be established in any organizations so that the employees will be able to inquire for further support in any problems that they faced. As for the perspective of future researchers, they are encouraged to find more suitable organizations so that comparison study could be implemented in order to gain more comprehensive study in similar research area. Also, apart from quantitative method, future researchers should look into the application of qualitative method, especially by interviewing selected employees to obtain new or more in-depth results for the study.

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Global Climate Change Coverage in Malaysia Mainstream Newspapers

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ABSTRACT

Global Climate Change can affect human life and activities. The rising amount of natural disasters, the warming of the Earth and the melting of the icebergs are some examples of its effects. This study is conducted to analyze the coverage of global climate change issue in four Malaysia mainstream newspapers. The data for this study are collected from January 2008 to December 2010. A content analysis is conducted to identify the frequency of the articles related with global climate change, the articles length, the trend of newspaper coverage and the frames of the articles. The findings for this study will provide an understanding about the ways Malaysia mainstream newspapers provide the coverage about Global Climate Change and the audience reactions towards the issue. The findings also suggested that the coverage of global climate change is influenced by the events pertaining the issue. This can be observed from the trend of newspaper coverage. Finally, the result on the frames indicates that the most published topic in global climate change issue is public action to reduce the effects of global climate change and reduce the emissions of the greenhouse gas.

Keywords: climate change coverage, newspaper trends, Malaysia mainstream newspapers, newspapers coverage, newspaper framing.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, global climate change is undeniably has become one of the most crucial issue in the world. Not only is has disastrous impacts on the environment, global climate change can also badly damage the economic, social and politics of the countries in the world. Therefore many researches have been conducted by many scientists and scholars in various field to study the implications of global climate change in different perspectives and areas.

These studies have developed many findings and outcome. Some of the outcomes are delivered to the public so that the public will gain more knowledge on global climate change issue and most importantly is to develop their awareness on the issue. One of the tools to effectively convey this message to the public is through the media. Moreover, Wilson (1995) stated that majority of the public rely on the media to obtain information on global climate change and this study shows that media do have important role to provide the public on the knowledge regarding global climate change issue.

In Malaysia, global climate change has become significant issue among the society and the government. This is because Malaysia had been listed as one of the largest world carbon emitters because of the rapid industrialization and development which is taking place in the country. Apart from rapid development and industrialization, deforestation, energy and water usage, open burning and transportation are some of other factors that contribute to the increasing amount of Malaysia greenhouse gas emission in the atmosphere (WWF Malaysia).

Therefore in July 2009, Malaysia has launched its Green Technology Policy that focuses on the effort to reduce Malaysia carbon footprint across many sectors. At the same time the policy also helps to protect the environment by enhancing environment sustainability through various programs that had been planned by the government. Public needs to be informed and well equipped with the information regarding the programs that are planned by the government so that everyone can play their role in reducing carbon emission which can directly reduce the risk of the facing effects of global climate change.

Media has high potential in successfully influencing public opinion and actions (McCombs, 2002). Thus in order to ensure the policy can be successfully implemented, media need to play a strong role to educate the public and create their awareness regarding global climate change and also the government policy and effort to reduce the carbon emission.

Thus, this study is conducted to identify the trend of *Berita Harian* and *The New Straits Times* coverage on global climate change issue for year 2008 through year 2010. The trend is studied along with the occurrences of events regarding global climate change. Apart from that, the frames of the news stories on global climate change issue in these newspapers are also scrutinized. The study on the frame of the news stories will provide the researcher with the knowledge on global climate change agenda that is delivered to the public.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

The role of newspapers in shaping public opinion and influence their action is supported by researches. McCombs (2002) noted that "the pictures in people's minds about the outside world are significantly influenced by the mass media, both what those pictures are about and what those pictures are". As public does not have a direct access to the events which occur locally and internationally, they rely on the mass media including the newspapers to bring the story to them and make them understand about the events. Therefore newspapers contribution in shaping and influencing public opinion and action is significant.

2.1 Media and Agenda Setting Theory

Although agenda-setting theory is very synonym with political issue, nowadays, agenda setting effects can also be related with environmental issue, health, sports and others. The Agenda Setting Theory has an important function in the media as it helps to shape public opinion and perceptions towards various issues.

Agenda Setting Theory suggested that media indirectly has become a mould to the public mind, and the public perceive the news based on what the media provide them. Therefore, setting the agenda for the public is important in order to sway public apprehension and awareness regarding those issues. Apart from influencing public apprehension and awareness, agenda setting also affects personal behaviour and actions (McCombs, 2002; McCombs & Reynolds, 2005; Wu & Coleman, 2009).

On the other hand, in certain cases, media would be able to tell the public what to think by providing the public with an agenda (Wanta et.al, 2004) or issue to talk and discuss about. As media are the tools for the public to gain access to the news in local context and international context, the public tends to rely and depend on the media to help them updated with majority of the events around them.

In this context, media not only provide the public with the news and reports about local and world news, but the media also play a role to emphasis on which news and events are important and should be the centre of attention.

2.2 The Framing of the Media

Media framing is one of the important subjects in media studies. It is because the agenda of the media is set through media framing. Media framing is a process where events or issues are organized and made sense of and this process includes many parties such as media, media professionals and also their audiences (Reese, 2001). Media are indirectly set the agenda by emphasizing the issue of certain topic which are selected and framed before being published to the public.

Framing the news allows the information and message of an event to be selected and well organized before being conveyed in news either in the newspapers or television. Framing is also able to provide insights of how media representations on reporting the news can influence the issue of global climate change (Boykoff, 2008). Apart from that, many parties including the audience, the journalists and also the policy makers rely on framing in order to take certain actions (Nisbet, 2009).

Meanwhile, Niemeijer & Groot (2008) stated that framing is important for many purposes such as to organize, communicate and establish effective messages and information in various fields and sectors. Framing can produce an effective message because the message is selected and well organized before being delivered to the public.

Therefore, framing global climate change news in the newspapers is important because media has a vast role to provide the public with environmental education (Hanigan, 1995). Framing the media about global climate change is essential because global climate change is a wide subject with many issues, controversies and crisis that involves many parties. Public may get different information from different sources and this will create more confusion and uncertainty among the public on the issues concerning global climate change.

Framing global climate change will help to ensure the public to get proper news and paradigm on the issue. Framing the global climate change issues can be either on its negative effects which includes the sacrifice and penalty on the public, or in the positive way which is about the opportunity to benefit the future (Kenix, 2008). However Kenix (2008) believes that the emphasizing on the consequences of global climate change will leave readers with uneasy feeling and fear of the future. Thus, public will try to avoid engaging in the negative news on global climate change as human beings tend to stay away from the feeling of fear and discomfort. When this scenario happens, message and information regarding global climate change cannot be delivered effectively to the public.

On the other hand, Spence and Pidgeon (2010) stated that the public attitudes towards climate change mitigation may be more effective when the news contents discuss about the gains and benefits of global climate change. This statement shows that the public prefer to accept the news on positive outcome on rather than the negative news.

2.3 Newspaper Coverage and Public Understanding on Global Climate Change

International news on global climate change can easily be obtained especially in countries that are prone to its calamitous effects. Newspapers in many countries started to increase their coverage on global climate change issue. Although the trend is different from one country to another, but the scenario shows that the newspapers are becoming more alert of the issue and are keen to provide information regarding global climate change to their audience.

Doulton and Brown (2009), stated that the "rise in coverage of climate change and development reflects an increasing sense of impending catastrophe regarding the impact that climate change will have on development" (Doulton & Brown, 2009).   It shows that media including the newspapers focus on the tragedy and the aftermath of the incidents as it have high news values that will capture their audience's attention.

In Bangladesh newspapers article on global climate change are portrayed majorly in natural disasters and the calamity (Miah et.al, 2011). In Texas the overall newspaper coverage of global climate change in the state over 14 years period had increase and it is influenced by natural events such as Hurricane Katrina and Hurricane Rita (Liu et.al, 2008). Similar situation can also be observed in Mexico. Gordon et.al (2010) also believes that the newspapers tend to increase their attention and coverage on global climate change issue on weather events news.

Apart from weather events and natural disasters, the coverage of newspapers coverage in many countries are also driven by government policy, local and international conferences on global climate change (Liu et.al, 2008). Rhomberg (2009) stated that media will give more attention to global climate change issue when political system made the issue into their policy making agenda. This can also be seen from Sampei & Aoyagi-Usui (2009) study. They stated that apart from international event, media attention on global climate change issue in Japan had increase along with Japan national campaign on global climate change.

Although newspapers coverage on global climate change had increased over the years, however, public conception on global climate change is still ambiguous. This is because the unclear and inaccurate information provided by the newspapers on global climate change may increase probability of public's uncertainty on the issue (Zehr, 2000).

Based on the literatures, it is proved that there is a positive relation between newspaper coverage and public concern on global climate change issue. Therefore, it is important for the newspapers to take this opportunity to provide as much valuable information to the public in order to provide them with knowledge of the cause, effects and the solution of global climate change.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sample

The samples for this research are the articles and features on global climate change of *Berita Harian* and *The New Straits Time*. The *Berita Harian* is one of the most influential Malay newspapers while *The New Straits Times* represent the English Language newspapers. The newspapers' articles on global climate change are retrieved from BERNAMA Infolink Service (BLIS) by using for keywords which are *pemanasan global, perubahan iklim, climate change* or *global warming*.

3.2 Coding Procedure and Pilot Test

For this research, the researcher used the inductive approach of content analysis. Inductive approach of content analysis requires the researcher to conduct the open coding process that is to identify the themes of the raw materials by thoroughly read each article and features of the data that had been retrieved. In order to do the open coding process, the researcher read all the articles and features on global climate change that had been retrieved and identify the theme and frame by using paragraph by paragraph coding. The table below is the list of frames and themes identified in the articles. There are twelve themes had been identified and the themes are then categorized into three major frames.

Table 1: Frames and Themes for the Research

Frames	Themes
Cause	Human activities
	Business and industrial activities
	Agriculture
Effects	Weather events
	Loss of biodiversity
	Public health
	Food supply and agriculture
Public Actions	Political actors
	Educational sector
	Business sector
	Non Government Agencies (NGO)
	Individual

The researcher is the primary coder for this research and another coder who is literate in both English Language and Malay Language is selected to be the second coder. The researcher decided to only use two coders for this research so that it would be easier for the researcher to monitor and cooperate with the coder in order to obtain a valid and trusted result.

Then, a pilot test was conducted. Neuendorf (2002) mentioned that pilot test is essential because the pilot test will reveal whether the coding scheme is reliable or unreliable. In order to ensure that the coding scheme is reliable, the result of the intercoder reliability must fall between .75 to .80 (Neundorf, 2002). However, according to Frey, Botan and Kreps (2000) as stated in Neundorf (2002), 70% of agreement is also acceptable and reliable.

First, a percentage agreement (PA_o) is calculated. The result of the percentage agreement shows that PA_o = .81 (81.0% Agreement). After the percentage agreement is calculated, the intercoder reliability for the pilot test is calculated by using Scott's *pi* formula. For the pilot test, the researcher manually count the percentage as the number of data is small and can be counted manually. The formula is attached in Appendix 4. The result of Scott's *pi* for the pilot test falls on .773 or 77.3 %.

Therefore, as the result exceed the minimum requirement and it indicated that the coding scheme is valid and useful, the researcher proceeded with the coding process for other newspapers stories and features on global climate change. The remaining 517 articles and features were distributed accordingly between the two coders. An analysis had been carried out after the coders completed the coding process.

3.0 Operalization of Characteristic in Coding Sheet

below are the definitions and example of the elements and words that are included in the coding sheet. These are the elements that are important in this research.

A) Causes of global climate change

Causes of global climate change refer to the inclusion of information on the causes or factors that trigger global climate change. There are three major causes of global climate change that are human activities, agricultural industry and industrial and business industry.

- **Human activities** – Human activities refer to any newspaper article or features on activities by human being that increase high level of greenhouse gas in the atmosphere. The examples of the activities are the usage of transportation, energy usage, open burning, cutting down trees for development and more (Boykoff, 2008).

- **Business and Industrial activities** - Business and industrial activities are among the factors that emits huge amount of greenhouse gas and cause global climate change.

- **Agriculture** – Some agricultural activities such as the production of palm oil release a big amount of greenhouse gas in the atmosphere. Agriculture also produces large amount of greenhouse gas.

B) Effects of global climate change

In this context, effects of global climate change can be characterized as any consequences that have to be faced by human being, plants, animal and the environment. The characteristic of the theme are as below:-

- **Weather Events** - According to National Geographic, the change of the global climate causes extreme weather event that leads to natural disaster such as floods, hurricane, wildfire, the melting of the iceberg and drought.

- **Loss of biodiversity** - Apart from the natural disasters, global climate change also affected water, plant, animal and the ecosystem. The warmer climate mainly affected the species which live in colder climate. Plants and animals all around the world have begun to extinct which includes the Adèlie penguin that lives in the Antarctica (Isaacson, 2011).

- **Human health** - Apart from that, global climate change also affects the society and human activities. Food supply, human health, and settlement (Kovats & Akhtar, 2011) are in jeopardize. The changing of the climate generate many health implications and diseases such as

cardiovascular mortality, respiratory illness which is due to heatwaves[1], malaria, dengue fever, Ross-River Virus in Australia[2], and plague[3] (Patz et.al, 2005).

- **Reduction of food supply and agricultural product** - Other implication is on the food supply and agriculture product. It can happen when the Earth temperature begins to increase and created unstable weather event. The occurrences of a few series of drought and floods prevent the crops and yields to grow healthily thus it will affect the food production.

C) Public Action on global climate change

This frame refers to the articles and features that tell the story of groups of people and individuals that perform the actions o reduce the effects of global climate change.

The researcher had identified that there are five categories of people who actively participate in the reduction of the effects of global climate change. They can be characterized as below:-

- **Political activities** - Political activities refer newspapers stories about government's actions such as meeting and conference, the invention of new policies related to global climate change and campaign (Boykoff, 2008). The article can be in the form of local government's actions or international government's action to combat global climate change.

- **Educational sectors** – Educational sectors refer to any newspapers' stories regarding the activities and the involvement by the educational sectors such as schools, colleges, universities, students and students' body in reducing the effects of global climate change.

- **Business sectors** – Business sectors can be referred organizations that conduct any activity or services and supply product and goods for commercial purposes. In this context, business sector frame can be operationalized as any newspapers stories regarding business sectors activities and initiatives to reduce global climate change.

- **Non-Government Organization (NGO)** – Non-government organizations
(NGO) refer to organizations that consist by a group of people and it does not run to gain profit. One of the most well-known non-government organizations in Malaysia that actively organizes beneficial events and programmes to reduce the effects of global climate change and creating public awareness on the issue is World Wildlife Federation (WWF).

- **Individuals** – Individuals refer to the public either a single individual or a group of people that does not belong to any of the themes above. Individuals theme can be operationalized by

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[1] The research shows greenhouse gas emissions are likely to exaggerate the heatwaves.

[2] Ross River virus is one of a group of viruses called arboviruses (or arthropod-borne viruses), which are spread mainly by blood-sucking insects (WHO, 2005).

[3] Plague is a zoonotic disease circulating mainly among small animals and their fleas. The bacteria *Yersinia pestis* can also infect humans. It is transmitted between animals and humans by the bite of infected fleas, direct contact, inhalation and rarely, ingestion of infective materials.

identifying the information in the newspaper stories regarding any efforts taken by the individuals or a group of people in the society in reducing the effects of global climate change.

4.0 FINDING AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Trend of Newspaper Coverage in *Berita Harian* and *The New Straits Times.*

The total number of articles which are obtained for this research is 325 articles. The first objective of this study is to examine the trend of newspaper coverage in *The New Straits Times* and *Berita Harian* from 2008 to 2010. Figure 1 shows the total number of newspapers articles on global climate change published in all four Malaysia mainstream newspapers according to year. Year 2008(a), 2009(a) and 2010(a) indicated the first half of these years which is January until June of that year. Meanwhile, 2008 (b), 2009 (b) and 2010(b) indicate the second half on year 2008, 2009 and 2010 that is in July until December.

Figure 1:
Trend of Newspapers Coverage on Global Climate Change from 2008 to 2010.

	2008A	2008B	2009A	2009B	2010A	2010B
Berita Harian	0	3	19	13	32	15
New Straits Time	2	31	49	58	44	59
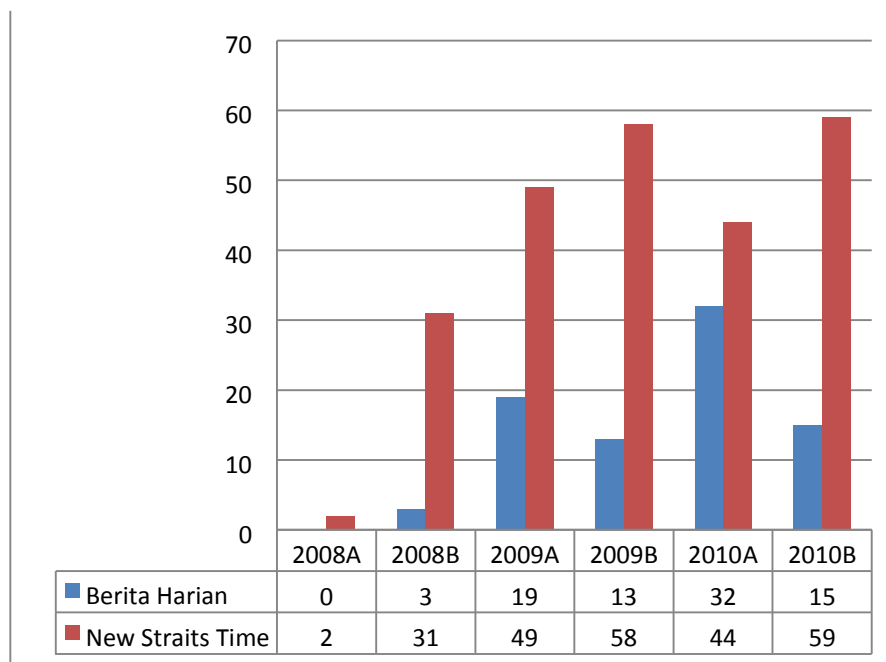
*2008A indicate the first half of year 2008 (January to June) while 2008B indicate the second half of year 2008 (July to December), etc.

Figure 1 shows the trend of coverage on global climate change in all four Malaysia mainstream newspapers in 2008, 2009 and 2010. During this study period, it is identified that the amounts of newspaper coverage on global climate change are not stable and slightly rose and fell. However, in general, the increasing number of newspapers coverage on global climate change shows that the newspapers are giving more attention on the issue. Even so, the attention given by each newspaper differs on a certain degree. This can be seen by the quantity of articles published in each year by the newspapers.

Each newspaper has dramatically increase their newspapers coverage on global climate change issue from 2008 (b) to 2009(a). These growing attentions on global climate change issue reveals that the newspapers are becoming more aware on global climate change despite of diverse degree of attention on the

issue. This scenario shows a positive trend in the coverage of global climate change in Malaysia mainstream newspapers.

The coverage of global climate change issue in Malaysia mainstream newspapers reaches its peak in 2010(b). 2010(b) has the highest total amount of global climate change article with 150 articles. This trend indicates that there is a significant correlation between newspapers coverage and global climate change event.

The growing media attention and awareness on global climate change issue can be driven by many factors. As mentioned by Boykoff and Robert (2007), media coverage on global climate change are influenced by regulatory frameworks, political constrains and economic drivers. This situation can be seen in the pattern of global climate change coverage in Malaysia mainstream newspapers. One of the factors can be analyzed through major events that are related to global climate change which occurred in 2009.

There is a significant relationship between the increasing numbers of newspaper coverage on global climate change issue with the occurrence of events concerning the issue. According to the newspapers trend, the first peak of newspapers coverage on global climate change in the mainstream newspapers is in 2009 (a).

In March 2009, Malaysia had participated in World Wide Fund (WWF) campaign on global climate change that is Earth Hour. As it was Malaysia first participation in Earth Hour Campaign, media in Malaysia including the newspapers gave wide attention and increase their coverage on the campaign. Most of the articles on global climate change within this period were on Earth Hour Campaign which was held in March and followed by Earth Day in April. Malaysia mainstreams newspapers increased their coverage on global climate change particularly on Earth Hour Campaign and Earth Day as to inform the public about the campaigns

The second peak of global climate change coverage by Malaysia mainstream newspapers are in 2009(b) which is in July 2009 to December 2009. Although *Berita Harian*'s coverage on the issue had slightly dropped but the other three newspapers increase their coverage during this period. This scenario can be influenced by local and international event in regard to global climate change issue that occurred during the period.

The adaption of climate change policy by Malaysian government in 2009 was one of the major events that influence the increasing article on global climate change issue in the second half of 2009. Apart from that, newspapers coverage on global climate change in July 2009 to December 2009 had increase because of United Nation Climate Change Summit in Copenhagen, Denmark which was held in December 2009. The summit was participated by many countries including The United States, China, India, Japan, the United Kingdom, Indonesia and Malaysia. The aim of the summit was to stabilize the greenhouse gas emission in the atmosphere to a level that will not bring harm to the climate (Dell'Amor, 2009).

The trend in newspapers coverage on global climate change decreases in the first half of 2010. Majority if the articles regarding global climate change issue during this period were related to Earth Hour 2010 campaign while some articles are the follow up article from 2009 United Nation climate Change Conference. Apart from the annual celebration of Earth Hour, Earth Day and World Environmental Day, there were no major events related to global climate change occurred within that period.

However, the decreasing trend of newspapers coverage on global climate change issue did not continue in the second half of year 2010. This is because the newspapers coverage on global climate change

once again began to increase in July 2010 to December 2010. This might significantly influence with the occurrences of 2010 United Nations Climate Change

Conference in Cancun, Mexico which was held from 29th November 2010 to 10th December 2010.

4.2 Frame of Newspapers Coverage in Berita Harian and The New Straits Times.

The second objective of this study is to identify the frames and themes of global climate change that are commonly reported in Malaysia mainstream newspapers that represent their attention on the issue.

Table 2: Number of Newspaper Stories for Each Frame

	Cause	Effect	Public Action
New Straits Times	24	42	177
Berita Harian	2	20	60

Based on Table 2, the study reveals that all *Berita Harian* and *The New Straits Times* focus on global climate change as a public action issue. *The New Straits Times* has 177 (54.5%) news stories (n=325)on public action frame while *Berita Harian* has 60 (18.5%) news stories for the similar frame. The cause frame appeared in 24 (7.4%) news stories in *The New Straits Times* and only appears 2 (0.6%) times in *Berita Harian*. Meanwhile, the effects of global climate change appear in 42 (12.9%) news stories in *The New Straits Times* and 20 (6.2%) stories in *Berita Harian*.

The dramatic differences and a huge number of coverage on the issue prove that the newspapers have high tendency to report on public actions and the initiatives taken by the public to combat the problem. This situation is considered unlikely compared to the newspapers coverage of global climate change in other country.

Previous studies reveals that the newspapers coverage in other countries such as in the United States tends to focus on the conflicts and crisis on the issue while studies in Indian and Mexican newspapers shows that the newspapers in India and Mexico tend to focus on the effects and the consequences on global climate change. However, in Malaysia, the newspapers' coverage on global climate change issue majorly focuses on the solutions that are taken by the public on reducing the effects of global climate change.

The findings reveals that newspapers in Malaysia has the tendency to frame and report the news about public action which is able to help to inform the audience about actions that had been done by the society to reduce the effects of global climate change. It can also significantly provide the audience with the idea on how to reduce their greenhouse gas emission. Consequently, the audience is expected to take the similar actions in combating global climate change as being reported by the newspapers. This will lead to the high reduction of greenhouse gas emissions and this situation will bring a lot of benefits.

Apart from that, Malaysia mainstream newspapers tendency to report on public actions frame also shows that the Malaysian society is becoming more wary about global climate change issue. Thus they are making significant contribution and initiatives to reduce the effects of global climate change. This can be proved by the large amount of articles that tell the audience that the public in Malaysia organized and involved in activities to reduce global climate change effects.

Newspapers in Malaysia have less coverage on the effect and cause of global climate change because the country does face with serious threat of the natural disaster effect of global climate change. In comparison to other country, the natural disasters that occurred in Malaysia in conjunction of global climate change are in small number. Apart from that, as suggested by previous researchers, the news coverage on global climate change should be conveyed in a more positive way. Thus, by reducing the number of coverage on the negative news on global climate change can reduce public's fear on the issue.

5.0 CONCLUSION

As the conclusion, the trend of newspapers coverage on global climate change in Malaysia mainstream newspapers is related to the major events that are related to the issue. It can be observe by the amount of newspaper coverage which increases during the occasions that are related to global climate change. As stated by previous study, the coverage of certain issues can be influenced by certain trends and patterns in order to grab public attention (Newig, 2004). Therefore, it is not surprising that the newspapers coverage on global climate change issue drastically increase during major events and would decrease when there is no major occasions related to global climate change.

Apart from that The result signifies that the newspapers' portrayal on global climate change are majority on the positive actions that are taken by the to reduce the effects of global climate change. Portraying public initiatives to reduce the effects of green house gas and the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions shows that Malaysians are paying more attention on the issue. It also indicates that Malaysian public are becoming more aware of global climate change issue and as the result, they have increased their initiatives to combat the problem.

Future research should also focus on Malaysian journalist knowledge on global climate change issue. The researchers suggest that the future research will study on the journalists understanding on global climate change and how they portray the issue in the newspapers.

This is because previous studies stated that the some of the articles in the newspapers tend to provide misleading information and knowledge to the public. This situation will create uncertainty and confusions among the public. Therefore, a study on this area in Malaysia context will be beneficial as it will provide a useful insight on journalists knowledge on the issue.

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