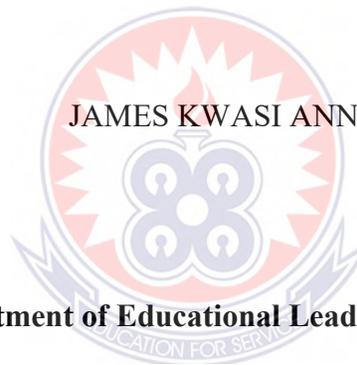


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN BASIC SCHOOLS: THE CASE OF K.N.U.S.T.
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, KUMASI METROPOLIS.



JAMES KWASI ANNAN

**A Dissertation in Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of Education and
Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, University
of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of the
Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership) degree**

FEBRUARY, 2017

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, JAMES KWASI ANNAN, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and that it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME: PROF. COSMAS COBBOLD

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am immensely grateful to the Omnipotent Father for sustaining me in my quest for higher education. The preparation and submission of this project work would not have been possible without the support of certain personalities who deserve my gratitude. I wish to offer my profound appreciation to my supervisor Prof. Cosmas Cobbold, for his valuable suggestions and constructive criticisms of the content, structure and preparation of this work.

Secondly, to my dear wife Jackline Annan whose encouragement and support have brought me this far. Finally, a big thank you to my brother John Kwasi Annan, Ama Benewah Annan and Yvonne Afriyie for always keeping me on my feet. God bless you all.



DEDICATION

To my lovely daughter Efua Sekyiwah Annan.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	xi
ABSTRACT	xiii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	4
1.3 Purpose of the Study	6
1.4. Objectives of the Study	6
1.5. Research Questions	6
1.6 Significance of the Study	7
1.7 Delimitations of the Study	8
1.8 Limitations of the Study	8
1.9 Organization of the Study	8
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Theoretical framework	10
2.3 Definition of Conflict	11
2.4 Types of conflict	12



2.4.1 Types of institutional conflicts	18
2.5 Causes of Conflict	21
2.5.1 Poor Communication	21
2.5.2 Climate of the School	22
2.5.3 Preference and Nuisance	22
2.5.4. Values	23
2.5.5. Unfair Allocation of Resources	23
2.5.6 Disagreement about the Importance of a Programme	24
2.5.7 Appointment of Officers	24
2.5.8 Tribal Differences	25
2.5.9 Competition for Scarce Resources	25
2.5.10 Religious Differences	26
2.5.11 Goal Incompatibility	28
2.6 Nature of conflicts in organizations	28
2.7 Impact of Conflict on School Administration	32
2.7.1 The Traditionalist School of Thought	32
2.7.2 The Human Relations School of Thought	33
2.7.3 The Interactionist School of Thought	33
2.8. Negative Impact of Conflict	34
2.8.1 Conflict leads to Poor Communication	34
2.8.2 Conflict leads to Hostility	35
2.8.3 Conflict Creates Tension	35
2.8.4 Conflict Destroys the Family Spirit among Teachers	36



2.9 Areas of Conflict	36
2.10 Characteristics of Conflict	39
2.11 Nature of Conflicts in Institutions	39
2.11.1 Some sources of workplace conflict	41
2.12 Positive Impact of Conflict	43
2.12.1 Conflict Strengthens the Institution	43
2.12.2 Conflict leads to Strategic Planning	44
2.12.3 Conflict leads to Development of the School	44
2.12.4 Conflict Improves Performance	45
2.12.5 Conflict leads to better Approach to Issues	45
2.12.6 Conflict serves as the Minority's Voice	46
2.13 Negative impact of conflicts	46
2.14 Levels/Stages of Conflict	50
2.14.1 Latent Stage of Conflict	50
2.14.2 Perceived Stage of Conflict	50
2.14.3 Felt Stage of Conflict	50
2.14.4 Manifest Stage of Conflict	51
2.14.5 Aftermath/Cessation of Conflict	51
2.15 Conflict Management in Schools	52
2.16 Conflict Resolution Strategies	53
2.16.1 Avoiding Style	54
2.16.2 Competing Style	54
2.16.3 Accommodating Style	55

2.16.4 Compromising Style	56
2.16.5 Collaborating Style	56
2.17. Conflict Prevention Strategies	57
2.17.1 Resolution of conflicts in schools	61
2.18 Conflict Management	63
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	72
3.1. Introduction	72
3.2 Research Design	72
3.3 Research Approach	74
3.4. The Study Area	74
3.5. Population	76
3.6. The Sample	76
3.7. Sampling Technique	77
3.8. Data Collection Instrument	77
3.8.1 Semi-Structured interview	78
3.9 Pre – Testing of Research Instruments	79
3.10 Testing Validity and Reliability of the Instrument	80
3.11 Trustworthiness of the Data	80
3.12 Data Collection Procedure	82
3.13 Data Analysis Procedure	82
3.14 Ethical Considerations	83
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	85



4.1 Introduction	85
4.2. SECTION A – Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	85
4.3. SECTION B – ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS	87
4.3.1. Research Question One – What types of conflict occur among teachers in	87
4.1.4 Comparison of types of conflict occurs among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school	91
4.3.2. Research Question Two - What are the causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?	94
4.3.3. Research Question Three - What is the impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?	98
4.3.4. Research Question Four - What strategies can be employed to deal with conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?	102
<i>Statements - Avoidance Strategy</i>	103
<i>Statements –Head teacher</i>	105
<i>Statements - Collaborating Strategy</i>	107
<i>Statements - Compromise Strategy</i>	109
<i>Statements - Competition Strategy</i>	111
<i>Avoidance Strategy</i>	113
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	116
5.1. Introduction	116
5.2. Summary of Findings	116
5.3 Summary of Major Findings	117

5.4 Conclusion	118
5.5 Recommendations	118
5.6 Recommendations for Future Research	119
REFERENCES	120
APPENDIX A	134



LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
4.1: Age Distribution of Teachers	87
4.2: Sex Distribution of Teachers	87
4.3: Educational Status Distribution of Teachers	88
4.4: Task Conflict as a type of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school	89
4.5: Relationship Conflict as a type of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school	91
4.6: Comparison of types of conflict that occurs among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school	93
4.7: Causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High School	95
4.8: Impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school	100
4.9: Avoidance methods used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers	104
4.10: Accommodating Strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers	106
4.11: Collaborating Strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers	108
4.12: Compromise Strategy used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers	110

4.13: Competition Strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers	112
4.14: Summary of strategies used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers	114



ABSTRACT

The thrust of the study was mainly to identify the various types of conflicts among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. J.H.S. The focus is on the causes of conflicts and how they are resolved to mitigate their effect on teaching and learning and to also suggest conflict resolution strategies to reduce conflict in basic schools. The target population for the study comprised the head teacher and teachers of K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school in the Kumasi Metropolis, The school has total staff strength of 86, made up of 26 females and 60 males including the head and his two deputies. The study adopted the mixed methods research design approach in order to be able to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The data which was collected by means of two sets of validated questionnaires and a structured interview schedule was duly analysed and the results presented in the form of tables and percentages. Based on the findings of the study, it was revealed that task conflict was the dominant conflict experienced by the teachers. Again, administrative incompetence of head teachers and indiscipline (on the part of both teachers and students) lead to the conflict among teachers. It was recommended that Government should be more sensitive to teachers' welfare, increase motivation through remuneration, materials and facilities should be provided fully in public schools to reduce the conflict among teachers. The Regional and District Directorate should organize seminars and orientation for head teachers for effective schools' administration. School authorities should motivate teachers, encourage staff professional development, communicating affectively with staff and also use effective conflicts resolution methods. Courses in conflict management and human relations should be included in the curriculum for teachers in training as a way of preparing them for conflict management in school administration.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Conflict is inevitable among humans. When two or more social entities (i.e., individuals, groups, organizations, and nations) come in contact with one another in attaining their objectives, their relationships may become incompatible or inconsistent. Relationships among such entities may become inconsistent when two or more of them desire a similar resource that is in short supply; when they have partially exclusive behavioral preferences regarding their joint action; or when they have different attitudes, values, beliefs, and skills. Conflict is the perception of differences of interests among people (Robbins, 2003).

Beyers (2007) defines conflict as a disagreement in opinions between people or groups, due to differences in attitudes, beliefs, values or needs. In the business world, differences in such characteristics as work experience, personality, peer group, environment, and situation, all lead to differences in personal attitudes, beliefs, values or needs.

From the above definitions it is obvious that there is no just one practical definition of conflict. Each person has an individual way of thinking and behaves differently from others in similar situations. It can be concluded that conflict can affect everyone to varying extent (Beyers, 2007)

Different forms of disagreements come up in our families. For instance, in many marriages, disagreements occur over sensitive issues such as the frequency of sex in a

week, housekeeping money, spouse's promiscuity and many more. Such disagreements could be intense and produce hatred, divorce or in worse cases, murder. Another example of disagreement is when a baby cries as a result of being uncomfortable but which the mother, out of misunderstanding, forces the baby to breastfeed which the child refuses or does not respond to. Again, disagreements crop up when adolescents believe they can lead their own lives as they desire and clash with parents or guardians who try to prevent or dictate to them as to what is acceptable and what is not acceptable, leading to both parties not understanding each other.

Disagreements can occur in communities when chiefs and elders make rules and the inhabitants refuse to comply with them. Even in religion, which has the fundamental belief that there is a supreme being (God), a lot of disagreements do occur. For example, Christians who are supposed to share the same belief have disagreement over the appropriate day for worshipping God. Thus, whether to worship God on Saturday or Sunday.

In diverse ways, disagreements can also occur in schools— among teachers, among pupils, between pupils and their teachers. For example, disagreement may emerge among teachers when a colleague keeps pupils or students at morning assembly for too long resulting in taking some time off the other colleagues' period for teaching. In the same way, disagreement could occur between teachers and pupils over disciplinary measures such as corporal punishment and other forms of punishments that ensure discipline in the school. These conflict situations have to be resolved to ensure peace and harmony in society.

Conflict resolution is the process of attempting to resolve a dispute or a conflict. Successful conflict resolution occurs by listening to and providing opportunities to meet the needs of all parties and to adequately address interests, so that, each party is satisfied with the outcome (Alexander, 2005). While 'conflict resolution' engages conflict once it has already started, 'conflict prevention' aims to end conflicts before they start or before they lead to verbal, physical, or legal fighting or violence. Conflict itself has both positive and negative outcomes (Altinok, 2009).

The art of conflict resolution or conflict management is grounded on the fundamental principles of management processes as outlined by Taylor (1911). Conflict management as a process entails ensemble of activities of planning and monitoring the performance of a process, especially in the sense of a conflict resolution process. It involves the application of knowledge, skills, tools, techniques and systems to define, visualize, measure, control, report and improve processes with the goal to a harmonious environment of co-existence. Taylor developed his management theories in his book *Shop Management* published in 1903, making it arguably the first scholarly work on management. Although there were books and published pieces on what could be termed “management” these were more of a “guide to” or trade publication on best practices. *Shop Management* approached the role of manager as a general role with specific functions with respect to collaborative work.

Some of the emergencies that arise as a result of unresolved conflicts include: arson attacks, riots and violence which result in injury and loss of life and property. Educationists equally agree that most schools now spend little time on academics because discipline consumes so much time. This has had negative impacts on the academic

standards and performance. It is also widely acknowledged that violence against teachers, other students, and destruction of property both in the learning institution and surrounding communities has greatly increased in the past years (Robbins, 2003).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The sole aim of any educational establishment is to engage in the essential duty of teaching and learning in order to help students acquire knowledge, change some skills or attitudes and ideas, with the aim to create or influence desirable changes in behavior in its student. In line with this important function, Mankoe and Aggrey (2009), allude that the school's atmosphere should be serene, tranquil, and free from all forms of unrest, particularly on the part of students. Afful- Broni (2007), shares this view that "since the school is such an important place for nurturing, facilitating and learning, and for sowing seeds for the growth and progress of the community, there ought to be as much peace and harmony as human possible". (p 168) He however notes that in our attempt to ensure total peace and harmony in the school community, there are certain inevitable human factors, including conflict which appears to threaten the peaceful co-existence which is so much needed in the school. This is because in educational institutions, like all other social organizations," "a significant fact of life is the presence of conflict in many forms and at different levels of strength" (Mankoe, 2007, p. 188).

In the words of Brett and Rognes (1986), cited in Organ and Bateman (1991), "conflict is the most important issues surrounding the interface between work groups". (p 127) According to Calcis and Mcguire. (1990), cited in Clegg et al (2005, p. 277). "various studies have demonstrated that organizations are often unstable and

characterized by conflict”. That is, conflict spreads along all areas of human endeavours and experiences.

People come together to form groups through voluntary and involuntary means. Examples of voluntary groups are friends, clubs, and societies. Those of involuntary means include families, ethnic groups, classmates among others. Conflict normally accompanies the coming together of people because of differences in beliefs, interests and opinions.

It is generally believed that quality education is centered on the quality and the efficacy of the teacher, availability of teaching and learning resources, infrastructure and the ability of the pupils or students to grasp and reproduce what has been taught them. Little attention is however paid to what happens in the school environment, in the classroom when teaching is in progress and the kind of relationships that exist between teachers and pupils, among teachers, among pupils, between teachers and their school heads, and even between the school and the community in which the school exists. Conflict needs to be looked at critically and all preventive measures adapted; to enhance the school environment and enable teachers and pupils live and work together in harmony.

Conflict in the basic schools in particular can have adverse effects on teaching and learning especially when it emerges between teachers and pupils. This conflict, when not resolved early, can turn teachers and pupils into enemies or strain peaceful relationships and make it difficult, if not impossible, for effective teaching and learning to go on. This can cause unnecessary punishments to be meted out to pupils and even

make pupils drop out of school, that is the reason there is the need to look at conflict at the Basic Schools.

This research aims at identifying the various types of conflicts among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. J.H.S. The focus is on the causes of conflicts and how they are resolved to mitigate their effect on teaching and learning, and to also suggest conflict resolution strategies to reduce conflict in basic schools.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to investigate conflict among teachers and its management in the K.N.U.S.T. Junior High School in the Kumasi Metropolis.

1.4. Objectives of the study

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the types of conflict that occur among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school
2. To identify the causes of conflict that exists among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.
3. To ascertain the impact of conflict on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.
4. To identify strategies used to deal with conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

1.5. Research Questions

The following questions were posed to guide the study:

1. What types of conflicts occur among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?
2. What factors cause conflicts among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?
3. What is the impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?
4. What strategies can be employed to deal with conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will be of immense benefit to Ministry of Education Science and Sports, Ghana Education Service (GES), Colleges of Education and Parents Teachers Association (PTA). It will make the Ministry of Education and Sports aware of the absolute need for including issues on conflict in the curriculum of educational institutions in Ghana. This can help mitigate problems of conflict in primary schools, the society and the nation at large.

The Colleges of Education will also benefit from the findings of this research because the school can be a place of learning when teachers realize the needs of pupils, accommodate pupils in all circumstances and treat each child as an individual. Due to this, principals of Colleges of Education can incorporate conflict resolution studies in their curriculum to train teachers. The research can also help tutors of Colleges of Education to improve their relationship with the teacher trainees, so that latter can replicate the cordial relationship with their pupils when they are posted to their various schools. This in a long run will have a significant impact on education in Ghana.

It is known that parents and the communities are stakeholders of education. Therefore these stakeholders are going to benefit from the outcome of the study by increasing their awareness on the negative effects conflict has on their wards' education. They will also learn from the outcome of the study by cultivating warm relationships with the school. This can be done by organizing open forum at community mass meeting and at the schools' PTA meetings. Moreover, the Dissertation is a body of knowledge which will serve as a reference material to other researchers.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

This research is limited to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High School. The study seeks not only to identify problems that hinder effective teaching and learning in the classrooms, but also problems of conflict in and outside classrooms. Conflict between school administrators and students and/or supporting staff was excluded due to time and financial constraints.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of this study was the use of one institution for the study. This limits the generalization of the findings to only K.N.U.S.T. Junior High School.

1.9 Organization of the Study

Chapter Two provides a review of literature related to conflict and discusses issues on conflict in general, how conflict is initiated, causes of conflict, positive and

negative effects of conflict, characteristics of conflict, conflict response style and classroom management in relation to disruption and teacher-pupil relationships.

Chapter Three provides the research methodology. It describes the research design, population studied, sampling techniques used, instrumentation, primary and secondary data, data collection procedures and the data analysis plan. Chapter Four deals with analysis and discussion of the main findings of the research. Chapter Five provides the summary, conclusions, and recommendations for improving school environments and reducing conflict situations in Ghanaian basic schools.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to this study. This was done with the expectation that relevant information would be obtained to help shape and enrich the study. Knowledge of what has been done on this topic is important in helping to clarify issues.

The review focused on the under listed areas;

- ❖ Theoretical framework
- ❖ Experts' Views on Conflict
- ❖ Types of Conflict
- ❖ Causes of Conflict
- ❖ Impact of Conflict
- ❖ Conflict Management
- ❖ Conflict Prevention
- ❖ Summary



2.2 Theoretical Framework

The study was anchored in the Group Conflict Process Theory developed by Robbins (2003) that indicates that most organizational conflicts are managed through approaches to conflict management such as negotiations, resolution and stimulation. Robbins further identifies cooperativeness and assertiveness as the two dimensions in conflict handling intentions. From these two dimensions, he further generates and identifies five conflict-handling intentions as competing, collaborating, accommodating,

and compromising. These dimensions were therefore generated as conflict resolution techniques in the study. Against this background, this theory helped the current study to investigate conflict management methods in schools.

2.3 Definition of Conflict

The word conflict according to Rahim (2002) comes from the Latin word “conflictus”, meaning “striking together with force”. The term has been defined differently by various authorities. The Cambridge International Dictionary of English defines conflict as ‘an active disagreement between two people with opposing opinions or principles’. Boonsathorn (2007) defines the term as a condition that arises whenever the perceived interests of an individual or group clash with those of another individual or group in such a way that strong emotions are aroused and compromise is not considered an option.

Brett (2004) explains that conflict refers to any situation in which there are incompatible goals, thoughts, or emotions within or between individuals or groups that lead to opposition. Altinok (2009) on the other hand submit that conflict is a disagreement over social issues, beliefs and teachings (i.e. ideologies) or specific behaviours which occur when the aspirants of two parties are incompatible or when two or more parties have divergent interests concerning the same issue Best (2006) seems to agree perfectly with the above definitions when he says that conflict is a contest of opposing forces or powers; a struggle to resist or overcome. He adds that conflict exists whenever incompatible activities occur. Dzurgba (2006) on his part, as seen in Mankoe

(2007) defines conflict as a process of antagonism that occurs when one person or organizational subunit frustrates the goal attainment of another.

To Dzurba (2006) conflict is an activity that occurs when an individual or group feels negatively affected by the behavior of others. By implication, if the activities of a person or group are seen to be counter-productive to the progress of another, conflict may occur. Deutsch, (2007) sees conflict as a perceived difference between two or more parties that results in mutual opposition and has both constructive consequences. In the opinion of Deutsch, (2005), conflict begins when one party perceives that another has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect something that the first party cares about.

A closer look at all the definition of conflict stated above suggests that in every interpersonal conflict:

- there are at least two parties involved,
- there is the issue of perceived incompatibility of goals and
- Perceived antagonism between the parties involved.

2.4 Types of Conflict

A conflict can either be destructive or constructive, according to the perception of the disputants (Deutsch, 2005). A conflict is destructive if its participants are dissatisfied with the outcomes and feel they have lost as a result of the conflict. A conflict is constructive if the participants are all satisfied with the outcomes and feel that they have gained as a result of it. Johnson and Johnson (1996) state that, in addition to satisfaction with the outcomes, constructive conflict also improves the relationship between the

disputants, as well as their ability to resolve future conflicts in a constructive manner. In reality, a conflict is rarely only destructive or constructive, but it seems preferable for both conflicting parties to strive for constructive consequences as much as possible.

Conflict can also be distinguished according to the relationship between the objective state of affairs and the state of affairs as perceived by the conflicting parties (Deutsch, 2005). In this sense, there are six different types of conflict: veridical, contingent, displaced, misattributed, latent, and false conflict. Veridical conflict, also called 'true conflict', exists objectively and is perceived accurately by the conflicting parties. It is not contingent upon an easily altered feature of the environment. For example, a child wants to read a certain book and another child wants to read that book at the same time as well. When there is not another copy of the book available, the children have a 'true conflict'.

A contingent conflict exists when the conflict depends on readily rearranged circumstances, but these are not recognized by the conflicting parties. The contingent conflict would disappear if the available alternative resources for satisfying the conflicting needs were recognized. The preceding example of a veridical conflict will be classified as a contingent conflict when there is actually another copy of the book available, so both children can read the book at the same time. In displaced conflict, the parties are arguing about something else than the actual conflict. This relates to manifest conflict and underlying conflict in which the experienced conflict is a manifest conflict and the conflict that is not directly expressed is the underlying conflict. The manifest conflict usually expresses the underlying conflict in some form. In misattributed conflict, the conflict is between the wrong parties because one or both of the parties misattributes something to the other. As a result, the conflict is usually about the wrong issues. Latent

conflict is a conflict that should be occurring but is actually not, for example when a person is not yet consciously experiencing the situation as a conflict. False conflict is the occurrence of a conflict when there is no objective basis for it, because of misperception or misunderstanding (Deutsch, 2005).

Champoux (2003) distinguish two additional types of conflict which are often used in schools: controversy and cognitive conflict (also known as conceptual conflict). Controversy exists when a person's ideas, information, conclusions, theories, or opinions are incompatible with those of another person, and both seek to reach an agreement (Champoux, 2003). Controversies are resolved by engaging in deliberate discourse. This entails a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of proposed actions aimed at synthesizing novel solutions (Champoux, 2003). For example, controversy can be about the pros and cons of civil disobedience in a democracy. Closely related to controversy is cognitive conflict, which exists when two incompatible ideas exist simultaneously within a student's mind and must be reconciled (Champoux, 2003). For example, a child who believes that the world is flat, while his or her teacher says the world is round. The child now has two incompatible, and thus conflicting, ideas within his or her mind: the earth is round versus the earth is flat. These are the types of conflict that has been discussed.

2.4.1 Intrapersonal Conflict

Dirks and Parks (2003) point out that intrapersonal conflict occurs within a person and that one can experience intrapersonal conflict with respect to the amount of resources one has by hearing internal voices that disagree. In agreement with this assertion, Orlich and Callaham (2001) explain that in intrapersonal conflict the individual tries to

reconcile conflict within his or her own value structure. Similarly, Hart (2001) observes that conflict may not only take a toll on one's physical body but it often occupies one's thoughts and causes a great deal of emotion.

Dirks and Parks (2003) also agree that intrapersonal conflict occurs within an individual and can involve some form of goal or cognitive conflict. They argue that intrapersonal conflict occurs when a person's behaviour results in positive and negative outcomes or incompatible outcomes. An example is where a person has the option to choose a job in a government organisation that does not pay well but has future security or take a job from a private company that pays well but does not provide any future security. Such a choice could lead to intrapersonal conflict.

2.4.2 Interpersonal Conflict

Dirks and Parks (2003) refer to interpersonal conflict as clashes that involve two or more individuals who perceive each other as being in opposition to preferred outcomes (goals) and or attitudes, values or behaviours. Similarly, Nelson-Jones (1990) indicates that interpersonal conflict is a situation in which one or both individuals in a relationship are experiencing difficulty in working or living with each other. Expanding on this point, Nelson-Jones states that interpersonal conflict usually occurs when due to differences or incompatibilities, needs, goals or styles clash. Similar to this assertion is Orlich et al (2001) who observed that in interpersonal conflict the values of different individuals or groups openly clash.

Mcshane and Glinow (2000) are of the view that inter-personal conflict occurs between two or more people. It normally arises as a result of two or more people

competing for the same job, position or for limited resources. According to Mcshane and Glinow (2000), the most commonly cited reasons for inter-personal conflict in organizations are personality differences, perceptions, clashes of values and interests, power and status differences, and scarce resources.

2.4.3 Intra-Group/Personal Conflict

This type of conflict emerges between people who identify themselves as belonging to the same group. Dirks and Parks (2003) explain that intragroup conflict is a clash among some or all of a group's members which often affects the group's progress and effectiveness. In a classroom situation, an intragroup conflict may occur within members of a class where pupils sit in close proximity and interact with each other. Such conflict can also occur among the staff of schools who have different views on the kind of measures appropriate for punishing students. In this case, some teachers may support the use of corporal punishment while others may support other milder forms of punishment for misbehaviour.

According to (Nelson & Quick, 2001), there are several types of intrapersonal conflict, some of which are: inter-role, intra-role and person-role conflicts. They define role as a set of expectation placed on an individual by others. The person occupying the focal role is the role incumbent and the individuals who place expectations on the person are role senders. On the various types of intrapersonal conflict, they explain inter-role conflict as one that occurs when a person experiences conflict among multiple roles in his or her life. It often arises when a person receives conflicting messages from role senders as to how to perform a certain role.

2.4.4 Intergroup Conflict

This emerges between two or more groups of people. While Dirks and Parks (2003) define intergroup conflict as opposition and clashes that arise between two or more groups, Wilmot and Hocker (1998) indicate that such conflicts are highly intense and costly to the group involved. Intergroup conflict can therefore occur between two or more schools. According to Antcliffé (1998), intergroup conflict within organisations occurs at three levels: vertical, horizontal and line staff. Antcliffé explains these as follows:

i Vertical conflict refers to clashes between levels in an organization. For example, vertical conflict occurs when superiors try to control subordinates too tightly as subordinates resist the control.

ii Horizontal conflict refers to clashes between groups of employees at the same hierarchical level in an organisation. In a school situation horizontal conflict will occur if one department desires a larger proportion of scarce resources at the expense of other departments.

iii Line-staff conflict is a clash over authority relationships. As Antcliffé (1998) indicate, line staff conflict can easily occur from the different organizational roles of line and staff departments. An example is where staffing decisions taken by the personnel department (a staff function) is opposed by the production department (a line function). This implies that conflict in an organization can occur at different levels and so conflict resolution is paramount to effective management of organisations.

It is worth remembering that conflict that emerges in oneself, in marriages, in the family, the community, in an organization or country can be grouped under one or more of the types mentioned. It is also important to note that conflict can arise between people who have the same goals but disagree on the means by which the goals can be achieved. Conflict that occurs within a person can have either a covert effect on the imitations of the fellow or an overt effect which he or she involves other people in the conflict. Conflict should therefore not only be studied by itself as psychologists do but conflict resolution should be given keen consideration in social situations and its study should be a concern for all.

2.4.5 Types of institutional conflicts

According to Kirkwood (2002), various types of conflict that exist in Institutions include data conflicts, structural conflicts, relationship conflicts, and interest conflicts. The author further argued that conflicts can lead to disputes, grievances, lawsuits, complaints, strikes, and disciplinary actions. Davidson and Wood (2004) posit that conflict can occur at a number of levels of human functioning. Conflict between opposing motives or ideas is shown by your internal dialogue and is at the intrapersonal level. Beyond that, the primary concern here is with social conflict, that is, conflict between people whether they are acting as individuals, as members of groups, or as representatives of Institutions or nations.

Interpersonal conflict occurs when two people have incompatible needs, goals, or approaches in their relationship (Filippo & De Waal, 2000, p.126). The authors further indicated that communication breakdown is often an important source of interpersonal

conflict and learning communication skills is valuable in preventing and resolving such difficulties. At the same time, very real differences occur between people that cannot be resolved by any amount of improved communication.

Cooper and Schindler (2003) argued that personality conflict refers to very strong differences in motives, values or styles in dealing with people that are not resolvable. For example, if both parties in a relationship have a high need for power and both want to be dominant in the relationship, there is no way for both to be satisfied, and a power struggle ensues. Common tactics used in interpersonal power struggles include the exaggerated use of rewards and punishments, deception and evasion, threats and emotional blackmail, and flattery or ingratiation (Davidson & Wood, 2004). Unresolved power conflict usually recycles and escalates to the point of relationship breakdown and termination (Fisher, 2000).

Role conflict involves very real differences in role definitions, expectations or responsibilities between individuals who are interdependent in a social system (Coleman & Fisher-Yoshida, 2004). According to the authors, if there are ambiguities in role definitions in an institution or unclear boundaries of responsibilities, then the stage is set for interpersonal friction between the persons involved.

Unfortunately, according to Bodtker (2001), conflicts are often misdiagnosed as interpersonal conflict rather than role conflict, and resolution are then complicated and misdirected. The emotional intensity is often quite high in role conflict since people are directly involved as individuals and there is a strong tendency to personalize the conflict (Fisher, 2000). Fisher maintained that inter-group conflict occurs between collections of

people such as ethnic or racial groups, departments or levels of decision making in the same institution, union and management.

Filippo and De Waal (2000) contend that competition for scarce resources is a common source of inter-group conflict, and societies have developed numerous regulatory mechanisms, such as collective bargaining and mediation, for dealing with inter-group conflict in less disruptive ways. Social-psychological processes are very important in inter-group conflict (Fisher, 1990). This means that group members tend to develop stereotypes (oversimplified negative beliefs) of the opposing group, tend to blame them for their own problems (scape-goating), and practice discrimination against them.

These classic symptoms of inter-group conflict can be just as evident in institutions as in race relations in community settings. Inter-group conflict is especially tense and prone to escalation and intractability when group identities are threatened (Fisher, 2000). The author further contended that the costs of destructive inter-group conflict can be extremely high for a society in both economic and social terms. Multi-party conflict occurs in societies when different interest groups and institutions have varying priorities over resource management and policy development.

Davidson and Wood (2004) assert that these complex conflicts typically involve a combination of economic, value and power sources. This complexity is often beyond the reach of traditional authoritative or adversarial procedures, and more collaborative approaches to building consensus are required for resolution (Cormick et al., 1996). International conflict occurs between states at the global level. Competition for resources

certainly plays a part, but value and power conflict are often intertwined and sometimes predominate. The differences are articulated through the channels of diplomacy in a constant game of give and take, or threat and counter threat, sometimes for the highest of stakes. Mechanisms of propaganda can lead to many of the same social psychological distortions that characterize interpersonal and inter-group conflict (Fisher, 2000).

2.5 Causes of Conflict

Conflict comes in different shapes and forms and expresses itself in a variety of ways in different environments (Afful-Broni, 2007). To Fisher (1993), the conflict, the individuals involved and the unique circumstances leading to the conflict are inseparable. To most writers on conflicts therefore, the origins of the phenomenon in schools and organizations cannot be pinned down to any specific factors. In the opinion of Fisher, every conflict that erupts has its own special character and feature. As a result, many scholars have identified several factors that cause conflict among individuals and groups. Some of the factors responsible for conflicts in schools and organizations are discussed below.

2.5.1 Poor Communication

As far as Afful-Broni (2004) is concerned, humans are naturally social beings and therefore proper communication is a sure way of enhancing the social life of individuals in the school. Poor communication has been identified as a cause of conflict in institutions by Pukkapan, (2009). According to Pukkapan, most disagreements at the workplace are as a result of poor communication between managers and workers and the

inability of both parties to understand each other's point of view, or to some other human relations difficulty. On their part, Mankoe and Tukpe (2010) submit that a breakdown in communication often leads to conflict in the school. These views are understandable because when people in the school are denied the information they deserve to know, they would feed themselves with the wrong information through speculation which is dangerous for the health and progress of the institution.

2.5.2 Climate of the School

Mankoe and Tukpe (2010) have defined school climate as a set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one school from another and influences the behavior of people in it. Chandan (2004) also defines the term as the tone or atmosphere or the general life in the school resulting from the interaction of the various reference groups (head, teachers and students) in the school. Best (2006) explains school climate as the social atmosphere of a setting or "learning environment in which students have experiences, depending upon the protocols set up by the teachers and administrators. Mankoe and Tukpe (2010) contend that the school climate, whether open or closed determines the level of relationship that exist among members of the school community. According to them, conflict may arise in the school setting as a result of the prevailing social climate.

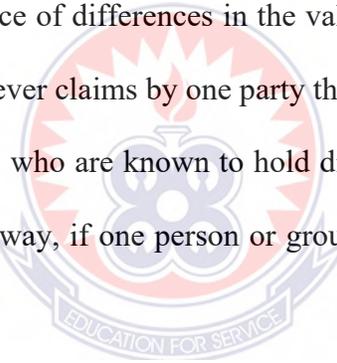
2.5.3 Preference and Nuisance

This is one of the many causes of interpersonal conflict, Deutsch (2005) notes. According to him, when the activities, actions and inactions of a person have some effects on another's preferences sensitivities or sensibilities, conflict is always the likely

consequence. Thus, one man's music could easily be another's poison, which is due to the fact that individuals are different in several respects and that no two individuals would have the same preferences, not even the most identical twins.

2.5.4. Values

A value is defined by Abenga (2005) as your ideas about what is right or wrong, or what is important in life. Since people are different, it follows that people would have different values. Deutsch (2005) suggests that conflict may result when a particular person or group within an organization attempts to impose their values on others. That is to say that the mere existence of differences in the values of individuals or groups might not be negative per se, however claims by one party that specific values should be applied to everyone including those who are known to hold different values, may be a recipe for conflict. In much the same way, if one person or group attempts to impose its beliefs on another, conflict may arise.



2.5.5. Unfair Allocation of Resources

Resources such as materials, tools, supplies, infrastructure and even personnel can never be sufficient enough to go round all individuals or groups in the institution; it becomes necessary to sometimes take difficult decisions regarding who qualifies for what, how much and when. Abenga (2005) is of the view that since it is almost impossible to satisfy all parties in such a situation, quarrels develop among the various sub-units in the institution which may eventually led to conflict. This view is also shared by Afful-Broni (2007), who advises heads of institutions to learn to handle such conflicts

effectively such that they do not escalate into battles or wars in the educational institution.

2.5.6 Disagreement about the Importance of a Programme

Abenga (2005) contends that to promote the development of any organization, it is incumbent on all stakeholders including politicians, policymakers, teachers, etc. to put forth suggestions as to how best to carry out the development agenda. Abenga (2005), again asserts that conflict situations may occur in institutions when those in authority or decision-making positions disagree over issues due to lack of information, misinformation, or because individuals see things differently. For instance, in the educational sector in Ghana, there has been a row as to whether physical education should be examinable or not. Quite recently, the Catholic Bishops' Conference, the Christian Council and other religious bodies disagreed with government's decision to remove Religious and Moral Education (RME) from the basic school curriculum.

2.5.7 Appointment of Officers

Afful-Broni (2007) asserts that the voice or appointment of personnel into the leadership of institutions, may lead to conflict due to the fact that people's preferences vary greatly as to whom they would want to lead which institution or occupy which offices in the school. For instance, if Messrs A and B contest the vacant headship of a senior high school and the latter gets the nod, the new headmaster may never get the cooperation of Mr. A's sympathizers, even if Mr. A himself is transferred to another school. In the same vein Nakpodia (2000) notes that, if the one, who is the best suited for

the position in terms of qualification and other considerations, is by-passed, and the less qualified person is appointed, conflict may arise.

2.5.8 Tribal Differences

Again, Afful-Broni (2007) contends that tribal sentiments and ethnicity could lead to conflict in institutions. Tribal sentiments are evidenced when some tribes or ethnic groups see themselves as being superior to others. According to the writer, this may be in the form of passing derogatory remarks, maltreatment, exclusion from processes and decisions denying access to resources, disrespecting views and regarding people as second-class humans, etc. When this happens, it breeds tension which if not managed properly, could lead to destructive conflict. Nakpodia (2000), in agreeing with Afful-Broni (2007), says that some ethnic groups perceive people from other ethnic backgrounds as murderers, and uncivilized. Quansah and Otu (2008) add that some ethnic groups in the country have bad opinions about others which make them intolerant and difficult to co-exist with people from other parts of the country.

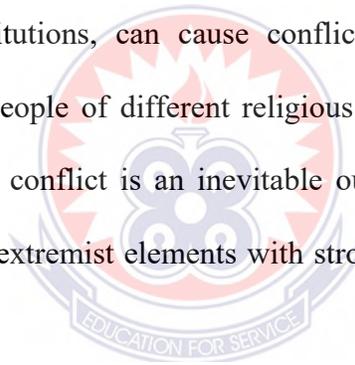
2.5.9 Competition for Scarce Resources

Competition for scarce resources of the school, Afful-Broni (2007) and Deutsch (2005) note, many a time causes conflict within the school setting when individual departments, units or persons struggle for the use of the same limited resources such as the school vehicle, staff bungalows, classrooms, money, teaching-learning materials and other facilities. Louis and Pondy, cited in Mankoe (2007) agree that when the resource requirement of the various subunits of an organization cannot be met due to insufficiency

of those resources, conflict is likely to result. For instance, if both the Mathematics and Science Masters seek the use of the E-learning Centre for their respective lessons at the same time, conflict may be the likely outcome. Also if a department or two in an institution seek monopoly over these limited resources, conflict will invariably arise.

2.5.10 Religious Differences

“Religion” as the Macmillan School Dictionary defines it, is the “belief in God or gods” (p. 612). Religion plays a major role to determine how people behave and live out their lives. Afful-Broni (2007) observes that a difference in religious beliefs, if not tactfully handled in institutions, can cause conflict among members of the school community. Thus when people of different religious persuasions are unable to tolerate one another and co-exist, conflict is an inevitable outcome. He cautions that religious differences may generate extremist elements with strong positions on issues of faith and practice.



Threat to Autonomy

According to the Advance Learners’ Dictionary, autonomy is the right of a group of people to govern themselves or to organize their own activities. Autonomy in an institution therefore refers to the right of the various departments or subunits to govern themselves. Both Afful-Broni (2007) and Louis and Pondy as presented by Owens (1991) agree that threat to autonomy is a cause of conflict among departments or subunits in an organizational setting. For instance, if in an organisation one department or subunit feels superior and decides to embark on an “empire building” and therefore attempts to take

over the work previously done by another, the latter, threatened by the former's intrusions, may go all out to fend off such interferences in order to safeguard its sovereignty. Converse (1968), cited in Roark (1978) shares this view when he asserts that "conflict exists anytime two or more parties' sphere of power and control overlap" (p.471).

Politics

Differences in political ideologies have also been cited by Afful-Broni as a source of conflict in communities and institutions. He laments that rather than helping us to get the best ways of managing and governing our communities and institutions, political ideologies differences tend to create disagreement and conflict due to poor understanding of politics and democracy in particular, especially among young democracies. Politics more often than not leads to confrontation because people tend to personalize issues while others use it as a tool to settle old scores or for personal vendetta. In Ghana, politics has led to several disturbances since independence, particularly during the electioneering seasons. The tension that engulfed the entire nation during the 2008 campaigning and elections is a real test case. In the school situation, politics related conflict has the tendency to divide and paralyze the institution.

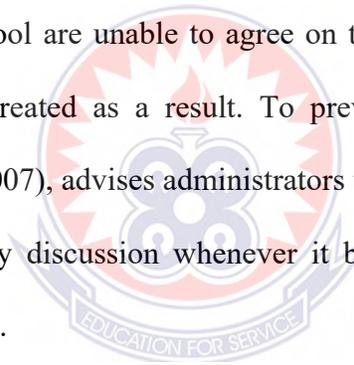
Power Struggle

The Macmillan School Dictionary defines "power struggle "as an attempt by each of two people or groups to get control" of an organisation (p.566). Thus the essence of the struggle for power within a unit is to have the legal authority to influence or control the activities of the group. Afful-Broni (2007) has identified the phenomenon as a

common cause of conflict in schools and organizations. According to him, once a person or group gets hold of power, the desire to cling to it gets stronger and would do anything to protect it. Power struggle in the school environment many a time weakens the family spirit in the school and creates needless polarization and unnecessary tension.

2.5.11 Goal Incompatibility

According to Mankoe and Tukpe (2010), when out of necessity members in an institution pursue individual goals that differ from one another's, the stage is set for potential conflict. Both Afful-Broni (2007) and Mankoe (2007) share this view that when the individuals in the school are unable to agree on the preferred outcome of a project, conflict is likely to be created as a result. To prevent such conflict in schools and organizations, Mankoe (2007), advises administrators to consult their workers and engage all stakeholders in healthy discussion whenever it becomes necessary to introduce or implement any new policy.



2.6 Nature of conflicts in organizations

According to Obi (2004), organizational conflict occurs when members engage in activities that are incompatible with those of colleagues within their network, members of other collectivities, or unaffiliated individuals who utilize the services or products of the organization. This definition can be broadened by conceptualizing conflict as an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (that is, individual, group, organization, etc.). Calling conflict of an interactive process does not preclude the possibilities of intra- individual conflict, for

it is known that a person often interacts with self. Obviously, one also interacts with others.

Conflict may occur when: A party is required to engage in an activity that is incongruent with his or her needs or interests; when a party holds behavioural preferences, the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person's implementation of his or her preferences; when a party wants some mutually desirable resource that is in short supply such that the wants of everyone may not be satisfied fully; when a party possesses attitudes, values, skills, and goals that are salient in directing his or her behaviour but are perceived to be exclusive of the attitudes, values, skills, and goals held by the other(s); when two parties have partially exclusive behavioural preferences regarding their joint actions; and when two parties are interdependent in the performance of functions or activities.

This definition is much more inclusive, which implies that conflict can relate to incompatible preferences, goals, and not just activities. It should be recognized that in order for conflict to occur, it has to exceed the threshold level of intensity before the parties experience (or become aware of) any conflict. This principle of conflict threshold is consistent with Deutsch (2007) contention that opposed interests must be recognized by parties for conflict to exist.

According to Champoux (2003), various types of conflict that exist in organizations include data conflicts, structural conflicts, relationship conflicts, and interest conflicts. Conflicts can lead to disputes, grievances, lawsuits, complaints, strikes, and disciplinary actions. Conflict can occur at a number of levels of human functioning. Conflict in your head between opposing motives or ideas is shown by your "internal

dialogue” and is at the intrapersonal level. Beyond that, the primary concern here is with social conflict, that is, conflict between people whether they are acting as individuals, as members of groups, or as representatives of organizations or nations.

Interpersonal conflict occurs when two people have incompatible needs, goals, or approaches in their relationship. Communication breakdown is often an important source of interpersonal conflict and learning communication skills is valuable in preventing and resolving such difficulties. At the same time, very real differences occur between people that cannot be resolved by any amount of improved communication.

“Personality conflict” refers to very strong differences in motives, values or styles in dealing with people that are not resolvable. For example, if both parties in a relationship have a high need for power and both want to be dominant in the relationship, there is no way for both to be satisfied, and a power struggle ensues. Common tactics used in interpersonal power struggles include the exaggerated use of rewards and punishments, deception and evasion, threats and emotional blackmail, and flattery or ingratiation. Unresolved power conflict usually recycles and escalates to the point of relationship breakdown and termination (Fisher, 1993).

Role conflict involves very real differences in role definitions, expectations or responsibilities between individuals who are interdependent in a social system. If there are ambiguities in role definitions in an organization or unclear boundaries of responsibilities, then the stage is set for interpersonal friction between the persons involved.

Unfortunately, the conflict is often misdiagnosed as interpersonal conflict rather than role conflict, and resolution is then complicated and misdirected. The emotional

intensity is often quite high in role conflict since people are directly involved as individuals and there is a strong tendency to personalize the conflict (Fisher, 1993).

Inter-group conflict occurs between collections of people such as ethnic or racial groups, departments or levels of decision making in the same organization, and union and management. Competition for scarce resources is a common source of inter-group conflict, and societies have developed numerous regulatory mechanisms, such as collective bargaining and mediation, for dealing with inter-group conflict in less disruptive ways.

Social-psychological processes are very important in inter-group conflict (Fisher, 1993). Group members tend to develop stereotypes (oversimplified negative beliefs) of the opposing group, tend to blame them for their own problems (scape-goating), and practice discrimination against them.

These classic symptoms of inter-group conflict can be just as evident in organizations as in race relations in community settings. Inter-group conflict is especially tense and prone to escalation and intractability when group identities are threatened. The costs of destructive inter-group conflict can be extremely high for a society in both economic and social terms.

Multi-party conflict occurs in societies when different interest groups and organizations have varying priorities over resource management and policy development. These complex conflicts typically involve a combination of economic, value and power sources. This complexity is often beyond the reach of traditional authoritative or adversarial procedures, and more collaborative approaches to building consensus are required for resolution (Champoux, 2006).

International conflict occurs between states at the global level. Competition for resources certainly plays a part, but value and power conflict are often intertwined and sometimes predominate. The differences are articulated through the channels of diplomacy in a constant game of give and take, or threat and counter threat, sometimes for the highest of stakes. Mechanisms of propaganda can lead to many of the same social psychological distortions that characterize interpersonal and inter-group conflict (Fisher, 1993).

2.7 Impact of Conflict on School Administration

Three (3) main schools of thought have been identified by Robbins (2003) regarding the impact of conflict on the activities of an organization as discussed below.

2.7.1 The Traditionalist School of Thought

This school of thought holds the view that conflict is negative, destructive, bad, harmful and therefore must be avoided all cost (Robbins, 2003). As a result, pro-traditionalist scholars, according to Mullins (2005) contend that conflict could have a devastating impact on the fortunes of individuals, groups and or institutions and should not be encouraged. They argue, according to Mullins (2005), that conflict is disruptive and unnatural and represents a form of deviant behavior which should be controlled and changed. To Mullins (2005), the existence of conflict is an indication of inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the administration of an institution.

2.7.2 The Human Relations School of Thought

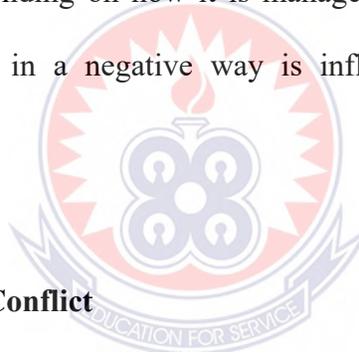
Unlike the traditionalists, disciplines of the human relations ideology perceive conflict as an inevitable phenomenon in any human institution. Mankoe (2007) asserts that it is actually human to quarrel and complain and that when many people must work together, conflict is inevitable". To Mankoe (2007) conflict is a daily occurrence in the administration and management of an organization such as a school. Thus, the human-relationists see conflict as normal and unavoidable in human interactions. Also, Robbins (2003) says that conflict is an ever-present reality in human relations. The writers believe that how conflict is managed should be of paramount importance to the administrators rather than worrying about the mere emergence or existence of conflict, since no human institution can ever be conflict-free.

2.7.3 The Interactionist School of Thought

From the viewpoint of the interactionist, an organization or institution that enjoys absolute peace, harmony and corporation is likely to experience apathy and unresponsiveness to the ever changing demands of the changing society. Constructive conflict presents opportunities for change, creates opportunities to realign relationships, provides motivation for reassessing interaction, norms and prevents boredom and stagnation or developmental paralysis (Afful-Broni, 2007) in an organization. Okotoni (2002), as presented by Okotoni & Okotoni (2003), in support of the Interactionist view, say that conflict is the most important issue surrounding the interface between workgroups. Murthy (2006) opines that "differences are essential for change". He

continues that if there were no urge to compete and no need for disagreements, the organization would be either in a state of apathy or complacency”.

In the view of Okotoni (2002), there is something negative about the term “conflict” which suggests that it is unproductive at least, and possibly even destructive. This perhaps sums up people’s perceptions about conflict. The phenomenon has over the years been regarded by the most people (especially administrators) as bad, negative, destructive and undesirable. Consequently, many a manager would prefer not to encounter any conflict situations in their establishments. Contrary to this perception however, it has been established that conflict can impact on schools not only negatively, but positive as well, depending on how it is managed. In other words, whether or not conflict affects a school in a negative way is influenced by those involved in its management.



2.8. Negative Impact of Conflict

Conflict can impact negatively on school administration in several ways. It is important at this point to examine some negative effects of conflict on school administration.

2.8.1 Conflict leads to Poor Communication

It is said that good and effective communication is very necessary for the successful attainment of the set objectives of any social objectives of any social organization. Conflict in the school, more often than not, destroys the communication channels in place (which is usually top-down) and eventually leads to poor information flow between individuals and groups in the school. In some circumstances, negative

communication, which Afful-Broni (2004) observes, has been reliably discovered to be one of the most potent means of psychologically and socially killing a person, may even result. This state of affairs affects the peace and harmony of the school community and it is inimical to the growth and progress of the school.

2.8.2 Conflict leads to Hostility

First and foremost, conflict has the potential to develop into hostility leading to the physical and psychological withdrawal of members of staff from full participation in the activities of the school, which is demonstrated in the form of absenteeism, lateness, turn over, apathy and indifference (Mankoe, 2007; Afful-Broni, 2007). Thus, conflict in the school can increase the distance between people and develop a climate of resistance rather than teamwork (Mullins, 2005). This, if not properly diagnosed, may be misinterpreted as laziness or incompetence on the part of the individual(s) concerned. Also, in the school, especially at the senior high school level, students-staff conflict has the tendency to escalate into serious violent encounter which may lead to damage to or loss of valuable school property such as bungalows, vehicles or in extreme cases even human lives. Afful-Broni (2007) adds that sometimes it is not only members of the school who suffer these losses but the nearby and the larger communities as well.

2.8.3 Conflict Creates Tension

Again, conflict in schools can create unnecessary tension in members of the school as a result of which relationships between people in the school become strained. The enthusiasm with which people performed their duties is affected and work that used

to be done within a very short time now requires a longer period of time to accomplish. Further, Afful-Broni (2007) argues that conflict in the school tends to destroy the otherwise successful and free flow of information which is so much required for the good growth and progress of the school. When this happens, there would be suspicion, loss of confidence and mistrust among members of the school community which eventually has negative repercussions on the administration of school.

2.8.4 Conflict Destroys the Family Spirit among Teachers

Another negative impact of conflict on school administration is that it has the ability to weaken or even break the family or communal spirit that might exist among members of the school irrespective of their ethnic, religious, economic, social or political backgrounds. Thus, conflict has the potential to make people lose their sense of common identity as members of a family working towards the achievement of a common goal. This may also lead to developmental paralysis in the institution (Afful-Broni, 2007).

2.9 Areas of Conflict

Conflict can be seen in the public high schools across the nation. Several techniques have been developed for use with adolescents in an attempt to teach conflict resolution skills (Coffman, 1988; Lyon, 1991 & Zhang, 1994). In an empirical study conducted by Zhang (1994), the intervention model of constructive resolution and cooperative learning were implemented and tested at three high schools.

During the test, one high school received training in constructive conflict resolution. Another high school received both constructive conflict resolution and cooperative learning. The last high school received only cooperative learning. The constructive conflict resolution training consisted of four general areas of instruction. Such instructions include violence prevention, basic negotiation skills, and application of negotiation skills and basic mediation skills (Zhang, 1994).

The cooperative learning technique used required the implementation of four elements, namely, positive interdependence (the students must perceive that they sink or swim together); individual accountability for mastering the material skills needed to analyze how the group can improve cooperation (Zhang, 1994).

The results of the study showed that an improvement in conflict management increased social support, decreased victimization, enhanced positive life attitudes and a sense of personal control over one's fate with the implementation of constructive conflict resolution. In another study, adolescents who had been in several fights in the past but who were showing signs of improvement were assigned to an eight hour workshop to teach conflict resolution (Lyon, 1991). Each student wrote down responses, relations, and feelings to various conflicts.

Everyone then role played each situation. Following each scenario the group discussed the role play. All participants answered a questionnaire about conflict to help the counselor understand the students' individual attitudes. The counselor then began modeling less drastic solutions to each scenario. Role

reversals, skits and simulations were techniques used to teach conflict resolution. The students were also taught how to evaluate verbal and non-verbal communication. After the workshop, each student met with the counselor for follow-up sessions once a week for four weeks.

A main observation made by Lyon (1991) was that a major commitment must be made between students and the counselors if the programme is to be successful. A successful mediation team was also implemented at Mt. Diablo High in California. Talking to the peer mediation teams was an alternative for students facing suspension.

In this test, all the students participating in the study received 20 hours of training in the following areas: communication skills including attending, squaring, eye contact and reflective and active listening; non-listening techniques; decoding verbal and non-verbal messages; use of open ended questioning; refraining from blocking; feeling questions; problem-solving; examining feelings; brainstorming; and generating multiple solutions.

The results reveal that with the implementation of the teams, the high school went from being the lowest ranked high school in terms of suspensions and fighting to being average in the district. Lyon (1991) presented three conflict resolution strategies for those adolescents whose parents are divorced. The strategy is divided into four sessions of 50 minutes. During the first session the person needs to admit that a conflict exist; realize what resolution style is being used, and become less impulsive in managing conflict (Lyon (1991)).

In subsequent questions the following guidelines were presented: Describe the situation as he or she stated. Describe the feelings regarding the conflict. Formulate and describe a situation acceptable to everyone. Agree upon the desired challenges necessary: Construct a detailed agenda with follow-up plans and specify dates for accomplishing the activities (Lyon (1991)).

2.10 Characteristics of Conflict

Conflict has some distinctive features for easy identification. As indicated by Wilmot and Hocker (1998), conflict is characterized by the following:

- 1) Apart from intrapersonal conflict which occurs within one's self, conflict usually requires two people or groups.
- 2) Conflict inherently involves some sense of struggle or incompatibility or perceived differences among values, goals or desires.
- 3) Action, whether overt or covert, is a key to conflict. Until an action or expression occurs, conflict is latent, lurking below the surface.
- 4) Power or attempt to influence inevitably occurs within conflict.

2.11 Nature of Conflicts in Institutions

According to Roloff (1987), institutional conflict occurs when members engage in activities that are incompatible with those of colleagues within their network, members of other collectivities, or unaffiliated individuals who utilize the services or products of the Institution. This definition can be broadened by conceptualizing conflict as an interactive

process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (that is, individual, group, institution, etc.).

According to Lyon (1991), calling conflict an interactive process does not preclude the possibilities of intra-individual conflict, for it is known that a person often interacts with self. Obviously, one also interacts with others. Davidson and Wood (2004) assert that conflict may occur when: a party is required to engage in an activity that is incongruent with his or her needs or interests; when a party holds behavioural preferences, the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person's implementation of his or her preferences; when a party wants some mutually desirable resource that is in short supply such that the wants of everyone may not be satisfied fully; when a party possesses attitudes, values, skills, and goals that are salient in directing his or her behaviour but are perceived to be exclusive of the attitudes, values, skills, and goals held by the other(s); when two parties have partially exclusive behavioural preferences regarding their joint actions; and when two parties are interdependent in the performance of functions or activities.

This definition is much more inclusive, which implies that conflict can relate to incompatible preferences, goals, and not just activities. It should be recognized that in order for conflict to occur, it has to exceed the threshold level of intensity before the parties experience (or become aware of) any conflict. This principle of conflict threshold is consistent with Baron's (1990) contention that opposed interests must be recognized by parties for conflict to exist.

2.11.1 Some sources of workplace conflict

Conflict can originate from several sources. Afful-Broni (2007) reveals that there are many causes or reasons for conflict in any work setting. He asserts that while conflict may take place between members, individuals, and groups, one can easily trace the source of workplace conflicts to one or several of the following events: poor communication, different values, differing interests, scarce resources, and personality clashes.

i Poor Communication: Afful-Broni (2007) believes that different communication styles can lead to misunderstanding between employees or between an employee and a manager. In his view, lack of communication drives conflict “underground”. On that stand, Whetten and Cameron (2005) contend that an important message may not be received if effective communication channels are not used. For instance, a manager’s instructions may be misinterpreted, or decision makers may arrive at a different conclusion because they use different databases. In this regard, Nelson-Jones (1990) says that conflict based on poor communication, misinformation or misunderstanding tends to be factual hence, clarifying previous messages or obtaining additional information generally resolves the dispute. In this regards, Afful-Broni (2007) indicate that the more misperceptions members have concerning what activities exist in another department or division, the greater the potential for conflict.

ii Different Values: As Dirks and Parks (2003) posit, any workplace is made up of individuals who see the world differently. Consequently, conflict occurs when there is a lack of acceptance and understanding of these differences. People in organizations with

particular references to their predispositions, for instance, their attitude like insubordination towards authority can create conflict in the workplace.

iii Differing Interests: Conflict occurs when individual workers “fight” for their personal goals, ignoring organizational goals and organizational well-being. On this score, Dirks and Parks (2003) agree that conflict centering on differing interests erupt when individuals in an organization admit they must work together but cannot agree to how to do so. For example, the head teacher of a primary school and a circuit supervisor could agree to work together to enhance the development of the school but could have different procedures as on how issues should be settled.

(iv) Scarce Resources: It is argued that too often, employees feel they have to compete for available resources in order to execute their jobs. Barker and Gum (1994) hold the view that in a scarce resource environment where people compete for the available limited resources, conflicts occur despite the awareness of how scarce the resources may be. Also, partial distribution of the limited resources increases the probability of conflict to occur.

Ozigi (1977) assert that if resources are scarce, individuals or groups make efforts to secure resources without compromise, usually to the detriment of others. Such competition for scarce resources may result in people inflating budgets, challenging the legitimate activities of the other units or individuals which can bring interpersonal or intergroup conflict in the organisation. To buttress this point, Dirks and Parks (2003) say that when an organisation’s resources are insufficient to meet requirements of other sub-units or individuals to execute their work, potential for conflict is great.

(v) Personality Clashes: All work environments are made up of differing personalities. As Robbins (2000) declares, unless colleagues understand and accept each other's approach to work and problem-solving, conflict will occur. Whetten and Cameron (2005) contend that because individuals bring different backgrounds to their workplace, there will always be conflict that is based on personal differences. Besides, Dirks and Parks (2003) explain that people's values and needs have been shaped by different socialization processes that depend on differing cultural and family traditions, levels of education, breadths of experience and others. Nelson-Jones (1995) buttresses this issue of personality clashes with the idea that conflict stemming from incompatible personal values and needs are mostly difficult to resolve since they often become highly emotional and take moral overtones. Under these conditions, disagreement on what is factually correct easily turns to a bitter argument over who is morally right.

2.12 Positive Impact of Conflict

The negative effects of conflict discussed above notwithstanding, there are known positive effects of conflicts on school administration. According to Okotoni & Okotoni (2003) conflict by itself is by no means a negative force. Afful-Broni (2007) agrees that conflict is not always such a negative phenomenon.

2.12.1 Conflict Strengthens the Institution

The argument has been put up by some experts on conflict management that when there is no conflict in an institution, there would be no struggle between those who own and control the means of production and those who do not. According to Deutsch (2005) a conflict within a group frequently helps to revitalize existent norms; or it contributes to

the emergence of norms”. Thus, conflict has been identified as a necessary tool for establishing revolutionary changes in an institution. In this regard, Afful-Broni (2007), notes that by the time it (the conflict) is fully resolved, some degree of re-organization or restructuring would have taken place to remove the conditions that generated the conflict in the first place, hopefully to make things better than before. Conflict then, is a means of societal development and progress.

2.12.2 Conflict leads to Strategic Planning

In the opinion of Mankoe (2008), conflict and its management are important processes in strategic planning in organizations, including schools. These bring about cooperation among members and the institution. Mankoe notes that both cooperation and conflict exist simultaneously within group situations as the two sides of the coin. He contends that when conflict is effectively dealt with, it is transformed into the energy needed by individuals to make changes and plan strategically for the advancement of institutions.

2.12.3 Conflict leads to Development of the School

Besides, constructive conflict presents opportunities for change, creates opportunities to realign relationships, provides motivation for reassessing interaction norms and prevents boredom and stagnation or developmental paralysis (Afful-Broni, 2007) in an organization. Murthy (2006) in support of the significant role of conflict in administration, say that conflict is the most important issue surrounding the interface between work groups. Okotoni (2002) opines that differences are essential for change. He continues that if there were no urge to compete and no need for disagreements, the organization would be either in a state of apathy or complacency. As far as Handy is

concerned, conflict signifies involvement, commitment and care among members in an institution which brings about needed changes.

2.12.4 Conflict Improves Performance

In addition, when conflict is properly managed, it can serve as a vitalizing force in school for optimal performance. Mullins (2005) is of the view that conflict can be seen as a “constructive” force and in certain circumstances, it can be welcomed or even encouraged. He contends that conflict in institutions can serve as an agent of evolution and for internal change because it stimulates interest and creativity among the members of the institution.

2.12.5 Conflict leads to better Approach to Issues

Further, the emergence of conflict in schools often facilitates the unearthing of constructive problem solving strategies in the institution (Mankoe, 2007). According to Mankoe, the conflict-resolution process is often a stimulus for progress within the institution. He explains that the need to resolve conflict can cause people to search for new ways of doing things. Mullins (2005) also adds that conflict can lead to an improvement in the decision-making process and quality of decisions taken. The implication is that when unpleasant conflict situation arise, people are put on their toes and everybody puts on their “thinking caps” in search of a solution to the problem. In trying to find the best non-violent remedy in respect of the problem at stake, people come out with several suggestions and approaches for consideration. In the process, fresh and sometimes better ways of going about things are identified which leads to improvement in the system.

2.12.6 Conflict serves as the Minority's Voice

Conflict, in the view of Okotoni (2002) can force members of a group to recognize the deep feelings of one individual or of a minority and make effort to resolve the issue which appears to divisive. That is to say that through conflict, the under privileged, small groups can have their voices heard and their concerns addressed. Thus the emergence of conflict make people sit up and face pertinent issues of disagreement and discontent which would otherwise not have attracted their attention. In other words, instead of seeing it as bad, the emergence of conflict should rather be considered as a natural expression of social differences of humanity's perpetual struggle for justice and self-determination. If managed non-violently, conflict can be positive and a source of immense creativity and progress (Runde & Flanagan, 2010).

2.13 Negative impact of conflicts

Nelson-Jones (1995) explains that not only can conflict in the workplace causes great stress and unhappiness but it also can lower outputs and in extreme cases, bring strikes. Furthermore, Barker and Gum (1994) emphatically state that many times, in the midst of conflict, opposing individuals or groups will put their own interests or goals above those of the organisation, resulting in the lessening of the organisation's effectiveness.

Owens (2001) also opines that frequent and powerful conflict can have a devastating impact on the behaviour of people in an organisation in that conflict often develops into hostility which also causes people to withdraw both physically and psychologically. In a school situation, physical withdrawal can take the form of absence,

tardiness and turnover which is often written off by laziness on the part of the teacher. Psychological withdrawal can also take the form of alienation, apathy and indifference. Owens (2001) add that though a solution may be reached in conflict resolution, the means of gaining the solution may cause pain to the people involved and general weakening of relationships.

Contributing to the adverse effects of conflict, Ozigi (1977) assert that conflict can lead to outright hostile or aggressive behaviour such as mob action, property damage and minor theft of property. They explain that in some cases, the frustrated individual may direct aggression against the person or object perceived to be the cause of the conflict. In other instances, Ozigi (1977) say that aggression may be displaced towards a person who is not directly involved in the situation. For instance, a teacher may displace aggression on a pupil who is not directly involved in a conflict between the child's parent and the teacher by inflicting various forms of punishments on the pupil. Whetten and Cameron (2005) conclude that most people have ample evidence that conflict often produces harmful results because some people have a very low tolerance for disagreement (whether it is a result of family background, cultural values or personality characteristics) and that interpersonal conflict saps their energy and demoralizes their spirits.

It can be seen from the discussion that the notion that conflict has negative effects and thus, should be eliminated does not wholly give the right impression. It is seen from the literature cited that in modern times, conflict has been given a different dimension resulting in the idea that conflict is neither inherently good nor bad but simply inevitable wherever people are found. It should be accepted that too much conflict can have adverse

effects on individuals, groups and organizations because conflict resolution involves using up productive time and scarce resources, and diversion of energies that could more constructively be used elsewhere. On the other hand, little or no conflict in an organisation for instance can also be a negative sign as it can lead to apathy and lethargy, and provide little or no impetus for change and innovation. Conflicts may be beneficial if they are used as instruments for change or innovation. As seen from the discussion, conflicts can improve relationships and the quality of decision making in an organisation if they are managed constructively.

It is also evident from the literature cited that some conflict situations produce nothing positive and that conflict may have either positive or negative consequences for individuals, organisations and the society depending on its frequency and how it is managed. As people try to settle conflicts with physical reactions which produce negative outcomes like hitting, kicking and scratching which hurt people, such physical reactions may be interpreted as a means of finding solution to the problems. These however, tend to be damaging to relationships while violence may lead to more violence. Another negative effect of conflict is that emotions are sometimes so strong that some people want to strike at the other person. Whether conflict can produce positive or negative effects depends on how that conflict is tackled or the strategy used to settle or resolve the conflict.

Even though it may be obvious that conflict often comes with a cost what may not be known is the extent to which this cost may go. Experts in the field of conflict however, establish that, it has a devastating impact on any given society. Appreko (2008) identified the effects of conflict as mutual suspicions and distrust, destruction of life and property,

destruction of infrastructure, general security, internal displacement and destruction of the economy. (Mintah, 2008) who contended that, conflict may lead to the destruction of lives properties displacement of people, dissipation of resources poverty slow pace of development and hatred.

Afful-Broni (2007) in supporting the crusade of trumpeting the negative effects of conflict came up with the following negative results of conflict. These include; break in communication, suspicion and mistrust, weakening of family spirits loss of valuables, divisiveness and bitterness, needless tension, apathy and development paralysis.

Owens (2001) cited in Mankoe (2007) observes that frequent and powerful conflicts can have a devastating impact upon the behaviour of people in organizations. He further explains that conflict often develops into hostility which also causes people to withdraw both physically and psychologically. A further exposition on this assertion is that in the school situation physical withdrawal takes the form of absenteeism, tiredness and negative turnover which is often written off by administrators as laziness on the part of teachers which leads to poor performance on pupils/student's academic work. Psychological withdrawal takes the form of alienation, apathy and indifference.

A critical examination of the above submission portrays conflict as an unworthy course and should not be entertained by any serious minded human being. Even though positive characteristics have been well established, the repercussions outweigh the positives and are so devastating.

2.14 Levels/Stages of Conflict

Afful-Broni (2007) and Runde & Flanagan (2010) agree that conflict does not just erupt, but goes through a number of stages before it graduates into a full-fledged conflict.

2.14.1 Latent Stage of Conflict

According to Runde and Flanagan (2010), latent conflict refers to the source such as dispute over roles, unfair allocation of resources or competition for scarce resources. According to Pondy's model for organizational conflict, as submitted by Jones (1998), at this stage outright conflict does not exist, but there is a potential for conflict because of several factors. To Afful-Broni (2007), this is part of the emergence stage of the conflict and observes that it is not very obvious and therefore it requires great effort and sensitivity to recognize the danger. According to him, the temptation at this stage is to ignore the conflict, but he is quick to add that this is the best stage to deal with the conflict in order to forestall any catastrophe in the school setting.

2.14.2 Perceived Stage of Conflict

Runde and Flanagan (2010), say that at this level of the conflict, all concerned begin to come to terms with the fact that there is a conflict situation at hand, yet none of those involved makes any effort to resolve it. As a result, the conflict escalates as the groups battle over the causes of the conflict, Pondy notes (Jones, 1998)

2.14.3 Felt Stage of Conflict

Felt conflict is usually associated with some affective conditions like stress, frustration and tension. This is because just like at the perceived level, though the parties are aware of the existence of the conflict, they may not take any action towards resolving it. At this stage, Pondy asserts that subunits respond emotionally to each other, and

attitudes are polarized in a kind of “us versus them” situation (Jones, 1998). Afful-Broni (2007) reveals that since it is characterized by unusual evidence of tension and sporadic emotional outburst, trivial and sometimes seemingly harmless issues can easily spark off conflict.

2.14.4 Manifest Stage of Conflict

Runde and Flanagan (2010) assert that this is what most people imagine whenever they think of conflict because it involves open aggression, ranging from mild, passive resistance through sabotage to actual physical conflict. Afful-Broni (2007) calls this level the Escalation Stage. According to him, when it is allowed to develop to this stage, the conflict negatively affects social life, security and generally the productivity of the school since it is difficult to appeal to the conscience of those involved at this point. Pondy add that at this level, subunits try to get back at each other, and therefore fighting and open aggression are common. Consequently, organizational effectiveness suffers. The advice to conflict managers at this stage is to aim first at curbing the violence before thinking about mechanisms to ensure the permanent resolution of the conflict.

2.14.5 Aftermath/Cessation of Conflict

This is the last level and is the outcome of the conflict. What happens after the conflict depends to a very large extent on how it is managed (Runde & Flanagan, 2010). At this level tempers are down and the combatants begin to assess the destructive consequences of their actions and inactions on the school community and its immediate environs and therefore their conscience can be much more easily appealed to. However, Afful-Broni (2007) notes that the cost involved in healing the wounds created, reorganizing and constructing the school and restoring it to its former tranquil and serene

atmosphere could be so high. Runde & Flanagan (2010) contend that if the conflict has been wholly resolved, its aftermath may lead to greater satisfaction among the feuding parties and creates a more harmonious atmosphere for higher productivity.

On the other hand, if the conflict is not properly handled, what initially appears to a satisfactory resolution may be only one of the prior levels of further conflict. In that respect, Afful-Broni (2007) recommends the use of psychotherapists such as Grief Counselors and Arbitration Experts to facilitate the healing process. This is necessary, according to Preedy (2004) and Wilmore (2002) because work groups with high level of cohesion and norms consistent with organizational objectives will, it is posited, have a high level of performance.

2.15 Conflict Management in Schools

Conflict management refers to the use of various initiatives and mechanisms to reduce tension during periods of conflict to facilitate resolution (Wilmore, 2002). It also means finding appropriate strategies to resolve conflict (Mankoe, 2007). To Quansah and Otu (2008), conflict management involves the steps and measures taken to prevent conflict from increasing to higher levels so that the issues of disagreement could be resolved in order that conflict does not get out of hand. Wilmore (2002) say that it consists of diagnostic processes, interpersonal styles, negotiating strategies, and structural interventions that are designed to avoid unnecessary conflicts, reduce or resolve excessive conflicts or even increase insufficient conflict (Mankoe, 2007).

Most heads of schools as well as other people in administrative positions, would wish not to encounter any conflict situations in their institutions. However, Briscoe & Schuler (2004) are of the opinion that conflict is something most institutions have more

than enough already. Therefore ignoring conflict does not make it non-existent, it must be managed at all cost, because in the view of Gamey (2010), quoted by Kyeremeh (2010), conflicts are expensive and take away resources that could have been utilized better. Thus, conflict, if it is managed well, can result in outcomes that are productive and enhance the health of the organization over time.

Afful-Broni emphasizes that conflict management is a necessity rather than an option, since conflict is one of the unavoidable realities in any society. Briscoe & Schuler (2004) notes that, when conflict is not managed properly, delays, disinterests, lack of action and in extreme cases, a breakdown of the group may result. Briscoe & Schuler (2004) adds that unresolved conflict, it is important for educational administrators to understand to how it develops in the first place.

2.16 Conflict Resolution Strategies

Since conflict is almost impossible to completely eliminate from the human institution, to which a school is no exception, educational administrators should be better placed to resolve it efficiently. According to Nakpodia (2000), a key element in understanding the context and situation in an escalating conflict is the ability to read warning signs of troubles and indicators of increasing tension or violence, which is the basis for “conflict early warning” analysis. In line with that, Chandan (2004) advises that every organization must strike a balance between the need to have some “good” conflict from escalating into “bad” conflict.

Hanson (2001) and Deutsch (2007) agree that parties to any conflict may always have one to two basic intentions;

1. Assertiveness - unassertiveness (i.e. the desire to satisfy one's or a party's concerns) and
2. Cooperativeness - uncooperativeness (i.e. the desire to satisfy the concerns of others).

These intentions, according to the writers, are reflected in the following five (5) conflict – handling style, competing style, accommodating style, compromising style and collaborating style.

2.16.1 Avoiding Style

The avoiding style involves behaviour that both unassertive and uncooperative (Afful-Broni, 2007) cited in Mankoe (2007). Here, the administrator neglects the concerns at stake and decide not to deal with the conflict (Deutsch (2007). Thus, proponents of this style choose to ignore and stay out of the conflict and hope that it dies off with time. In the opinion of Feldman and Arnold (1983), pro-avoidance managers quite often, also disregard searching for the causes of the conflict situation frequently continues or gets worse over time (p.527).

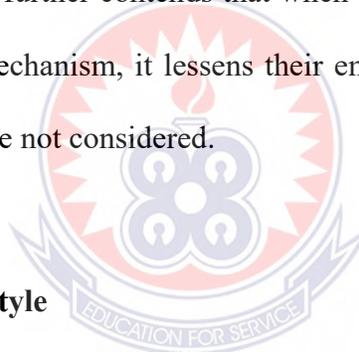
The view of Rahim (2001) is that, the avoiding technique leaves neither the needs of the parties involved nor the issues on board addressed. According to Randall (2007) the avoiding style is effective when the issue is trivial or when quick, decisive action is needed.

2.16.2 Competing Style

The competing style is also referred to as the forcing style (Hellriegel et al, 1992) or power mode (Deutsch, 2007). It is an assertive – uncooperative mode which creates a win- lose situation. Here, the administrator uses coercive power via threats of transfer,

demotion, dismissal or punishments to force compliance and submission from their subordinates. Thus, those who employ this style attempt to achieve individual goals at the expense of others through arguments, authority, threats or even physical force (Balay, 2006).

The competing/forcing style, according to Deutsch (2007) is effective in emergency situations, when quick, decisive action is required, when critical issues require unpopular actions as well as when issues are vital to the welfare of the institution. However Balay (2006) has a problem with this approach to conflict resolution since to him, it only leads to a suppression of the conflict and uninvolved and uncommitted compliance. Balay (2006) further contends that when administrators over rely on forcing as a conflict resolution mechanism, it lessens their employees work motivation because their (workers) interests are not considered.



2.16.3 Accommodating Style

This is unassertiveness and cooperative position whereby one party attempts to satisfy the concerns of the other, neglecting its own concerns (Deutsch, 2007). Thus it is an unselfish approach that involves hiding or discounting the issues involved in the conflict in order to maintain apparent harmony in the institution rather than facing the issues (Balay, 2006). To the accommodator therefore, for the sake of peace and the happiness of others, they are ready to do anything. It is used to build goodwill for important matters when harmony and stability of the institution is particularly important (Afful-Broni, 2007).

2.16.4 Compromising Style

It is an immediate approach between unassertiveness and cooperativeness in which partial satisfaction is sought for both parties through a middle ground position that reflects mutual sacrifice (Deutsch, 2007). Duane (2009) asserts that it is based on a give and take affair which typically involves both parties making some concessions. The main focus of this style is negotiating and looking for a middle ground. Thus the intention of compromisers is not to maximize satisfaction but only to reach a partial satisfaction for each of the parties. The writer notes that the compromising technique is suitable when the objectives are important but not worth the potential disruption or when competing or collaboration has failed. Duane (2009) adds that it is a quick way of dealing with a conflict.

2.16.5 Collaborating Style

This is a problem-solving mode which is assertive and cooperative and reflects win-win approach to conflict resolution (Duane, 2009). In other words, the collaborating style attempts to satisfy the demands of both parties. Such a mutual satisfaction involves an agreement to confront the conflict by identifying the concerns of each party and finding alternatives that would satisfy all the parties (Deutsch, 2007). Thus there is a concerted effort to find integrated solutions to the conflict so that every party, to the conflict is a winner. Duane (2009) describes the first three (3) styles – avoiding, competing and accommodating as being “undesirable” because they always leave problems submerged rather than resolved.

2.17. Conflict Prevention Strategies

The goal of any conflict prevention strategy is to create a situation in which differences and conflict can be addressed in a non-violent and constructive manner. It should not be a single event, but rather, an ongoing process that changes according to given circumstances.

Duane (2009) quoted Mr. Kofi Annan the immediate past UN Secretary General as having said that “aim of conflict prevention must be to create synergy with those civil society groups that are bridge-builders, truth finders, watchdogs, human rights defenders and agents of social protection and economic revitalization”. Thus, any conflict prevention framework should be a collaborative effort among the various stakeholders to ensure additional effectiveness.

Fullan (2005) have identified effective communication that emphasizes on openness, feedback, listening, avoiding defensive and avoiding threats as a suitable approach to prevent conflict. The writers argue that effective communication in an organization that ensures free flow of information goes a long way to promote peace and harmony among its members. According to Mankoe and Tukpe (2010), a breakdown in communication often leads to conflict in the school. Besides, Balay (2006) attributed the problem of the workers’ resistance in organizations to poor communication between managers and workers and their inability to understand each other’s point of view, or to some type of human relations difficulty.

Again, it is assumed that the decision-making ability of moderately cohesive work groups can be significantly greater, and with a pragmatic leadership, are best able to share ideas resulting in superior group performance (Barnett & McCormick, 2004). In other

words, organizations which are able to maintain just the right level of unity and cohesion invariably are able to take better quality decisions in reasonable time to ensure progress and development of the organization.

Balay (2006) on his part have outlined a number of measures to prevent conflict in organizations. These include increasing awareness of the sources of conflict, increasing diversity awareness and skills, practicing job rotation and temporal assignment, using permanent transfers or dismissals when necessary, changing the organizational structure or culture and altering the sources of conflict.

Further, Balay (2006) advices on conflict prevention that administrators should not stifle disagreements, but to encourage it. He advises that administrators should create a culture where;

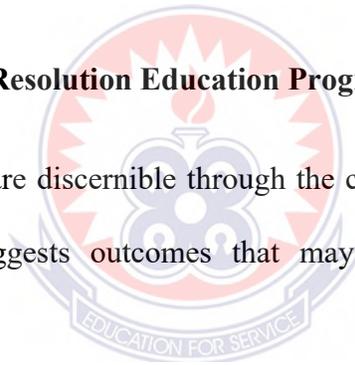
- Openness is encouraged (concerning feelings as well as factual issues).
- Administrators are trained to accept and use disagreements within their organizations in order to arrive at optimum solution to problems.
- Mistakes are used as learning opportunities rather than as causes of criticism.
- Serious mistakes are dealt with quickly, again with no recriminations.
- Assertiveness is encouraged as a way of expressing individual and team views.
- A framework of clear objectives, good communications and adequate fail-save systems (i.e. controls are set in place). Balay (2006) further suggests that:
- The use of formal grievance procedures to handle individual grievances (i.e. by formally giving time to hearing an employee's problem, identifying the key issues and the role of any other person concerned).

- Inter-departmental meetings, usually under the chairmanship of a senior person can be called to permit disagreements to be aired.
- Regular team meetings can be an important means of avoiding conflict. It enables team members to clarify objectives, identifying points of disagreements and thrash out problems together before they develop into unproductive conflict.

2.18 Conflict Resolution

2.18.1 Goals of Conflict Resolution Education Programs

Four broad goals are discernible through the conflict resolution education (CRE) literature. Each goal suggests outcomes that may be monitored to evaluate CRE effectiveness.



2.18.2 Create a Safe Learning Environment

In the 1990s, one of the National Education Goals of USA stated, “all schools in America will be free of drugs, violence and the unauthorized presence of firearms and alcohol, and will offer a disciplined environment that is conducive to learning” (U.S. Department of Education, 1998).

In response to that goal, Congress passed the Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act of 1994, which funded the Safe and Drug-Free Schools unit in the U.S. Department of Education. Since its inception, that office has sought to develop,

implement, and monitor initiatives that can help create safe learning environments in schools. Among those initiatives are conflict resolution education programs (Cuervo, 2003). Programs that emphasize this goal are interested in the following kinds of outcomes: decreased incidents of violence; decreased conflicts between groups of students, particularly intergroup conflicts based on racial and ethnic differences and decreased suspensions, absenteeism, and dropout rates related to unsafe learning environments.

2.18.2 Create a Constructive Learning Environment

Teachers and administrators know that learning cannot take place without a constructive learning environment for students: one with a positive climate, effective classroom management, and a respectful and caring environment where children feel safe to share ideas and feelings (Cuervo, 2003). Teachers often wrestle with classroom management and classroom discipline, especially in urban education environments. For this goal expected outcomes include: improved school climate, improved classroom climate, increased respectful and caring environment, improved classroom management, reduced time that teachers spend on disciplinary problems in the classroom and increased use of student-centered discipline.

2.18.3 Enhance Students' Social and Emotional Development

At the heart of all CRE is the hope of helping children to develop as better people – to be more socially and emotionally competent so that they can lead happier lives and

contribute more positively to society (Cuervo, 2003). If this is achieved, the logic is that other CRE goals will also be accomplished (Lantieri, 2001).

It is in the pursuit of this goal that CRE programs most often overlap with social and emotional learning programs (Cuervo, 2003). When CRE is effective in achieving this goal, the benefits include outcomes like these: increased perspective taking; improved problem-solving abilities; improved emotional awareness and emotional management; reduced aggressive orientations and hostile attributions and increased use of constructive conflict behaviors in schools and in home and community contexts.

2.18.4 Create a Constructive Conflict Community

Cuervo (2003) argues the creating a constructive conflict community requires developing and advocating for social justice. The author posit that a constructive conflict community is also one in which there is a shared responsibility for social ills and social accomplishments. In such a community, destructive conflict is seen as something the community needs to address. This is one of the basic assumptions underlying the notion of restorative justice approaches to CRE. Whittall (2003) assert that success in creating a constructive conflict community would be evident in outcomes including the following: increased parental and community involvement in school affairs; increased links between school CRE and community CRE efforts and decreased community tension and violence.

2.18.5 Resolution of conflicts in schools

The chief executive or a school manager, that is, the principal, is responsible for the overall institution, control and maintenance of standards in the school (McNamara,

2007). A principal is therefore, a manager of school and is accountable for all that happens in the school. He is in charge of a community of variety of staff and students and it is to her/him that they look upon for guidance and direction (Iravo, 2002). Kochhar (1988) emphasizes the importance of the principal whom he notes is the key cornerstone in the arch of school management and has the steering wheel in his hands. Kochhar asserts that the principal should be a group leader who knows how to involve people, arrange conditions and initiate process that bring out the best in each participant, that is the school personnel who include employees (teachers, non-teaching staff), and the students.

The principal stimulates the teamwork, co-ordinate their efforts, plans what to be done, directs the finding of solutions to common problems of the institute and evaluates performance to get reason for failure or success. Ozigi (1977) emphasizes that, the school reputation largely depends on the principal who can make or mar the school Schools rise to fame or sink to obscurity as greater or lesser principals have charge of them. It is said The school is as greater as the principal because everything in the school, the plant, the staff, the curriculum, methods and techniques of teaching among other human relationship, bear the impress of his/her personality and the way conflict resolutions are handled.

Schools do not become great because of magnificent buildings but because of magnificent principals who are keen on the role of management in conflict resolution. The principal therefore occupies a very significant office in any educational system. To be effective he needs, among others: drive, energy, vision, personality and management in conflict resolution technique. Institutions, especially large and complex ones employ

different groups of people who have to be coordinated in the best way possible in order to achieve both individual and Institutional goals.

This means that the management has to create an environment in which members can cooperate with each other. However, work groups usually have a tendency to compete for limited resources, power and status, to the extent of disrupting the cooperative efforts. Besides internal conflict, management also faces conflict from external forces. These may include government, trade unions and economic conditions (Van, 1989).

According to Griffin (1994), a principal's public and professional reputation will depend more on the standard of stability in his school than on any other single factor that is, good stability brings good results in every field of school endeavour. A principal who lets any form of conflict out of his hands is risking trouble. Should an instance of mass conflict occur, the wise principal will resist the temptation to find a scapegoat, be it the Ministry of Education, the board of governors, politicians, parents and staff, but will instead take a long hard look at his own conflict management methods. If his school becomes unstable in any way, then it implies that, foundations of management in conflict resolution were not established in the school, and the blame for this is his/hers.

2.19 Conflict Management

The focus of conflict researchers have not been on determining the causes of conflict. Various factors contribute to setting the stage for conflict to emerge. Dirks and Parks posited that the interdependence of the disputants, with actual or perceived differences in goals, values, or aims, who view the other party as potentially interfering

with the attainment of those goals, values, or aims lead to conflict in the workplace (Dirks & Parks, 2003). Putnam and Poole (1987) viewed the competition for resources, coordination of systems, work distribution, and participation in decision making as key factors to conflict in organizations. The rising conflicts between departments within organizations are attributed to the increasing strains produced by resource and workflow interdependence between departments and differences in their short-term objectives and their desires for autonomy (Nauta & Sanders, 2001).

Conflict management researchers suggest that conflict is a multidimensional construct (Jehn, 1992). Conflict can be a benefit or a detriment, which depends largely on the type of conflict and how it is managed (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Researchers have identified several different types of conflict, which resulted in a proliferation of terminology with significant conceptual overlap (Dirks & Parks, 2003). In particular, one distinguishable type of conflict (e.g., interpersonal, relational, affective, and emotional conflict) induced negative results, whereas another distinguishable type of conflict (e.g., task, debate, substantive, and cognitive conflict) promoted positive outcomes (Dirks & Parks, 2003). They argue that there is consistency in conflict style across types of conflict and these types very much influence conflict management styles (Sternberg & Soriano, 1984). Among them, Kilmann and Thomas' (1975) two-dimensional model of conflict management and dual concern model are the most widely used models. However, research findings have been conflicting. De Dreu and Weingart's (2003) meta-analysis found the same significant relationship between both types of conflict and conflict outcomes. They concluded that both types of conflict were disruptive and the classification was not so useful.

Conflict itself cannot bring useful functions or harmful outcomes to organizations, instead the conflict outcomes depend on the employee's personal awareness and acknowledgment of the value of conflict and conflict management skills (Rahim, 2011). Essentially, conflict has no direct relationship to positive or negative outcomes. The positive results of conflict result from the use of appropriate conflict management skills and the negative results of conflict come from the use of inappropriate conflict management skills (Barki & Hartwick, 2001). Research indicates that high performance employees know how to manage conflict so that conflict makes a positive contribution, while less effective employees avoid conflict or allow it to produce negative consequences that in turn produce poor work performance.

Researchers have noted numerous studies of conflict bringing positive outcomes; however, other studies have demonstrated negative results (Rahim, 2011).

Contributing to the conflicting research results is the absence of effective conflict management skills impact upon the outcomes of conflict. Poor conflict management skills cause conflict escalation and negative results. Managing conflict in a way to reduce its destructive effects while capitalizing on and enhancing its productive effects is critical to organizations. Researchers have studied a multitude of mechanisms to manage conflict productively in business environment (Stewart & Barrick, 2000). Johnson and Johnson (2006) and Tjosvold (2000) demonstrate the open-minded discussion of conflicting perspectives for mutual benefit, labelled constructive controversy, is an effective way to manage conflict effectively in order to capitalize on the potential positive outcomes of conflict (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008). According to Covey (2002), the following approaches can be used to resolve conflict: arbitrations, mediation, reconciliation,

bargaining, problem solving, and peacekeeping. Any of these can come through the use of force.

Covey (2002) articulates three strategies for peaceful conflict management between and among aggrieved parties. They include mediation, arbitration and reconciliation and each of these strategies can be used to resolve conflict among and between aggrieved parties. He explains that the mediation strategy of conflict resolution basically seeks to provide a voluntary framework for dispute settlement between warring parties in dispute. The parties select a third party who acts as a mediator or a facilitator. The mediator has no power to provide the outcome. The parties determine the outcome of the mediation process by mutual agreement. If the mediation process fails, the parties in dispute are free to withdraw from the process, launch legal proceedings at any time or turn to one or more arbitrations.

Covey (2002) explains the arbitration strategy unlike mediation is a private process between the aggrieved parties in dispute. The arbitration is more formal than the mediation process. It has an element of extra-judicial approach to dispute settlement. The warring parties choose a neutral third person to become the arbitrator to solve the dispute. The arbitrator is expected to be neutral and knowledgeable. He is expected to follow and apply the rules, guidelines and procedures defined and agreed upon by the parties involved in the dispute. The parties in the dispute must agree on the place of the arbitration, the use of language and application of rules and laws during the arbitration process. The outcome of the arbitration process is binding to both parties.

The third strategy, which is reconciliation by Covey presupposes the willingness of the conflicting parties to settle and resolve their differences with a view to restore and harmonize their relationships. The primary goal of the reconciliation process is to restore a peaceful relationship between the conflicting parties and to create a new order based on consensus and key values, which encourage and promote cooperation among parties in conflict. The reconciliation process therefore attempts to adjust and change the embedded values and attitudes of the conflicting parties and steer them towards a shared common vision based on shared common identity. It tries to overcome the conflicting parties fear, anger and revengefulness towards each other it is fundamentally crucial however the parties in dispute acknowledge that they both have problems and should be willing to resolve through peaceful means.

The reconciliation process merely assists them to jointly analyse the conflict, acknowledge the injustices it has caused and agreed to build bridges between them through healing process, forgiveness and moral responsibility. According to McPheat (2008), as a manager one can spend a significant amount of time focusing on how to deal with conflict as it arises. No two situations are going to be alike so you will find a grasp upon a handful of different beneficial than not. There are mirages of ways to deal with conflicts but here are few McPheat (2008) suggested:

Avoid the conflict: this according to McPheat (2008) seems as though not a strategy at all but if you are consciously monitoring a conflict while avoiding it you will be able to intervene when necessary. To him avoidance tends to work very well if two employees are involved in a simple disagreement and are likely to come to their own conclusion without help.

Find a compromise: This is meeting with both parties to understand their points of view and figure out what each one can give up in order to make each one happy. Each should find resolution to be palatable in some way or form they will each be forced to stand down on issues while maintaining their position on others but no one person will be forced to completely give up on his or her own idea.

Stage of confrontation: According to McPheat (2008) this stage can be scary and stressful but sometimes allowing all parties involved in a conflict to air their views is enough to make the conflict go away. Everyone will have to verbalise their position and reasoning, this gives each participant enough information to come and agree upon a logical conclusion. Confrontation should be used carefully however, as some individuals will perceive the situation as a personal attack and walk away feeling hurt.

Technique for avoiding and resolving conflicts include; meet conflict head-on, set goals, plan for and communicate frequently, be honest about concerns, agree to disagree, understand that healthy disagreement would build better decisions. Get individual's ego out of management style. Let your team create: people will support what they help create. Discuss differences in values openly continually stress the importance of the following policy- communicate honestly and avoid playing 'gotcha' type games. Provide more data and information than is needed. Develop a sound management system.

Another strategy in conflict management is to seek consensus. Balance power is one tactic for building a sense of fairness. Finding the appropriate way to resolve conflict over an issue is another. Leaders that manage conflict effectively use a two-step process called consensus with qualification. It works as these executives talk over an issue and try

to reach consensus. If they cannot, the most relevant senior manager makes the decision guided by input from the rest of the group.

How does consensus with qualification create a sense of fairness? A body of research on procedural justice shows that the process fairness which involves significant participation and influence by all concerned, is enormously important to most people. Individuals are willing to accept outcomes they dislike if they believe the process by which those results come about was fair most people want their opinions to be considered seriously but willing to accept that those opinions cannot always prevail. That is precisely what occurs in consensus with qualification.

Cuervo (2003) states that conflict resolution is a process of attempting to resolve a dispute or a conflict. Successful conflict resolution occurs by listening to providing opportunities to meet each side's needs, and adequately address their interests so that they are each satisfied with the outcome. Conflict practitioners talk about finding the win-win outcome for parties involved. In the win-lose dynamic found in most conflicts. While conflict resolution engages conflict; once it has already started conflict prevention aims to end conflicts before they start or lead to verbal physical or legal fighting or violence.

Conflict itself has both positive and negative outcomes. Practitioners in the field of conflict resolution aim to find ways to promote the positive outcomes and minimise the negative outcomes. Roloff, stressed again that there are debates in the field of conflict work as to whether all conflicts can be resolved, thus making the term conflict resolution one of the contention. Other common terms include conflict management, conflict transformation and conflict interventions.

Conflict management can be the general process by which the parties towards conclusion manage conflict; however, it is also referred to as a situation where conflict is deliberate Person, social and organisational tool, especially used by capable politicians and other social engineers. Conflict resolution process can vary. However group conflict involves two or more groups with opposing views regarding specific issues. This last, but though is quite not entirely demanded if the outside is well respected by the opposing parties. These methods all require third party intervention, a resolution method which is direct between the parties with opposing views in negotiation

According to Mankoe (2002), conflict management consists of interpersonal styles, negotiating strategies and structural interventions that are designed to avoid unnecessary tension, or to reduce excessive conflicts. Mankoe discusses the following interpersonal conflict handling styles:

Avoiding Styles: This style involves behaviours, which are unassertive as well as not co-operative. An individual with this style chooses to stay out of conflict, ignore disagreements remain neutral. This approach might reflect a decision to let the conflict work itself or it might reflect an aversion to tension and frustration.

Accommodating Style: The accommodating style involves a behaviour that is cooperative but not assertive. Accommodators justify their style with the statement:

- If it makes other people happy I am all for it
- I like to smooth over disagreement to by making them appear less important
- One ease conflict by suggesting that our differences are trivial and then show good will by blending my ideas into those of the other person.

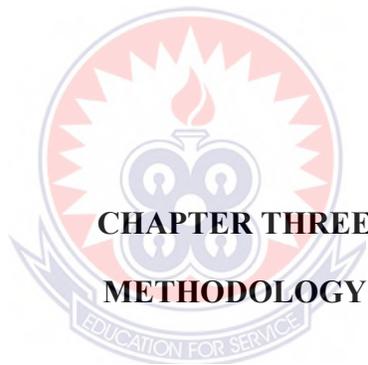
Summary

From the review of related literature, it was seen that conflict is inevitable in the administration and management of any human institution since conflict can never be completely eradicated from human interactions. Conflict is of different types. In the broadest sense, conflict is described as either constructive (functional or destructive (dysfunctional) conflict depending on its after effects. Other forms of conflict are interpersonal, inter group, procedural, cognitive, affective, lateral, subordinate, super ordinate and goal conflict.

Several factors, including lack of information flow, competition for scarce resources, religious and political differences, and disagreement over goals and threat to autonomy are responsible for conflict situations in institutions. Conflict can be resolved through several strategies such as avoiding, competing, accommodating, compromising, collaborating and third- party negotiations.

Negative conflict can be prevented by the integration of departmental goals, effective communication with emphasis on fairness, transparency, and regular meetings. In addition, it was realized that since conflict in institutions can escalate rapidly and negatively affect the culture of the institution if not properly handled, managing institutional conflict should be an important priority of every administrator (Balay, 2006). According to Fullan (2005) one widely accepted modernist theory of organizational conflict proposes that both too little and too much conflict result in poor performance whereas performance is optimized by an intermediate level of conflict. In other words, there is a curvilinear relationship between conflict and organizational performance. By

implication, in some cases, conflict is necessary to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in the administration of an institution and for that matter, a school, in order to achieve high productivity in the school.



3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides detailed information on the research design, study population, the sample and sampling techniques used for the research. It also spells out the data collection instruments, how they were validated and how they were administered. Finally, the data analysis procedure is also discussed.

3.2 Research Design

Research design refers to ‘the overall plan for collecting data so as to be able to answer the research questions (Asamoah - Gyimah & Duodu, 2007). Crossan (2003) also

describes a research design as a plan or structure for an investigation or a list of specifications and procedure for conducting a research project. In other words, research design can be described as a master plan which indicates the strategies for conducting a research.

The research is based on case study method. Case study research is good in facilitating understanding of a complex issue or object and can extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships. Researchers have used the case study research method for many years across a variety of disciplines. Case study research method has been widely used in social science research. It has been used to examine contemporary real-life situations and provide the basis for the application of ideas and extension of methods. Creswell (2007) defines the case study research method as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

Case study method of research enables the researcher to learn from practice to be able to inform the theory on which that study is based. A case study method was adopted to carry out the research because the phenomenon under investigation is a real life contemporary developmental issue and needs a combination of methods to investigate. In addition, the case study design was deemed appropriate for the study because the study focused on a single case, that is, conflict management in K.N.U.S.T. J.H.S. Besides, the researcher sought to present a detailed description of how conflict is managed in a single

school, thereby developing a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. A weakness is that generalizing from a single case can be very risky.

3.3 Research Approach

This study employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. According to Carter (2000), qualitative approach is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions and behavior. Elo & Kyngäs (2008) maintain that qualitative approach helps the researcher to understand particular social situation, event, role and group of interactions. The qualitative approach was selected due to the nature of the study which seeks to enquire indepth information concerning the problem under investigation. A qualitative approach enabled the researcher to interact with respondents to get the firsthand knowledge of the problem under investigation and an indepth study of the issue. Quantitative approach was used to supplement qualitative approach where appropriate. According to Bryman (2004) the underlying principle of using quantitative approach is that, it generates quantitative data that can be processed statistically. On the other hand an aspect of quantitative approach helps to summarize the descriptive information. Likewise, quantitative approach was selected due to its powerfulness in data analysis. It uses statistical analysis to reach particular conclusions.

3.4. The Study Area

On the 24th October 1988, the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology Junior High School was established in compliance with the new Educational Reform, which was introduced in the country in 1987. The school is situated right at the

entrance of the main University. It covers an area of about 500 square meters. Pupil population has geometrically increased from tens to hundreds and to over thousand, whilst staff population also stands at 86 currently.

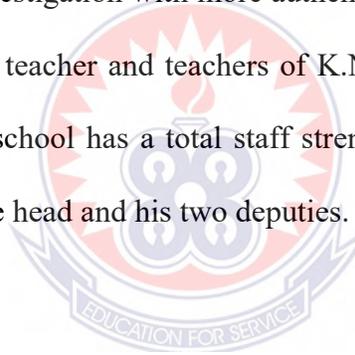
The school right from inception was managed by both the University and Government, until January, 2006 when the University decided to take over from the Government complete responsibility for the management of the school. K.N.U.S.T. J.H.S. has eight sections which are named after past and present Vice Chancellors of the university. They can boast of resource persons like the Kumasi Metro Best Teacher for 2000 and the “National Best Science Teacher for 2004. The school has won numerous competitions and quizzes that have been organized by the Kumasi Metro Directorate.

The area of study is easily accessible because of its nearness to Kejetia Bus Terminal and Asafo, and its superb road network which links the Metropolis to all other parts of the regions and beyond. Almost all the roads here have been tarred with asphalt.

The school is prone to conflict among staff because conflict is inevitable among humans. When two or more social entities (i.e., individuals, groups, organizations, and nations) come in contact with one another in attaining their objectives, their relationships may become incompatible or inconsistent. Relationships among such entities may become inconsistent when two or more of them desire a similar resource that is in short supply; when they have partially exclusive behavioral preferences regarding their joint action; or when they have different attitudes, values, beliefs, and skills. Conflict is the perception of differences of interests among people (Thompson, 1998).

3.5. Population

Mankoe and Tukpe (2010) refer research population to all the people, objects, institutions, which are the objects of the study. Asamoah - Gyimah and Duodu (2007) are also of the view that population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects, or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which a researcher intends to generalize the results of the research. They continue to say that researchers should define their population in operational terms, describing it with all the necessary definable characteristics. This helps researchers in selecting the sample and depicting the sample characteristics with more ease, and further helps the researcher in generalizing his findings of the present investigation with more authenticity. The target population for the study comprised the head teacher and teachers of K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school in the Kumasi Metropolis, The school has a total staff strength of 86, made up of 26 females and 60 males including the head and his two deputies.



3.6. The Sample

A sample is a proportion of the population that participates in the study (Hugh, 2004). It is a representative group drawn from the population. Johnson & Christensen (2004) define a sample as “a sub-set of a population which must have properties which make it representative of the whole”. (p 302) Similarly, Bryman (2004) refers to sample as the population that is selected for investigation. Samples involve collecting information from a portion of the larger group, and on this basis, infer something about the larger group (population). For the purpose of this study all of the population was asked to participate in the study.

3.7. Sampling Technique

A census sampling technique was employed. This involves collecting data from all individuals in the target population due to the small nature of the population. It is called a census sample because data is gathered on every member of the population. The Researcher used this technique because it give him the opportunity to study all the respondents due to the small nature of the population. To Bryman (2004), there are advantages to using a census or sample to study a population:

- provides a true measure of the population (no sampling error)
- benchmark data may be obtained for future studies
- detailed information about small sub-groups within the population is more likely to be available

3.8. Data Collection Instrument

The instruments used for this research were questionnaires and semi structured interview. The researcher used questionnaire because of its advantages like; easy to administer on a large population which is largely literate, teachers and head masters who were the main respondents are literate. Questionnaires require less time and money compared to other methods like focus group discussions (Green & Thorogood, 2004).

In spite of the advantages, it has its setbacks. Questionnaire requires some level of expertise to develop. Some respondents may not be honest in their answers, thereby distorting the overall findings of the study. Also, some respondents may not fully understand some aspects of the questions while some may misinterpret the question as

the researcher may not be around to clarify or respond to respondents' queries. Another setback to questionnaire is that participation on the part of respondents is voluntary so many people may refuse to complete the questionnaire while some may not return completed questionnaires. The questionnaires contained items on a Likert-type scale. All of the questions were closed-ended.

Questionnaire for the respondents had five sections, i.e., section A, B, C, D and E. Section A, collected data on respondents' background information. Section B collected data on types of conflict among teachers. These questions consisted of 8 items of which items 1 to 4 measures task conflict while items 5 to 8 also measures relationship conflict. This questionnaire obtained satisfactory cronbach alpha of 0.77. Section C had 5 items that collected data on causes of conflict among the teachers. This questionnaire obtained satisfactory cronbach alpha of 0.88. Section D had 6 items that collected data on effect of conflicts on teachers' performance. This questionnaire obtained satisfactory cronbach alpha of 0.72. Section E collected data on head masters' conflict resolution strategies. It consisted of 20 items of which items 1 to 4 measures avoidance strategy, items 5 to 8 measures accommodating strategy, items 9 to 12 measures collaborating, items 13 to 16 measures compromise while items 17 to 20 measures competition. All of the questions were of 4-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). The questionnaire obtained satisfactory cronbach alpha above 0.82.

3.8.1 Semi-Structured interview

Interview is a means of interaction in which the interviewees give information orally. The information gained by interview is personal and it helps to get detailed

information (Gay & Airasan 2003). It is used to get information concerning feeling, attitude, or emotion to certain questions which is not possible to answer through questionnaire (Cresswell 2002). Hence, semi-structured interview was prepared for the 3 head teachers to get information about the conflict management in their school.

The interviewees were free from any frustration and they gave real information. Eight questions were designed by the researcher based on the objectives of the study and the research questions and then they were presented to the interviewees. Each interviewee had the chance to answer each question freely. During the interview the researcher recorded their responses with Tape Recorder for future analysis. The interview sessions lasted from thirty to forty minutes.

3.9 Pre – Testing of Research Instruments

A pre- test was conducted to determine the clarity and readability of the questionnaire, and to test the internal reliability of the measures. A pre- test was conducted at Boadi M/A Junior high school. Twelve (12) respondents were selected to participate in this pre-test. It helped me to unearth the content validity and reliability of the questions in measuring what was intended. The questionnaire was amended accordingly for use in the field. The refining of the items in the questionnaire was to make the items very simple for the respondents to understand so that they could provide the appropriate response to the items. The pre-test also gave a fair idea of the responses to be obtained from the field. The responses were fed into the SPSS version 16.0 to determine the reliability of the instrument.

3.10 Testing Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

The validity of the research instrument was ensured by assessing the questionnaire items during their construction. Questions were discussed with the supervisor for verification. This was to clear any lack of clarity and ambiguity. The content related validity of the questionnaire was determined and strengthened through an extensive review of the literature.

Reliability refers to the consistency of the instruments in tapping information from more than one respondent (Cresswell & Miller, 2000). Through a testing conducted at Boadi M/A Junior high school in Kumasi Metropolis that was not part of the sample with 10 teachers responded to the questionnaire and 2 head teachers were interviewed. The results obtained were entered into the computer and reliability analysis was run. The reliability coefficient for the teachers' questionnaire was 0.72 cronbach alpha.

3.11 Trustworthiness of the Data

To ensure trustworthiness of the data, the researcher incorporated four techniques used in qualitative research to support the rigor of the work: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Trustworthiness strategies included the following:

Credibility: Credibility is an evaluation of whether or not the research findings present a 'credible' conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants' original data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Credibility was enhanced through member checking. Member checking was employed in order to come up with credible information. I took the final report of specific descriptions or themes back to participants and determined whether

these participants felt that they were accurate. McMillan & Schumer (2001) suggested that the researcher would check informally with participants for accuracy of information during data collection. Denzin & Lincoln (2000) on the other hand added that “validity” and “reliability” in qualitative data gathering result when we “cross-check our work through member checks. The researcher needs to find a way to allow for the participants to review the material one way or another.” In this study when conducting interviews, notes were typed verbatim and respondents were consulted to check the accuracy of the transcription and to make any changes. This assured the respondent that the researcher was accurately noting their thoughts and opinions.

Dependability: Lincoln and Guba (1995) stress the close ties between dependability and credibility, arguing that, in practice a demonstration of the former goes some distance in the former. In this research, the use of individual interviews enhanced dependability. The way the study was carried out was also described in detail to enhance dependability. Such a detailed description allows the reader to assess the extent to which proper research practices have been followed.

Confirmability: All interviews were audio-recorded contributing toward maintaining an audit trail that could trace each step of the analysis back to the original study protocol.

Transferability: According to Creswell (2003), external validity is the extent to which the findings of a study can be applied to other situations. In order to allow transferability, the researcher provided information that could be used by the reader to determine whether the findings were applicable to any new situation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Flick (2002) posits that this is a form of ‘retrospective generalization’ that can allow us to understand our past/future experiences in a new way. This study described the

characteristics of both the participants and primary schools; the data collection methods used as well as the time frame within which data were collected. The researcher also used thick description. This was done to enable the readers to assess the extent to which the findings may be true of people in other settings.

3.12 Data Collection Procedure

Structured questionnaires containing close ended questions were administered to teachers. This was done during working days between 10am to 2:00pm. The researcher visited the selected school and interacted with the authorities. After permission from the authorities had been obtained, the researcher personally administered the questionnaires to the teachers, and also collected the questionnaire later when I was informed about the completion of the instrument. In addition, I used interview guide to measure the opinion of 3 head teachers on their perception on the conflict management. It was a face – to – face interview. This was useful for gathering in-depth information on the subject under investigation.

3.13 Data Analysis Procedure

After sorting out the questionnaires, the data was computed and analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. The statistical analysis such as frequencies and percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the questionnaire. The questionnaire of four – point likert format were strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, agree = 3 and strongly agree = 4. The interpretation of the mean values

was based on the likert- scale format. This means that, when the mean value ranged between:

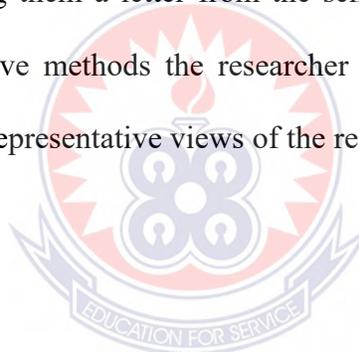
- a). 0.0.-1.00 = Strongly Disagree
- b). 1.01 – 2.00 = Disagree
- c). 2.01 – 3.00 = Agree, and
- d). 3.01 – 4.00 = Strongly Agree

With regard to the analysis of the qualitative data, after every field visit, I summarized the interview into themes. I transcribed and read through to get acquainted with it. Further, I transcribed the interviews and collated with the information from the field notebook (Creswell, 2008). On a daily basis, I wrote brief notes on each interview. This helped me to make general sense of the data. I then developed codes by categorizing the information putting together related information. I also began by coding the interviews as this is where I elicited information on the subject under investigation. The codes were done according to the interview questions. The data from the interview was analyzed by grouping all the similar responses. I went through all interviews and developed further codes to reflect the themes of my research by relating the data to the research questions. This led me to writing analytic memos of some of the major themes. Finally, I sought to make meaning of the data by relating information to literature and personal experience.

3.14 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues confront every researcher who embarks on a study involving humans as subjects. Some general agreements have been shared by researchers about what is proper and improper in the conduct of scientific inquiry. The most important

ethical agreements that prevail in social research include, harm to participants, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality and deception. These concerns were dealt with in the course of data collection. Firstly, it was ensured that no participant was harmed through the revelation of information that could embarrass him/her. Secondly, the respondents were adequately educated about what was being investigated and this enhanced the chances of their participation. Furthermore, the respondents were assured of complete anonymity and confidentiality. This was achieved by concealing their true identities through the use of code words to represent their names. Finally, respondents were convinced that the researcher was pursuing a genuine academic exercise devoid of any deception by showing them a letter from the school and the researcher's student's identity card. By the above methods the researcher ensured neutrality and objectivity which made the findings representative views of the respondents.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In this Chapter, I have analyzed and discussed responses made by my respondents. The data gathered have been presented in the form of tables, frequencies and simple percentages to give a clearer picture of the opinions of the respondents on the issues addressed by the questionnaires.

The results are broadly categorized into:

- Background data of respondents
- Main Data

Questionnaires were distributed to 86 teachers of K.N.U.S.T. J.H.S. but 80 were returned.

4.2. SECTION A – Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 4.1 below shows the age group of the study respondents. The dominant age group of the teachers ranged between 31 – 40 years representing 40 (50%), followed by age group between 41 to 50 years representing 23(28.8%) whereas 51 and above made up the smallest group, representing 5 (6.2%) of the teachers.

Table 4.1: Age Distribution of Teachers

	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 31	12	15.0
31 – 40	40	50.0
41 – 50	23	28.8
51+	5	6.2
Total	80	100.0

The sex distribution of the teachers indicated differences with 57 male representing 71.2% and 23 female teachers representing 28.8%. This implies male participants were more than female participants. Table 4.2 below illustrates this relationship.

Table 4.2: Sex Distribution of Teachers

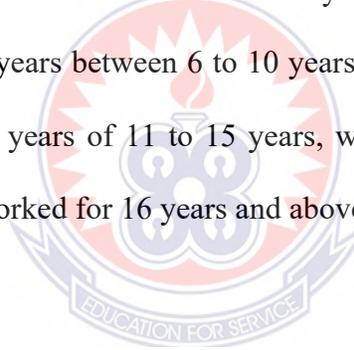
	Frequency	Percentage
Male	57	71.2
Female	23	28.8
Total	80	100.0

In terms of the respondents' educational status, Table 4.3 below indicates that 32 of the teachers representing 40% had diploma certificates, 38 of them representing 47.5% had first degree status, while 10 of them representing 12.5% were second degree holders.

Table 4.3: Educational Status Distribution of Teachers

	Frequency	Percentage
Diploma	32	40.0
First Degree	38	47.5
Second Degree	10	12.5
Total	80	100.0

With regard to teachers working experience, 11 of the teachers representing 13.8% reported that they have worked between the years 1 to 5, 46(57.5%) indicated that they have worked for the years between 6 to 10 years, 17(21.2%) also reported that they have worked between the years of 11 to 15 years, while 6 of them representing 7.5% indicated that they have worked for 16 years and above.



4.3. SECTION B – ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

4.3.1. Research Question One – What types of conflict occur among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?

Griffin (2006) identified two major types of conflict which the researcher used in the study. These are:

1. Task Conflict, and
2. Relationship Conflict

Task Conflict

This section of the research question was meant to identify the types of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. The teachers were given questionnaires and were requested to express their views to assist in finding out the type of conflict among them. Their responses were recorded in Table 4.4 as follows:

Table 4.4: Task Conflict as a type of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Teachers mostly disagree about opinions regarding the work being done.	3(3.8)	6(7.5)	4(5)	42(52.5)	25(31.2)	4.00
2. There are conflicts about ideas among teachers.	4(5.0)	6(7.5)	3(3.8)	41(51.2)	26(32.5)	3.99
3. There is conflict about the work among teachers.	5(6.2)	6(7.5)	3(3.8)	44(55)	22(27.5)	3.90
4. There are differences of opinion among teachers.	3(3.8)	2(2.5)	2(2.5)	25(31.2)	48(60)	4.41
Grand Mean						4.08

Table 4.4 above shows the respondents' views on the task conflict as a type of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. The respondents were asked if teachers mostly disagree about opinions regarding the work they do. With this statement, 3 of the teachers representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 6(7.5%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 42(52.5%) agreed while 25(31.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.00

implies that averagely the teachers agreed that teachers mostly disagree about opinions regarding the work being done.

The researcher wanted to find out if there are conflicts about ideas among teachers and 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 6(7.5%) disagreed, 3(3.8%) stayed neutral, 41(51.2%) agreed while 26(32.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.99 fell in the category of agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers agreed that there are conflicts about ideas among teachers

Moreover, I wanted to find out if there is conflict about the work among teachers and 5 of the teachers representing 6.2% strongly disagreed, 6(7.5%) disagreed, 3(3.8%) stayed neutral, 44(55%) agreed while 22(27.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.90 fell in the category of agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers agreed that there is conflict about the work among teachers.

Lastly, I wanted to find out if there are differences of opinion among teachers and 3 of the teachers representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 2(2.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 25(31.2%) agreed while 48(60%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.41 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that there are differences of opinion among teachers.

Relationship Conflict

This aspect of the research question was intended to find out the economic factors that affect the performance of newly appointed heads. The researcher administered questionnaires to teachers and their responses given were presented in Table 4.5 below:

Table 4.5: Relationship Conflict as a type of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. There is frequent friction among teachers.	16(20)	42(52.5)	2(2.5)	12(15)	8(10)	2.43
2. Personality conflicts are evident among teachers.	59(73.8)	9(11.2)	2(2.5)	4(5)	6(7.5)	1.61
3. There is tension among teachers.	55(68.8)	14(17.5)	2(2.5)	5(6.2)	4(5)	1.61
4. There is emotional conflict among teachers.	60(75)	14(17.5)	2(2.5)	2(2.5)	2(2.5)	1.40
Grand Mean						1.76

Table 4.5 above shows the respondents' views on the relationship conflict as a type of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. The respondents were asked if there is frequent friction among teachers. With this statement, 16 of the teachers representing 20% strongly disagreed, 42(52.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 12(15%) agreed while 8(10%) strongly disagreed. The mean score of 2.43 implies that averagely the teachers stayed neutral, that there is frequent friction among teachers.

The researcher wanted to find out if personality conflicts are evident among teachers and 59 of the teachers representing 73.8% strongly disagreed, 9(11.2%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 4(5%) agreed while 6(7.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 1.61 fell in the category of disagreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers disagreed that personality conflicts are evident among teachers.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if there is tension among teachers and 55 of the teachers representing 68.8% strongly disagreed, 14(17.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 5(6.2%) agreed while 4(5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 1.61 fell in the category of disagreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers disagreed that if there is tension among teachers

Lastly, I wanted to find out if there is emotional conflict among teachers and 60 of the teachers representing 75% strongly disagreed, 14(17.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 2(2.5%) agreed while 2(2.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 1.40 fell in the category of disagreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers disagreed that there is emotional conflict among teachers.

4.1.4 Comparison of types of conflicts that occur among teachers in K.N.U.S.T.

Junior High school

Even though, all of the two types of conflict occur among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school, this does not necessarily mean that all have equal impact. The following table clearly compares the dominant type of conflict occurring among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

Table 4.6: Comparison of types of conflict that occurs among teachers in K.N.U.S.T.**Junior High school**

Types of Conflict	Grand Mean	Severity Rank
Task Conflict	4.08	1 st
Relationship Conflict	1.76	2 nd

The grand mean in the above Table 4.6 clearly depicts that the task conflict is more severe than the relationship conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. This was based on the assumption that the grand mean score for task conflict of 4.08 means that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that task conflict is occurring in the study area, the grand mean score for relationship conflict of 1.76 means that averagely, the teachers disagreed that relationship conflict is occurring in the study area. In an interview, 3 head teachers were asked to determine the types of conflicts that exist in the school. All of the three head teachers noted that the dominant type of the conflict is that teachers were unable to move forward on a duty due to differing needs, behaviors or attitudes.

One of the head of school said that:

“In this school class teachers preferred that all punishment to students should be channeled through them, other teachers highly disagreed and indicated that every teacher has the right to punish students if students indeed commit punishable offence”

Another head teacher claimed that:

“It was a hot argument in our last staff meeting on the issue that while section of teachers strongly agreed that the incidence of indiscipline in the school should be attributed to the teachers’ misbehavior and conduct, other section of the staff vehemently attributed it to negligence of parental responsibilities”

This implies that task conflict encourages greater understanding of the issue being discussed – both in the individuals and in the group as a whole. With a deeper understanding of the issues, group members make better decisions. It is also likely that simply having more voices added to the discussion leads to better quality decisions. This finding was in line with that of Champoux (2006) who indicated that task conflict is interrelated with beneficial to individual teachers needs and further pronounced that task conflict becomes pronounced while decision taking place are complex in nature or highly skilled in its manifestation. Dwivedi (2001) added that task conflict leads to negativism in the development and maintainability of the team hence performance is being marred in such like situations. This finding concur with that of Wilmore (2002) who indicated that task conflicts arise when there are disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed, including differences in viewpoints, ideas and opinions. This implies that task conflicts may be both demanding and unpleasant, but also important for effective team functioning.

Blay (2006) added that task conflict positively influence team outcomes under certain circumstances. In contrast, relationship conflict has almost solely been related to negative outcomes, like reduction of team member satisfaction, collaborative problem solving, team performance, organizational performance, team effectiveness and helping behavior, team trust, affective acceptance and understanding and relational closeness.

The distinction between task and relationship conflict is critical for both managerial prescription and theory development. Task conflict has usually been associated with two interrelated and beneficial effects. The first is group decision quality. Groups that experience task conflict tend to make better decisions than those that do not

because task conflict encourages greater cognitive understanding of the issue being discussed. This effect has been found at both the individual level and the group level (Armstrong, 2009).

4.3.2. Research Question Two - What are the causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?

Objective of this research question aimed at establishing the causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. The participants' responses are revealed in Table 4.7 below

Table 4.7: Causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Difference in perceptions of teachers on certain issues lead to conflict among teachers.	7(8.8)	9(11.2)	4(5.0)	46(57.5)	14(17.5)	3.64
2. Feelings of superiority of some subject teachers over others lead to conflict among teachers.	4(5)	8(10)	2(2.5)	22(27.5)	44(55)	4.18
3. Preferential treatment of certain teachers by the head teachers lead to conflict among teachers.	3(3.8)	4(5)	5(6.2)	27(33.8)	41(51.2)	4.24
4. Administrative incompetence of head teachers lead to conflict among teachers.	3(3.8)	3(3.8)	4(5)	21(26.2)	49(61.2)	4.38
5. Differences in individual teachers teaching capabilities lead to conflict among teachers.	4(5)	7(8.8)	4(5)	44(55)	21(26.2)	3.89

Findings in Table 4.7 above show the teachers responses on causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. In the first place, I wanted to find out if difference in perceptions of teachers on certain issues lead to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. With this statement, 7 of the teachers representing 8.8% strongly disagreed, 9(11.2%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 46(57.5%) agreed while 14(17.5%) strongly disagreed. The mean score of 3.64 implies that the teachers agreed that difference in perceptions of teachers on certain issues lead to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

Again, 4(5%) strongly disagreed that feelings of superiority of some subject teachers over others lead to conflict among teachers, 8(10%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral 22(27.5%) agreed while 44(55%) strongly agreed to that statement. The mean score of 4.18 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that the teachers strongly agreed that feelings of superiority of some subject teachers over others lead to conflict among teachers.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if preferential treatment of certain teachers by the head teachers lead to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. With this statement, 3 of the teachers representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 5(6.2%) stayed neutral, 27(33.8%) agreed while 41(51.2%) strongly disagreed. The mean score of 4.24 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that preferential treatment of certain teachers by the head teachers lead to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

The researcher further wanted to find out if administrative incompetence of head teachers leads to conflict among teachers. With this statement, 3 of the teachers

representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 3(3.8%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 21(26.2%) agreed while 49(61.2%) strongly disagreed. The mean score of 4.38 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that administrative incompetence of head masters leads to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

Lastly, I wanted to find out if differences in individual teachers teaching capabilities lead to conflict among teachers. With this statement, 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 7(8.8%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 44(55%) agreed while 21(26.2%) strongly disagreed. The mean score of 3.89 implies that averagely the teachers agreed that differences in individual teachers teaching capabilities lead to conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

The three head teachers were asked to determine the causes of conflicts among the teachers in the school. The following main themes were identified, namely;

- Indiscipline among teachers
- Administrative style

Theme 1: Indiscipline among teachers

Two of the head teachers interviewed indicated that indiscipline among teachers causes conflict among their teachers in the school.

One of them stated that:

“Due to lack of work and high employment rate in the country, many people enter into teaching profession without having the zeal in teaching. The teachers who are expected to maintain student discipline tend to be indisciplined as a result of lack of zeal to teach”.

Another head teacher stated that:

“Basically, discipline problems among teachers occur when teachers refuse to come to school on time. This makes other teachers who are committed and dedicated complain and that results to conflict among the staff”

This study in a way confirmed observations by Champoux (2006) that some teachers go into the teaching profession only to earn a salary hence lack commitment. The findings of this study also concur with Hart (2002) in that such teachers are always in disagreement with the leadership and anticipate leaving all the time and always murmur and grumble over workloads.

Theme 2: Administrative Style

One of the head teachers indicated that administrative styles of school heads are also a cause of conflict among teachers in the school. She stated that:

“Favoritism of head teachers led to conflict among teachers in the school. She further added that favoritism of heads made it difficult to manage disciplinary problems.

The findings of this study concur with Preedy (2004) in that favoritism tendencies by school heads are a common cause of conflict with teachers. Favoritism heads tend to fail to achieve purposeful cooperation and collaboration among teachers hence teachers lack self commitment and personal motivation. Such favoritism experience relate to autocratic tendencies by school heads and that do not develop teachers to be innovative and self motivated to continuously develop and drive the school as an organization.

Quantitatively, majority of teachers strongly agreed that administrative incompetence of head teachers leads to the conflict among teachers. This finding collaborates with that of Bell (2002) who found out that heads who are not competent and knowledgeable in conflict resolution strategies breed conflict among teachers and students that in turn affect the performance of teachers and students negatively but if conflict is constructively managed, it will enhance organizational performance.

Champoux (2003) shares the above views and indicates that some head teachers display poor leadership qualities that created conflicts in schools. Somech (2008) indicates that inexperienced head teachers sometimes ran into serious problems when they fail to settle conflict amicably.

4.3.3. Research Question Three - What is the impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?

The third research question intended to find out how the conflict among teachers affects academic performance of the students. The respondents’ responses were presented in Table 4.8 below.



Table 4.8: Impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
Conflict among						

teachers.....						
1. Declines teachers' ability to meet up with deadlines.	17(21.2)	38(47.5)	7(8.8)	8(10)	10(12.5)	2.45
2. Lowers teachers' attitude toward work.	6(7.5)	11(13.8)	2(2.5)	33(41.2)	28(35)	3.83
3. Reduces teachers' morale that invariably affect teaching.	5(6.2)	6(7.5)	2(2.5)	35(43.8)	32(40)	4.04
4. Results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching.	2(2.2)	2(2.5)	2(2.5)	22(27.5)	52(65)	4.50
5. Increases emotional exhaustion that negatively affect their teaching.	5(6.2)	4(5)	2(2.5)	47(58.8)	22(27.5)	3.96
6. Results in poor health outcomes that negatively affect their teaching.	5(6.2)	10(12.5)	4(5)	38(47.5)	23(28.8)	3.80
Grand Mean						

Findings in Table 4.8 above show the teachers responses on the impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. In the first place, I wanted to find out if conflict among teachers declines teachers' ability to meet up with deadlines in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. With this statement, 17 of the teachers representing 21.2% strongly disagreed, 38(47.5%) disagreed, 7(8.8%) stayed neutral, 8(10%) agreed while 10(12.5%) strongly disagreed. The mean score of 2.45 implies that averagely the teachers stayed neutral that conflict among teachers declines teachers' ability to meet up with deadlines in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

Again, 6(7.5%) strongly disagreed that conflict among teachers lowers teachers attitude toward work, 11(13.8%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral 33(41.2%) agreed while 28(35%) strongly agreed to that statement. The mean score of 3.83 fell in the category of agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers agreed that conflict among teachers lowers teachers' attitude toward work.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if conflict among teachers reduces teachers' morale that invariably affects teaching in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school. With this statement, 5 of the teachers representing 6.2% strongly disagreed, 6(7.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 35(43.8%) agreed while 32(40%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.04 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that conflict among teachers reduces teachers' morale that invariably affects teaching in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school

The researcher further wanted to find out if conflict among teachers results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching. With this statement, 2 of the teachers representing 2.5% strongly disagreed, 2(2.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 22(27.5%) agreed while 52(65%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.50 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that conflict among teachers results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if conflict among teachers increases emotional exhaustion which negatively affects their teaching. With this statement, 5 of the teachers representing 6.2% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 47(58.8%) agreed while 22(27.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.96 implies that

averagely the teachers agreed that conflict among teachers increases emotional exhaustion that negatively affects their teaching.

Lastly, I wanted to find out if conflict among teachers results in poor health outcomes that negatively affect their teaching. With this statement, 5 of the teachers representing 6.2% strongly disagreed, 10(12.5%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 38(47.5%) agreed while 23(28.8%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.80 implies that averagely the teachers agreed that if conflict among teachers results in poor health outcomes that negatively affect their teaching in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school.

Qualitatively, all of the three head teachers who were interviewed emphasized that when teachers are characterized by conflict, their performance is adversely affected.

One of the heads stated that:

“Teachers are pivotal to students’ perceptions of learning and also facilitate or inhibit students’ learning and concluded that conflict among teachers demoralizes teachers that in turn negatively affects their performance”

This finding was in line with Ross (2003) who noted that conflict among teachers serve as a demotivating factor perceived by the teachers as central to their lack of motivation that negatively affect teachers work performance. Somech (2008) also added that highly discriminating teachers negatively influence the educational development of low achieving pupils.

The summary of the quantitative data indicated that majority of teachers strongly agreed that conflict among teachers results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching. This finding was consistent with Owens (2001) who indicated that conflict among teachers declines teachers’ mental status and makes them unhealthy. Deutsch & Coleman (2000) claimed that conflict among teachers dwindle the institutional

performance as team work and we – feeling that enhance good performance lacked. Robbins (2000) noted that conflict at work place breeds psychological strain that are harmful and usually give an adverse effect on the individuals experiencing them. Robbins(2000) further claimed that such state of feeling that is characterized by depleted emotional resources and lack of energy that negatively affect teachers work performance. Robbins and Decenzo (2004) added that psychological strain arises when individuals perceive themselves as unable to meet environmental demands and as a result lose interest in whatever the person is doing. This implies that if psychological strain occurs, people will try to deal with either the stressor itself or with the negative effects of this stressor (coping). Okotoni (2002) on the other hand noted that psychological strain can result from the mismatch between a person and the environment on dimensions important to the well-being of the person that thwart the performance.

4.3.4. Research Question Four - What strategies can be employed to deal with conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?

Griffin (2006) identified five conflict management methods which the researcher used in the study. These are:

1. Avoidance Strategy
2. Accommodating strategy
3. Collaborating strategy
4. Compromise strategy
5. Competition strategy

Avoidance Strategy

This section of the research question was meant to identify the avoidance method the head teachers employ to resolve conflict in their schools. The participants' responses were recorded in Table 4.9 as follows:

Table 4.9: Avoidance methods used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers

<i>Statements - Avoidance Strategy</i>	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.	3(3.8)	4(5)	2(2.5)	46(57.5)	25(31.2)	4.08
2. Exhibit the ability to sidestep issues.	4(5)	4(5)	2(2.5)	48(27.5)	48(60)	4.33
3. Exhibit the ability to leave things unresolved.	5(6.2)	4(5)	3(3.8)	40(50)	28(35)	4.03
4. Complain on sense of timing.	27(33.8)	36(45)	4(5)	12(15)	1(1.2)	2.05
Grand Mean						3.62

Table 4.9 above shows the teachers' views on the avoidance methods used by head teachers in managing conflicts between teachers. The respondents were asked if their head teachers try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other. With this statement, 3 of the teachers representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 46(57.5%) agreed while 25(31.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.08 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.

The researcher wanted to find out if their head teachers exhibit the ability to sidestep issues and 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 48(25.5%) agreed while 48(60%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.33 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers exhibit the ability to sidestep issues.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if their head teachers exhibit the ability to leave things unresolved and 5 of the teachers representing 6.2% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 3(3.8%) stayed neutral, 40(50%) agreed while 28(35%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.03 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers exhibit the ability to leave things unresolved

Lastly, I wanted to find from the teachers if their heads complains on sense of timing and 27 of the teachers representing 33.8% strongly disagreed, 36(45%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 12(15%) agreed while 1(1.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 2.05 fell in the category of disagreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly disagreed that their heads complains on sense of timing.

Accommodating Strategy

The following table displays the accommodating strategy used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers.

Table 4.10: Accommodating Strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers

<i>Statements –Head teacher.....</i>	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Try to satisfy the other's needs.	27(33.8)	40(50)	6(7.5)	5(6.2)	2(2.5)	1.94
2. Often go with the other's suggestions.	37(46.2)	31(38.8)	5(6.2)	4(5)	3(3.8)	1.81
3. Meet the expectations of the parties.	4(5)	4(5)	2(2.5)	20(2.5)	50(62.5)	4.35
4. Accommodate the wishes of the parties.	8(10)	6(7.5)	2(2.5)	47(58.8)	17(21.2)	3.74
Grand Mean						2.96

Table 4.10 above shows the teachers' views on the accommodating strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers. The respondents were asked if their head teachers try to satisfy the other's needs. With this statement, 27 of the teachers representing 33.8% strongly disagreed, 40(5%) disagreed, 6(7.5%) stayed neutral, 5(6.2%) agreed while 2(2.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 1.94 implies that averagely the teachers disagreed that their head teachers try to satisfy the other's needs.

The researcher wanted to find out if head teachers often go with the other's suggestions and 37 of the teachers representing 46.2% strongly disagreed, 31(38.8%)

disagreed, 5(6.2%) stayed neutral, 4(5%) agreed while 3(3.8%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 1.81 fell in the category of disagreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers disagreed that their head teachers often goes with the other's suggestions.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if head teachers meet the expectations of the parties and 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2 (2.5%) stayed neutral, 20 (25%) agreed while 50 (62.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.35 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers meet the expectations of the parties.

Lastly, I wanted to find from the teachers that if their heads accommodate the wishes of parties and 8 of the teachers representing 10% strongly disagreed, 6(7.5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 47(58.8%) agreed while 17(21.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.74 fell in the category of agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers agreed that their heads accommodate the wishes of parties.

Collaborating Strategy

The following Table 4.11 displays the collaborating strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers.

Table 4.11: Collaborating Strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers

<i>Statements - Collaborating Strategy</i>	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Look at issues with the parties to find solutions that meet the needs of each party.	4(5)	4(5)	2(2.5)	34(42.5)	36(45)	4.18
2. Try to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to both of us.	4(5)	5(6.2)	2(2.5)	26(32.5)	43(53.8)	4.24
3. Exchange accurate information with the other so we can solve a problem together.	3(3.8)	5(6.2)	3(3.8)	32(40)	37(46.2)	4.19
4. Try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved.	4(5)	8(10)	2(2.5)	56(70)	10(12.5)	3.75
Grand Mean						4.09

Table 4.11 above shows the teachers' views on the collaborating strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers. The respondents were asked if their head teachers look at issues with the parties to find solutions that meet the needs of each party. With this statement, 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 34(42.5%) agreed while 36(45%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.18 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that

their head teachers' look at issues with the parties to find solutions that meet the needs of each party.

The researcher wanted to find out if head teachers try to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to both parties involved in a conflict and 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 5(6.2%) disagreed, 2(2.2%) stayed neutral, 26(32.5%) agreed while 43(53.8%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.24 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers try to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to both parties.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if head teachers exchange accurate information with the others so they can solve a problem together and 3 of the teachers representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 5(6.2%) disagreed, 3(3.8%) stayed neutral, 32(40%) agreed while 37(46.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.19 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers exchange accurate information with the others so they can solve a problem together.

Lastly, I wanted to find out from the teachers if their heads try to bring teachers' concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved and 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 8(10%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 56(70%) agreed while 10(12.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.75 fell in the category of agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers agreed that their heads try to bring teachers' concerns out in the open so that the issues are resolved.

Compromise Strategy

The following table displays the compromise strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teacher.

Table 4.12: Compromise Strategy used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers

<i>Statements - Compromise Strategy</i>	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Try to negotiate and adopt a give-and-take approach to problem situations.	6(7.5)	4(5)	2(2.5)	16(20)	52(65)	4.30
2. Prefer to compromise when solving problems and just move on.	6(7.5)	6(7.5)	4(5)	47(58.8)	17(21.2)	3.79
3. Propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.	3(3.8)	10(12.5)	4(5)	25(31.2)	38(47.5)	4.06
4. Negotiate with the other to reach a compromise.	4(5)	12(15)	4(5)	45(56.2)	15(18.8)	3.69
Grand Mean						3.96

Table 4.12 above shows the teachers' views on the compromise strategy used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers. The respondents were asked if their head teachers try to negotiate and adopt a give-and-take approach to problem situations.

With this statement, 6 of the teachers representing 7.5% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 16(20%) agreed while 52(65%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.30 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers try to negotiate and adopt a give-and-take approach to problem situations.

The researcher wanted to find out if head teachers prefer to compromise when solving problems and just move on and 6 of the teachers representing 7.5% strongly disagreed, 6(7.5%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 47(58.8%) agreed while 17(21.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.79 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers prefer to compromise when solving problems and just move on.

Again, the researcher wanted to find out if the heads propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks and 3 of the teachers representing 3.8% strongly disagreed, 10(12.5%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 25(31.2%) agreed while 38(47.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 4.06 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that their heads propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.

Lastly, I wanted to find out from the teachers if their heads try to negotiate with the other to reach a compromise and 4 of the teachers representing 5% strongly disagreed, 12(15%) disagreed, 4(5%) stayed neutral, 45(56.2%) agreed while 15(18.8%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.69 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that their heads negotiate with the other to reach a compromise.

Competition Strategy

The following table displays the competition strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers

Table 4.13: Competition Strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers

<i>Statements - Competition Strategy</i>	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean
1. Use their influence to get their ideas accepted.	5(6.2)	8(10)	7(8.8)	35(43.8)	25(31.2)	3.84
2. Use their authority to make a decision in their favour.	16(20)	45(56.2)	11(13.8)	4(5)	4(5)	2.19
3. Use their expertise to make a decision that favours them.	8(10)	4(5)	2(2.5)	46(57.5)	20(25)	3.83
4. Sometimes use their power to win.	11(13.8)	9(11.2)	2(2.5)	44(55)	14(17.5)	3.51
Grand Mean						3.34

Table 4.13 above shows the teachers' views on the competition strategy used by head teachers in management of conflicts among teachers. The respondents were asked if

their head teachers use their influence to get ideas accepted and with this statement, see Table 4.13, 6 of the teachers representing 6.2% strongly disagreed, 8(10%) disagreed, 7(8.8%) stayed neutral, 35(43.8%) agreed while 25(31.2%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.84 implies that averagely the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers use their influence to get their ideas accepted.

Also, the researcher wanted to find out if their head teachers use their authority to make a decision in their favour and 16 of the teachers representing 20% strongly disagreed, 45(56.2%) disagreed, 11(13.8%) stayed neutral, 4(5%) agreed while 4(5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 2.19 fell in the category of strongly disagreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly disagreed that their head teachers use their authority to make decisions in their favour.

Moreover, I wanted to find out if their head teachers use their expertise to make a decision that favour them and 8 of the teachers representing 10% strongly disagreed, 4(5%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 46(57.5%) agreed while 20(25%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.83 fell in the category of strongly agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers use their expertise to make decisions that favour them.

Lastly, I wanted to find from the teachers that if their heads sometimes use their powers to win and 11 of the teachers representing 13.8% strongly disagreed, 9(11.2%) disagreed, 2(2.5%) stayed neutral, 44(55%) agreed while 14(17.5%) strongly agreed. The mean score of 3.51 fell in the category of agreed. This implies that averagely, the teachers agreed that their heads sometimes use their powers to win.

Comparison of strategies used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers

Even though, all of the conflict resolution strategies were found employed by the head teachers, this does not necessarily mean that they employed them evenly. Table 4.14 below clearly compares the overall strategies employed.

Table 4.14: Summary of strategies used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers

Conflict Management Strategies	Grand Mean	Severity Rank
<i>Avoidance Strategy</i>	3.62	3 rd
Accommodating Strategy	2.96	5 th
Collaborating Strategy	4.09	1 st
Compromise Strategy	3.96	2 nd
Competition Strategy	3.34	4 th

The grand mean in Table 4.14 clearly depicts that teachers strongly agreed that their head teachers employed collaborating method in resolving conflict among teachers. This was seen on their grand mean scores of 4.09. According to the likert scale used, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = agree while 5 = strongly agree. Looking at the grand mean stated above, 4.09 falls in the category of strongly agreed.

Qualitatively, all of the head teachers interviewed indicated that they employ collaborating method in resolving conflict among teachers. One of the heads stated that:

“We often collaborate closely in order to reach consensus or agreement. We give recognition and respect for everyone’s ideas, opinions and suggestions. Our consensus requires that each party must agree on the Point being discussed before it becomes a part of the decision”.

This finding was in line with that of Siann & Ugwuegbu (2000) who emphasized that head teachers employ collaborating conflict management strategy to resolve conflict among teachers as collaborating embrace an integrative solution as both parties concerns are too important to be compromised. Jehn and Mannix (2001) also found the problem-solving (collaborating) style to be more effective than other styles for attaining integration of the activities of different subsystems. They further emphasized that when the issues are complex, collaborating conflict management style is suitable in utilizing the skills and information possessed by different parties to formulate solutions and successful implementations.

Wilmore (2002) also stated that collaborating style strives to make sure that both sides are satisfied and emphasized that since collaborating style requires an open discussion of all the issues and concerns, exploration of alternative solutions, and honesty and commitment from all the parties, the collaborating style is an excellent way to merge insights from people with different perspectives on a problem, and the result can be a strong commitment to the solution from each side.

Bell (2002) also emphasized that the collaborating style is when the concern is to satisfy both sides and concluded that it is highly assertive and highly cooperative; the goal is to find a “win-win” solution. He further calls out that the appropriate uses for the collaborating style include integrating solutions, learning, merging perspectives, gaining commitment, and improving relationships. This implies that

using this style can support open discussion of issues, task proficiency, equal distribution of work amongst the team members, better brainstorming, and development of creative problem solving.

When parties collaborate to resolve a conflict, they openly express their concerns, and work to find a mutually beneficial solution. Collaboration leads to creative problem-solving and respect amongst coworkers in an organization. This style finds the root of a problem, such as personal conflicts, and attends to the situation in the least confrontational manner of any conflict-management style.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings of the study, which investigates conflict among teachers and its management in the K.N.U.S.T. Junior High School in the Kumasi Metropolis. This chapter includes the summary of the research findings, and conclusions from the results and finally the implications and recommendations for further studies.

5.2. Summary of the study

The study attempted to investigate conflict among teachers and its management in the K.N.U.S.T. Junior High School in the Kumasi Metropolis. The following research questions were posed to guide the study:

5. What types of conflict occur among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?
6. What factors cause conflicts that exist among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?
7. What is the impact of conflicts on teacher performance in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?
8. What strategies can be employed to deal with conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school?

5.3 Summary of Major Findings

The following findings were arrived at in the present study:

- The first research question seeking to find out the types of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school revealed that of task conflict
- Moreover, the second research question which sought to find out the causes of conflict among teachers in K.N.U.S.T. Junior High school revealed that quantitatively majority of teachers agreed that administrative incompetence of head teachers leads to the conflict among teachers whiles qualitatively, indiscipline among teachers and administrative style lead to the conflict among teachers.
- In addition, the third research question which sought to determine how the conflict among teachers affects teachers' performance revealed that conflict among teachers results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching
- Finally, with respect to research question four which sought to find out the methods used by head teachers in managing conflicts among teachers, it was revealed that head teachers employed collaborating method in resolving conflict among teachers.

5.4 Conclusion

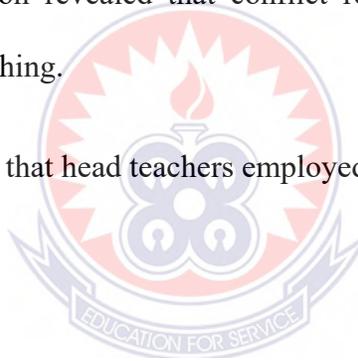
Based on the findings of the study, it was possible to draw the following conclusions:

Firstly, the analysis of the data revealed that task conflict was the dominant conflict experienced by the teachers.

The second research question revealed that administrative incompetence of head teachers and indiscipline (on the part of both teachers and students) lead to the conflict among teachers.

The third research question revealed that conflict results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching.

The study further revealed that head teachers employed collaborating method in resolving conflict among teachers.



5.5 Recommendations

Considering the major findings from the research, the following recommendations are made for consideration.

- Government should improve task-related conflicts of better remuneration for teachers, be more sensitive to teachers' welfare, increase motivation through remuneration, materials and facilities should be provided fully in public schools to reduce that conflict among teachers.

- The Regional and District Directorate should organize seminars and orientation for head teachers for effective schools' administration.
- School authorities should motivate teachers, encourage staff professional development, communicating affectively with staff, and also use effective conflicts resolution methods.
- Courses in conflict management and human relations should be included in the curriculum for teachers in training as a way of preparing them for conflict management in school administration.

5.6 Recommendations for Future Research

The areas suggested by the study for further research include:

1. An examination between the relationships of conflict management styles and teachers satisfaction
2. A study of head masters' management of conflicts in public senior high schools

REFERENCES

- Abenga, F. M. (2005). *Principle and practice of school administration in Nigeria*. Makurdi: Oniari Publishing Co. Ltd.
- Afful-Broni, A. (2004). *Theory and practice of educational leadership in Ghana*. Accra: Yamens Press Ltd.
- Afful-Broni, A. (2007). *The school as a social unit: The Ghanaian perspective revised edition*. Accra: Yamens Press Ltd.
- Alexander, D. C. (2005). *Conflict management styles of administrators in schools for the deaf: Teacher perceptions of job satisfaction*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), Gallaudet University, Washington, DC.
- Altinok, V. (2009). Conflict management styles among high school principals. *Indian Journal of Social Work*, 70(1), 43-53.
- Antcliffe, J. (1998). *Some approaches to conflict with adolescents in classrooms*. New York: Routledge.
- Appreko, K. (2008). *Conflict and conflict resolution strategies in Africa*. (Unpublished Pamphlet), UEW.
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *A handbook of human resource management practice* 10th Ed. London: Kogan Page limited.
- Asamoah-Gyimah, K., & Duodu, F. (2007). *Introduction to research methods in education (DBE)*: Winneba: Institute for Educational Development and Extension (IEDE), University of Education, Winneba.

- Balay, R. (2006). Conflict management strategies of administrators and teachers. *Asian Journal of Management Cases*, 3(1), 6-24.
- Barker, F., & Gum, L. (1994). *Discipline in school*. West Chicago: Hove Press.
- Barki, H., & Hartwick, J. (2001). Interpersonal conflict and its management in information system development. *MIS Quarterly*, 2, 195-228.
- Barnett, K., & McCormick, J. (2004). Leadership and individual principal teacher relationships in schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 40(3), 406-434.
- Baron R. A. (1990). Conflict in organizations in K. R. Rurphy and F. E. Saal (Eds.), *Psychology in organizations: Integrating science and practice*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Baron, R. A. (2003). Positive effect of conflicts: A cognitive perspective. *Journal Employee Responsibilities Rights*, 2, 24-29.
- Bell, A. (2002). *Six ways to resolve workplace conflicts*. McLaren School of Business, University of San Francisco.
- Berg, B. (2004). *Qualitative research for social science* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn Bacon.
- Best, S. G. (2006). *Introduction to peace and conflict studies in West Africa*. Spectrum Books.
- Beyers, P. Y. (2007). *Organizational communication: Theory and behavior*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Blay, R. (2006). Conflict management strategies of administrators and teachers. *Asian Journal of Management Cases*, 3(1), 5-24.

- Bodtker, A. (2001). Conflict education and special needs students, part two: Improving conflict competence and emotional competence. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 18, 377-396.
- Boonsathorn, W. (2007). Understanding conflict management styles of Thais and Americans in multinational corporation in. *Thailand. International Journal of Conflict Management*, 18(3), 196-221.
- Brett, J. M., & Rognes, J. K. (1986). *Intergroup Relations in Organizations*: San Francisco: Jossey - Bass.
- Brett, J. M. (2004). Managing organizational conflict. *Professional Psychology-Research and Practice*, 15(5), 664-678.
- Briggs, A. R. J., & Coleman, M. (2007). *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. (2nd ed.). London: Paul Chapman.
- Briscoe, D., & Schuler, R. (2004). *Human resource management*. Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social research methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford: University Press.
- Carter, D. (2000). *Quantitative research* in Mc Cormack, D. (Ed.), 2000 *The Research Process in Nursing* (4th ed.). Oxford: Blackwell Science Ltd.
- Champoux, J. E. (2003). *Organizational behavior: Essential tenets* (2nd ed.). Canada: South-1Western.
- Champoux, J. E. (2006). *Organizational behavior: Integrating individuals, groups and organizations*. New Delhi: Radha Publications.
- Chandan, J. (2004). *Organizational behavior*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House pvt. Ltd.

- Clegg, S., Kornberger, M., & Pitsis, T. (2005). *Managing an Organizations: An introduction to theory and practice*: London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Coffman, S. G. (1998). Conflict resolution strategy for adolescents with divorced parents. *The School Counselor, 36*, 61-66.
- Coleman, P. T., & Fisher-Yoshida, B. (2004). Conflict resolution across the lifespan: The work of the ICCCR. *Theory into Practice, 43* (1), 31-38.
- Cooper, R. B. (1988). Review of management information systems research: A management support emphasis. *Information Processing and Management, 24*, 76-88.
- Cooper, R. B., & Schindler, G. (2003). *The problem of statistical power in MIS research, MIS*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Cormick, G., Dale, N., Emond, P., Sigurdson, S. G., & Stuart, B. D. (1996). *Building consensus for a sustainable future: Putting principles into practice*. Ottawa: National Round Table on the Environment and the Economy.
- Covey, T. (2002). *A sociological approach to education*. Ohio: Dayton.
- Creswell, J. W. (2002). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. New York: Sage Publication.
- Cresswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry: *Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124-130.
- Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design - Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications Limited.

- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008), *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. New Jersey, Upper Saddle River: Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry: *Theory into Practice*, 39(3), 124-130.
- Crossan, F. (2003). Research philosophy: Towards an understanding. *Nurse Researcher*, 11(1), 46-55.
- Cuervo, A. G. (2003.). Postscript: The importance of supporting conflict resolution education. In T. Jones and R. Compton (Eds.), *Kids working it out: Stories and strategies for making peace in our schools*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Davidson, J., & Wood, C. (2004). A conflict resolution model. *Theory into practice* 43(1), 6-13.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., & Gelfand, M. J. (2008). *The psychology of conflict and conflict management in organizations*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- De Dreu, C. K., & Weingart, L. R. (2003). Task versus relationship conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(4), 741-749.
- Denzin N. K., & Lincoln Y. S. (2000). *Qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Pearson.

- Deutsch, M. (2005). Cooperation and conflict. In West, M. A., Tjosvold, D. & Smith, K.G. *The essentials of teamwork: International perspective*. Maryland: Wiley.
- Deutsch, M. (2007). *The resolution of conflict*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Deutsch, M., & Coleman, P. (2000). *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory and practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Dirks, K. T., & Parks, J. M. (2003). Conflicting stories: The state of the science of conflict. In J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Organizational behavior*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Duane, M. (2009). Sex differences in styles of conflict management. *Psychological Reports*, 65, 1033-1034.
- Dwivedi, R. S. (2001) *Human relations and organizational behaviour: A global perspective* (5th ed.). New Delhi: Macmillan.
- Dzurgba, A. (2006). *Prevention and management of conflict*. Kogi, New Bodija, Ibadan: Books Publishers.
- Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H., (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), 107-115.
- Feldman, D. C., & Arnold, H. J. (1983). *Managing individual and group behaviour in organizations*: New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Filippo, A., & De Waal, F. B. M. (2000). *Natural conflict resolution*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Fisher, R. J. (1990). *The social psychology of inter-group and international conflict resolution*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

- Fisher, R. J. (2000). *Sources of conflict and methods of conflict resolution*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Fisher, R. J. (1993). *Interactive conflict resolution*. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press.
- Flick, M. (2002). *Introduction to qualitative research*. United Kingdom: Rachel Book Publications.
- Fullan, M. (2005). *Leadership and sustainability: System thinkers in action*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Corwin Press.
- Gay, L. R., & Airasan, P. (2003). *Educational research: Consequences for analysis and application* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River: NJ: Pearson
- Green, J., & Thorogood, M. (2004) *Qualitative Methods for Health Research*. London Sage.
- Griffin, A. S. (2006). Social evolution: Lazy wasps look to the future. *Current Biology* 16, 599-601.
- Griffin, G. (1994). *School mastery: Straight talk about boarding school management*. Nairobi, Kenya: Lectern Publication Ltd.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105- 117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hanson, E. M. (2001). *Educational administration and organizational behavior* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allynard Bacon.
- Hart, B. (2002). *Improving your school relations programme*. London, England: Pearson.

- Hellriegle, D., Slocum, J. W., & Woodman, R. K. (1992). *Organizational behaviour* (6th ed.). St. Paul: West Publishing Company.
- Hugh, C. (2004). *Research methods and statistics in psychology*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Iravo, A. M. (2002). *A study on preparation of school principals and implications on their administrative performance*. Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis. University of Nairobi.
- Jehn, K. A. (1992). *The impact of intragroup conflict on effectiveness: A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of conflict*. Doctoral dissertation. Chicago: North Western University.
- Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study of intragroup conflict and group performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(2), 238-251.
- Jehn, K. A., & Mannix, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(2), 238-251.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2004). *Educational research: Quantitative and qualitative mixed approaches* (7th ed.) Boston: Pearson.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. (1996). Conflict resolution and peer mediation programs in elementary and secondary schools: *A review of the research*. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 459-506.
- Jones, G. R. (1998). *Organizational theory-text and cases* (2nd ed.). Boston: Addison Wesley Longman Publishing Co. Inc.

- Kilmann, R. H., & Thomas, K. W. (1975). Interpersonal conflict-handling behavior as reflections of Jungian personality dimensions. *Psychological Reports*, 37(3), 971-980.
- Kirkwood, D. (2002). *Conflict resolution and the ADR initiative at GSW*. Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press.
- Kochhar, S. K. (1988). *Secondary school administration*: New Delhi: Sterling Publisher Private Ltd.
- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2004). *Organizational behavior* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Kyeremeh, G. (2010). Resolve conflict through ADR: *The Daily Graphic*: (Accra). Thursday, February 18, 2010. (p.32).
- Lantieri, L. (2001.). *Schools with spirit: Nurturing the inner lives of children and teachers*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage.
- Lyon, J. M. (1991). Conflict resolution in an inner-city middle school: An alternative approach. *The School Counselor*, 39, 127-130.
- Mankoe, J. (2007). *Educational administration and management in Ghana*. Ghana: Progressive Stars Printing Press.
- Mankoe, J. O. (2002). *Educational administration and management in Ghana*. Madina-
- Mankoe, J. O., & Aggrey, J. K. (2009). Management of Student Indiscipline: A case Study. *Ghana Journal of Education and Teaching (GHAJET)*, 1, (7), 95-111.

- Mankoe, J. O. (2007). *Educational administration and management in Ghana* (2nd ed.) Amakom-Kumasi: Payless Publications Ltd.
- Mankoe, J. O. (2008). *School mapping and plant planning*: Amakom-Kumasi: Payless Publications Ltd.
- Mankoe, J. O., & Tukpe, C. (2010). Conflict management in second cycle schools: A Case Study of the Tema Municipality of the Greater Accra Region. *Ghana Journal of Education and Teaching (GHAJET)*, No. 9, January, 2010.
- McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2001). *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. London: Harper Collins Publishers.
- McNamara, C. (2007). Basics of conflict management adapted from the field guide to leadership and supervision. Brisbane, *Queensland, September, 3*, 29-44
- McPheat, G. (2008). *What works in residential child care: A review of research evidence and the practical consideration*. London: John Willey & Sons, Inc.
- McShane, L. S., & Glinow, M. A. U. (2000). *Organizational behavior*. New York: Pearson.
- Mintah-Afari, E. (2008). *Social studies for Senior High Schools*. Kumasi: Approaches Ghana Ltd.
- Mullins, L. J. (2005). *Management and organizational behavior*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Murthy, R. P. (2006). *Management science and industrial management*. New Delhi: Pragon International Publishers.
- Nakpodia, D. E. (2000). *Educational administration: A new approach for students and practitioners*. Warri: Jonokase.

- Nauta, A., & Sanders, K. (2001). Causes and consequences of perceived goal differences between departments within manufacturing organizations. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(3), 321-342.
- Nelson-Jones, R. (1990). *Human relationship skills: Training and self-help* (2nd ed.). London: Cassel Plc.
- Nelson, D., & Quick, J. (2001). *Organizational Behavior: Foundations, Realities and Challenges*. Chicinnati, O H: South-Western.
- Obi, E. (2004). *Issues in educational administration*. Enugu: Empathy International.
- Okotoni, C. A. (2002). *Management conflict in secondary school*. Ile-Ife, Obafemi Awolowo University press Nigeria.
- Okotoni, O., & Okotoni, A. (2003). Conflict management in secondary schools. *Nordic Journal of African Studies*, 12(1), 23-24.
- Oppong, M. K. (1999). *Conflict management behaviors' of headmasters in senior secondary schools in Kwehu*. Unpublished master thesis. Cape Coast: University of Cape Coast.
- Organ, D. W., & Bateman, T. S. (1991). *Organizational behaviour* (4th ed.). Boston: Richard D. Irwin Inc.
- Orlich, H., & Callaham, G. (2001). *Teaching strategies*. Houghton: Mifflin Company.
- Owens, B. (2001). *Primary school education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Owens, R.G. (1991). *Organizational behaviour in education*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Ozigi, A. O. (1977). *A handbook on school administration and management*. Ibadan, Nigeria: University Press.

- Pang, A., Jin, Y., & Cameron, G. T. (2007). *Contingency theory of strategic conflict management: A decade of theory development, discovery, and dialogue*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Communication Association, TBA, San Francisco, CA Online <PDF> Retrieved 2008-06-10 from http://www.allacademic.com/meta/p171191_index.html
- Preedy, M. (2004). *Leading and managing for effective education*. London: Sage Publication.
- Pukkapan, P. (2009). *Conflict management*. Bangkok: W. Petchakul.
- Putnam, L. L., & Poole, M. S. (1987). Conflict and negotiation. In F. M. Jablin, L. L. Putnam, K. H. Roberts, & L. W. Porter (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational communication: An interdisciplinary perspective*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Quansah, K. B., & Otu, C. E. (2008). *A new social studies for junior high schools* (Book 2): Accra: Sedco Publishing Ltd.
- Rahim, M. A. (2001). *Managing conflict in organizations* (3rd ed.). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Rahim, M. A. (2011). *Managing conflict in organizations: Realities, and challenges*. New York: Publishing Company.
- Rahim, M. A. (2002). Managing conflicts in organizations. In: P. Fenn and R. Gameson (Eds.), *Construction conflict management and resolution*. London: E and FN Spon.
- Randall, C. (2007). *Conflict sociology*. New York: Academic Press.
- Roark, A. E. (1978). Interpersonal conflict management: *The Personal and Guidance Journal*, 56(7), 400-402.

- Robbins, M. H. (2000). *Approaches to conflict resolution*. New York: Hans-Gunter Rolf Press.
- Robbins, S. P. & Decenzo, D. A. (2004). *Fundamental of management essential Concepts and application* (4th ed.). NJ: Pearson prentice hall.
- Robbins, S. P. (2003). *Essential of organizational behaviors*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Roloff, M. E. (1987). Communication and conflict In C. R. Berger and S. H. Chaffee (2006), *Handbook of communication science* (pp. 484- 534.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Ross, M. H. (2003). *The management of conflict*. New haven, CT: Yale University press.
- Runde, C. E., & Flanagan, T. A. (2010). *Developing your conflict competence*. San Francisco, CA: Wiley and Sons Inc.
- Siann, G., & Ugwuegbu, D. C. E. (2000). *Constructive means of conflict resolution*. London, England: Stanley Thornes.
- Somech, A. (2008). *Managing conflict in school teams: The impact of task and goal interdependence on conflict management and team effectiveness*. *Education Administration Quarterly*, 44(3), 359-390.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Soriano, L. J. (1984). *Styles of conflict resolution*. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47,115-126.
- Stewart, G. L., & Barrick, M. R. (2000). Team structure and performance: Assessing the mediating role of intrateam process and the moderating role of task type. *Academy of management Journal*, 43(2), 135-148.

- Taylor, F. W. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*: New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers.
- Thompson, L. (1998). *The mind and heart of the negotiator*: Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Tjosvold, D. (2000). Cooperative and competitive goal approach to conflict: Accomplishments and challenges. *Applied Psychology*, 47(3), 285-313.
- Van, W. R. (1989). Macro trends for human resource management. *IPM Journal*, 2, 12-23.
- Weaver, A. (2003). Conflict and reconciliation in captive bottlenose dolphins. *Tursiops Truncates Marine Mammal Science*, 19, 836-846.
- Whetten D. A., & Cameron K. S. (2005). *Developing management skills*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Whittall, M. (2003). *European works councils: A path to European industrial relations? The Case of BMW and Rover*. Nottingham Trent University.
- Wilmore, E. (2002). *Principal leadership*. California: Corwin Press Inc.
- Wilmot, F., & Hocker, S. (1998). *Preventative approaches to disruption*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Zhang, Q. (1994). An interventive model of constructive conflict resolution and cooperative learning. *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(1), 99-116.

APPENDIX A

SELF- ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear Respondent,

I am carrying out a study on the topic ‘*Conflict Management in Basic Schools*’. You have been randomly selected to participate in the research by completing the questionnaire. It would thus be very helpful if you assist by answering the questionnaire as per instructions at the beginning of each section. You are required to provide the most appropriate answer in your opinion. Your responses will be kept confidential. In any case the questionnaire is anonymous. Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

.....

James Kwasi Annan

Researcher

SECTION A

RESPONDENTS' BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please help us classify your response by supplying the following facts about yourself and your opinion on the raised issues by ticking an appropriate box. There is no right wrong answer therefore no particular response is targeted.

1. Age. Less than 21- 30[]. 31- 40[]. 41 - 50[] 51-60[]
2. Sex: Male []. Female [].
3. Educational Status: Diploma [] First Degree [] Second Degree []
4. Work Experience: 1 – 5 yrs [] 6 – 10yrs [] 11 – 15yrs [] 16+yrs []

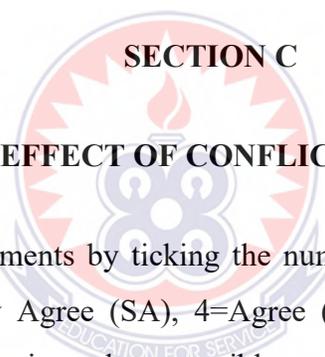
SECTION B

TYPES OF CONFLICT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3 = Neutral, 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD) as sincerely as possibly.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Teachers mostly disagree about opinions regarding the work being done.					
2. There are conflicts about ideas among teachers.					
3. There is conflict about work among teachers.					
4. There are differences of opinion among teachers.					

5. There is frequent friction among teachers.					
6. Personality conflicts are evident among teachers.					
7. There is tension among teachers.					
8. There is emotional conflict among teachers.					



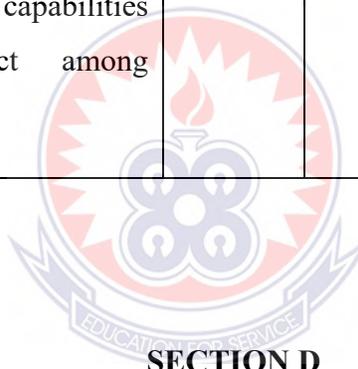
SECTION C

CAUSES AND EFFECT OF CONFLICT QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3 = Neutral, 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD) as sincerely as possibly.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Difference in perceptions of teachers on certain issues lead to conflict among teachers.					
2. Feelings of superiority of some subject teachers over others lead to conflict among teachers.					

3. Preferential treatment of certain teachers by the head teachers lead to conflict among teachers.					
4. Reward of individuals based on their individual performance rather than to overall school performance lead to conflict among teachers.					
5. Differences in individual teachers teaching capabilities lead to conflict among teachers.					



SECTION D

EFFECT OF CONFLICT ON TEACHERS’ PERFORMANCE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 4-point scale using the following keys: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3 = Neutral, 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD) as sincerely as possibly.

Statements Conflict among teachers.....	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Agree
1. Declines teachers’ ability to					

meet up with deadlines.					
2. Lowers teachers' attitude toward work.					
3. Reduces teachers' morale that invariably affect teaching.					
4. Results in psychological strain that negatively affect their teaching.					
5. Increases emotional exhaustion that negatively affect their teaching.					
6. Results in poor health outcomes that negatively affect their teaching.					

SECTION D

HEAD MASTER CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3 = Neutral, 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD) as sincerely as possibly.

Statements	Stro	Disag	Neutral	Agree	Strongly

When there is conflict among teachers my head master mostly	ngly Disagree	ree			Agree
1. Tries to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.					
2. Exhibits the ability to sidestep issues.					
3. Exhibits the ability to leave things unresolved.					
4. Complains on sense of timing.					
5. Tries to satisfy the other's					
7. Often goes with the other's suggestions.					
8. Meets the expectations of the parties					
9. Accommodate the wishes of the parties.					
10. Looks at issues with the parties to find solutions that meet the needs of each party					
11. Tries to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to both of us.					
12. Exchanges accurate information with the other so we can solve a problem together.					

13. Tries to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved.					
14. Tries to negotiate and adopt a give-and-take approach to problem situations.					
15. Prefers to compromise when solving problems and just move on.					
16. Proposes a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.					
17. Negotiates with the other to reach a compromise.					
18. Uses his influence to get his ideas accepted.					
19. Uses his authority to make a decision in his favour.					
20. Uses his expertise to make a decision that favours him.					
21. Sometimes uses his power to win.					

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

1. What are the types of conflicts that exist in your school?
2. What are the causes of conflicts between students and students, students and teachers, teacher and teacher, teachers and head teacher?
3. Do you think conflict has negative or positive effects in your school academic performance?
4. What are the effects of conflicts in your school performance?
5. How do you deal with conflict among students and students, students and teachers, teacher and teacher, teachers and head teacher?
6. What are the best practices of conflict management techniques that can be used for effective management of schools (please tick the most appropriate item if applicable)

a) Compromising

b) Accommodating

c) Avoiding

d) Competitive

e) Collaborative

7. How do you effectively manage conflicts in this school?

