

**CONFLICT VARIABLES AS CORRELATES OF PUBLIC SECONDARY
SCHOOL TEACHERS' PRODUCTIVITY
IN ADAMAWA STATE, NIGERIA**

BY

CHINYERE NWADIKE ALIMBA

Matric No: 81557

B.Ed. Educational Management/Economics (Ibadan),

M.Ed. Educational Management (Ibadan),

M.A. Peace and Conflict Studies (Ibadan)

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this research work was carried out by Mr. **Chinyere Nwadike Alimba**, in Peace and Conflict Studies Programme, Institute of African Studies, under my supervision.

Supervisor

Dr. Peter B. Abu (JP)

Department of Adult Education

University of Ibadan

Ibadan, Nigeria

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to the Almighty God (The Alpha and Omega) for making it possible for me to complete it. Also, to Prof. Martins Fabunmi, who redefined the topic and started the supervision of the thesis and my three little children-Chidinma Favour Alimba, Martin-Luther Chinyere Jr. Alimba and Oluchi Emmanuella Alimba-for their inspiring motivation throughout the period of the study.

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Abstract

There has been persistent public concern on declining teachers' productivity in public schools in Nigeria. This is partly attributable to poor working conditions, poor remuneration and conflict dynamics. Previous studies have explored the issues of working conditions and remuneration, while there has been a dearth of studies on the relative and composite impacts of conflict dynamics on teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State. This study, therefore, investigated the relationship between conflict variables and teachers' productivity in public secondary schools in Adamawa State, Nigeria.

The descriptive survey research design of the *ex-post-facto* was adopted. The multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select 1,528 teachers and 76 principals across public secondary schools in Adamawa State. In addition, purposive sampling technique was used to select five officials of Adamawa State School Board and three executive members of Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) and in-depth interview (IDI) was used to gather information from them. Conflict Variables and Teachers' Productivity Scale ($r = 0.89$) was used to gather data. Eight research questions were answered and eight hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Quantitative data were analysed using mean, Pearson Product Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression, while qualitative data were content analysed.

Conflict variables jointly significantly correlated with teachers productivity $F_{(5,1513)} = 71.14$; $R = 0.44$, $R^2 = 0.41$, $\text{Adj. } R^2 = 0.19$; $p < 0.05$); accounting for 41% of the variance in the dependent variable. Their relative contributions were ranked as follows: conflict communication ($\beta = 0.40$, $p < 0.05$); conflict management styles ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$); conflict level ($\beta = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$); and conflict incident ($\beta = -0.06$, $p < 0.05$). Significant relationship existed between each of the conflict management styles and teachers productivity as follows: collaborating ($r = 0.32$; $p < 0.05$); compromising ($r = 0.10$; $p < 0.05$) and accommodating ($r = 0.07$; $p < 0.05$). Competing and avoiding styles were not significant. The conflict management styles utilised by teachers are ranked in this order: collaborating ($\bar{X} = 3.1$); competing ($\bar{X} = 2.55$); accommodating ($\bar{X} = 2.47$); compromising ($\bar{X} = 2.42$); and avoiding ($\bar{X} = 2.35$). The conflict management styles highly preferred by principals are arranged as follows: collaborating ($\bar{X} = 3.33$); compromising ($\bar{X} = 2.41$); accommodating ($\bar{X} = 2.29$); avoiding ($\bar{X} = 2.23$); and competing ($\bar{X} = 1.94$). The IDI revealed that the School Board officials preferred avoidance style because of the pervading syndrome of godfatherism that often underscores teachers' appointment. In addition, they indicated that conflict, when mismanaged, adversely affects teachers' productivity. The NUT executive members opined that conflicts confronting teachers stem from poor management attitudes of principals and the School Board patterns of handling issues relating to promotion and salaries.

Conflict variables are potent determinants of teachers' productivity in public secondary schools. Therefore, teachers should be adequately exposed to conflict dynamics and its management patterns so as to make them more proactive in handling conflict for better performance in schools.

Key words: Teachers' productivity, Conflict variables, Nigerian public secondary schools, Adamawa State

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Teachers' productivity has attracted an enormous attention at all levels of education worldwide. This is because teachers' productivity constitutes the fulcrum through which investment in education is transformed into reality. Studies such as Emunemu and Isuku (2012); Schleicher (2012); and OECD Document (2012) attested to the significance and the cardinal role of teachers' productivity in educational growth and development. Emunemu and Isuku (2012) stated further that the importance attached to teachers' productivity "has informed the need for adequate training and empowerment of teachers with up-to-date knowledge, skills, and methodologies in order to cope with the dynamics of the 21st century education market with the hope to raising their productivity". Teachers' productivity is a measure of the efficiency with which the overall process of teaching and learning utilise its labour force (Odunuga and Ajila, 2000) and the most powerful predictors of student success (Kaplan and Owings, 2004).

The relevance of teachers' productivity to educational growth and development cannot be overemphasized, and it is perhaps the reason it has become an integral component of educational reform programmes of nations across the globe. For instance, in Europe, Asia, Latin America and even in Africa, educational reforms embarked upon incorporated, to a large extent, how to improve teachers' quality and performance through professional development programmes (Schleicher 2012; OECD Document, 2012 and Briseid and Caillods, 2004). In most African states, educational reforms started after the attainment of independence. This is based on the fact that the inauguration of the 1961 Conference of Ministers of Education in Africa held in Addis Ababa set the template for the evolution of reform programmes in education in Africa. Obanya (2004) pointed out that the inadequacies

of the inherited colonial system such as lack of universal access, inappropriate orientation and content, inappropriate skills for nation-building, were extensively analysed in 1961 by African States at the first Conference of Ministers of Education, organised by UNESCO in Addis Ababa. He stated further that West Africa has witnessed a good number of innovations aimed at changing the teacher. The assertions of Yusuf and Yusuf (2009) corroborated the idea that educational reforms have been embarked upon by both the developed and developing nations of the world. These reforms and initiatives, according to Cheng, Tam and Tsui (2002) in the last two decades aim to improve teacher performance. Similarly, Kaplan and Owings (2004) observed that improving teacher effectiveness has become the centre of educational reform.

In Nigeria, several educational reforms (such as UPE, 1976; National Curriculum Conference, 1967; National Policy on Education, 1977; UBE, 1999 etc) have been embarked upon to improve the state of education and the capacity of teachers for effective and efficient productivity. Despite this, teachers' productivity appears to be considerably low. Obanya (2004) submitted that low morale of teachers has led to low performance in the later part of 20th century in Nigeria, while Onyene (2001) reported that Nigerian teachers have lost job dedication, devotion, and are not enthused about the teaching career. This ugly development characterises the schooling system, most especially, in public schools in the country.

In Adamawa State, the provision of education has always been a leading social service in terms of government planning statements and annual budgetary allocation (Bashir and Mubi, 1999). Available official records show that the expenditure patterns on education in real terms between 2003 and 2007 in the State increased from ₦1,389,579,405.00 in 2003 to ₦1,433,733,425.00 in 2004, ₦1,445,505,520.00 in 2005 to ₦1,503,444,860.00 in 2006 and ₦1,628,958,850.00 in 2007 (Awodoyin, 2010). It is imperative to note that despite the level of investment of the state government in education, development in the system gives the

impression that the teachers' productivity is low. This has impacted negatively on students learning outcomes and the quality of education in the state. Awodoyin (2010) posited that despite the investment in education, the level of academic performance of students in Adamawa State is low, poor, and worrisome. This is shown in Table 1.1

Table 1.1: Students' Performance in Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (SSCE)

Year	Total no. of students that sat for SSCE	Total no. of students that passed with credit level.		Total no. of students that failed.	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
2003	14,112	672	4.8	13,440	95.2
2004	14,625	616	4.7	14,009	95.3
2005	14,795	775	5.2	14,202	94.8
2006	15,866	967	6.1	14,898	93.9
2007	17,137	997	5.8	16,140	94.2

Source: Educational Resource Center, Adamawa State (2009)

Table 1.1 revealed the students' performance in senior secondary certificate examination. Therefore, in 2003, out of 14,112 students that sat for SSCE, 4.8% passed with credit level while 95.2% failed. In 2004, 14,625 students sat for the examinations, while 4.7% passed with credit, 95.3 failed the examinations. In 2005, while 14,795 students sat for the examinations, only 775 students passed with credit level, constituting 5.2%. The remaining 94.8% failed the examination, indicating that a total of 14,202 students failed. In 2006, the actual number of students that sat for the examinations was 15,866 and only 967 student passed with credit while 93.9% failed. This implies that 14,898 students failed the examination. In 2007, 17, 137 students sat for the examinations and only 5.8% passed with credit, while 94.2% failed. This means that 16,140 students failed. Poor academic performance of students is the offshoot of low quality of education. Bashir and Mubi (1999) reported that in general, the inequality level in terms of quality of education among the local

government areas in the state is relatively very low. Therefore, the poor academic performance of students and low quality of education are generally tight to dwindling productivity of teachers in schools in Adamawa State. Low productivity of teachers is associated with a number of factors, which include: teachers' gender, marital status, academic attainment, teaching experience and age (Akiri and Ugborugbo, 2008). Emunemu and Isuku (2012) and Briseid and Cailods (2004) also linked it to poor working conditions, low wages, low status, lack of career advancement opportunities, high student-teacher ratio, inadequate fringe benefits, irregular payment of teachers' salaries, problem of promotion, the support teachers receive in schools and their degree of autonomy.

Conflict can equally lower teachers' productivity. According to Lewin (1987) and Tjosvold, (1991) conflict can lead to increased absenteeism, more grievances and reduced productivity. Similarly, conflict frequently reduced motivation and performance (Bergman and Volkema, 1989). Conflicts reduce team performance and member satisfaction because it produces tension and antagonism, and distracts people from their task performance (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). Gatlin, Wysocki and Kepner (2008) posited that conflict obviously affects the productivity of both managers and associates (employees) and can have a far-reaching impact on organisational performance.

By extension, conflict can adversely impact on the productivity of school administrators and teachers and consequently lowers school performance. Mayer (1995) was of the opinion that deficient knowledge in conflict management has a pervasive detrimental impact on productivity and career fulfillment, even among teachers. Makaye and Ndofirepi (2012) stressed that school conflicts often disturb the tone and climate of school and ultimately impact negatively on the performance of both teachers and students. Msila (2012) submitted that conflict impacts badly on teaching and learning in schools. This implies that there is a negative correlation between work life conflict and job performance of teachers

(Onanuga, 2003; Mukarram, Akbar, Jan and Gul, 2012). Therefore, based on the factors highlighted above as having the potential to influence teachers' productivity, conflict is considered as the most volatile element that has the capacity to diminish, thwart and cause sharp decline in the productivity level of workers, most especially teachers, when mismanaged. Jonkman (2006) posited that conflict demotivates, demoralizes and retards progress in a school.

In other words, conflict can negatively affect teachers' attitude to work, which will result in low morale and poor performance in schools. Mostert (1998) asserted that non-professional conflicts within teachers and their associates may affect working interactions and decisions. Perry and McDaniel (2003) submitted that what is more frightening is that conflict in today's schools can be detrimental to existing opportunities for teachers to teach and students to learn in a caring and safe environment. Teachers confront different forms of conflicts on daily basis in their respective schools, and when such conflicts are wrongly perceived, inappropriate conflict management styles used, escalation will be experienced and consequently teaching and learning behaviour will be adversely affected in schools.

Considering the fact that the process of teaching and learning is a crucial issue in any educational endeavour, and communication a cardinal tool for its delivery, it means that conflict is an associated factor in the process. This is because communication is at the nerve of conflict trigger. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) submitted that communication is the central element in all interpersonal conflict. They stated further that communication behaviour often creates or reflects conflict. Barsky (2003) opined that the process of teaching and learning is fraught with conflict. The analysis so far revealed that teaching and learning process is a conflict filled activity. This therefore, suggests that the school climate will be thoroughly soaked with conflict because teaching and learning process is its core activity, and communication the main channel for delivering it. Based on this, school administrators and

teachers in particular, will spend greater proportion of their time and energies handling conflicts at the detriment of other tasks. This action will undermine their job performance behaviours. In Nigeria, secondary schools are highly susceptible to conflict because of some internally or externally factors, which can be motivated directly or indirectly. These factors may manifest in the forms of structural, social, political, economic and cultural, implying that conflict emergent in the system will be complex and pervasive in nature. Onanuga (2003) observed that secondary schools in Nigeria have been bedeviled by overt conflict, which often resulted in crisis situations like protests, demonstrations, riots and strikes, which are inimical to effective academic performance.

Adeola (2003) averred that no meaningful development can take place in a crisis ridden system, torn apart by conflicts as witnessed in secondary schools today. Secondary schools in Adamawa State are not immune from constant experiences of conflicts. Conflicts feature prominently among staff in the system. The log book of secondary schools in the state revealed the existence of various forms of conflicts between principals and teachers, among teachers, between teachers and students, the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and the school and even the host community. Opeloye (2006) posited that the causative factors of these conflicts in secondary schools in Adamawa State are: rumour mongering, domineering attitude of principals, communication breakdown, resources problem and lack of opportunities for promotion.

Apart from this, the happenings in the larger society in terms of conflict occurrence (for instance ethnic conflict, religious conflict, and farmer-herder conflict are prevalent in the state) equally contribute to this ugly development in schools. These conflicts often manifest in the educational system because it does not operate in isolation. Schonfeld and Newgass (2003) justified this idea when they posited that episodes of violence at our schools remind us that schools are an integral part of their communities and therefore are vulnerable to the

influences and factors that are present in the larger communities. Also, the activities of the school board often contribute to conflict manifestation in the school. The functions of the school board are heavily conflict laden activities. McGuire (1984) posited that there is a pessimistic conclusion that conflict may be an integral aspect of the school board's operations. According to McGuire (1984), this is based on the fact that conflicts are inherent in the school board's function and method of governance. Grissom (2010) surmised that school board conflict can negatively affect the relationship that boards have with their superintendents and makes productive collaboration more difficult.

Therefore, the Adamawa State School Board cannot be exonerated from the incidence of conflict causation among staff in secondary schools. The ideas so far discussed in the preliminary introduction revealed that there are vast and rich literature on variables that can impact on teachers' productivity. These previous studies had explored issues relating to school climate and teachers' productivity (Oluchukwu, 2000 and Emetarom, 2000); institutional conflict and academic performance of secondary school students (Onanuga, 2003); teachers' productivity and school quality (Odunuga and Ajila, 2000); gender influence and teachers' productivity (Akiri and Ugborugbo, 2008); impact of school board conflict on school district performance (Grissom, 2010) and communication styles and conflict management in secondary schools (Adeola, 2003). These analyses revealed that none of the previous studies had given priority attention to the multivariate influence of conflict variables on teachers' productivity. Hence, this study investigated the correlation between conflict variables and teachers' productivity in public secondary schools in Adamawa State, Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The general public expects teachers to be highly productive. However, studies indicated that teachers' productivity is low in Nigeria (Emetarom, 2000; Oluchukwu, 2000 and Obanya, 2004). In addition, certain studies also revealed frequent occurrence of conflicts

in secondary schools (Fleetwood, 1987; Adeola, 2003; Onanuga, 2003, and Jonkman, 2006), which are attributable to factors such as the size of the school, school bureaucratic characteristics like the degree of specialisation, dissatisfied educators' and principals' authoritarian outlook (Achoka, 1990). School conflicts, when ineffectively handled, often affect teachers' productivity negatively. The adverse effects of school conflict often manifest in low productivity of teachers and poor performance of student (Jonkman, 2006). In Adamawa State, students' academic performance is poor and pathetic in secondary schools. This development can be largely attributed to low productivity of teachers in the state. The general effect of low productivity of teachers is a fall in the quality of education, which will produce negative consequences on the social, economic, political and technological development of the country. The manifestations of these negative consequences are inevitable because of the central role of education in national development. Based on this, the study attempts to link low productivity of teachers to frequent occurrence of conflict and poor handling of conflict incidence in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the extent to which conflict variables correlate with public secondary school teachers' productivity in Adamawa State. The specific objectives of the study are:

- (i) to find out the existing conflict level and its linkage with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- (ii) to determine the conflict communication pattern of teachers and its correlation with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- (iii) to find out the nature of conflict incidence and its relationship with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

- (iv) to identify the conflict tactics of teachers and its connection with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- (v) to determine the conflict management styles of teachers, principals and school board in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- (vi) to identify the nature of conflicts often encountered by teachers and its association with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- (vii) to find out the causes and effects of conflict in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- (viii) to identify the factors that influence the choice of conflict management styles of principals and its relationship with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions were developed to guide the study.

- (i) What is the conflict level existing in secondary schools in Adamawa State?
- (ii) What is the conflict communication pattern of teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa State?
- (iii) What is the nature of conflict incidence that often manifest in secondary schools in Adamawa State?
- (iv) What are the conflict tactics often employed by teachers to respond immediately to the occurrence of conflict in secondary schools in Adamawa State?
- (v) What are the conflict management styles of teachers, principals and school board in secondary schools in Adamawa State?

- (vi) What is the nature of conflicts often encountered by teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa State?
- (vii) What are the causes and effects of conflict in secondary schools in Adamawa State?
- (viii) What are the factors influencing the choice of conflict management styles of principals in secondary schools in Adamawa State?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were developed to guide the study. They are tested at 0.05 level of significance.

- H0₁: There is no significant relationship between conflict level and teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- H0₂: There is no significant relationship between conflict communication and the productivity of teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- H0₃: Conflict incidents and teachers' productivity are not significantly related in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- H0₄: There is no significant relationship between conflict tactics and teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- H0₅: Conflict management styles (i.e. competing, accommodating, collaborating, avoiding and compromising) do not make any significant relative contributions to teachers' productivity in Adamawa State.
- H0₆: The nature of conflict and the choice of conflict management styles of principals are not significantly related to teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.
- H0₇: Conflict variables do not make any significant composite contributions to public secondary school teachers' productivity in Adamawa State.

H0₈: Conflict variables do not make any significant relative contributions to teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

1.6 Justification for the Study

This study is justified on the following grounds. First, the study will go a long way to educate school administrators about the issues of conflict and its management approaches, as essential parameters for the creation of positive school climate capable of encouraging harmony, and cooperation which are needed to enhance teachers' performance. The study is also justified on the premise that the focuses on ethnic conflict, religious conflict, community conflict, electoral violence, indigene/settler conflict, identity crisis, etc overtime and less attention focused on conflicts in the educational system have created a lacuna in the theoretical analysis and empirical understanding of the nature and dimensions of school conflicts. This study, therefore, will bridge the gap and also serve as a signal to policy makers in the field of education on how to view the various forms of conflicts emanating from the school environment for appropriate policy formulation and the design of early warning to nip conflicts in the bud before they degenerate into violent conflict, capable of distorting teaching and learning process. Going by the fact that the level of conflict manifestations in secondary schools has the potential of influencing the productivity of teachers, the study will be an invaluable piece to teachers, in the sense that it will make them to develop insight into the causes, effects and dynamic nature of conflicts and why they should cooperate with one another to develop more peaceful approaches to resolving conflicts in their respective schools. This study will also enlighten and sensitise the general public on the damage that poorly handled conflict can cause in and outside the school environment. It will motivate the general public to develop a critical mind on how to advise and guide the system operators to constructively handle conflictual problems in schools. Finally, fellow researchers working on a similar topic will find this study as an important reference material in the conduct of their studies.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study is situated within the areas of interpersonal conflict and conflict management. It focuses on conflict variables as correlates of public secondary school teachers' productivity in Adamawa State. The geographical area of the study is Adamawa State, located in the North-East of Nigeria. It lies between latitude 7° and 11° N of the equator and between longitude 11° and 14° E of the Greenwich Meridian. It shares boundary with Taraba State in the south, Borno in the north, Gombe in the west and Republic of Cameroon in the east. The state covers a land area of about 38, 741km with a population of 3,168,101 people based on the 2006 census. It has 21 Local Government Areas and five (5) educational zones, which are: Yola, Numan, Ganye, Mubi and Gombi. The state has 457 secondary schools with 6,385 teachers including principals. In this study, the principals and teachers were the main samples for data collection. Therefore, the scope of the study does not extend beyond the state. Also, the nature of conflict that was covered in is study is interpersonal conflict. That is, conflicts that occur within the school system and among staff and students. Even within the boundary of the coverage of the study, conflicts such as teacher-government or conflict between Nigeria Union of teachers (NUT) and government were not covered in the study.

1.8 Conceptual Clarification

Concepts such as conflict incident, conflict level, conflict communication, conflict management styles, and teachers' productivity, which are germane to the study were operationally defined to increase their understanding.

Conflict Incidence: This is the rate at which conflict occurs in a school. It explains the frequency at which conflict takes place in secondary schools.

Conflict Level: This is the intensity of conflict operating in a school. As conflict graduates from one level to another, its intensity rises, therefore, having the tendency to impact severely on human and material resources.

Conflict Definition: This is the identification of the nature of a conflict. Defining a conflict is essential in understanding and conceptualising the conflict for appropriate action. Conflict definition involves explaining conflict and describing its types.

Conflict Tactics: Conflict tactics is the immediate response to a conflict episode. The response can be verbal attacks, physical assaults, discussion, verbal reasoning etc. The nature of responses adopted can either lower the conflict for easy management or make it to escalate and become difficult to manage.

Conflict Communication: This is a pattern of communication that induces conflict. Therefore, communication forms the medium through which tasks, most especially teaching and learning, are executed in the educational system. Communication is central to conflict generation, escalation and descalation.

Conflict Management Styles: Conflict management styles refer to the pattern of responses that principals and teachers employ to handle conflict whenever it occurs. The conflict management styles that are usually employed by school personnel are competition, avoidance, accommodation, collaboration and compromise. These styles were used as template for discussion in the study.

Teacher: A teacher is a person who has to guide students in the choice of what to learn, how, when and where to learn. Teachers constitute an important phenomenon in school administration. This is because the quality of education and learning outcomes of students greatly rest on the productivity of teachers.

Teachers' productivity: Teachers' productivity is basically how teachers adequately control teaching to positively influence the learning outcome of students. That is, teachers' productivity deals with teachers' effectiveness and classroom performance. In this study, therefore, teachers' productivity is the effective and efficient utilization of teachers in the process of teaching and learning in schools. It is synonymous with teachers' performance, teachers' effectiveness, or teachers' efficiency.

Conflict: Conflict is defined as the level of disagreement or incompatibility existing between teachers and other school personnel such as principal, vice principal and non-teaching staff. The conflict that is considered in this study is interpersonal conflict. This is a form of conflict which occurs between two parties in an organisation.

Secondary School: This is an institution that comes after primary school. It provides education for those students who have received primary education and are looking forward to higher education in future after receiving post primary education.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is based on conflict variables which are the focus of this study. However, insight on teachers' productivity was first reviewed to bring to fore the nexus between conflict and teachers' productivity in the study. Conflict variables were reviewed in relation to teachers' productivity and developments in the school. The conflict variables are categorised into three. The variables are:

(i) Conflict Identification Variable:

- (a) conflict definition
- (b) conflict causes
- (c) conflict cost
- (d) conflict incidence

(ii) Conflict Operational Variable:

- (a) conflict tactics
- (b) conflict level
- (c) conflict communication

(iii) Conflict Management Variable:

- (a) Teachers' conflict management styles
- (b) Conflict management styles of principals
- (c) School board conflict management approaches
- (d) Choice of conflict management styles

2.1 Insight on Teachers' Productivity

The review of insight on teachers' productivity follows the normal academic ritual of first examining the issues of "teacher and productivity" before delving into exploring the concept of teachers' productivity. Teachers are the most important constituent parts of school

organisation. The availability of all other materials or resources without teachers on ground will amount to nothing. This, perhaps, is the reason why Fwangle and Dimka (1997) posited that “the teacher is the hub of any educational system.” According to Fabunmi (2007) teachers are the most important element in the school system. They are more important than the quality and quantity of equipment and material and degree of financing. All these are passive resources in the school system. It is only teachers that can use them as instructional aids for effective dissemination of knowledge and learning (Fabunmi, 2007). Hallak (1990) asserted that the quality of the education system depends on teachers quality. By extension, teachers’ productivity is a function of the quality of education in a country.

A teacher is a person who has the registrable professional qualification which enables him to be appointed to teach at any appropriate level of recognised education in any nation and who has a sound mind and is mentally alert (NUT, 1994). It is important to note that the word ‘teach’ is sometimes synonymously used with such terms as: inspire, facilitate, guide, influence, organise, coordinate, disseminate, inform, direct, instruct, tutor, educate, counsel, etc (Achimugu, 2005). According to Achimugu (2005), there are three schools of thought regarding who a teacher is. The first school of thought believes that a teacher is someone who consciously and deliberately shows others how to do things.

By this definition, anybody who occupies a leadership position in any sphere of the society is a teacher. This includes those who are not paid to teach in schools, for instance, parents among others. The second school of thought looks at a teacher as someone who imparts ideas, knowledge and skills in an organised classroom. Here, the teacher is just anybody who can handle chalk, stand before the learners and write some things down for the learners to copy into their notes. This group includes untrained teachers, “half baked” teachers and teachers. The third school of thought views the teacher as someone who is professionally qualified to impart knowledge and stimulates learning formally in a classroom

situation. Here, a teacher is somebody grounded in his subject and who must necessarily possess basic teaching qualification that will enable him to be appointed to teach in institutions of learning (Achimugu, 2005). Based on this, a teacher is someone who transmits knowledge and directs the learning process. Some of the fundamental functions of a teacher are: teaching, attending to parents, examining students, awarding marks, settling conflicts between students, punishing students when necessary and acting as a role model to students.

Kochhar (2000) identified the duties of teachers in the school system as:

- (i) planning the curricular and co-curricular programme;
- (ii) organising the programme;
- (iii) supervising and guiding the pupils;
- (iv) maintenance of cumulative records, etc.
- (v) evaluating the achievement of the pupils;
- (vi) reporting;
- (vii) maintaining relations with pupils, colleagues, principal, parents and community for effective education.

It is glaring from the above analysis that the quality of education and learning outcome of students rest heavily on the ability of teachers to perform their duties. Where these duties are adequately carried out to achieve set goals, we consider such teachers as productive. Productivity is an important concept that its usage pervades every organisation. Nwachukwu (1988) posited that the importance of productivity in any organisation can hardly be overstated. It is important because it is simply one of the many criteria that can be used for evaluating the effectiveness of groups and organisations (Neal and Hesketh, 2001). Mali (1978) defined productivity as the measure of how well resources are brought together in organisations and utilised for accomplishing a set of results. Productivity is reaching the highest level of performance with the least expenditure of resources (Mali, 1978). Akangbou

(1987) described productivity as the relationship between immediate costs and cumulative benefits. According to him, the objective of productivity is to see that future costs are reduced relative to benefits or costs are held constant while benefits are increased. Adamu (1999) conceptualised productivity as the relationship between what is produced and the amount of resources used in the production. “What is produced” is known as output and “resources used in the production” are referred to as inputs. Outputs are finished goods or services. They are goods or services that are ready for consumption or to be further used as intermediate goods for producing other goods. While inputs vary from money, capital, materials, time and labour, they are used to bring about the production of a given quantity of outputs.

Fabunmi (2004) defined productivity as the output of individuals or groups of individuals. Fabunmi (2004) indicated that further that it is often discussed in relation to the immediate cost of production. Sofoluwe (2000) posited that productivity is regarded as a measure of how well resources are combined and utilised to accomplish specific and desirable results. Productivity in its simplest definition is real output per hour of work. This definition serves as a measure of the effectiveness with which labour is utilised (Costa, 1977). A critical examination of the above definitions revealed that productivity involves four basic elements, namely;

- (i) inputs i.e. resources committed
- (ii) outputs
- (iii) throughputs (processes)
- (iv) time (Peretomode and Peretomade, 2001).

Productivity is, therefore, the output resulting from a given resource input at a given time (Nwachukwu, 1988). Sofoluwe (2000) presented productivity symbolically in this form:

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{total output}}{\text{total input}} = \frac{\text{total results achieved}}{\text{total resources consumed}} = \frac{\text{effectiveness}}{\text{efficiency}}$$

Therefore, productivity connotes efficient performance resulting in high level of output of goods and services, both in quantity and quality with minimal waste in resources and minimal cost in money, energy and time as well as the users of products (Sofoluwe, 2000). One thing that is glaring from the symbolical representation of productivity is that the term is associated with effectiveness and efficiency. Neal and Hesketh (2001) opined that there is relatively widespread agreement regarding the use of performance, effectiveness, efficiency and productivity at the individual level of analysis. The association of these terms with productivity possibly motivated Odunuga and Ajila (2000) to define productivity as having to do with the effectiveness, efficiency and quality of goods and services turned out of a production process. These terms are considered as related in meaning from the stand point of individual basis and are therefore used as such in the course of this study.

Adeyemi (1999) expanded the concept of productivity in its definition to include social, physical, religious and educational values. He therefore defined productivity as creating or producing knowledge or information or any other thing which has economic, social, physical, religious, vocational and educational values for the benefit of the individual and the society at large. The four main issues that are apparently central to productivity are:

- (i) productivity is a relative term;
- (ii) productivity borders on “usefulness”;
- (iii) productivity concerns efficiency and effectiveness of the individual; and
- (iv) productivity is based on the value system in a society (Ahmed, 2000).

According to Pritchard (1995) all the definitions of productivity illustrated above can summarily be grouped into three categories. The first is the economist/engineer definition, where productivity is an efficiency measure: the ratio of outputs over inputs, where both usually are expressed in dollar terms. Prichard (1995) added that an example of productivity (efficiency) under this definition would be the dollar value of refrigerators produced this

month divided by the total costs to produce them. The second definition of productivity is a combination of efficiency (outputs/inputs) and effectiveness (outputs/goals). According to Pritchard (1995) in this definition, a company making refrigerators could measure productivity by a combination of the efficiency measure above plus an effectiveness measure, such as number of refrigerators divided by the objective or goal for the number to be produced that month. The third definition of productivity is the broadest, and considers productivity as anything that makes the organisation function better. In this definition, productivity would include efficiency and effectiveness, but also things like absenteeism, turnover, morale, innovation (Pritchard, 1995).

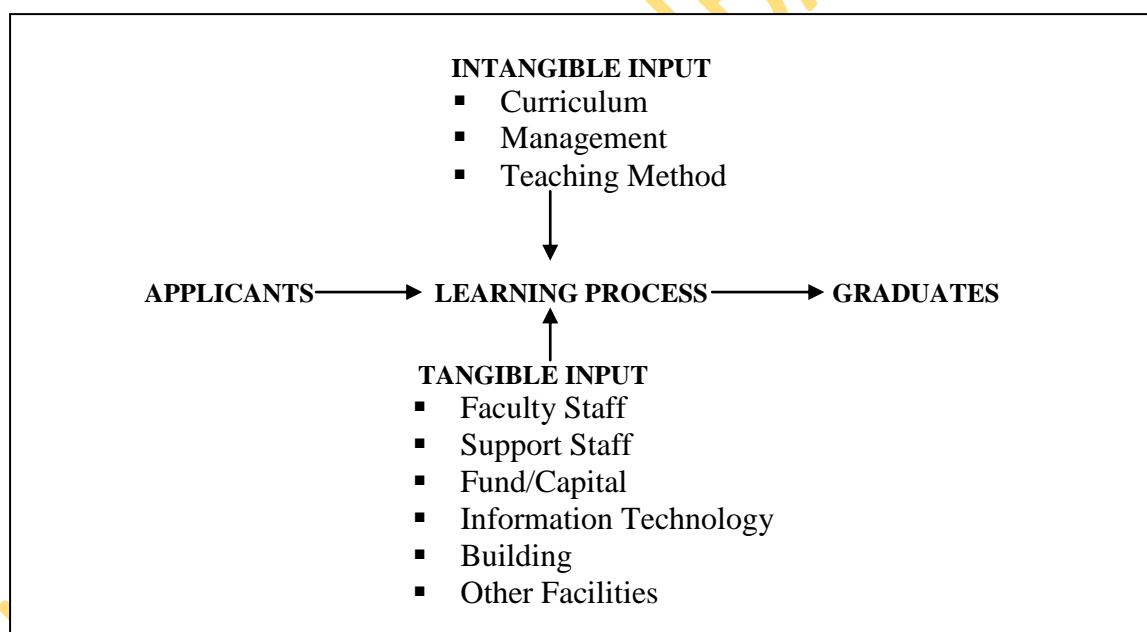
However, Pritchard (1992) had defined productivity as how well a system uses its resources to achieve its goals. He indicated that this approach can easily accommodate measures of quality, attendance, and any other type of measure that is seen as leading the organisation to accomplish its goals. Therefore, given the fact that the terms 'teacher' and 'productivity' have been considerably conceptualised, teachers' productivity is the teachers' knowledge of content and pedagogy, the teacher's skills and classroom practices in delivering the curriculum and the teacher's relationships with students and other members of the school community (Schalock, Schalock and Myton, 1998).

Akiri and Ugborugbo (2008) defined teachers' productivity as what teachers control and actually do in the classroom such as teaching effectiveness and classroom performance. Eneasator (1997) posited that teacher productivity is the relationship between the total output of the teacher and the total resources input utilised in the production process. Ojo (2003) asserted that teachers' productivity has been used by researchers as effectiveness of teachers in schools. Goe, Bell and Little (2008) pointed out a five-point definition of teacher effectiveness as effective teachers having:

- (i) high expectations for all students and help students learn, as measured by value-added or other test-based growth measures or by alternative measures.
- (ii) contributing to positive academic, attitudinal and social outcomes for students such as regular attendance on-time promotion to the next grade, on-time graduation, self-efficiency and cooperative behaviour.
- (iii) using diverse resources to plan and structure engaging learning opportunities; monitor student progress formatively adapting instruction as needed; and evaluate learning using multiple sources of evidence.
- (iv) contributing to the development of classrooms and schools that value diversity and civic-mindedness.
- (v) collaborating with other teachers, administrators, parents and education professionals to ensure student success, particularly the success of students with special needs and those at high risk for failure.

Sofoluwe (2000) posited that a productive teacher is one who strives to implement the curriculum in such a way as to bring about productive learner. This implies that teachers' productivity is the ability of a teacher to master the curriculum, convert it into a teachable subject matter and impart it on the learners to acquire knowledge, attitudes and develop skills acceptable to a society for self-development and societal improvement. This definition reflects the wholesome alertness and the mastery of the specific domain of a teacher to contribute effectively in the development of a student for onward building of his environment. Alabi (2000) posited that teachers' productivity is providing meaningful teaching and learning activities necessary to accomplish the goals of schools. Eneasator (1997) indicated that a highly productive and efficient teacher makes optimal use of the time available to him or her to see that the students acquire necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes and so on, as specified in the school's curricular and co-curricular activities. It can be

deduced from the review so far that teachers' productivity is the effective and efficient utilisation of teachers in the process of teaching and learning in schools. It is a measure of the relationship between what teachers can produce and the amount of resources devoted to them in the process of production. "What teachers can produce" is simply known as the output, which is the final outlet of the production process. In the educational system, the outputs are the graduates produced which have acquired knowledge, different skills, and attitudes for societal development. The "resources devoted to them" ranges from material to human resources used up in the process of production. This involves school facilities, money, curriculum, management, etc that were employed in the process of producing outputs. This is further illustrated in Figure 2.1.



Source: Shrestha (2005)

Figure 2.1: Teachers' Productivity Components

Figure 2.1 revealed the productivity process of the educational system. It indicates a combination of variables that make up the productivity process. The tangible and intangible are inputs that will be employed in the process of teaching to produce graduates required for

social, political and economic development of the country. Jackson Public School District (JPS) (n.d) illustrated ten criteria that can be used to describe a productive teacher, which are:

- (i) demonstrates effective planning skills
- (ii) implements the lesson plan effectively
- (iii) communicates effectively with the students
- (iv) prepares appropriate evaluation activities
- (v) provides students with appropriate evaluative feedback
- (vi) displays a thorough knowledge of curriculum and subject matter
- (vii) selects learning content congruent with the prescribed curriculum
- (viii) provides opportunities for individual differences
- (ix) ensures student time on task
- (x) sets high expectations for student achievement.

Therefore, teachers that exhibit, demonstrate and observe these set of elements are considered effective, efficient, committed and productive in nature. Teachers' productivity is, therefore, considered as incorporating concepts such as teachers' effectiveness, teachers' performance, teachers' quality, teachers' commitment and teachers' efficiency. Eneasator (1997) asserted that because of the conceptual problem encountered in measuring or estimating teacher productivity, the term efficiency is used inter-changeably with productivity. In this context a teacher can be said to be efficient or productive if such an individual is sufficiently motivated, devoted and committed to his or her duties and demonstrates willingness to stay in the teaching profession despite inducements to leave. Such an efficient or productive teacher can be seen to produce maximum output with a given quantity of input or produce a given quality of output with the minimum quantity of inputs (Eneasator, 1997).

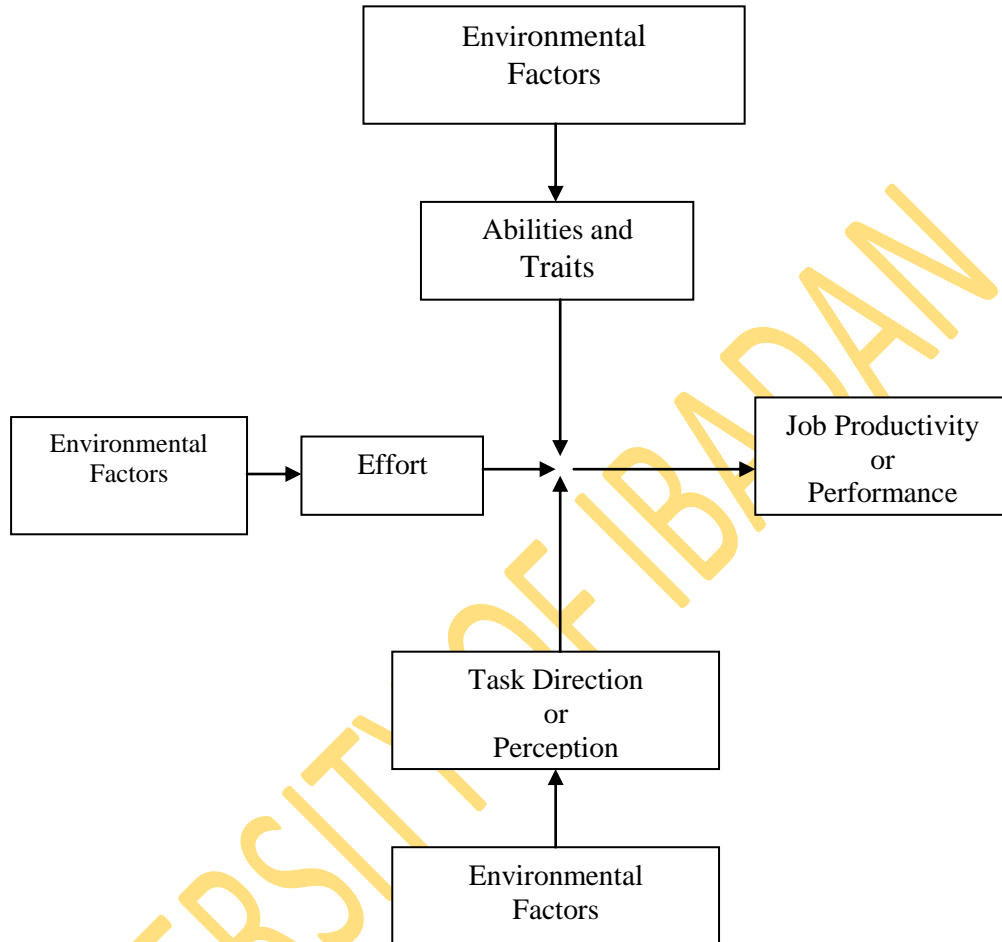
2.1.1 Factors Affecting Teachers' Productivity

Productivity is affected by numerous factors. Okpechi (1991) pointed out that every organisation must strive towards high productivity, enlisting the following as factors that make an organisation productive: its organisational structure, its leadership, reward and incentive system, relationship between the employees and their jobs, and the use of modern time and energy saving technology and techniques. Nwachukwu (1988) classified the factors influencing productivity into:

- (i) economic factors: These factor dealt with the reward system of an organisation; the inability of the employers to give adequate compensation and incentive to workers. When these economic factors are lacking or are inadequately distributed in an organisation, workers are bound to withhold a measure of its productivity by way of agitating for them.
- (ii) sociological factors: These factors have to do with the ways workers are treated in the organization. Where workers are encouraged to participate in organisational affairs, and can feel a sense of belonging, their productivity will increase. Where the reverse is the case, they will be demoralised, thus lowering their productivity.
- (iii) managerial factors: The success or failure of any organisation rests on the management. Hence, workers' productivity depends on the attitudes and capability displayed by the management. Ross (1981) posited that management inattention and lapses are sometimes too rigid, too inflexible and too irresponsible to workers' needs because managers believe that the structure, once in place, can do the job without further attention. When this kind of belief system prevails in an organisation, the productivity of workers will plummet.
- (iv) technology factor: This factor involves the use of new ideas, techniques, innovations, methods and materials to achieve stated goals. Shortage of required

ideas, techniques and methods and the use of outdated facilities will naturally weaken the productivity of workers.

The factors that can influence productivity are presented in Figure 2.2 below.



Source: Rue and Byars (1977)

Figure 2.2: Determinants of Productivity

Figure 2.2 revealed that individual's effort, abilities and traits, and task direction or perception are vital factors in the determination of productivity or job performance of workers. The factors are encapsulated in the environmental factors, that is, abilities, traits, effort and task perception are determined by the way they are viewed, manipulated and interpreted to suite the organisation on one hand, and the workers on the other hand. Hence, this will go a long way to regulate the behavioural trend of productivity. If workers are favourably disposed to the factors in their organisations, it means that there will be

improvement or increase in workers' productivity. The situation will be different where workers are unfavourably disposed to organisational provisions and support programmes. These factors have the potential to positively or negatively influence the productivity of teachers at any given time. The past two and a half decades have witnessed unprecedented growth in public criticisms of teachers and their job behaviours (Ejiogu, 1997). These criticisms have grown in intensity because of the constant and continued decrease in the performance of teachers in the country. Teachers' reactions to these criticisms have been sharp because the conditions of service have not been attractive and encouraging in any way.

The factors that are responsible for the poor performance of teachers include: poor funding of schools, facilities are poor or lacking, personnel not well trained, morale is low, infrastructure is inadequate and teaching-learning environments are deficient (Uyanga, 1995). Okunloye (2000) reported that where these factors are visible and obvious, "teachers' productivity is bound to be negative". Fabiyi (2000) indicated that there have been endless complaints of late payment of salaries, reduction of salaries after being officially increased, denials of allowances and delay in promotion. Achimugu (2005) asserted that teachers' conditions of service are very poor. For instance, fringe benefits such as medical service to self, wife and children; automatic housing and car loans are still not given to teachers.

Teachers' working environment is another area that has been neglected. The condition of most schools is very deplorable. The common sights are that of collapsing walls, tattered zinc and bare floor. Teachers are seen practising their profession under tree shades and inside thatched huts with inadequate provision of tables, chairs, chalks, chalkboards, textbooks, teaching aids, and desks (Achimugu, 2005). The absence of these facilities in schools is bound to render teachers unproductive. The factors that can influence teachers' productivity can be classified into internal and external factors. According to Klatt, Murdrick and Schuster (1985) managerial processes, managerial leadership and motivation are internal

factors, while government regulations, unions and innovations are external factors. When these factors are adequately provided and controlled, the productivity of teachers will be enhanced. Studies have shown that teachers' productivity can be enhanced by the availability of learning materials and infrastructure as well as a good management of these learning materials and infrastructure (Odunuga and Ajila, 2000). Emetarom (2000) indicated that organisational climate relates to teacher productivity.

This implies that school climate can equally contribute to the improvement of teachers' productivity. Eneasator (1997) posited that in the school system, for teachers to be highly productive, schools should operate more of open organisational climate types. In open school climate, teachers are highly motivated and are found to be associated and committed to their school. This climate is characterised by high spirit, high consideration and thrust and low disengagement. School climates that operate contrary to open type may have adverse effect on productivity of teachers. Hence, Oluchukwu (2000) cautioned that school heads should endeavour to see to it that appropriate school climate is created and maintained so that teachers can work hard and thereby enhance their productivity. School management administrative styles, adequacy of school facilities, state of school environment, government policies, including those proposed by regional and international organisations, and school board activities can exert a considerable influence on teachers, which can either affect their job performance negatively or positively in a country.

2.1.2 Measurement of Teachers' Productivity

Discourses on the subject of productivity have commented on the difficulty of defining and measuring productivity (Campbell and Campbell, 1988; Pritchard, 1992). However, there are varieties of estimates proposed by researchers that can be used to measure productivity. For instance, Sofoluwe (2000) reported the basic productivity measurements as:

(i) Static Productivity Ratios: These are ratios of aggregated output measures to input measures. It is referred to as static because it concerns what happened in a given period. It is expressed mathematically as:

$$\text{SPR} = \frac{1999 \text{ Output}}{1999 \text{ Input}}$$

where 1999 is the period under consideration.

It can be called total factor ratios depending on whether all the inputs and all the outputs get into the equation or not. This form of measure is often used in measuring the productivity system where outputs and inputs are clearly quantified.

(ii) Dynamic Productivity Indices: These are the comparison of the static productivity ratios of the period (often called base period) with the static productivity ratios of the current period. It could be expressed mathematically as:

$$\text{DPI} = \frac{\text{Output 1999/Input 1999}}{\text{Output 1995/Input 1995}}$$

∴ 1995 being the base period and 1999 being the current period.

This basic measure of productivity is used in measuring a nation's productivity or large organisations.

(iii) Surrogate Productivity: It measures terms highly correlate with productivity such as consumer satisfaction, profit, effectiveness, quality, and efficiency. Some managers operationalise productivity in a way that actual outputs are not readily discernible. Neal and Hesketh (2001) highlighted some of the approaches that can be employed to measure productivity, as:

- (i) measures of operational outcomes; such as customer satisfaction, production quantity, production quality and production efficiency (e.g. machine utilisation and machine downtime).
- (ii) measures of profitability (alternatively referred to as “accounting measures”), such as net profit, profit margin (profit divided by total revenue) and return on

capital employed (net profit divided by the capital obtained from shares, reserves and loans).

- (iii) measures of market value (alternatively referred to as financial measures), such as earnings per share (not profit divided by number of shares), yield on shares (dividend per share divided by share price), the price-to-earnings ratio (share price divided by earnings per share) and Tobin's q (market value of the firm divided by the replacement cost of assets).
- (iv) measures of financial efficiency and liquidity, such as the total asset turnover ratio (sales divided by total assets), turnover per employee (sales divided by the total number of employees: also termed 'partial labour productivity'), the stock turnover ratio (average holding of unsold stock divided by sales), the ratio of current assets to current liabilities and the gearing ratio (external borrowing divided by total capital employed); and
- (v) Measures of market position, such as market share and growth.

Neal and Hesketh (2001) argued that the majority of research that has examined interrelationships among different types of productivity measures has simply focused on measures of profitability and market value. This is because a number of studies have shown that the correlation between measures of profitability and market value is positive, but small (Neal and Hesketh, 2001). One thing that can be gleaned from the above ideas is that there are a given number of measures that can be adopted to determine productivity, but the use of such measures depends on the organisational management and the nature of the business in operation. Sofoluwe (2000) submitted that many methods used in measuring productivity show lack of understanding of how productivity should be measured. This is based on the idea that organisations will normally stick to a particular measure they know how to use best. This is a reflection of the dynamic nature of productivity and that it encompasses various

factors that may not be easily itemised. The organisational management may not be willing to try other approaches that may be more reliable than the one they are using. Why it is easy to examine the contributions of individual elements in an organisation in relations to the final outputs produced, the educational system does not permit such easy measurement of individual teacher's productivity in respect of the final outputs of the system. However, available literature on teachers' productivity show that it is measurable. For instance, Costa (1977) posited that in education, it is common to use an indicator such as student contact-hours to serve as a measure of teachers' productivity. A student contact hour would be one student having direct contact with a teacher for one hour for the purpose of instruction. The more students contacted per unit of the costs of instruction (hourly cost of instruction), the higher the rate of productivity. In this case, the unit of productivity is not directly related to a unit of identifiable output; instead, it is related to units of activity or service provided (Costa, 1977).

This means that the productivity of a teacher depends on the number of students that can be instructed within a given period of time. Therefore, teachers that can consistently instruct a given proportion of students within a stated period will be regarded as productive. The number of hours put into instruction and the resources used up during instruction can be calculated in relation to the number of students that receive the instruction for productivity to be estimated or measured. Odunuga and Ajila (2000) reported an evaluative model that can be used to determine a productive teacher. The model involves three thematic areas, which are graded with maximum scores. The areas and their scores are:

- (i) curricular/teaching activities: This area is made up of eight items, graduated with likert scale of poor, fair, good, very good and excellent. The maximum score for the activities in this area is 40.

- (ii) record-keeping activities: This consists of six items, graduated with a likert scale ranging from poor to excellent. The maximum score attached to these activities is 30.
- (iii) extra-curricular activities: This is made up of six items, with likert scale indicators of poor, fair, good, very good and excellent. The maximum score allocated for these activities is 30.

The total score for the whole activities is 100. Teachers that are evaluated based on those activities and have a high rating or score of about 70% and above are declared as productive, while those with low rating ranging from less than 50% are considered less productive. Odunuga and Ajila (2000) argued that this productivity measuring instrument will no doubt create a clear awareness of what the functions and responsibilities of teachers are and at the same time build into teaching, some of the factors which might contribute to high performance. This model can aid in the measurement of teachers' productivity by providing the necessary data that will make its estimation to be easily carried out.

Another model that can be used to measure teachers' productivity is the value-added model. Harris, Sass and Semykina (2000) reported a recently developed accountability systems for teachers, which rely on value-added models to estimate the impact of teachers on students' performance. They explained that the measurement of teacher productivity in both education research and in accountability systems is often based largely on estimates from panel-data models where the individual teacher-effects are interpreted as a teacher's contribution to student' achievement or teacher value-added. The theoretical underpinning for these analyses is the cumulative achievement model developed by Boardman and Murnane (1979) and Todd and Wolpin (2003). In the same vein, Guarino, Reckase, and Wooldridge (2010) using a simulation approach, were able to investigate bias attributable to non-random sorting by generating simulated data under various student grouping and teacher assignment

scenarios and then comparing the estimates from alternative specification to the known (generated) teacher-effects. The simulation approach has the advantage of producing known “true” teacher effects that can be used to evaluate the estimates from alternative model. Considering the models and approaches presented for measuring teachers’ productivity, value-added model has been considered as the most potent instrument for measuring teachers’ productivity. This is because value-added measures fail to reject the equivalence of differences in value-added estimates of teacher productivity with cross-teacher differences under random assignment (Kane and Staiger, 2008). Studies such as Hariss and Sass (2009); Jacob and Lefgren (2010) and Rockoff, Staiger, Kane and Taylor (2010) also pointed out that teacher value-added measures are positively correlated with the confidential assessments of teachers made by school principals who have arguably the most information about teachers’ actual behaviour and practice. Guarino, Reckase and Wooldridge (2010) equally indicated that simulation evidence suggests that value-added models can produce estimates of teacher productivity that are close to true values under a number of plausible sorting mechanisms.

2.1.3 Conflict and Teachers’ Productivity

Before discussing the consequences of conflict on teachers’ productivity, the general effects of violent conflict on education will first be analysed. Human and material resources suffer severely when experiencing interpersonal conflict and general during the period of violent conflict in a country. This implies that the consequences of conflict on the school cannot be easily estimated. For instance, conflict remains a major impediment for the realisation of the EFA (Education for All) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially for the universal completion of primary education and gender equality in primary and secondary education (Buckland, 2005). Poirier (2011) posited that situations of are often considered to be one of the most important factors in the deterioration of education. Poirier (2011) concluded that conflicts therefore have a very strong impact on secondary enrolment.

It can also result in the death or displacement of teachers, staff and students (Bell and Huebler, 2010). For example, more than two-thirds of teachers in primary and secondary schools were killed and displaced as a result of the Rwandan genocide (Buckland, 2005). (Seitz, 2004) reported that in the course of violent conflicts teachers are often among the population groups most at risk. It has been proven that teachers in Columbia and Sudan are specifically being threatened or killed by the warring factions (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003). In Burundi 25% of all primary school teachers have either been murdered or have fled abroad since 1993 (Fountain, 2000). In Cambodia nearly 75% of the teachers were murdered during the era of the Red Khmer (World Bank, 2002).

Conflict results in decreased access to school, preventing the opening of schools, threatening children's security while travelling to school and attending class, and increasing teacher absenteeism (Bell and Huebler, 2010). According to Akresh and de Walque (2008) the Rwandan genocide's was extremely violent and disrupted the school year throughout the entire country. School were closed, school buildings and supplies destroyed, teachers killed, students and teachers alike became refugees abroad, families lost their savings and became orphans losing one or both parents to the genocide (Akresh and de Walque, 2008).

Poirier (2011) asserted that armed conflicts have a strong negative impact on education. It was revealed that the rate of children not attending school as well as that of secondary school enrolment is very sensitive to conflict (Poirier, 2011). The question that need to be ask is why are students, teachers (i.e harmless people) and schools be attacked during conflict? Coursen-Neff and Sheppard (2011) produced answers to the question that non-state armed groups target schools, teachers and students for a variety of reasons. First, rebel groups often see schools and teachers as symbols of the state. Indeed in rural areas, they may be the only structures and government employees in the vicinity, serving multiple purposes. For instance, in India, Pakistan and Afghanistan armed opposition groups have

attacked schools used as polling places around elections. Second, teachers and schools make high-visibility “soft” target: they are more easily attacked than the government security forces, and attacks are likely to garner media attention to the assailants and their political agenda, and undermine confidence in government control. Thirdly, schools are attacked because armed groups are hostile to the content of the education being delivered or because of the students they educate. In some countries, schools have been targeted because their curriculum is perceived to be secular or “western”, others are simply because schools educate girls. Not all the violence is ideological: criminal elements may want to drive out competing sources of authority; some attacks are simply local disputes that may or may not have to do with education (Coursen-Neff and Sheppard, 2011).

Conflict is highly devastating to students, teachers and the school in general. Paulson and Rappleye (2007) reported that in 2002, UNICEF did succeed in re-starting a scattered educational system that had virtually ceased to function due to internal fighting. Conflict, depending on its gravity, will not only affect teachers’ productivity negatively, but will also paralyse the entire educational system. Teachers’ productivity is an important variable that determines the learning outcomes of students and the state of educational system. Conflict is a major factor that can influence the productivity of teachers either for good or bad, depending on the nature of the conflict, the orientation of the parties concerned and the conflict management approaches adopted. For instance, Weiss, Cambone and Wyeth (1992) indicated that the transition to teamwork led to conflict and tension among teachers, which affected their sense of solidarity and work satisfaction at school. When conflict is poorly managed, it destabilises the emotional stability of teachers, thereby leading to reduction in their level of performance. Center for the Prevention of School Violence (2002) reported that conflict can ruin the stability of an organised work environment and substantially waste time, money and resources. When conflict wastes the time, money and

resources of a teacher involved in it, the work effort of such a person will greatly diminish, leading to poor turnover. Goldstein and Conoley (1997) pointed out that the degree of violence against teachers and its consequences have led to the identification of a “battered teacher syndrome,” characterised by a combination of stress reactions including anxiety, disturbed sleep, depression, headaches, elevated blood pressure and eating disorders. This assertion is a reflection of the fact that conflict will not only reduce the effectiveness and efficiency of teachers, it will also bring about health problems for them, if care is not taken. Meyers (2003) argued that regardless of their academic discipline or amount of teaching experience, many faculty members (i.e teachers) encounter conflict in the classes that they teach and they are often unprepared to effectively handle classroom conflict, which may be distressing and disruptive. Distressing and disruptive atmosphere will definitely incapacitate teachers’ work attitudes and negatively impact on their productivity.

Kgomo (2006) asserted that conflict gets teachers frustrated. According to Kgomo (2006), frustration of this kind is manifested through a number of observable behaviours, such as hesitation, vacillation, sleeplessness, stress and anxiety. Behaviours expressed in these forms in teachers will produce alienation, absenteeism, prevent creative thinking and on the whole make them to be less effective and efficient in discharging their duties. However, when conflict is appropriately managed, it can benefit teachers by improving their productivity. Achoka (1990) stated that conflict can be constructive, thus improving work performance and overcoming staleness. By implication, teachers’ productivity can equally be enhanced by constructive conflict. This largely depends on the conflict orientation of teachers, their attitudes to and perceptions of conflict and the management approach adopted. All these issues are important phenomena in constructively managing conflict to better the lots of those involved, most especially teachers, in the educational system. Therefore, when conflict is constructively managed, it creates a favourable climate for teachers to be creative

and innovative in the process of discharging their duties. To think well, interact freely and work together to make sure that the desired goals are attained through the inculcation of the required knowledge, skills and attitudes in students in order to make them contribute meaningfully to the development of their societies, are the imperativeness of a productive teacher.

2.2 Conflict Identification Variable

This variable is made up of the following elements: conflict definition, conflict causes, conflict cost and conflict incident. These elements are the focus of the review.

2.2.1 Conflict Definition

Conflict definition deals with the conceptual understanding of conflict and its types. The concept of conflict and its typologies are considered for review.

2.2.1.1 Concept of Conflict

An all embracing definition of conflict is yet to surface. This is because conflict is inevitable in every facet of human endeavour. The inevitability of conflict has given rise to the emergence of varieties of its definition. However, the existing definitions follow a thought pattern that clearly depicts conflict as: a state of incompatibility, a behaviour, an opposition, an interaction of interdependent parties, a bad omen and a positive or constructive outcome.

(i) Conflict as a state of incompatibility

Rahim (2002) asserted that conflict is an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e individual, group, organisation etc). Deutsch (1973) posited that conflict exists whenever incompatible activities occur. Fisher (2000) averred that conflict is a social situation in which there are perceived incompatibilities in goals or values between two (or more) parties, attempts by the parties to control one another and antagonistic feelings towards each other. Similarly, Darling and

Fogliasso (1999) described conflict as a situation in which the concerns of two or more individuals operating within the unit appear to be incompatible. Lebedun (1998) asserted that conflict is a struggle between two parties who perceived their goals as incompatible. Laue (1992) viewed conflict as escalated competition between two or more parties...over a set of mutually incompatible goals. Luthans (1985) asserted that conflict is normally associated with incompatible or hostile acts between intra-individual dimensions such as personal goals or motivational needs/values, between individuals within a group and between groups. The consideration of conflict as a state of incompatibility presupposes that individuals or groups of people cannot coexist, cooperate, function or work together to achieve a particular goal. When a state of incompatibility is established in a relationship or among members of an organisation, conflict is bound to occur. Incompatibility is associated with differences which may emanate from ideas, actions, interest, or goals. And when these differences are magnified beyond an acceptable limit between or among parties, conflict will ensue. The ensuing of conflict is based on the levels of emotional and psychological expressions that the differences so manifested have attracted at a point. Robbins (1987) argued that incompatible personalities, which are psychological, might affect the employees not to get along with each other and this difficulty might lead to conflicts, which result from formal interactions with other employees.

(ii) Conflict as a behaviour

Murphy (1994) postulated that conflict is a set of divergent behaviours, aims or methods. Gray and Starke (1984) defined conflict as the behaviour by a person or group intended to inhibit the attainment of goals by another person or group. Thomas (1983) indicated that conflict is a process including the perceptions, emotions, behaviours and outcomes of two parties which lead to conflict when one party perceives that the other has frustrated or is about to frustrate their goals. Schmidt and Kochan (1972) viewed conflict as an overt

behaviour arising out of a process in which one party seeks advantage of its own interests in its relationship with others. Knorhauser and Rose (1954) defined conflict as a total range of behaviour and attitude that express opposition and divergent orientations between industrial owners and managers on the one hand and the working people and their organisations on the other hand. This definition is more oriented towards industrial conflict, however, it reflects that a given set of behaviours and attitudes easily give room for the emergence of conflict in social organisations. Therefore, behaviour is an action that is directed towards a particular end. Raj (2009) argued that three kinds of behaviour are identifiable in interpersonal relationship, namely: aggressive behaviour, submissive behaviour and assertive behaviour. Apart from the submissive behaviour, the others can easily provoke conflict. Blake and Mouton (1964) categorised conflict behaviour into two, namely: assertive and cooperative behaviours. The assertive behaviour measures the extent to which an individual attempts to satisfy his concern, while cooperative behaviour has to do with the extent to which one satisfies the concern of the other party. Assertive behaviour is competitive in nature.

Competition implies a striving for the same object, position, prize and so on. It contains many of the traits of conflicts (Deutsch, 1973). When competition becomes tough, conflict may likely surface. Conflict is a behaviour because it is directional in nature and can easily provoke emotions. When a particular behaviour is laced with emotions, there may be overt reactions, which may pave way for wrong perception of the issue. Perceptual problem is at the heart of all conflicts. Albert (2001) posited that conflict is rooted in people's beliefs and perceptions about goals, as opposed to objective facts. By extension, negative emotions lead to wrong perception of issues and conflict will emerge when issues are wrongly perceived. Kumar (1989) argued that emotions play a major role in shaping perceptions. Negative emotions have been found to produce oversimplification of issues, reductions in trust, and negative interpretations of the other party's behaviour (Kumar, 1989). Alessandra

and Hunsaker (1993) revealed that conflict arises from the clash of perceptions, goals, or values in an arena where people care about the outcome.

(iii) Conflict as an opposition

Conflict as an opposition is a demonstration of discord, antagonism, disagreement, hostility, argument or animosity in the pursuance of a goal. Hellriegel and Slocum (1996) stated that conflict is an opposition arising from disagreement about goals, thoughts, or emotions with or among individuals, teams, departments or organisations. Marquis and Huston (1996) defined conflict as the internal discord that results from differences in ideas, values or feelings between two or more people. Van Fleet (1991) revealed that conflict occurs when one group of persons appears to jeopardise the goal of another, becomes openly antagonistic to another and is not governed by organisational goals. The above assertions poignantly revealed that opposition is about blocking another from achieving its set goals. The reaction of the other party to gain liberty in the pursuance of its goals, will involve the employment of a greater force, which will give birth to conflict. Opposition easily attracts conflict.

(iv) Conflict as an interaction of interdependent parties.

Putnam and Poole (1987) stated that conflict is an interaction of interdependent people who perceive opposition of goals, aims, and values, and who see the other party as potentially interfering with the realisation of these goals. Umanah (1982) stated that conflict is an interaction between two or more human entities in a social situation structured in such a way that the outcomes which are perceived as relatively rewarding to one entity tend at the same time to be seen as relatively unrewarding to the other entity. Fogler, Poole and Stutman (1997) defined conflict as the interaction of interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and interference from each other in achieving those goals. Gurr (1980) defined conflict as an overt phenomenon characterised by coercive interactions of contending collectivities. These definitions revealed that conflict does not exist in isolation. The parties to a conflict

must be nested by some sort of social ties. These ties will pave way for interactions to take place. The level of the interaction will determine the intensity of conflict that will be present in the relationship. Coser and Rosenberg (1964) indicated that the closer the group, the more intense the conflict. The point is that interaction can stir up differences. Differences can be demonstrated at various stages of engagements such as planning, decision-making, implementation, or evaluation. Differences can also feature during goal attainment, need and interest satisfaction. When differences are registered in an interactive process, it leads to opposition which makes conflict to be imminent. Therefore, conflict bounds in a “situation in which interdependent people express (manifest or latent) differences in satisfying their individual needs and interests, and they experience interference from each other in accomplishing these goals (Donohue and Kolt, 1992).

(v) Conflict as a bad omen

Those who see conflict as a bad omen are of the opinion that conflict is negative, harmful, damaging, frustrating, and destructive in nature. Nwolise (2003) considered conflict as a clash, confrontation, battle or struggle. Wall and Callister (1995) posited that conflict occurs when an individual or a group feels negatively affected by another individual or group. Cole (1998) averred that conflict is a condition that arises whenever the perceived interests of an individual or a group clash with those of another individual or a group in such a way that strong emotions are aroused and compromise is not considered to be an option. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) argued that “a negative connotation is implied” when conflict is mentioned. According to them, conflict generally conjures negative thoughts of unwanted behaviour. Dahrendorf (1959) referred to conflict as clashes of interests, contests, competitions, disputes and clashes between social forces. Robbins (1998) defined conflict as a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about. Auwal (2010) stated that conflict is

perceived largely as something devastating, abnormal, dysfunctional and therefore detestable. Wehr (1979) considered conflict as an aberration, a dysfunctional process in social systems. Lindelow and Scott (1989) stressed that conflict conjures negative connotation, invokes negative feelings and often leads to destruction. It is important to note that the major factor that promotes the impression that conflict is a bad omen or a destructive force is the view of the traditional theory of conflict. This theory did not see anything good about conflict. The theory condemned conflict in all its ramifications, and contended that it should be eliminated at all cost for relationships and organisations to succeed. Hence, the negative outcome of a conflict conjures the notion of its negativity and perception as such.

(vi) Conflict as a positive or constructive outcome

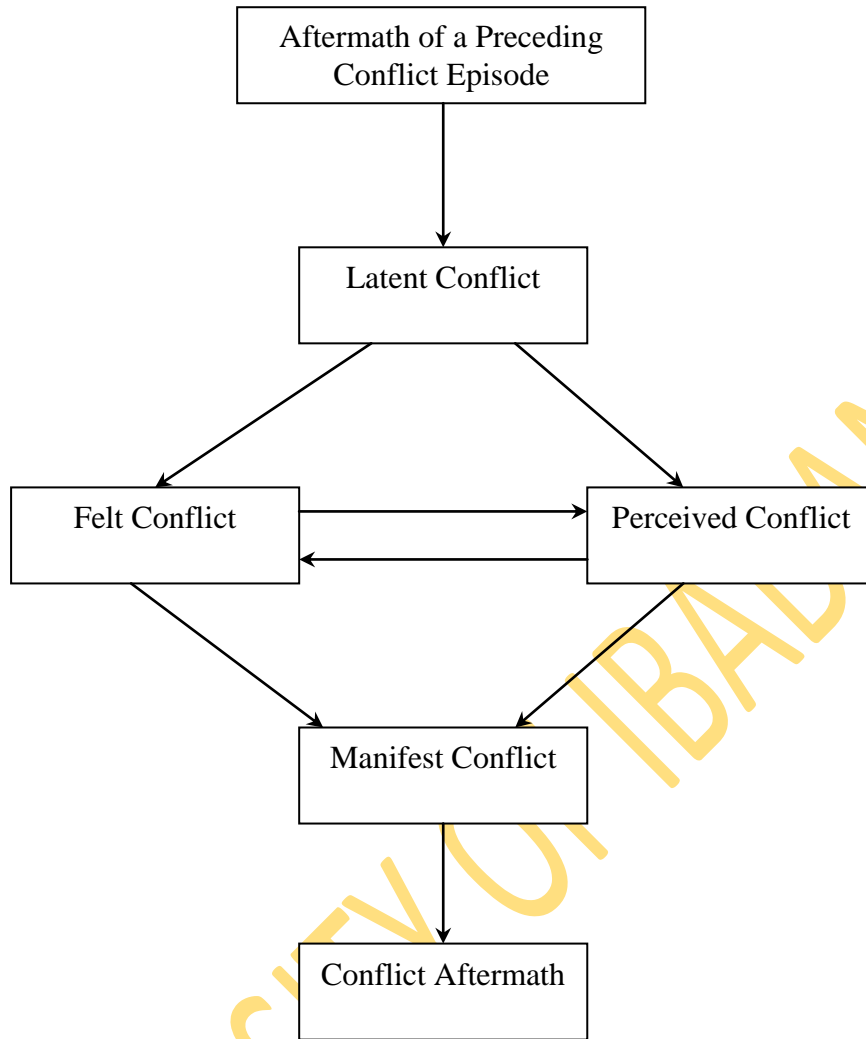
The European Centre for Conflict Prevention (2000) observed that conflict is an inherent part of living which can be used as an opportunity for learning and growth. Hoelscher and Robert (2002) viewed conflict as the underlying power that stimulates innovation. Pondy (1967) indicated that conflict can produce positive outcomes by introducing different perspectives that produce innovative solutions. Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995); Van de Vliert (1997); Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) and Peretomode and Peretomode (2008) regarded conflict as a positive force that promotes organisational growth and development. The idea that conflict is positive or constructive in nature was engineered by the interactionist theory of conflict. This theory sees conflict as something good and that a given dosage of it is required in every relationship or organisation to succeed. The theory establishes the fact that conflict is a neutral element that its outcome depends on the approaches adopted by the parties concerned. The discourse so far revealed that conflict is inherently characterised by the following elements:

- (i) conflict does not take place in isolation, it requires at least two parties for it to occur. This is so because the parties to a conflict are socially related in some

ways. The social affinity existing between or among parties will make them to be more closely related. When this happens, conflict is by the corner. Simmel (1955) argued that the closer the relationship, the more intense the conflict.

- (ii) conflict is a process. It passes through a series of stages before it can be experienced. Wall and Callister (1995) found that most definitions of conflict agree that conflict is a process, and that it involves two or more parties. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002) posited that conflict passes through a series of progressive stages as tension build up.

Pondy (1967) proposed a model that illustrates the conflict process. The *aftermath of preceding conflict episode* are some of the activities that will set the stage for the manifestation of other stages. The *latent stage* illustrates the underlining conditions that can provoke conflict. These conditions are yet to be recognised by the parties. The *perceived conflict* is the stage where parties are aware of the underlining conditions of the conflict. This is the stage where parties recognise that conflict exists between them. The *felt conflict* is the stage where tension is building up. Conflict is experienced at this stage, but serious actions and reactions are yet to be exhibited. In the *manifest stage*, conflict is no more a hidden issue. It is characterised by overt behaviour.



Source: Pondy (1967)

Figure 2.3: Conflict Process

This can be expressed in a hostile or aggressive manner. The conflict *aftermath stage* welcomes the management and resolution of the conflict. If the conflict is managed or resolved, it ends and cooperation between the parties will resurface. But if the reverse is the case, the conflict continues. Conflict process model indicates how conflict starts and unfolds itself.

- (iii) Conflict involves “needs” and “interests”. Needs are those things that are fundamentally of utmost importance to people, which they must satisfy as soon as the purchasing power is available. Interests, on the other hand, are the desires of

people in life. These elements, most especially, needs have the potential of generating conflict, when perceived and expressed differently by people.

- (iv) Conflict is caused by interference. Interference is a way of preventing people from attaining their needs. It normally induces overt reactions. Hence, it breeds conflict.
- (v) It is a natural and inevitable element in every social relations, organisation or society. Conflict exists everywhere. It is something that one cannot run away from no matter one's status and occupation. It is important for people to understand it for its effective management.

Some scholars have equally defined conflict from the angle of its causes and from a wider perspective based on its large scale consequences such as war, crisis and chaos. From the angle of its causes, Mckee (1981) considered conflict as a struggle over values or scarce resources, in which two contesting groups each seek to impose values or claims on resources over those of the other. North (1968) posited that conflict emerges when two or more persons or groups seek to possess the same object, occupy the same space or the same exclusive position, play incompatible roles, maintain incompatible goals, or undertake mutually incompatible means for achieving their purposes. Bercovitch (n.d) stated that conflict is an inevitable part of living that relates to situations of scarce resources, division of functions, power relations and role-differentiation. Coser (1967) described conflict as a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralise, injure or eliminate the rivals. It is evident from the foregoing explanations that the basic conflict triggers are “differences in values”; “divergent interests over scarce resources”; “struggle over power”; “contest over status and position”; “display of incompatible goals” “poor role allocation and role differential”; and “poor division of duties (functions)”. These factors are basically responsible for the emergence of conflicts at micro and macro levels of social relations. Apart from this, some scholars defined conflict from a

wider perspective putting into consideration its large-scale consequences; its escalated tone in the society and the involvement of the State apparatus. Adesanya (2005) described conflict as an expression of animosity, arguments, disputes, confrontations, unrests, war, chaos or venting of other forms of hostilities over irreconcilable differences. Singer and Small (1972) defined conflict as violent disputes in which at least one of the combatant parties is a state, and there are at least 100 battle-deaths. Oquanye (1995) defined conflict as a sequence of interactions between groups in society, between groups and governments, and between individuals. Jooji (2003) asserted that conflict is the manifestations of in-built social dislocations and political imbalances in the polity. He stated further that conflicts are not just about disagreements between individuals and groups, but are deeper manifestations of socio-political crises.

Dzurgba (2005) pointed out that conflict is a social problem in which two or more persons, families, districts, communities, state or nations are at war with each other. The graduation of conflict from simple to complex state, covering a wider space with greater consequences, have led to the consideration of conflict as “war”, “crisis” and “chaos”. These ideas give insight into the fact that conflict is a complex phenomenon that can be determined by a web of interrelated variables. However, the way conflict is perceived and managed, can either turn it to a positive force or a negative force in social relations. It has been argued that conflict is not bad, but rather a phenomenon which can have constructive or destructive effects depending upon its management (Thomas, 1983). Rahim (1986) explained that whether the effect of conflict is good or bad depends on the strategies used to deal with it. Coser (1967) stated that conflict can be constructive as well as destructive. Conflict has been given a bad reputation by its association with psychopathology, social disorder, and war. However, it is the root of personal and social change; it is the medium through which problems can be aired and solutions arrived at (Coser, 1967). Gordon (1996) revealed that

conflict can result in positive and negative outcomes, that is, functional and dysfunctional outcomes. Positive conflict is such that produces good result and is beneficial to the parties concerned. Positive conflict can also be referred to as functional conflict, productive conflict or constructive conflict. As implied, positive conflict is good and creates a healthy ground for the growth and development of relationships and organisations. Ongori (2009) stated that the positive effects of conflict are: improving the quality of decisions, stimulating involvement in the discussion and building group cohesion. Robbins and Judge (2007) declared that conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released, and fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change. Constructive conflict can improve the quality of decision-making by allowing all points, particularly the ones that are unusual or held by a minority, to be weighed in important decisions (Coser and Schwenk, 1990).

King (1999) stressed that constructive conflict can encourage creative solutions, lead to unity and support people through change and stressful periods. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) advanced that the characteristics of constructive conflict are: (i) providing flexibility; (ii) creating interaction with an intent to learn instead of an intent to protect; (iii) not staying stuck in conflict when it is destructive; (iv) enhancing self-esteem; (v) not focusing on the individual and (vi) being primarily cooperative. Negative conflict is an undesirable conflict that can cause harm to people and organisations. It can also be referred to as destructive or dysfunctional conflict. Suping and Jing (2006) maintained that negative conflict could have serious negative effects for making efforts deviate from goal, and depleting resources, especially time and money. Akpotu, Onoyase and Onoyase (2008) stressed that dysfunctional conflict for organisations result in reduced production, lower morale, causes overwhelming dissatisfaction, increased tension and stress. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) identified some

characteristics of destructive conflict as: (i) escalatory spiral pervade destructive conflict; (ii) avoidance patterns reduce the chance for productive conflict; (iii) retaliation runs rampant in destructive conflicts; (iv) inflexibility and rigidity characterise destructive conflict; (v) a competitive system of dominance and subordination results in destructive conflict and (vi) demeaning and degrading verbal and nonverbal communication result in and reflect destructive conflict practices. It is glaring from the above analyses that conflict is an inevitable fact of life that occurs where human interactions are marked with differences in goals, perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, interests, values or needs. This underscores the fact that conflict is an ever-present process in human relations (Loomis and Loomis, 1965).When conflict occurs, it can become a positive force as well as a negative force, depending on the conflict orientations of the conflicting parties. The outcome of a conflict episode greatly depends on the following factors: (i) the conflict management strategies used to deal with it; (ii) the nature of the conflict; and (iii) the orientations of the parties concerned.

2.2.1.2 Typologies of Conflict

Various types of conflict are well captured in the literature. For instance, Owens-Ibie (2000), Jonkman (2006) and Harper (2004) identified intra-personal conflict, inter-personal conflict, intragroup conflict and intergroup conflict. Added to these types of conflict are intraorganisational conflict and interorganisational conflict (Owen-Ibie, 2000; Hammed, 2002). Luthans (1985) indicated that four predominant types of structural conflict exist in the classical organisation, namely: hierarchical conflict, functional conflict, line-staff conflict and formal-informal conflict. Substantive and affective conflicts were mentioned by Rahim (2002).We equally have role conflict. Bradford, Stringfellow and Weitz (2003) mentioned relational and task conflict. Hearn and Anderson (2002) identified three types of conflict, namely: interpersonal-based conflict, task-based conflict and process-based conflict. Steyn and Niekerk (2002) indicated substantive conflict, goal conflict, cognitive conflict and

affective conflict as some of the types of conflict. According to Sote (2003) intrapersonal conflict is the conflict within one individual, which can occur at three other sub-levels:

- (i) approach-avoidance conflict occurs where a person is both attractive to and repelled by the same object.
- (ii) approach-approach conflict occurs where a person can be attracted to two equally appealing alternatives, and
- (iii) avoidance-avoidance conflict occurs where a person can be repelled by two equally unpleasant alternatives.

Bercovitch (n.d) stated that intrapersonal conflict is internal to the individual and is perhaps the most difficult form of conflict to analyse and manage. Intrapersonal conflict is basically a conflict between two incompatible tendencies. It arises when a stimulus evokes two different and incompatible tendencies and the individual is required to discriminate between these tendencies (Bercovitch, n.d). Brown (1967) posited that intrapersonal conflict allows individuals to experience frustrations and to allow their conflict situation to be expressed in a range of behavioural strategies ranging from apathy and boredom to absenteeism, excessive drinking or destructive behaviour.

Jonkman (2006) stated that intrapersonal conflict is characterized by tension which leads to “uncertainty, hesitation, stress, anxiety, depression and insomnia”. To resolve intrapersonal conflict, Bercovitch (n.d) recommended that it is essential to diagnose individual perception and utilise some techniques that would reduce anxiety-eliciting stimuli and increase consonance between individual behaviour and organisational requirements. Interpersonal conflict is a form of conflict that occurs between at least two individuals (Harper, 2004). Jonkman (2006) defined interpersonal conflict as disagreements, incompatible interest concerning goals, policies, rules, and discordant behaviour that creates anger, distrust, fear and rejection or resentment. Rahim (2002) asserted that interpersonal

conflict also known as dyadic conflict, refers to disagreement or incompatibility between two or more organizational members of the same or different hierarchical levels or units. Interpersonal conflict develops when people with different values, attitudes, abilities and personalities interact with each other (Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie, 2002). Based on this, interpersonal conflict often arises from differences in individuals' perceptions, orientation or status (Hammed, 2002). Sherif (1966) suggested that interpersonal conflict emerges from competing interests between people. It can also arise from perceived injustices in which individuals feel that the benefits they derive from a situation are not proportional to their effort and work (Greenberg, 1986), and misperceptions about another person's intentions (Allred, 2000).

Saddler (1998) described intragroup conflict as largely interpersonal conflict between persons in a group. Larson and Mildred (2000) stated that intragroup conflict is a clash among some or all of a group's members which often affects the group's progress and effectiveness. Rahim (2002) posited that intragroup conflict, also known as intradepartmental conflict, refers to conflict among members of a group, or between two or more subgroups within a group in connection with its goals, tasks, procedures, etc. Intragroup conflict may arise as a result of workload problems, incentive spread, lack of trust among members of the group, insubordination or high-handedness, differences in socio-cultural orientation, etc (Owens-Ibie, 2000).

Intergroup conflict occurs between two different groups in form of competition (Sote, 2003). Larson and Mildred (2000) considered intergroup conflict as opposition and clashes that arise between two or more groups. Rahim (2002) asserted that intergroup conflict, also known as interdepartmental conflict, refers to conflict between two or more units or groups within an organisation. The nine properties of intergroup conflict are: competing goals, competition for resources, cultural differences, power differences, conformity versus identity

affirmation, group boundaries, affective patterns, cognitive formations and leadership behaviour. Antcliffe (1998) posited that intergroup conflict occurs at three levels: vertical, horizontal and line staff. Bolman and Deal (1991) revealed that vertical conflict occurs between different hierarchical levels within the organisation. Horizontal conflict takes place between employees at the same grade in an organisation. Horizontal conflict occurs between different departments or divisions in organisation (Bolman and Deal, 1991). Line-staff conflict, according to Luthans (1985) occurs from situations in which staff personnel do not formally possess authority over line personnel.

Jenning and Wattam (1998) indicated that such a conflict may result from the different organisational roles of line and staff departments. In spite of the numerous types of conflict existing, some researchers have categorised the conflict types into two, while some proposed three types of conflict. For instance, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) summed up the types of conflict into substantive conflict and emotional conflict, Amason (1996) indicated cognitive conflict and affective conflict. Pelled, Eisenhardt and Xin (1999) proposed task conflict and emotional conflict. Task-related conflict and socioemotional conflict were identified by McShane and Von Glinow (2003).

Rose, Suppiah, Uli and Othman (2007) revealed that substantive conflict, cognitive conflict, task conflict, or task-related conflict are conflicts rooted in the substance of the task to be undertaken. According to them, it happens when people have differing views on working together. This form of conflict can result when “people argue over allocation of resources, distribution of rewards, task assignments, procedures, goals and important decision areas (Rose, et al, 2007). On the other hand, affective conflict, people conflict, emotional conflict, or socioemotional conflict refers to emotional aspects in the interpersonal relation or personality clashes or where differences are viewed as personal attacks (Rose, et al, 2007). These forms of conflicts are seen as the same and should be considered as a type of conflict.

Evans (1965), Jehn (2000) and Robbins and Judge (2007) categorised conflict into three types. Evans (1965) mentioned technical conflict, administrative conflict and interpersonal conflict. According to Evans (1965) technical conflict is disagreements over means or ends pertaining to the work; administrative conflict is disagreements concerning procedures, policies, and allocation of resources and interpersonal conflict is conflict resulting from personality clashes. Jehn (2000) identified task conflict, process conflict and relationship conflict as the three types of conflict. Task conflict focuses on ideas and opinions about the task being performed, while process conflict is concerned with logistical and delegation issues such as how task is to be accomplished, who is responsible for what and how duties are to be delegated. Relationship conflict is conflict over personal issues in which often reported are pertaining to social events, gossip, clothing preferences, political views and hobbies (Jehn, 2000).

According to Robbins and Judge (2007) the three types of conflicts are: task conflict, relationship conflict and process conflict. Task conflict relates to the content and goals of a work. Relationship conflict focuses on interpersonal relations, while process conflict relates to how the work gets done (Robbins and Judge, 2007). Rose et al (2007) pointed out that it should be noted that most studies still use the two categories of conflict instead of the three proposed by Evans (1956), Jehn (2000) and Robbins and Judge (2007). The technical conflict, administrative conflict, task conflict and process conflict as suggested by them still fall under the category of task-related conflicts as they are related to work aspects (Rose et al, 2007). The arguments of Rose et al (2007) will go a long way to promote a better understanding of the types of conflict, given the fact that the growing classifications of conflict into different types may be misleading and can create a platform for misinterpreting them. Therefore, the bundle of conflict types identified by researchers can conveniently be grouped into two, based on the task which people do, that is, task-related conflict and the

interactions or relationship which exist among people, that is, affective conflict. The school, being a social organisation, experiences various forms of conflict. Conflict can occur between student and teacher, between a student and another student, or between the teacher and the parent (Harper, 2004). Adeola (2003) observed that conflicts are observed between students to teachers, teachers to heads of department, or teachers to principals. The possible conflicts that can occur in secondary schools are principal-teacher conflict, conflict between teachers and students, conflict between host communities and schools, student-student conflict, teacher-parent conflict, and teacher-teacher conflict. Another form of conflict that can also be experienced in the school is between the school staff and the school board.

Kgomo (2006) posited that conflicts occur among teachers, between teachers and heads of departments, between teachers and learners, between teachers and parents, between teachers and the school governing bodies, between teachers and principals and between teachers and other stakeholders. These types of school conflicts can be experienced in the forms of interpersonal conflict, intragroup conflict and intergroup conflict. Anderson and Kypriano (1994) posited that interpersonal conflict is the most widespread and visible kind of conflict in schools and other organisations because it is evident when two or more individuals disagree about issues, actions or goals. Since, this study is based on the relationship between conflict variables and teachers' productivity, it is located within the framework of interpersonal conflict.

2.2.2 Conflict Causes

The causes of conflict are examined generally, after which emphasis is placed on the causes of conflict in the school system. The causes of conflict are numerous. Conflict can be caused by factors such as power differentials, competition over scarce resources, tendencies to differentiate rather than converge, negative interdependence between work units, ambiguity over responsibility or jurisdiction or to a denial of one's self-image or characteristics identification (Hendel, Fish and Galon, 2005). Albert (2001) indicated that

competition for inadequate resources, contradicting value systems, psychological needs of groups and individuals and manipulation of information as the major causes of conflict. Montana (1991) posited that the potential causes of conflict are resource competition, differences in goals, dependence on external constituents, communication, and the organisational structure. Greenberg (1986) identified injustice while Allred (2000) reported that misconceptions about another person's intentions as factors that can cause conflict. Owens-Ibie (2000) identified the common causes of conflict as management style, workload, communication breakdown, and organisational politics. Litterer (1969) indicated that there are four factors that can cause of conflict in organisations, namely: an incompatible goals situation; the existence of incompatible means or incompatible resource allocations; a problem of status incongruities; and a difference in perception. Vokic and Sontor (2010) averred that organisational conflicts arise in the case of disagreements over workloads, problem in communication, individual differences in needs, wants, goals, values, opinions, preferences or behaviours.

Whitfield (1994) contended that a real cause of conflict is misunderstanding which is an element of poor communication. Whitfield (1994) explained further that poor communication causes misunderstanding in that: people's values are not understood by others; different people's interests diverge instead of converging; and some people tend to misunderstand others personalities and are defensive when they lack information. D'souza (2008) enumerated the following as conflict causative factors in organisations: perception differences, priority or value differences, different expectations or role pressures, divergent goals, self-esteem or status threat and personality clashes. Tonsing (2005) listed the following factors as sources of interpersonal conflict: communication problems, ambiguous rules, scarce resources, task interdependence, different values and beliefs and incompatible goals. Gumuseli and Hacifazlioglu (2009) affirmed that unclear and different goals, personality

differences, organisational structure, workload sharing, connection among jobs, differences in status, role and authority ambiguity, limited resources, frequency of evaluation are some of the basic causes of conflict in organisations. Bell (2002) highlighted six causes of conflict in the workplace as conflicting needs, conflicting styles, conflicting perceptions, conflicting goals, conflicting pressures and conflicting roles. Van der Bank (1995) posited that groups can come into conflict because of different objectives and incorrect perceptions. Hart (2000) added different personal values and unpredictable policies to the causes of conflict in organisations. On the issue of unpredictable policies, Hart (2000) argued that the absence of clear policies or policies that are constantly changing can create an environment of uncertainty and conflict.

Gray, Miller and Noakes (1994) maintained that if resources are not enough to be shared equally, hard decisions are made and that these decisions may provide fertile grounds for conflict. Jennings and Stuart (2004) reported that conflict occurs when there is scarcity of commodity such as raw materials, machines or rooms, or intangible things such as prestige, influence or status or time. Bright and Jones (2001) indicated that workload, unethical behaviour by colleagues, social exclusion, time pressure, downsizing, and organizational change programmes can easily lead to conflict at workplaces. Conflict is caused by multifarious factors in organisations, but Otopo (2000) categorised the causes of conflict into internal and external sources.

The internal source comprises of style of management, nature of physical environment of the work place, consciousness of workers, other conditions of service, efficacy or otherwise of the promotion system and cumbersomeness of grievance and dispute procedure. The external sources include: government's industrial and economic policy, nature of labour legislation, unpatriotic and unethical behaviour of political class, national economic mismanagement and general distribution of wealth and power in society. In the school

system, numerous factors often give rise to the experiences of conflict. Jonkman (2006) identified communication barriers, role ambiguity, unclear expectations or rules, unresolved prior conflicts, conflicting interests, disagreement on task and content issues as some of the factors that can lead to conflict situations in schools. Similarly, different majors or educational levels; administrative procedures such as injustice in the schedules, assigning specific people to the duties with extra charge; inequity in taking time off from work; unfair distributions of the classes or duties among teachers; problems about clarification and formation of the goals, roles and responsibilities (Cunliffe, 2008). Achoka (1990) considered structural factors such as the size of the school, school bureaucratic characteristics like the degree of specialisation, dissatisfied educators and principals' authoritarian outlook, but have low self-esteem as school related factors that can cause conflict.

Hiriyappa (2009) posited that physical issues such as the size of the school, limited resources, initiatives in using resources of the school also lead to school conflict. Fakhry and Abou El Hassan (2011) reported some of the factors that can trigger conflict among nursing students as: teacher behaviour, professional development, faculty management authority, incompatible values/goals, home-study interface, team work relations, student reward/discipline system, role ambiguity, time pressure and clinical learning environment. These factors are also potential phenomenal that can ignite conflict in conventional schools. Conflict can take place in schools for different reason, some of which are: lack of openness, time or feedback, communication problems, anger and irritation, low performance and responsibilities, and disobedience to rules and policies (Adrian-Taylor, 2007). Tucker (1984) stated that resource inequalities, personality clashes, student/faculty assessment, change and ideology lead to school conflict. According to Meyers, Bender, Hill and Thomas (2006) school conflict will result when students disparage the instructor, argue with classmates or actively dispute course requirements and their grades. Mampuru and Spoelstra (1994) posited

that overcrowded classrooms, especially in black schools and the lack of perceived changes in school management result in conflict. Kearney and Plax (1992) revealed that school conflict can also stem from students' inattentiveness and appear more passive, such as students arriving chronically late to class, engaging in side conversations or acting apathetic and bored. Boice (2000) asserted that the sources of classroom conflict are that faculty contributed to classroom conflict by seeming cold and uncaring, arriving late to class, disparaging students, presenting material too rapidly, and surprising students in terms of testing or grading practice. Gumuseli and Hacifazlioglu (2009) stressed that finance is one of the reasons for conflict in Turkish schools. According to them, conflicts are seen between school administrators and the parents who either resist making any contribution or believe their contribution is not used in an effective way. They also stated that conflict stems from the parents' tendency to take control of the schools in socio-economically high regions.

In schools where administration lacks transparency and democratic attitude, intensity of conflict gets higher (Gumuseli and Hacifazlioglu, 2009). The Center for the Prevention of School Violence (2002) reported that conflict can arise if an administrator within a school does not clearly communicate what is needed and expected from others or if what is needed from others is unreasonable. Competition for scarce resources, differences in values and inconsistencies among educators and learners can bring about discord (Calitz, Fuglested and Lillejord, 2002). Mostert (1998) stated that the causes of intra-individual conflict in schools continue when professional orientation provided to teachers seems to be irrelevant and mismatches their previous professional positions. According to Mostert (1998), conflict may arise when educational philosophies, treatment approaches or service delivery strategies are incompatible. Squelch and Lemmer (1994) averred that what normally brings about conflict within the school is when personalities clash, when personal values and or perceptions differ and when there are limited resources in a school or when goals are not

reach. Ayoko, Hartel and Callan (2004) affirmed that school conflict can arise from vague assignments, refusal to accept feedback, unfair distribution of work, incompatible goals, and personalities. Tucker (1984) maintained that conflict can take place in a school when faculty members and students commonly begin with students complaints about a faculty member's teaching performance and grading practices or with a faculty member charged for cheating or plagiarism. Steven, Bender, Hill and Thomas (2006) found conflict to be associated with instructor's choice of teaching methods, their demeanor, and how they responded to challenging situations. Conflict can also erupt in the school as a result of the activities of the School Board. For instance, McGuire (1984) argued that the bases of conflict are inherent in the school district's function and method of governance. Jonkman (2006) stated that conflict can erupt in a school when education officials, teachers and school principals do not understand the new paradigm underlying and driving transformation and cannot adapt their style accordingly. Achoka (1990) postulated that structural factors related to the school can cause conflict. For instance, the size of the school correlates with the amount of disputes. That is, the larger the school, the greater the number of differences and the higher the degree of conflict intensity. School bureaucratic characteristics like the degree of specialisation correlates with conflict (Achoka, 1990). The existing catalogue of causes of conflict in the school system revealed that the school is a highly volatile terrain, where its workers, students and their parents need to understand the dynamic nature of conflict for them to operate effectively and harmoniously to achieve set objectives. The causes of conflict, based on the review, can be categorised into two, namely: structural causes and non-structural causes. Some of the structural and non structural causes are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Structural and Non-structural Causes of Conflict in Schools

S/No	Structural Causes	Non-structural Causes
1	School size/expansion in school demographic variables.	Communication problems among staff in the school.
2	Job differential of teachers/areas of specialisation of teachers.	Difference in backgrounds, opinions and ideas of school staff.
3	Degree of availability of school facilities.	Differences in behaviour and attitude of school personnel.
4	Unclear rules and regulations operating in the school.	Performance abilities/skills of school staff.
5	Nature of school policies and goals.	Unfair distribution of school materials/preferential treatment of school personnel.
6	Status differences among school personnel.	Differences in the perception and personality of individual workers in the school.
7	Existence of ambiguous roles among staff in the school.	Needs and interests of school personnel in relations to school goals.

Table 2.1 revealed the structural and non-structural causes of conflict in schools. Structural causes are those factors that are capable of causing conflict in schools that are related to or forming part of the school process. The non-structural causes are those factors that bring about conflict in schools that are directly related to the activities of school personnel.

2.2.3 Conflict Costs

Conflict costs have to do with the effects of conflict in qualitative terms. The general effects of conflict were first reviewed, after which the effects of conflict on teachers and the educational system were discussed. The effects of conflicts can be viewed from two perspectives, namely: negative and positive effects. The review started by examining the negative effects of conflict. Akanji (2005) indicated that dislocation of the entire group and polarisation; reduced productivity and job performance; psychological and/or physical injury; emotional distress and inability to sleep; interference with problem activities; escalation of

difference into antagonistic position and malice and increased hostility, as the negative manifestations of conflict. Tonsing (2005) posited that conflict is a major source of stress and can easily assume the sort of proportions, which overshadow everything else at work. Tonsing (2005) stated further that conflict has knock-on effects for the organisation as a whole. It decreases productivity, upsets relationships, creates factions, causes absenteeism, prompts resignation, makes recruitment difficult, prevents creative thinking, in short, it wastes energy, time and money (Tonsing, 2005). Gatlin, Wysocki and Kepner (2008) indicated that conflict can reduce morale, lower work productivity, increase absenteeism and cause large-scale confrontations that can lead to serious and violent crimes.

Whitfield (1994) pointed out that conflict induces individuals to anxiety which is a condition of fearfulness and can be associated with the following feelings: heart racing or palpitations, dizziness or light headedness, butterflies in the stomach, trembling hands, dry mouth, flushes and sweating, wanting to go to the toilet and rapid breathing. Conflict prevents progress, averse achievement and suspends success (Whitfield, 1994). Barling, Rogers and Kelloway (2001) stated that violent conflict in organisations can lead to job dissatisfaction, decreased job performance and productivity.

Hunts (1992) highlighted some of the effects of conflict as to: prevent members from seeing task at all; dislocate the entire group and produce polarisations; subvert the objectives in favour of sub-goals; lead people to use defensive and blocking behaviour in their groups; result in the disintegration of the entire group and stimulate a win-lose conflict, where reason is secondary to emotion. Prinsloo (2001) postulated that conflict prevents goal achievement. Deutsch (2005) averred that the negative effects of conflict are characterised by the following: communication is usually impaired, obstruction and lack of helpfulness which lead to mutual negative attitudes and mistrust, parties are unable to share the work, members tend to experience disagreements and critical rejection of ideas proposed by others and that

conflicting parties seek to enhance their own power, and at the same time, opting to reduce the power of the other. Conflict can break down relationships and result in non-productive behaviours that seem to promote self-interest or personal gains rather than consideration of others. Conflict can ruin the stability of an organised work environment and substantially waste time, money and resources (Center for the Prevention of School Violence, 2002). Akpotu, Onoyase and Onoyase (2008) pointed out that conflict in organisations may result in reduced production, lower morale, overwhelming dissatisfaction, increased tension and stress. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) posited that conflict results in poor communications, misperception, miscalculation, socialisation and other unconscious processes. Conflict not properly managed, can result in bad feelings, high turnover, and costly litigation (Hirschman, 2001). And at the most serious levels, conflicts can bring teams, departments and sometimes whole organisations to a virtual standstill (Fritchie and Leary, 1998).

Nelson-Jones (1995) posited that not only can conflict in the workplace cause great stress and unhappiness but it also can lower outputs and in extreme cases, bring strikes. Lippitt (1982) enumerated the negative effects of conflict as: (i) it diverts energy from the real task; (ii) it destroys morale; (iii) it polarises individuals and groups (iv) it deepens differences; (v) it obstructs cooperative action; (vi) it produces irresponsible behaviour (vii) it creates suspicion and distrust; and (viii) it decreases productivity. When conflict is poorly managed, it generates the above aforementioned ideas. In the school system, conflict can also manifest negatively, disintegrating and rendering the system highly unproductive. Van der Bank (1995) posited that if educators in a school are willing to disagree but fight too much without resolutions, objectives may not be met and the school's performance will diminish thus contributing to the collapse of the school. Okotoni and Okotoni (2003) posited that the repercussion of violent conflict on school was disruption of academic programmes, inadequate staffing as a result of unplanned transfer, hostility, suspicion and withdrawal from

active participation in school activities. In the final analysis, government suffers financial losses from closure of schools, while pupils and their parents suffer unquantifiable losses. All these have contributed in one way or the other to a steady decline in the quality of education in the State. Some students resorted to examination malpractices to make up for time lost during conflicts in schools, especially those that have led to school closure (Okotoni and Okotoni, 2003). School conflicts have resulted in protracted disharmony in school staff interpersonal relationship, increased indiscipline among students, disarmed school authorities, clogged channel of progressive communication and rendered institutions of learning ungovernable (Agbonna, 2009).

When conflict is not adequately resolved, or when there is undue delay in resolution of conflict, properties, lives and academic hours of unimaginable magnitude are lost (Lynch, 2000). In the same vein, delay in resolution of school conflict has resulted in disruptions of calendars leading to economic as well as psychological exertion (Ikoya and Akinseinde, 2009). School conflict makes students to completely drop-out of school and create more problems for the society (Ikoya and Akinseinde (2009). Van der Bank (1995) asserted that when educators fight too much without resolutions, objectives may not be met and the school's performance will diminish thus contributing to the collapse of the school.

Owsu-Mensah (2007) indicated that conflict can lead to physical and psychological withdrawals in schools. Physical withdrawal can take the forms of absent, tardiness and turnover, which is often written off as laziness on the part of the teacher. Psychological withdrawal can also take the form of alienation, apathy and indifference (Owusu-Mensah, 2007). Due to school conflict, a teacher may display 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 (Owusu-Mensah, 2007). This implies that school conflict graduates and when it starts, the principal, teachers, parents and even the community which

the school is planted may be drafted into it. This complex web of involvement will definitely attract frustration, stress and cause division among school entities, amounting to demoralisation and consequently lowering the productivity of teachers, that may be directly involved in the problem. Conflict can create cliques in the staffroom, suspicion, breakdown in communication as well as lower teacher morale (Msila, 2012). David (2006) and Onye (2006) argued that there is decreased teacher productivity in school organisations riddled with conflict.

Apart from these negative consequences, conflict can also produce functional effects on people and organisations. Tonsing (2005) posited that conflict can help to raise and address problems; energizes work to be on the most appropriate issues; motivates people to participate and helps people to learn how to recognise and benefit from their differences. Other positive effects of conflict are improving the quality of decisions, stimulating involvement in the discussion and building group cohesion (Ongori, 2009). According to Basaran (1996) some of the most significant advantages of conflict are: to help in choosing a stronger solution; to get employees to increase sensibility and motivation against the problem; to facilitate so as to get them to know themselves; learn how to manage some individual conflicts and broaden their aspects about the matter.

Bisno (1988) argued that conflict results in increased creativity, rethinking of goals and practices, and a better informed and cohesion work group. Conflict can motivate individuals to work harder to come to an agreement and creates the opportunity to express feelings, get points of views clarified, stand up for one's beliefs, motivate for change and new ideas, develop respect for opposing views, and learn new ways to improve relationships (Center for the Prevention of School violence, 2002). Conflict can produce a situation whereby relationship is stronger, you understand each other better, there is greater willingness to meet each other's needs, there is greater trust, you have resolved the source of

future conflict and there are richer perspectives (McConnon and McConnon, 2002). Fakhry and Abou El Hassan (2011) pointed out that a certain amount of conflict is beneficial to individuals as it can increase creativity by acting as a stimulus for developing new ideas or identifying methods for solving problems. It also helps people recognise legitimate differences within the organisation or profession and serve as a powerful motivator to improve performance and satisfaction (Hagel and Brown, 2005). It has equally been argued that conflicts are not only essential to the growth, change and evolution of living systems but are as well, a system's primary defence against stagnation, detachment, entropy and eventually extinction (Reuben, 1978).

Dipaola and Hoy (2001) posited that conflict is necessary for true involvement, empowerment and democracy. This implies that conflict can bring people together to understand themselves, how to relate and what to do to encourage and motivate one another towards achieving set objectives. Robbins and Judge (2007) highlighted the positive effects of conflict as: it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released, and fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change. Conflict challenges the status quo and therefore furthers the creation of new ideas, promotes reassessment of goals and activities, and increases the probability that the group will respond to change (Robbins and Judge, 2007).

In the school system, conflict can equally exert positive outcomes. Heifetz and Laurice (1998) indicated that conflict is the engine of creativity and learning. Squelch and Lemmer (1994) stated that conflict has its advantages as far as the school is concerned. They indicated that conflict can lead to necessary change in a school, such that programmes are renewed, school staff have stronger feelings of unity among them, the maturity of the individual or group is greater, it enhances creativity, trust and communication, a mutual

respect and admirable development between the educators involved in the resolution of the conflict, it clears the air/tension in the school or between parties involved. Sayed (2005) submitted that environment in which conflict is resolved effectively, facilitates the learning process, thus enabling the school to more effectively meet its primary goals. The presence and experience of conflict in the school is considered as a normal phenomenon that should be understood and constructively managed to improve the situations in the school. This means that conflict can have positive impact on the school, depending on the perceptions, conflict orientations of the staff concerned and their management approaches to the conflict. When conflict produces positive outcomes or effects, it is known as functional conflict, constructive conflict or productive conflict. Albert (2001) posited that a conflict is said to be positive when it is constructively discussed by the parties and amicable terms for the settlement reached. Conflicts that exert positive effects create a healthy and conducive atmosphere for people to effectively operate to achieve set goals.

Robbins (1998) argued that conflict is constructive when it leads to improvements in the quality of decisions, stimulation of creativity and innovation and it encourages interest and curiosity. Rahim (2001) submitted that conflict can be functional to the extent to which it results in the creative solution to problems or the effective attainment of subsystem or organisational objectives that otherwise would not have been possible. The peculiar and permanent features of functional conflict are its positive results. Conflict that leads to negative effects is referred to as dysfunctional conflict or destructive constructive. Albert (2001) indicated that a destructive conflict is usually characterised by violence whether in its physical, psychological or structural connotation. Therefore, such conflicts are described by the manifestations of anger, opposition, mistrust, resentment and fear in relationships and interpersonal engagements. Dysfunctional conflict is a distraction. It distracts people's time

and energies from set priorities, making it difficult for them to achieve set goals. Some of the positive and negative effects of conflict in the school are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Positive and Negative Effects of School Conflict

S/No	Positive Effects	Negative Effects
1	Conflict helps to raise awareness about issues affecting the school.	Conflict leads to dislocation/polarisation of the school staff.
2	It motivates people to be part of the solution to school problems.	Reduction of productivity/job performance of school staff.
3	Conflict improves the quality of decision making process in the school.	It results in psychological/physical injury to people in the school.
4	It builds up group cohesion and increases trust in the school.	Conflict leads to emotional distress/trauma such as stress, absenteeism, alienation, resignation and so on.
5	Conflict results in increased creativity and innovation in the school.	Conflict wastes time, energy and money of the conflicting parties in the school.
6	Conflict stimulates new ideas, problem-solving behaviour and change in the school.	It results in health problems among school staff such as heart racing or palpitations, dizziness, headache, dry mouth, rapid breathing and so on.
7	Conflict makes relationships stronger due to better understanding of the other parties in the school.	Conflict leads to communication breakdown and makes school climate unstable for work.
8	It enhances productivity/job performance and satisfaction of workers in the school.	Conflict brings about disruption in school calendar and school closure.
9	It encourages the spirit of self-evaluation in the school.	It creates a climate of fear and increases the level of hostility in the school.
10	It brings about greater maturity and mutual respect among staff in the school.	It results in lose of school properties and lives of its members.
11	Conflict enhances teaching and learning process in the school.	Conflict induces irresponsible behaviour in the school.

Table 2.2 revealed the positive and negative effects of conflict in the school. It suggests that conflict cannot totally be bad, that there are positive sides to every conflict. Therefore, whether conflict will result in negative or positive outcome is a function of the nature of the conflict, conflict orientations of parties, and the conflict management style adopted by parties.

2.2.4 Conflict Incidence

Conflict incidence is the frequency or rate at which conflict occurs in an organisation. The constant nature of conflict in organisations points to the fact that no organisation can escape the experience of conflict. Lindelow and Scott (1989) stated that conflict is surely a companion of life as change, death and taxes. This idea indicates that conflict is a permanent part of human existence and organisational development. It is therefore, obvious that conflict is a common phenomenon in every human activity and organisation. What is uncommon is the frequency at which people and organisations experience it. The variation in the frequency at which people experience conflict depend on their personality, status, nature of occupation and approach patterns to conflict. The school system has been adjudged as a conflict ridden centre, having a high degree of recorded frequent occurrence of conflict.

Spring (1993) indicated that educational settings are even more conducive to repeated conflict situations based on their inherent political, economic and social characteristics. Dipaola and Hoy (2001) pointed out that it should not be surprising that conflict is common in schools and that conflict is particularly likely to occur at the boundaries or interferes between different groups or units within organisations. In a study conducted by Hill (1993) in Vermont School, it was discovered that conflict can occur almost daily within a school setting. Fleetwood (1987) posited that school frequently appears to be centers of tensions; on occasion, they are perhaps a manifestation of problems in the community. The rate at which people encounter conflict will make it to affect their task delivery potential, in the sense that, it will make them to spend much time, energy and money resolving the conflict at the detriment of their tasks. The case will be worse when inappropriate conflict handling style is adopted. According to Fleetwood (1987) school administrators are primarily responsible for the management of discipline, frequently spending up to six hours per day in conference with students who have been referred to the

administrator by teachers, school staff, social service agencies and parents. The foregoing illustrations clearly depict the school as a conflict riddled arena. This is because conflict can occur at anytime and any moment in the school system. Therefore, when emerging conflicts are constructively managed, it will make the system to be conducive for meaningful educational activities to take place. Where the reverse is the case, the school will suffer greatly.

Ikoya and Akinseinde (2009) pointed out that delay in resolution of school conflict has resulted in disruptions of academic calendars leading to economic as well as psychological exertion. This development will render the school highly unproductive. The frequent occurrence of conflict in the school has the tendency to make the school climate unstable, especially when such conflicts are poorly managed, exposing school personnel to hostile interaction and even with the students. School personnel, most especially, teachers are at the centre of most conflicts, and when they are constructively contained, teachers will be stimulated and energised to discharge their responsibilities effectively and efficiently. Therefore, teachers' productivity, as well as students' academic performance and school quality will diminish sharply when teachers are overshadowed by conflicts frequently occurring in their schools.

2.3 Conflict Operational Variable

The elements of this variable are: conflict tactics, conflict level and conflict communication, and they constitute the focus of review in this aspect of the study.

2.3.1 Conflict Tactics

Tactics is limited and particular actions decided on short time basis (Miller, n.d.). Marwa (1998) postulated that the study of tactics begins with the tangibles and how to apply these tangibles is what tactics is all about. He went on to categorise tactics into minor tactics

and grand tactics. Minor tactics is basically tactics at lower levels of command, i.e. sub-unit and below levels. Grand tactics, on the other hand, begins at the operational level, which basically means corps level and above. This latter explanation of tactics is oriented towards military formations and operations. An idea that can be deduced from the above analysis, is that tactics is an action exhibited at the micro-level of operations and it is instantaneous in orientation, directed towards overcoming a perceived problem. Straus (1979) posited that an overt actions used in response to a conflict situation is referred to as conflict resolution tactic. Spicer (1989) defined conflict tactics as overt actions a person takes when he/she has a conflict of interest with another person. Straus (1979) indicated that these tactics vary in degree of coerciveness ranging from the use of verbal reasoning and discussion to gestures and the threats to actual physical contact.

Conflict tactics is an immediate overt response to a conflict situation. The response can be verbal attacks, physical assaults, discussion, name calling, calm down the other party, verbal reasoning, e.t.c. Francesco and Gold (1997) differentiated between verbal and non-verbal conflict tactics. The verbal conflict tactics are: (i) promise (ii) threat (iii) recommendation (iv) warning (v) reward (vi) punishment (vii) normative appeal (viii) commitment (ix) self-disclosure (x) question (xi) command. The non-verbal conflict tactics are: (i) silence (ii) conversational overlaps (iii) facial glazing (iv) touching. The nature of responses adopted by conflicting parties can either lower the intensity of a conflict, and promote easy management or can make it to escalate to unimaginable proportion, making it difficult to manage. It is imperative to note that conflict is not a static phenomenon, rather it is highly dynamic in nature. The immediate reactions to a conflict at the early stage will determine its flow pattern. The graduation of conflict from one level to the other is determined by the immediate overt responses employed by the parties concerned. If the tactics adopted is positive, the conflict will naturally subside and become much easier to

manage, while the employment of negative tactics will make conflict to escalate. When conflict intensity is too high to easily control, it may deteriorate into a violent conflict, resulting in the destruction of lives and properties. Therefore, an early positive reaction to conflict is highly imperative in mitigating it. Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy and Sugarman (1996) asserted that people respond to conflict in various ways which include: agreed to try partner's situation, said could work out problem, showed partner care, suggested compromise to an argument, insulted or swore at partner, shouted at partner, threatened to hit or throw something at partner, called partner fat or ugly, kicked, bite or punch partner, slapped partner, beat up partner, e.t.c. The responses range from negotiation, psychological aggression to physical assault. Spicer (1989) reported that research finding shows that conflict tactics scales measure three factorially separate tactics used in inter-personal conflict, which are:

- (i) the use of rational discussion and agreement,
- (ii) the use of verbal and non-verbal expressions of anger, and
- (iii) the use of physical force or violence.

According to Folger, Poole, and Stutman (1997) conflict tactics is characterised by moves and counter moves which are themselves determined by the power of the parties involved. It involves:

- (i) patterns of behaviours that tend to be sustained;
- (ii) steps taken in the course of such interactions are products of the larger environment in which they take place;
- (iii) a general understanding of the direction of such interactions; and
- (iv) such interaction which impacts on relations between the parties involved (Folger, *et al*, 1997).

Conflict tactics can impact on the collective behaviour of the conflicting parties. This depends on its usage. The nature and ways conflict tactics are employed can either exacerbate

conflict or prevent conflict. When conflict escalates beyond the acceptable limit, it will adversely affect the parties concerned. Hall (2003) explained that under the emotional pressure of interpersonal conflict teachers may find themselves reverting, often uncharacteristically, to instincts ranging from passive avoidance to aggressive fighting that move the conflict further from effective resolution. When faced with conflict, teachers and administrators may attempt to “hide it, quash it, control it, fight it, deny it, or avoid it, but whatever they do, they cannot make it disappear” (Hall, 2003).

Gray, Miller and Noakes (1994) indicated that destructive behaviour as verbal abuse, temper burst in class and violence to teachers and other pupils which also have different disruptive values depending upon the strategy of the teacher managing the class. Apart from the fact that conflict tactics, when wrongly utilised, can jeopardise teachers’ job performance, it can also paralyse classroom interaction. Studies in Germany indicated that there is a rise in verbal aggression with only a low rate of physical violence against school teachers (Schwind, Roitsch and Gielen, 1999; Fuchs, Lamnek and Luedtke, 1996 as cited in steffgen and Ewen, 2007). Johnson (2003) posited that tactics and strategies include attacking others’ ideas and beliefs, offering derogatory remarks and demanding concessions from others. Non-verbal behaviours include glaring or condescending eye contact, an attacking or threatening of body posture and hostile facial expressions (Johnson, 2003).

He added that “intense and tenacious enemies often emerge as an aftermath to this response”. Teachers are sometimes harassed by students, fellow teachers, principal or parents through the use of violent tactics, if they should adopt a “fire for fire” approach, possibly the conflict may escalate culminating in the formation of unnecessary enemies which may negatively affect their productivity. The adoption of a constructive conflict tactics by teachers and principals will help to create a conducive atmosphere for effective operations in the school. When teachers’ conflict tactics are positive in orientation, it will help to

increase creativity by acting as a stimulus for developing new ideas or identifying methods for solving problems (Fakhry and Abou El Hassan, 2011). It can also help them to recognise legitimate difference within the organisation or profession and serves as a powerful motivator to improve performance and satisfaction (Hagel and Brown, 2005). Conflict tactics employed by teachers, as an immediate response to the actions of the other parties, can make conflict to escalate into violence action, or can make conflict to become a constructive element that will improve the existing level of relationship and interaction among teachers.

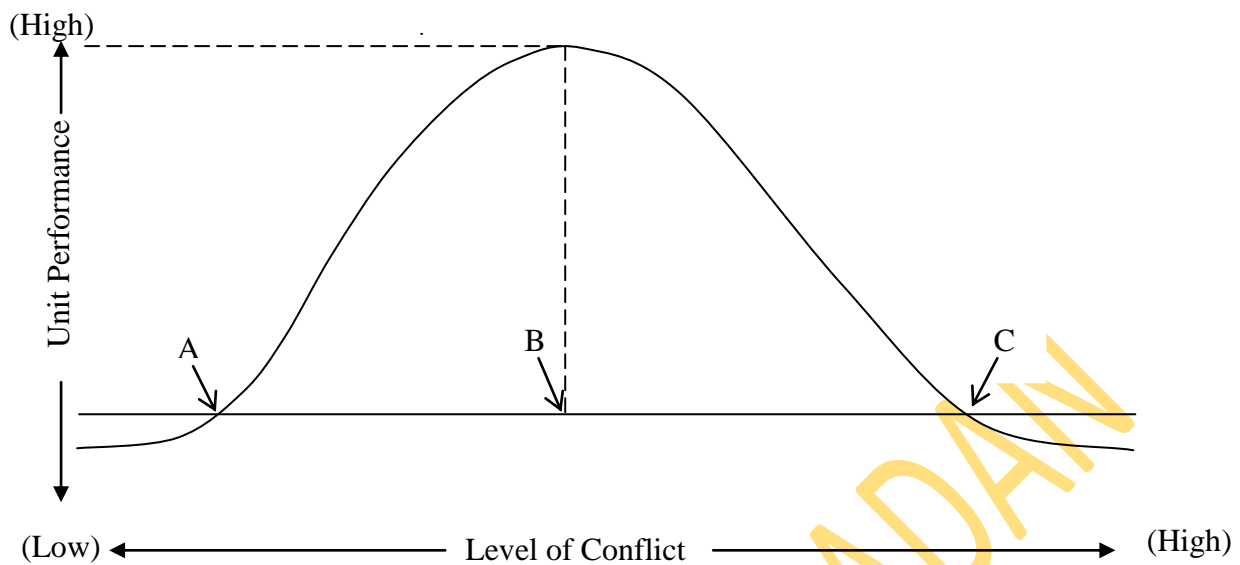
2.3.2 Conflict Level

Conflict level is the intensity of conflict operating in an organisation. Conflict level explains the dynamic nature of conflict as a process. The fact that conflict graduates from one level to another, signifies that its existing intensity at a point in time can be too high, which may render an organisation unproductive. Conflict Barometer (2008) classified conflict intensities into low, medium and high. The dynamic nature of conflict is an indication that conflict can graduate from low level to a point where it will be too high for people to operate effectively, and when this happens the productivity of workers will be negatively affected. At very low or very high intensities, dysfunctional conflict or destructive conflict occurs (Cetin and Hacifazhoglu, 2004).

Schermerhorn (2001) posited that too much conflict is distracting and interferes with other more task-relevant activities; too little conflict may promote competency and the loss of creative, high performance edge. Peretomode and Peretomode (2008) affirmed that when the level of conflict is too high, dissatisfaction, lack of teamwork, turnover chaos and disruption may follow. This in turn will lead to low level organisational performance sometimes, even endanger the organisation's chances of survival (Peretomode and Peretomode, 2008). These ideas signify that conflict is a dynamic and complex phenomenon that has the potency to destroy relationship and impair the work performance of people, depending on the level at

which it is operating in an organisation. Rahim (1986) stated that little or no conflict in organisations may lead to stagnation, poor decisions, and ineffectiveness. On the other hand, organisational conflict left uncontrolled may have dysfunctional outcomes. Therefore, “too little manifestation of conflict is stagnancy, but uncontrolled conflict threatens chaos (Rahim, 1986). This may in turn lead to taking wrong decisions, and consequently poor performance may result. These ideas indicate that the level at which conflict is operating in an organisation has the potential to determine its future survival and development. An optimal or appropriate level of conflict may energise people in constructive directions and lead to maximum organisational performance (Peretomode and Peretomode, 2008). The degree of performance of an organisation is a function of the level at which conflict is operating in the organisation. The relationship between conflict level and performance is illustrated below.

Figure 2.4: Conflict level and Performance.



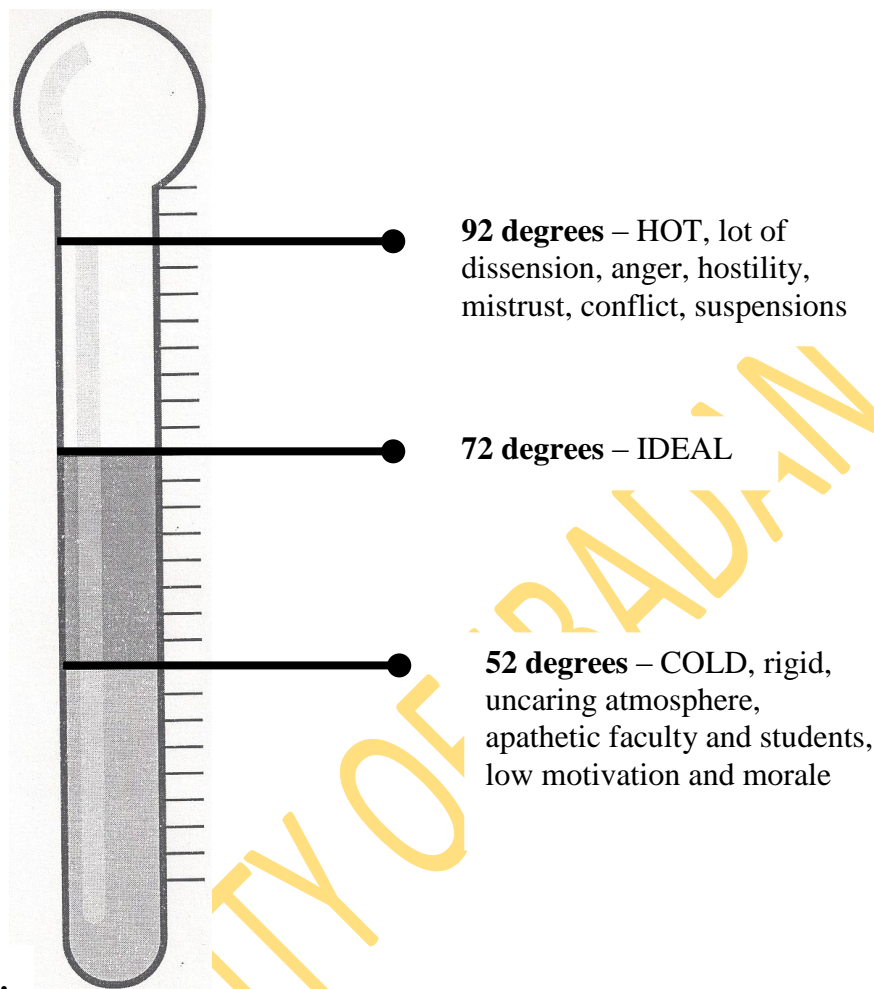
Situation	Level of Conflict	Type of Conflict	Unit's Internal Characteristics	Unit Performance Outcome
A	Low or None	Dysfunction	Apathetic stagnant Nonresponsive to change Lack of new ideas	Low
B	Optimal	Functional	Viable Self-critical Innovative	High
C	High	Dysfunctional	Disruptive Chaotic uncooperative	Low

Source: Robbins and Judge (2007).

Robbins and Judge (2007) indicated that the level of conflict can be either too high or too low. Either extreme hinders performance (i.e. situation A and C). An optimal level (i.e. situation B) is one at which there is enough conflict to prevent stagnation, stimulate creativity, allow tensions to be released and initiate the seeds for change, yet not so much as to be disruptive or to deter coordination of activities (Robbins and Judge, 2007). According to them, inadequate or excessive levels of conflict can hinder the effectiveness of a group or an organisation, resulting in reduced satisfaction of group members, increased absence and

turnover rates and eventually lower productivity. In the school system, the existing conflict level is a prerequisite for determining the conduciveness of the school, the nature of interpersonal relationship among staff, performance of students and teachers' productivity. Where optimal conflict level is evident, the school will experience positive changes which will impact on teachers, students and the entire system for good. Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) posited that whether or not, conflict benefit academics (i.e. teachers) and colleges depends on two factors: first one is the intensity of the conflict and the other is the way conflict is managed. The numerous conflicts that teachers face daily in their schools can affect their level of productivity, when wrongly managed. Iravo (n.d) stated that for every organisation, an optimal level of conflict exists which is considered highly functional as it helps to generate good performance.

When conflict level is too high (dysfunctional), performance suffers (Iravo, n.d). Security is an issue that is also associated with conflict level. A high conflict level will breed insecurity, which can jeopardise the work attitudes, commitment and performance of people. Boucaut (2003) declared that for people to be able to perform their work to the best of their ability, they require ontological security or a feeling of trust that they are safe in their working environment. Dee and Henkin (2001) posited that teachers' commitment to duty is linked to school organisational climate, arising from trust, and team commitment. Insecurity has the tendency to deter teachers' productivity, which will in turn affect the academic performance of students. Insecurity is a visible realistic tendency of a school climate riddled with high conflict level. Ikoya and Akinseinde (2009) observed that they have separately and in consonance reported that students appear to learn better in a school environment with minimum conflict. When the conflict level operating in a school is high, it will heat up the school climate, making teachers' work commitment to decline. The illustration below shows how conflict level can impact on the conduciveness of the school climate.



Source: Sue (1996).

Figure 2.5: Conflict level and School Climate

Figure 2.5 revealed the use of thermometer to illustrate the degree of hotness, ideal and coldness of conflict in an organisation. When conflict is operating at 92 degrees in a school, no meaningful result will be achieved. At 92 degrees conflict level, teachers' productivity will be paralysed, students learning will be distorted, and the school will be totally uncondusive for any meaningful activity. This is a conflict level where the school climate is severely hot, and it is characterised by a "lot of dissension, anger, hostility, mistrust, conflict, suspension" (Sue, 1996) and so on. The degree of hotness generated by conflict at that level will not permit school staff, most especially, teachers to effectively carry out their

responsibilities. This will result in decline in teachers' productivity, and will pave way for the manifestation of poor academic performance of students and poor quality education in a country. 72 degrees is the ideal conflict level for any organisation to operate efficiently to attain its goals. At that conflict level, the school will radiate a conducive climate that will induce optimal performance. This conflict level is considered as optimal level in which organisational conflicts are transformed into functional tools that will enhance performance. Iravo (n.d) indicated that for every organization, an optimal level of conflict exists which is considered highly functional as it helps to generate good performance. Conflict, at this level, is characterised by mutual understanding, cooperation, and amicable resolution of conflict which will result in win-win outcome. A school climate characterised by these features will permit creativity and innovation, which are essential for better performance of teachers. When the conflict level is at 52 degrees, the school climate will be too cold to permit effective interaction. The climate will feature the demonstration of "rigid, uncaring atmosphere, apathetic faculty and students, low motivation and morale" (Sue, 1996). Teachers will find it difficult to effectively execute their duties in such a school climate. Therefore, the productivity of teachers will be low because their morale and work commitment will be too cold to generate the level of impact needed to induce change in the system.

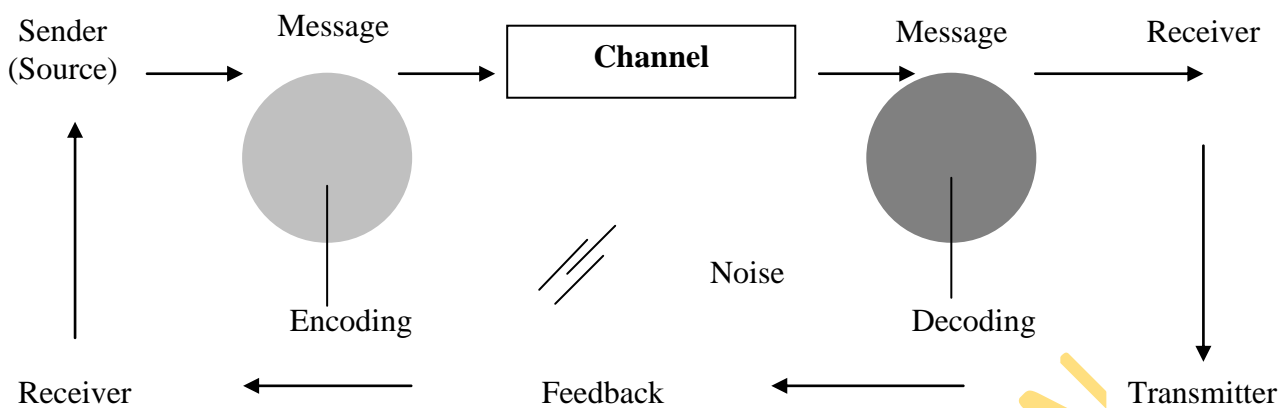
2.3.3 Conflict Communication

Communication is a central activity in any human organisation. It is a concept that is dynamic in nature. It is derived from a Latin word "communicum" or "communico" which means "to make common," "to share," "to impart," or "to transit." Communication in this modern time has transcended these two or three words definition. However, the idea of sharing is still much more relevant in most definitions of communication. For instance, Kincaid and Rogers (1979) defined communication as a process in which participants create

and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding. Galvin and Wilkinson (2006) posited that communication is a symbolic process of sharing meanings. Therefore, “a key to interpreting communication is to find the meanings of messages and those meanings are found in people not in words” (Galvin and Wilkinson, 2006). In the same vein, Fabunmi (2006) submitted that communication is the process of transmitting meanings from sender to receiver. The word ‘meaning’ is used because true communication involves an understanding of the message; and the receiver must get the meaning (Fabunmi, 2006). Shannon and Weaver (1977) defined communication as all the procedures by which one mind may affect another. This latter definition indicate that oral and written communication are not the only means of communication but that visual and body language are also means of communication, which are impactful when using them in sending and receiving messages. Communication is the process by which information is exchanged and delivered between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs and behaviours, including both verbal and non verbal means as well as direct and indirect forms of communication (Hidasi, 2005; and Inon, 2007). From the above definitions, it becomes obvious that:

- (i) communication is a process of sending and receiving information.
- (ii) communication is the exchange of meaningful symbols.
- (iii) communication requires a medium
- (iv) communication is transactional (Oyewo, 2007).

Taking all these together, we can evolve a working definition of communication as : the process of transmitting, receiving and acting upon message/information, thoughts, ideas, attitudes and feelings through mutually agreed understandable/determined codes/symbols (Oyewo, 2007). It is important to note that the major variables in communication process are the sender, idea, encoding, message, channel, the receiver, decoding, noise and feedback. This is presented below:



Source: Ogunyannwo (2005).

Figure 2.6: Communication Process

Fabunmi (2006) posited that communication process contains eight key elements, which are:

- (i) there must be a message (an idea or thought) to convey;
- (ii) the message must be encoded or put into some form for transmission. The sender must organise the message in some coherent fashion;
- (iii) the means of transmission have to be determined e.g oral, written or sign (sight or body language);
- (iv) there is often noise or message interference that has to be overcome;
- (v) the message must be received by the other party;
- (vi) the transmission must be correctly decoded;
- (vii) the message must be understood by the receiver; and
- (viii) action must follow. Sometimes the receiver needs to do something with the information.

At other time, it is just for storage purposes, and specific action to follow later, if any (Fabunmi, 2006). The sender will conceive an idea which will be encoded and sent as a message to the receiver through various channels which can be: writing, face-to-face, speaking, e-mail, fax, telephone, facial expressions, gestures, e.t.c. The receiver will decode the message and translate it and give a feedback. In this process, noise is anything that

interferes with the process and that has the capacity to block the free flow of information. When this occurs, communication breakdown results, which can lead to misunderstanding and in turn conflict. Conflict communication is a total breakdown in the process of communication. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) submitted that conflict is natural, inevitable and a regular part of the communication interaction of human beings. Owens-Ibie (2000) posited that the basic problems of interpersonal communication could be played up and lead to conflict. Adidu and Dedekuma (2006) indicated that communication barriers such as physical separation and language can create distortion in messages and this can lead to conflict. In the same vein, Hocker and Wilmot (1995) posited that communication is the central element in all interpersonal conflict. They said further that communication behaviour often creates or reflects conflict.

In effect, communication is a double-edge element. Low communication, on the one hand, results in low knowledge of others and may underpin coordination difficulties (Wall and Callister, 2005). This in turn, will lead to conflict (Pondy, 1967). Putnam and Poole (1987) indicated that communication between party and others is generally agreed to be ripe source for misunderstanding and resultant conflict. Communication-based misunderstanding becomes especially prevalent if the other is angry, dislikes or distrusts the party (Wall and Callister, 2005).

A major idea that cannot be ignored in communication-conflict nexus is that communication can attract conflict and at the same time can be used as a veritable tool for conflict management. This idea, perhaps, motivated Hocker and Wilmot (1995) to posit that communication is the vehicle for the productive or destructive management of conflict. Therefore, conflict can be induced by either lack of communication or the poor manner in which thoughts and feelings are communicated. Conflict communication has the potential to retard individual and organisational performances. Picchioni and Rose (2007) explained that

ineffective communication, unresolved disputes, and the lack of respect for diverse thoughts and approaches all translate to decreased productivity, strained relationships, and ultimately a work environment that is not conducive to optimum performance. Communication can be expressed in two ways, namely: verbal communication and non-verbal communication. Oyewo (2007) reported that verbal communication consists strictly of the use of words to share ideas or the use of speech organs to produce various sounds or through graphical symbolic representation, e.g. writing. It could also be classified as oral (interpersonal, intrapersonal and group) and written (Oyewo, 2007).

Non-verbal communication consists of other aspects of the message transmitted through other means than words, such as tone of voice, facial expression/body language, format of documents, body space, distance and the manner in which individuals speak (Oyewo, 2007). According to Oyewo (2007), it could be described as communication without the use of words. Therefore, non-verbal codes are often employed either to complement, accompany or convey meaning as well as assist in reinforcing verbal codes. They could also dominate a verbal message as an intentional activity (Oyewo, 2007). In the same vein, non-verbal communication, such as body posture, gestures, facial expressions exist in all culture and are consistently employed in interpersonal relations.

Thomas and Pondy (1977) pointed out that too often one's words, facial expressions, body language, and speech lead to attributions of intent, that in turn spawn conflict. This phenomenon can take place within any culture, and it runs rampant in cross-cultural communication (Augsburger, 1992). The verbal and non-verbal communications are useful means of sharing information daily by people to achieve their goals. However, the ways they are framed will determine the nature of responses that will be elicited. Where harsh words dominate the course of interaction, conflict may emerge and if allowed to deteriorate, it may be characterised by violent actions. Communication and conflict are interdependent, hence,

communication can engender conflict, can escalate conflicts, help in conflict management and resolution activities (Hener, 2010). Robbins (2005) asserted that there is no classification of the sources of conflict according to their importance, it is considered that most of the conflicts are due to communication problems. There are several situations that can be considered failed communication: when communication includes only a part of the necessary information, when it incorporates ambiguous or threatening information or when it offers too much information (either in terms of quantity or too highly coded for the recipient (Robbins, 2005). These assertions validate the positions of Hocker and Wilmot (1995) that communication and conflict are related in three ways:

- (i) communication behaviour often creates conflict
- (ii) communication behaviour reflects conflict
- (iii) communication is the vehicle for the productive or destructive management of conflict.

It is imperative to note that “conflict always carries both integrative and dissipative qualities of communication, contesting the existing meaning structures and renewing beliefs (Aula and Siira, 2010). This “meaning” is co-developed by the members of the organisation; the social domain of conflict is created, maintained and changed through communicative action (Aula and Siira, 2010). Based on this, communication is not an input, moderator, or mediator of outcomes, it becomes the conflict itself (Putnam, 2006). Krauss and Morsella (2000) reported four models of communication that can be used to analyse communication and conflict as: the Encoding- Decoding Model, the Interactionist Model, the Perspective Taking Model and the Dialog Model. These four communicative models focus on the inherent complexity of the communication and how the outcomes of its misuse could accelerate a conflict instead of helping to solve it (Hener, 2010). Therefore, poor communication can give rise to conflict in the school in various ways. For instance, in the school system, communication is a major

pipeline through which activities are carried out. Whether verbal or non-verbal means of communication, both methods of communication are frequently employed on a daily basis in the school. Adeola (2003) discovered that the most frequently used medium of communication by principals is oral communication, and that positive relationship exist between communication style and conflict management in secondary schools. This shows that principals and teachers often make use of oral communication and that the style of communication employed has bearing on how conflicts are resolved.

Center for the Prevention of School Violence (2002) indicated that conflict can rise if an administrator within a school does not clearly communicate what is needed and expected from others, or if what is needed from others is unreasonable. Generally, when fault is detected in a communication process, individuals develop false impression about what is expected. This can lead to disagreement regarding the school's mission, direction, or the objectives and strategies used to accomplish its mission (Center for the Prevention of School Violence, 2002).

Jonkman (2006) reported that principals are to be blamed for most conflicts in the school because they are not transparent and do not know how to communicate with their colleagues. Gumuseli and Hacifazlioglu (2009) submitted that conflict experienced between teachers and school administrators is due to the misuse of information and instructions technologies. Vanderslice (1995) highlighted thirteen communication strategies used by principals: shared responsibility, visibility, relationship, building, accessibility, listening, direct request, humor, giving advice, sharing information, networking, eye-on-the-goal/vision, positive reward and shared problem-solving. May and Devault (1967) indicated that teachers were found using four types of communication strategies in the classroom. These are structural orientation, factual orientation, personal orientation and boundary orientation. They explained that structural orientation was communication in which the

teacher gave much direction and structuring. Factual orientation occurred when there was much recitation. Personal orientation involved a teacher's ability to relate academic knowledge to the students' nonacademic experience. And boundary orientation involved a situation in which teachers established boundaries and kept students on task.

The ways these communication strategies are used are extremely important because communication and reality are linked and that communication is a process embedded in our everyday life which informs the way we perceive, understand and construct our view of reality and the world (Iwara, 2005). When message is sent, the feedback pattern of the receiver depends on how the message was perceived, understood and constructed. Therefore, when words are blended to reveal sympathy and support, when somebody is upset or anxious, the message will be perceived positively and will help to ameliorate the problem, preventing conflict from emerging. When messages are presented in such a way that the receiver feels annoyed and depressed, that will manifest in the way the feedback will be framed. If care is not taken, the interaction may be conflict coded.

Finger (2007) emphasised that the win-lose mindset leaks out in the language used. It can be a war of words with lots of verbal bullet. People can be locked into hostile language patterns. Hostile language opens the divide and creates division (Finger, 2007). Murphy (1994) stated that ongoing and open communication leads to increased mutual respect, resulting in stronger work relationships. Therefore, depending on the nature of the source, message, medium and character of relationship between source and receiver, communication can achieve resolution of the conflict as well as its exacerbation and escalation (Ahuja, 2006). That is, communication patterns used can cause conflict or reduce conflict. When it causes conflict, the actions of the conflicting parties will change, reflecting the use of harsh words. If not carefully managed, it can degenerate into overt violent conflict between the parties concerned. This has the inclination of negatively affecting their functionalities in their

workplaces. Teachers' productivity is a function of the nature of communication that takes place between teacher and student, teacher and principal, teacher and parents, teacher and the P.T.A and teacher and the community hosting a school. When the communication strategies employed are cordial, friendly, and supporting in nature a positive school climate will be enthroned, which will enhance productivity. However, when the communication patterns of school teachers show the sign conflict, the response that will be elicited may be negative, and this can attract stress and frustration on the part of the teachers. This can lead to low productivity of teachers. Communication requires that one understands the view, thought and feeling of the other party, so that a positive and favourable atmosphere can be created, that will support, encourage and bring about understanding, which are necessary to enhance the performances of teachers in schools. Therefore, the way words are blended to produce messages can affect the working relationships of school personnel. Where abusive words are used, it may endanger productivity. Batton (2000) indicated that communication problems can lead to misunderstanding and make conflicts more difficult to resolve. Murphy (1994) stated that ongoing and open communication leads to increased mutual respect, resulting in stronger work relationships. Communication is a vital instrument that can create an enabling environment essential for a decent work relationship that will enhance the work commitment of the parties. However, it can also be manipulated to give room for the emergence of conflict in a social organisation.

2.4 Conflict Management Variable

Before reviewing conflict management variables, which are: teachers' conflict management styles, conflict management styles of principals, school board conflict management approaches and the choice of conflict management styles of principals, the concept of conflict management, conflict management styles, historical evolution of conflict management styles and forms of conflict management styles will first be examined.

2.4.1 Conflict Management and Conflict Management Styles

Hellriegel and Slocum (1996) postulated that conflict management consists of interventions designed to reduce excessive conflict or in some instances to increase insufficient conflict. Best (2006) considered conflict management as a process of reducing the negative and destructive capacity of conflict through a number of measures and by working with and through the parties involved in that conflict. These definitions revealed that the goal conflict management is to reduce conflict level to the point where it will become a positive force in social relationship and institutional development. Therefore, it will not be out of place to argue that conflict is not totally a bad omen and should not be considered as a phenomenon that can be eliminated, rather it should be seen as an element that can be constructively managed to bring about innovation and growth in an organisation.

Conflict management theories remind us that conflicts are not inherently bad or unproductive. According to this view, it is important to ensure a minimum level of conflict to keep the group “viable, self critical and creative” (Fuller and Fritzen, 2007). Rahim (2002) pointed out that conflict management does not necessarily imply avoidance, reduction or termination of conflict. It involves designing effective macro-level strategies to minimise the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflicts in order to enhance learning and effectiveness in an organization (Rahim, 2002). Miall (2007) posited that conflict management is all about how to regulate and contain conflict, but not necessarily to end it. The idea is that conflict is inevitable, implies that conflict cannot cease to exist in human relations, and that the outcome of any conflicting situation depends on how it is managed. Conflict cannot be eliminated or cut-off from being experienced by human beings. The best thing that can be done is to understand it and find ways to transform it into a positive instrument that will bring about growth and development in the society. Justifying these ideas, Bloomfield and Reilly (1998) stated that conflict management is the positive and

constructive handling of difference and divergence. Rather than advocating methods for removing conflict, it addresses the more realistic question of managing conflict: how to deal with it in a constructive way, how to bring opposing sides together in a cooperative process, how to design a practically achievable, cooperative system for the constructive management of difference (Bloomfield and Reilly, 1998). Conflict management also involves the diagnosis of and intervention in conflict with the appropriate styles and strategies in order to accomplish organisational and individual goals (Gumuselli and Hacifazlioglu, 2009).

Tanner (2000) defined conflict management as the limitation, mitigation and/or containment of a conflict without necessarily solving it. Miall (2001) considered conflict management as the art of appropriate intervention to achieve political settlements particularly by those powerful actors having the power and resources to bring pressure on the conflicting parties in order to induce them to settle. Conflict management is also the art of designing appropriate institutions to guide the inevitable conflict into appropriate channels (Miall, 2001).

The latter definition of conflict management has expanded its scope to include the operational activities of states, regional and international organisations other than confining it to individual and organizational levels. Hence, Zartman (1997) defined conflict management as eliminating violent and violence-related actions and leaving the conflict to be dealt with on the political level. Conflict at this level has graduated to the highest stage in which it has become violent in nature, and it is expected that the respective bodies will come up with frameworks on how to mitigate the conflict so that it will not enthrone political instability and anarchy. Wallensteen (2002) indicated that conflict management focuses on the armed aspects of conflict, bringing fighting to an end, limiting the spread of the conflict and thus containing it. It can be gleaned from the above illustrations that conflict management recognises the following ideas:

- (i) certain types of conflicts, which may have negative effects on individual and group performance, may have to be reduced. These conflicts are generally caused by members (e.g. personal attacks on group members, racial disharmony, sexual harassment).
- (ii) there are other types of conflicts that may have positive effects on the individual and group performance. These conflicts relate to disagreements relating to tasks, policies, and other organisational issues.
- (iii) organisational member while interacting with other will be required to deal with their disagreements constructively. This calls for learning how to use different conflict-handling styles to deal with various situations effectively (Amason, 1996; Rahim, 2002).
- (iv) there are conflicts that are violent in nature that requires appropriate institutional frameworks to contain them. Such conflicts required effective conflict management strategies from the state, regional or international levels to bring them to a level where social, economic and political stability of a country will not be usurped to cause regional humanitarian problems.

These points revealed that conflict management extends beyond the application of a mere avoidance and compromise modes. Rahim (2002) posited that conflict management does not necessarily imply avoidance, reduction or termination of conflict.

It is composed of a variety of techniques which include, first, conflicting parties are brought together to establish a mutual agreement. Second, governments or third parties to the conflict may directly intervene to introduce or impose a decision. Third, new initiatives, programmes or institutional structures (for example, elections) are implemented to address the conflict in question. Fourth, contending parties are compelled or coerced to utilise such previously established means. Fifth, government or a third party may use repression to

eliminate or instill fear among one or all those engaged in a given conflict, leading to subsidence (Miller, n.d). Therefore, when conflicts “are reduced, downgraded or contained, such developments can be followed by a reorientation of the issue, reconstitution of the divisions among conflicting parties or even by a re-emergence of past issues or grievances. Conflict management when actively conducted is, therefore, a constant process”(Miller, n.d) and a wide spectrum that covers the entire area of handling conflicts positively at different stages, including those efforts made to prevent conflict, by being proactive (Best, 2006). Deetz and Stevenson (1986) enumerated some factors that must be considered when preparing for conflict management at organisational level.

The factors are: first, the manager must try to understand the type of conflict that he or she will be dealing with. It may be conflict of differing opinions, incompatible roles, incompatible goals, or differing resources. Identification of the type of conflict will help in managing the conflict. Second, the manager must also be aware of the importance of the conflict so as to select appropriate strategies for management. Third, the manager must recognise the complexity of the conflict as this can vary widely. Finally, the manager must also be able to assess the energy and resources available for managing the conflict.

These factors are considered attainable on the account that a manager who has acquired conflict management skills or has undergone trainings in that area, can be empowered to understand what to do, how to do it, and when to do it, so that an emergent conflict can be nipped in the bud in the organisation. Therefore to successfully execute the ideas of Deetz and Stevenson (1986), managers should be firmly rooted in the principles and methodologies of conflict dynamics and management approaches. Conflict management has been defined as a set of skills that can be acquired to enable individuals to maintain stability by applying appropriate strategies to regulate conflicts in their interpersonal relationship or in their organisations for positive results. For instance, Jones (1994) referred to conflict

management as programmes that teach individuals concepts and skills for preventing, managing and peacefully resolving conflict. By acquiring conflict management skills one can be able to identify the “divergence of interest between groups or individuals and the constructive reconciling or balancing of these divergences so that they are acknowledged and expressed” (Johannsen and Page 1996). Davidoff and Lazarus, (2002) submitted that the aim of conflict management is facilitating a process of conflict self reflection and communication, where participants can take part. Kahn and Boulding (1967) stated that the objective of conflict management should be to see that conflict remains on the creative and useful side of an invisible but critically important line that separates the good or the natural conflict from that which is bad or unnatural. Conflict management encompasses methods and strategies that can be employed in conflict situations to make conflicts become harmless for parties to operate as expected to achieve their goals.

There are no best styles because variations in time and season influence their efficacies. An effective conflict management style is one that can reduce conflict to acceptable level that will encourage positive social change. Center for the Prevention of School Violence (2002) posited that a conflict style is a reflexive, habitual way of responding when faced with conflict. Almost everyone has a predominant style but, depending on the situation this style may change. There is not a single best style to utilize; the use of a style may vary from one situation to the next (Center for the Prevention of School Violence, 2002).

Wilmot and Hocker (2001) referred to conflict management styles as patterned responses or clusters of behaviour that people use in conflict through diverse communication tactics. Copley (2008) defined conflict management style as behavioural orientation of how to approach and handle conflict, with individuals choosing a pattern of principles to guide them through the conflict process. Conflict management styles are also considered as a general and consistent orientation toward the other party and the conflict issues, manifest in

observable behaviours that form a pattern and share common characteristics over time (Kuhn and Poole, 2000). The evolution of the patterns into actions and reactions become known as their “style” (Rubie and Thomas, 1976; Thomas and Kilmann, 1978). Hammed (2000) stated that style is a general expectation about how best to deal with the other party. Therefore, the adoption of a style is choosing an orientation, is making a decision about the principle that will guide one through the conflict, it is choosing the degree to which parties will be cooperative and/or assertive (Hammed, 2000). Hocker and Wilmot (1985) raised some assumptions about conflict management styles that:

- (i) People develop patterned response to conflict
- (ii) People develop conflict styles for reasons that make sense to them
- (iii) No one style is automatically better than another.
- (iv) People’s styles undergo change in order to adapt to the demands of new situations.

From the foregoing, conflict management style can be viewed as trait-like skills that contribute to performance and promotion to higher level (Blake and Mouton, 1964). Conflict styles at higher levels can be interpreted as learned adaptations to the role demands of those positions (Chusmir and Mills, 1989). No matter the status, position and degree in which one is operating, conflict management styles are influenced by situational and dispositional factors. This is the reason for the variations in the utilisation of the styles. Researchers have identified various conflict management styles that can be adopted by people ranging from assertiveness to cooperativeness. However, it is important to venture into examining the historical evolution of conflict management styles before probing into the nature and forms of the styles.

2.4.2 Historical Evolution of Conflict Management Styles

Conflict and its management are issues that have occupied the mind and thinking of man from time immemorial. Rapoport (1960) postulated that conflict is a theme that has

occupied the thinking of man more than any other except for God and love. This thinking has given rise to a volume of ideas on the discourse of conflict and how it can be tackled. While conflicts can be managed using various strategies, conscious efforts evolved about conflict management styles in the 1940s. Follett (1940) was the first to suggest three main styles of handling conflict, namely: domination, compromise and integration. She later added two other styles, which are: avoidance and suppression, making the styles a total of five, namely: domination, compromise, integration, avoidance and suppression. Owens (1991) averred that the work of Mary Parker Follett during the first part of this century marked a move from traditional organisation theory of scientific management toward the human relations movement and contingency theory.

Deutsch (1949) developed a classification of conflict management styles which is made up of a simple dichotomy of cooperation-competition. The classification of Deutsch (1949) was based on the idea that conflict is an incompatible interaction between two individuals, where one is interfering, obstructing or in other ways making the behaviour of another less effective. He concluded that the outcome of a conflict episode depends on how the conflict is handled, either cooperatively or competitively. Deutsch's (1949) ideas did not gain much popularity in its usage to determine individual's styles of handling conflicts. This is because doubt was raised concerning the ability of the dichotomy to reflect the complexity of an individual's perceptions of conflict behaviour (Ruble and Thomas, 1976).

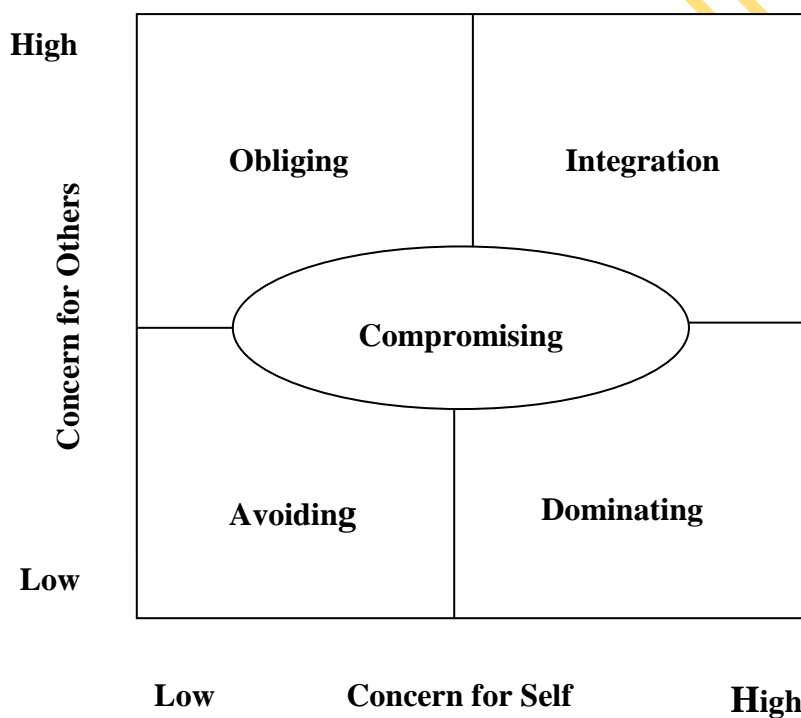
Boulding (1962) discussed three methods of managing conflicts, which are: avoiding, conquest, and procedural resolution of some kind, including reconciliation and/or compromise and/or award. Boulding (1962) went ahead to caution that "the biggest problem in developing the institutions of conflict control is that of catching conflicts young. Conflict situations are frequently allowed to develop to almost unmanageable proportions before anything is done about them, by which it is often too late to resolve them by peaceable and

procedural means.” This statement points to the need for people to apply the right methods to overcome conflicts. Conflict strategies are based on existing situations, and if not used as expected, conflict may out rightly escalate to alarming proportion, causing much harm in the society. While it will not be out of place to argue that the proposition of Boulding (1962) can be attributed to the work of Follett (1940), but the ideas communicated by Boulding (1962) encompassed wider conflict management strategies such as reconciliation and award. These strategies have succeeded to contribute to the expansion of conflict management spectrum.

Considering the classification of Mary, P. Follett (1940), Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a two dimension grid, which was used to evolve five conflict handling styles, namely: Forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising and problem-solving. The two-dimension grid was actually based on the dual concern model. This model was used to categorise the attitudes of managers into concern for production and concern for people. Hence, they argued that managers using problem-solving have high concern for productivity and people, those using forcing show high concern for productivity and low concern for people, managers employing compromising indicate moderate concern for productivity and people, those using smoothing show low concern for productivity and high concern for people and managers using withdrawal have low concern for productivity and low concern for people.

Thomas and Kilmann (1974) used the ideas of Blake and Mouton to develop a model for managing conflict based on competing, avoiding, accommodating, compromising and collaborating. Thomas (1976) amplified the model on the basis of two-dimension behaviour, namely: assertiveness and cooperativeness. Assertiveness indicates individual’s attempt to satisfy one’s own concerns, while cooperativeness shows a situation whereby an individual attempts to satisfy the other person’s concerns. The works of Blake and Mouton (1964), Thomas and Kilmann (1974) and Rahim and Bonoma (1979) are built on a two

dimension model of conflict management, which are based on concern for self and concern for others. The first dimension explains the degree at which a person attempts to satisfy his or her needs or concerns, while the second dimension is the degree at which a person attempts to satisfy the needs or concerns of others. The combination of the two dimensions brought about five scientific conflict management styles, namely: avoiding, obliging, integrating, dominating and compromising. Avoiding style is characterised by both low concerns for self and others, while obliging style shows low concern for self and high concern for others. Integrating style is associated with high concerns for self and others; dominating style indicates high concern for self and low concern for others, while compromising style is characterised by intermediate concern for self and for others. This is illustrated below.



Source: Rahim and Bonoma (1979)

Figure 2.7 Rahim-Bonoma Model of Conflict Management Styles

Putman and Wilson (1982) introduced three-conflict management styles model. This model divided conflict management styles into three variable, namely: non-confrontation (obliging), solution-oriented (integrating) and Control (dominating). The non-confrontation or obliging

style is used to manage conflict by simply avoiding disagreements or by minimising it. The solution-oriented or integration style is used when searching for innovative, creative and integrative solutions. The style can also be employed when one is attempting to compromise. The control or dominating style is associated with persistent demand for one's position through argument or using strong nonverbal signals to press home one's demand. Pruitt (1983) basing his ideas on the work of Blake and Mouton (1964) proposed four styles of handling conflict: yielding, problem-solving, inaction and contending. The styles were equally based on the two dimension model, consisting of concern for self (high or low) and concern for others (high or low). Deetz and Stevenson (1986) proposed five conflict styles that can be used to resolve conflict. The first style is avoidance, the second, pacification, the third style is competition, compromise is the fourth style and the fifth style is creative integration. Avoidance in this case is based on blocking any discussion in connection with the conflict. Avoidance can be employed in such a way that its outcome will generate positive or negative result.

Deetz and Stevenson (1986) recommended that it should be employed when the issue "isn't really worth the effort." The second, pacification intends to minimize or maximize the conflict. Deetz and Stevenson (1986) argued that it should be employed to "subvert that conflict discussion." Hence, the style should be applied appropriately to reduce conflict where it is high and a dosage of it induced where it is non-existence. The third style, competition is based on an individual getting what he/she wants by all means. The style indicates that people will struggle to satisfy their own concern at all cost. Compromise is a strategy that places the parties on the template to feel that everyone is satisfied fully. The creative integration, according to Deetz and Stevenson (1986), aims at breaking "the perceived conflict context by finding options outside that context. This style involves four steps, which are:

- (i) Identify the goals of each participant.
- (ii) Combine the goals of all participants and think of them as if they were all the desires of each.
- (iii) Identify activities and resources that they accomplish many, or ideally all, of the listed goals and needs.
- (iv) Select and implement a course of action (Deetz and Stevenson, 1986)

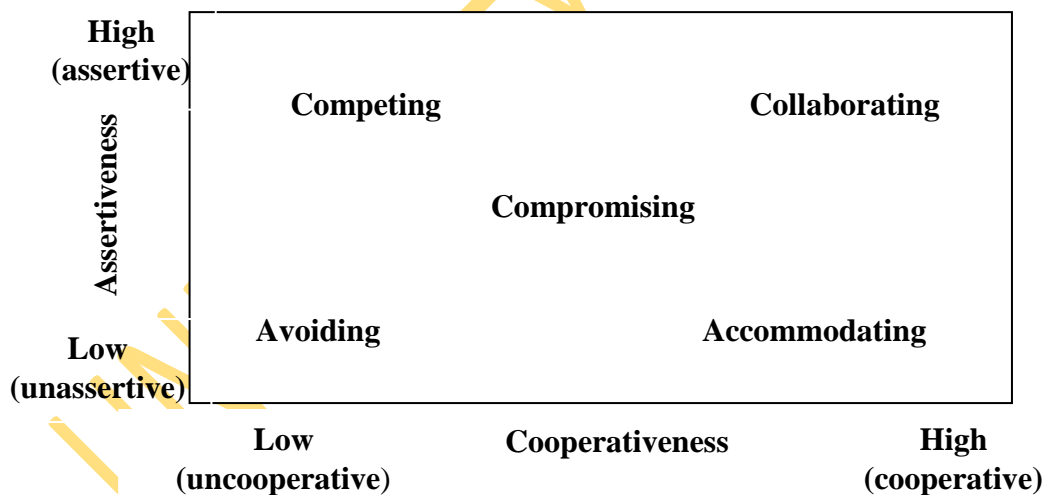
From the historical evolution of conflict management styles, it is important to note that the historical account has not actually explored all the styles that have been developed in conflict and peace studies. There are other researchers who have developed styles ranging from two (Knudson, Sommers and Golding, 1980; Faria, 1982; and Billingham and Sack, 1987); three (Sillars, 1980; Putnan and Wilson, 1982); four (Smyth, 1979; Cheung and Chuah, 2000) to eight (Nicotera, 1993) and so on. One thing that characterises these styles is that they have bearing on the dual concern theory. Although, at certain time the theory has been challenged and criticised (Nicotera, 1993), but it is a major breakthrough in the understanding of styles in conflict management.

The dual concern theory remains the most widely discussed and used in handling intra and interpersonal conflicts. Rose *et al* (2007) stated that researchers are still widely using the dual concern model in studying conflict. Vokic and Sontor (2009) posited that the mostly acknowledged and utilised framework of styles of resolving interpersonal conflicts is the one developed by Thomas and Kilmann (1974) and Rahim and Bonoma (1979), following the work of Blake and Mouton (1964), precisely their managerial grid. In the same vein, Pruitt and Rubin (1986) also support this idea, when they said that although an infinite number of conflict management strategies may be conceived of, conflict research and theory tend to converge on dual concern theory. In this research work, Thomas and Kilmann (1974) conflict management model was utilised in the analysis of the styles because, according to Suping and

Jing (2006) is the most widely used approach in both academic and applied domain. The model is of two dimensions, which are: assertiveness (i.e. attempt to satisfy one's own concern) and cooperativeness (i.e. attempt to satisfy the concern of others). The assertiveness is labeled on the x-axis and cooperativeness on the y-axis. The two dimension model was used to generate five conflict handling styles.

2.4.3 Forms of Conflict Management Styles

The five forms of conflict management styles propounded by Thomas and Kilmann (1974) and amplified by Thomas (1976) will be concentrated upon. The five styles are competing, avoiding, compromising, accommodating and collaborating. Competing and avoiding are stationary at the horizontal axis, which indicates assertiveness and the accommodating and collaborating styles are represented at the vertical axis, signifying cooperativeness. Compromising is located at the intermediate level of both assertiveness and cooperativeness. This is illustrated as follows.



Source: Thomas and Kilmann (1974)

Fig. 2. 8: Thomas-Kilmann Model of Conflict Management Styles

These conflict styles show how people strive to attempt to satisfy their own concern, that is, the assertive dimension, and the degree at which they attempt to satisfy the concern of others; that is, the cooperative dimension. In discussing the styles, one will discover that the avoiding

style is unassertive and uncooperative. The style is low in assertiveness and low in cooperativeness. It is a lose-lose mode and has been described as a decision not to decide. According to Rahim (2002), avoiding style has been associated with withdrawal, buck passing or sidestepping situation. An avoiding person fails to satisfy his or her own concern as well as the concern of the other party. It is a style in which an individual or group withdraws from conflict situation (Hammed, 2002). In avoiding conflict, Bateman and Snell (2002) argued that people do nothing to satisfy themselves or others. They either ignore the problem by doing nothing at all or address it by merely smoothing over or deemphasising the disagreement (Bateman and Snell, 2002).

A typical avoiding behaviour may include sidestepping, postponing or simply withdrawing/ignoring a conflict situation. Lee (1990) explained that this style is useful when the issues are trivial or when the potential dysfunctional effect of confronting the other party outweighs the benefits of the resolution of conflict. Albert (1999) posited that this kind of response to a conflict situation compounds problems as the party that is “avoided” will later seek other means of beings to listened to. Such people usually resort to violence (Albert, 1999). Hammed (2002) posited that there are three distinct variations of avoiding styles, namely: protecting, withdrawing and smoothing.

- (i) The protecting styles emerge when parties are determined to avoid conflict at all costs. They are so concerned that the conflict will surface, that they build a shell around themselves, and in some cases they respond to attempts to raise the issue with a strong counter attack, designed to warn others off. A protecting style involves very low activeness and flexibility. That is, protectors do not want to work with the conflict at all and will accept no attempt to surface the conflict.
- (ii) The withdrawing is the softer aspect of avoiding. In this mode, parties work to keep issues off the table. Withdrawers may be apologetic or address some aspects

of the issues while avoiding others. They may find ways to change the subject or to leave the conversation, but these will not carry warnings. Withdrawing is more subtle and flexible than protecting.

- (iii) In smoothing the party plays down differences and emphasise issues on which there are common interests. The issues that might hurt feelings or arouse anger, guilt, frustration, discomfort are avoided. Thus, smoothing tries to emphasize the positive, to keep the topic on subjects that will take up the time that could be spent on conflict (Hammed, 2002).

According to Hammed (2002), avoiding as a style is useful in a situation when an issue is trivial or more important issues are pressing; when you perceive no chance of satisfying your concerns; when potential disruption outweighs the benefits of resolution; when you allow people to cool down and regain perspective; when gathering information that supersedes immediate decision; when others can resolve the conflict more effectively and when issues seen tangential or symptomatic of other issues.

Therefore, those who intend to use an avoiding style of conflict resolution are ill-equipped to deal with disputes that need some attention. With low concern for their own interest, such people have a hard time representing themselves; at the same time, a low concern for others' interests makes them less able to understand and address other people's problems. Thus, they and other parties to disputes will lack the basic information needed to construct solutions to those conflicts (Friendman, Tidd, Currall and Tsai, 2000). Truter (2003) argued that avoidance is not a successful method for achieving a long-term solution since the original cause of the conflict remains. According to Barki and Hartwick (2001) alternative labels for this style include withdrawing, evading, escaping and apathy. The competing style is assertive and uncooperative. It is a win-lose style. It emphasizes that a party tries to satisfy its own concern and disregard the concerns of other people. It shows an

unwillingness to satisfy others' concern to even a minimal degree (Hammed, 2002). Connelly (1998) stated that this style is a power-oriented style, in which one uses whatever power seems appropriate to win one's position. Rahim (2002) argued that this style is appropriate when the issues involved in a conflict are important to the party or an unfavourable decision by other party may be harmful to this party. In using this style, the competitors' attitude is that their own ideas, values and goals are extremely important and in their eyes conflict is equal to competition and even war (Suping and Jing, 2006). The style involves an attempt to use all kinds of means to defeat the other party. This can be subtle or aggressive in nature.

The style does not respect the feelings and aspirations of the other party, attention is concentrated on self alone. Competing style can be utilised in an emergency situation, where an individual is convinced that he/she is right about the issue under contention. Competing style is rooted in power relationships where one party perceives that it has more power over the conflict issue than the other party or parties (Ojiji, 2006). Alternative labels for this style include asserting, dominating and forcing (Barki and Hartwick, 2001). Accommodating style is cooperative and unassertive. The approach ends in lose-win outcome. This style stresses that the individual neglects his/her own concerns to satisfy the concern of the other person (Connelly, 1998).

In using this style, the underlying value here is that of self-sacrifice which may be a manifestation of self esteem order. In such a situation, the person is meek so that he or she readily gives in to the demands of other people. Other times, it may be a reflection of the desire to ensure personal and social harmony and to preserve relationships at one's cost (Ojiji, 2006). People using this style "give in to demands, even unreasonable ones, to avoid disagreement (Tonsing, 2005). The style can also be referred to as cooperating, obliging, yielding and sacrificing (Barki and Hartwick, 2001). Compromising style is intermediate in assertive and cooperative. It results in no-win/no-lose or win-lose-win-lose outcome. Copley

(2008) observed that compromising style is associated with an intermediate level of concern for both self and others. This style typically involves “give and take” where both parties involved relinquish some aspects in order to arrive at a mutually acceptable decision (Copley, 2008). Ojiji (2006) is of the opinion that compromise becomes necessary in situations where the positions of the parties are so incompatible that the two cannot be reconciled without one of them losing something in the process. This method of resolving conflict put the conflicting parties at the verge of being satisfied with their demands because both parties will let go certain measures of their demands to come to agreement. This is because it often allows each side to gain at least some measures of what it is seeking.

Barki and Hartwick (2001) indicated that the alternative names given to this style include sharing and splitting the difference. Collaborating style is assertive and cooperative. The conflicting parties “work with each other to find a solution that is satisfactory to both of them. It is about dialogue in which the parties listen actively and gain understanding of the other party as well as their own. That understanding enables them to develop a solution that satisfies the concern of both parties” (Ojiji, 2006). Hence, collaborating style results in win-win outcome. Supping and Jing (2006) pointed out that collaborating style encourages mutual respect, open communication and full participation by all parties.

Collaborators believe that conflict itself is neither good nor bad, effective solutions that everybody supports will maximize the interests of all people (Suping and Jing, 2006). Pruitt and Carnevale (1993) is of the opinion that this mode of handling conflict is most likely to occur when there is an expectation of a long-term dependency on the other party. This style can also be referred to as integrating, cooperating and problem-solving (Barki and Hartwick, 2001). The characteristics, when to use and when not to use each of the styles are presented below.

Table 2.3: Details of the Conflict Management Styles

Conflict Management Styles	*Characteristics	**When to Use	***When Not to Use it
Competing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is power oriented in nature. - It results in win- lose outcome. - It is high in assertive and low in cooperative. - Individuals employ every means necessary to achieve their goals. - Individuals gain at the expense of the other party. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When rapid decision making is critical - Where issues are critical and unpopular decisions must be made. - Where issues are critical to the company and the decision-maker is confident of their decision. - In a competitive environment, where you risk being taken advantage of by being non competitive. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Issue is complex. - issue is not important to you. - Both parties are equally powerful. - Decision does not have to be made quickly. - Subordinates possess high degree of competence.
Collaborating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It results in win-win outcome. - It is high in assertive and high in cooperative. - It is directed towards achieving creative solution to problems. - It has the potential of effectively preserving existing relationships. - It promotes openness, communication, understanding differences, trust and learning. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When goals of both parties must be met. - When the process of understanding your own goals and those of your competitors are critical. - When incorporation of multiple perspectives is critical. - When commitment is critical. - When it is necessary to resolve past feeling of ill will. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Task or problem is simple - Immediate decision is required. - Other parties are unconcerned about outcome. - Other parties do not have problem-solving skills.
Compromising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is “give and take” in nature. - it results in no-win/no-lose or win-lose-win-lose outcome - It involves intermediate assertive and cooperation. - Parties to conflict are partially satisfied. - It leads to the achievement of a middle ground position by parties. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When objectives are only somewhat important and disruption is the greater risk. - When strong opponents pursue mutually exclusive objectives. - When time is critical. - When collaboration or competition fail. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One party is more powerful - Problem is complex enough needing problem-solving approach.
Avoiding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is low in assertiveness and low in cooperation. - It leads to lose-lose outcome. - It takes the forms of sidestepping, postponement, withdrawing and ignoring of conflict situations. <p>It makes conflict to remain largely unsettled.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When an issue does not warrant attention. - When potential for success is limited. - When risk exceeds potential benefit. - When reflection is warranted. - When more information is required. - When others can resolve the situation more readily <p>When the issue is related to another more fundamental issue.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Issue is important to you. - It is your responsibility to make decision. - Parties are unwilling to defer; issue must be resolved - Prompt attention is needed.

Accommodating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is low in assertiveness and high in cooperation. - Its outcome is win-lose in nature - It involves a high degree of sacrifice from a party to the conflict. - The views of the opponent are easily considered. - Individuals become useful and helpful to the opposing party. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When your position is indefensible - When the issue is unimportant to you. - To gain favour - When you are about to lose. - When preserving the peace is critical. <p>To allow others to learn from experience.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Issue is important to you. - You believe that you are right. - The other party is wrong or unethical.
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Sources: * Deduction from the review
 ** Thomas and Kilmann (1974)
 *** Rahim (2002)

The effectiveness of each of the styles depends on its potency to mitigate conflict. Hence, no style can be adjudged as the best, except its utility produces the expected result. Each style changes, depending on the personalities concerned and the exigencies surrounding the conflict. Research findings support the idea that people develop stable methods of dealing with conflict (Folger, *et al*, 1997; Sternberg and Soriano, 1984) and that people have the capacity to change and modify their conflict management styles to suit particular situations and circumstances (Folger, *et al*, 1997; Papa and Natalle, 1989). Equally, Rahim and Bonoma (1979) and Thomas (1983) argued that circumstances dictate the most appropriate style. The research findings of Blake and Mouton (1964), and Rahim (1992) showed that integration or problem-solving is the most desirable style for managing conflict. Rahim (1992) postulated that integration and to some extent compromising styles can be used in dealing with conflicts involving strategic or complex issues. The remaining styles can be used to effectively deal with conflicts involving tactical, day-to-day, or routine problems. Thus, the selection and use of each style can be considered as a win-win style provided that it is used to enhance individual, group and organisational effectiveness. These ideas suggest that situations and personal disposition are important factors that determine the adoption of any of the styles, and the effectiveness of the styles depends on its potency to minimise conflict to a bearable level.

2.4.4 Teachers' Conflict Management Style

Teachers are the backbone of any educational system. This is because they are the ones that will convert the curriculum into teachable elements, by breaking it down into units for effective and efficient teaching to enhance and promote students' learning behaviour. The goals of the educational system are centered on the learner, and teachers are the agents of change that will bring these goals into reality in the lives of the learners. A remarkable idea that has pervaded the entire universe is that education is the backbone of national development, and teachers are simply the instruments that will bring this into reality by transforming the innate potential of learners into actual potential through the impartation of knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to make them agents of social transformation.

According to Oguntimehin (2001), despite the remarkable advancement in technology in all areas of teaching/learning process, through the production of instructional materials such as television, computer and so on, the teacher still remains an indispensable most significant factor for imparting knowledge to learners at each level of educational system. Moore (1992) considered a teacher as someone who is trying to assist others (learners) to reach their fullest potentials in all aspects of development. "In trying to assist others (learners)", a teacher experiences conflict with the learners, their parents, the principal, even fellow teachers and the community in general. Apart from this, decisions of teachers are influenced by some factors including conflict between personal and organisational values (Melo, 2003).

The nature of conflicts confronting teachers in the school are intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicts. These conflicts have the potential of positively or adversely affecting teachers' productivity. Kgomo (2006) posited that intra-individual conflict is evident in the individual teachers themselves. And this occurs, "when they fail to identify and select the best goals and choices". Mostert (1998) stated that the cause of intra-individual conflict in

schools continues when professional orientation provided to teachers seems to be irrelevant and mismatches their previous professional positions. The interpersonal conflict that teachers face develops when they interact with people including teachers, with different values, attitudes, abilities and personalities. "People" in this context, represents the wide range of audience which teachers have to attend to as a result of their students or developments in the school. Therefore, it is pertinent for teachers to develop effective approaches to handle the conflict they often face to create time and reserve their energies for meaningful activities in the school. Wrongly managed conflicts by teachers will create room for the experience of frustration. Kgomo (2006) argued that conflict-inducing frustration breeds hesitation, vacillation, sleeplessness, stress and anxiety.

Onanuga (2003) posited that when teachers are at loggerheads, they will use their energy to fight one another and valuable time will be wasted on bitter criticisms, petitions and accusations. The negative effects of conflict on teachers are rather too great to be ignored by the school, government and the society in general. Conflict will waste the time and energy of teachers; bring about frustration and stress, which will lead to physical, mental, spiritual torture, thereby lowering their productivity potential. The dual effects of low productivity of teachers are: poor academic performance of students and dwindling quality of education in a country.

To prevent the occurrence of these problems, there is need for teachers to adopt an effective conflict management style in response to the many cases of conflicts they often face in the course of discharging their responsibilities. Considering the dysfunctional effects of conflict on teachers' work attitude and performance, Bodine, Crawford and Schrupf (1994) advised that it is imperative for teachers to resolve their personal differences amicably to enhance their output in the workplace. It is, therefore, necessary for teachers to understand that, one of the most important facts in effective and constructive management of conflict is

the style used to resolve it (Rahim, Magner, & Shapiro, 2000). Teachers adopt various styles to handle conflicts that they encounter in the school. For instance, Balay (2006) averred that teachers at private schools tend to use compromising, avoiding and competing behaviours than their colleagues at public schools. Cornille, Pestle and Vanwy (1999) pointed out that teachers' conflict management styles were different in all five styles of conflict management from those of a normative group of a business manager. According to them, teachers in urban schools reported being more likely to use dominating styles (i.e competing) with their students' parents than with their peers. Morris-Rothschild and Brassard (2006) posited that teachers that are high in self-reported classroom management efficacy and security of attachment (low on avoidance, anxiety) were predicted to endorse the use of positive classroom management strategies (e.g. integrating, compromising) more than insecure teachers and those low in classroom management efficacy.

Ikoya and Akinseide (2009) found out that teachers appear more involved in the application of bargaining (i.e. collaboration) as a conflict management strategy. The variation in the styles used to resolve conflict is based on the existing situation in which teachers find themselves. This situational factor is based upon:

- (i) the person that the teacher is dealing with in terms of students, parent, fellow teachers, e.t.c.
- (ii) the status of the person, e.g. principal, school board member, e.t.c.
- (iii) the school in which the teacher is operating, whether in public or private, rural or urban school.
- (iv) the emotional state of the teacher during the conflict episode.

These factors determine the variability that exists in the application of a particular conflict management style by a teacher. When these styles are well thought-out and appropriately applied to mitigate conflict, Uline, Tschannen-Moran and Perez (2003) reported that it will

“breathe life and energy into relationships and can cause individuals to be much more innovative and productive”. Hence, well managed conflicts by teachers are likely to serve as a source of strength and locus of energy to improve their commitment and productivity. Where the reverse is the case, the teachers’ job commitment will be adversely affected, lowering their productivity. The ways teachers resolve conflicts they encounter daily in their schools will go a long way to determine their work delivery methods and productivity.

2.4.5 Conflict Management Styles of Principals

Kochhar (2000) posited that the principal is that major component of school administration on whose ability and skill, personality and professional competence will largely depend the tone and efficiency of the school. Dimmock (1999) stated that principals are positioned strategically both as head of the school organisations which are assuming more responsibility; and at the linkage points between their schools, the community and the system with which they are expected to interface. Going by these ideas, “schools are good or bad in a healthy or unhealthy mental, moral and physical condition, flourishing or perishing as the principal is capable, energetic and of high ideals or the reverse. Schools rise to fame or sink to obscurity as greater or lesser principals have charge of them” (Kochhar, 2000). The roles played by principals in school administration and organisation cannot be overlooked, hence, they are referred to as the head of the school (Olele, 1995; Obemeata, 1984 and Okeke, 1985). Apart from being called school heads, they can also be referred to as school administrators. Specifically, the head or the administrator of a secondary school is known as a principal. Olele (1995) considered a principal as the head of a school who is usually appointed as a result of qualification and seniority. According to Olele (1995), it is the duty of a principal “to oversee the proper running of the school in terms of staff and student welfare, development and implementation of educational programmes, provision of proper instruction, school-community relations, discipline and proper keeping of school records.

Okeke (1985) indicated that the school head is the fourth in the hierarchy of the educational organisation. It is to him that should belong the important responsibility of translating the educational policies, laws and regulations into practical operational realities (Okeke, 1985). He asserted further that the vitality of a school lies in the school head, who will stimulate teachers and the pupils to cooperate in order to achieve the aims of the institution and those of the individuals in the institution. The principal is the live-wire through which other elements in the school are empowered by transmitting the current in him/her to them for effective operations. The nature of the climate and culture existing in a school showcase the character, attitude and ability of a principal. The ways they execute their responsibilities will describe the trend behaviour and survival of a school. Based on this, the principal has a lot of responsibilities bestowed on him.

Kochhar (2000) categorised the functions of a principal into: supervision, teaching, management and special services. Aderounmu and Ehiamentalor (1985) indicated that the functions which the principal has to perform include:

- (i) development and implementation of the educational programme.
- (ii) development of teaching staff
- (iii) student relations function. Students activities ranging from their admission exercise to registration and class allocation and meeting other government guidelines are centred on the principal. Hence, the principal has a huge responsibility to promote effective and cordial principal-student relations in achieving educational goals.
- (iv) community relations function. The nature of school-community relationship depends on the principals' approaches to handling issues relating to the community in which the school is planted.

- (v) financial function. The financial state of the school rests on the principal. Raising and spending of school funds are controlled by the principal.

The cardinal roles of principals are the organisation and control of human and material resources devoted to the school. However, the growth of the educational system and consequent expansion manifested in the internal school administration in the recent times has redefined the function of principals to make conflict management a fundamental issue in school administration. Hendel *et al* (2005) pointed out that the ability to creatively manage internal conflict in organisation is becoming a standard requirement. Achoka (1990) averred that although principals have to accomplish tasks such as planning, organising, implementing and evaluating school programmes, one of their inherent and most important tasks is conflict resolution.

Conflict management has become a major predictor of principal's success and effectiveness in school administration. It was reported that at times the principal will act as a recorder, at other times a facilitator, and on occasion, as arbitrator. As a recorder, the principal may never become directly involved in a concern beyond being aware of it. As a facilitator, the principal may assist in finding the best resolution to a problem or concern. As an arbitrator, the principal imposes a resolution of displeasing at least to one participant (Issues for Administrators Series, 2001). Based on this illustration, conflict management has become a central role of the principal in school administration for effective and efficient productivity. Johnson (2003) revealed that school principals devote a significant portion of their time dealing with conflict. Studies have also revealed that 20% (Thomas and Schmidt, 1976), 30 to 40% (Whitaker, 1996) and 24 to 60% (Fiore, 2006) of the time and energies of school principals/managers are spent dealing with conflict. Kgomo (2006) maintained that principals are expected to command good communication and conflict management skills in order to maintain healthy working relationships in the school environment. Johnson (n.d)

averred that the primary conflict manager in the school is the principal, the person who has power to make changes and who is responsible for outcomes in the conflict episode. Riley, MacBeath, Kruchoy and Thomassen (1995) indicated that school “administrators have three possible roles when managing conflict: referee, player and torchbearer. The referee mediates conflict between and within different groups...called on to handle...conflictual issues which have little direct bearing on the school itself. Essentially, the administrator must keep warring factions at bay even if the issues are not directly school related. The “player” is directly involved with the conflict and must make decisions that will impact the school climate and interpersonal relationships. The final role, “torchbearer” is the conflictual role that emerges when the leader pursues values of equality and social justice that may challenge the prejudices or culture of the school ” (Riley, MacBeath, Kruchoy and Thomassen, 1995). The principal, being the conflict manager in the school is an indication that the enthronement of stable and peaceful climate, that will foster an atmosphere of stability, friendliness, efficiency, commitment and trust depend on conflict management capability of the principal. The conflict management styles adopted by the principal can either worsen a conflict or make it to subside.

Therefore, the nature of conflict management approaches employed by a principal will determine the tone of a school in terms of existing relationship among the stakeholders, the students and the teachers. Various conflict management styles exist and are available for principals to resolve conflict for the betterness of the system. Balay (2006) discovered that school administrators are more likely to use avoiding and compromising strategies than teachers. Balay (2006) equally found out that administrators at private primary schools tend to use compromising, avoiding and competing behaviours than their colleagues at public schools. Henkins, Cistone and Dee (2000) submitted that the conflict management preference of principals in large urban school district favours solution oriented conflict strategies. In a

study conducted by Fleetwood (1987) to analyse the conflict management styles of principals, it was discovered that the conflict management styles mostly exhibited by principals is competitive style. The next most frequently used styles are the collaborative and avoidance. Compromising style is the fourth used style while the least displayed style was accommodation. The styles adopted by principals in conflict situations suggest that various conflict management styles can be employed by them. This is the reason why Jonkman (2006) cautioned that there is no best way to manage conflict in the school, but the principal must be able to choose the most appropriate conflict management style for a particular situation. Adeyemi (2009) found out that conflicts have not been effectively managed by principals of schools because of their inability to effectively utilise the strategies for resolving conflicts. The ineffectiveness of the style employed can make the conflict to escalate. When this happens, Fiore (2000) argued that it will lead to decreased productivity, increased stress among employees, hampered performance, high turnover rate and absenteeism. Uncontrolled conflict is often associated with faulty or ineffective conflict management strategies and its effects are usually grievous on the organisation.

Onyeonuru (1996) asserted that a frustrated aspect of the conflict resulting in students' unrest in Nigeria is that the measures adopted by the management of the conflict have proved ineffective, and hence inappropriate. Conoley, Hindmand, Jacobs and Gagnon (1997) identified ten common mistakes by school leaders. At the top of their list, "let's wait until there's trouble," describes the tendency among some leaders to function in a reactive mode, ignoring potential problems until it is too late (Cornell and Sheras, 1998). The implication of poor conflict management behaviour of principals is that it will make the school unsafe for teachers and students to operate effectively and peacefully. The conflict management strategies adopted by principals can affect a whole lot of school members, most especially teacher. Principals' poor conflict management behaviour will weaken teachers,

thereby leading to stress, alienation and poor performance on their part. Hajzus (1990) reported that an imposing or withdrawing conflict resolution style on the part of principals have been found to negatively affect teachers' commitment. Byers (1987) equally found out that a confronting and cooperative conflict resolution style of principals positively relates to teachers' commitment. This implies that the nature of conflict management style adopted by principals have the potential to affect the productivity of teachers. Where the style adopted is ineffective or inappropriate to manage conflict, it will spell doom on teachers, and where appropriate styles are adopted the conflict will be mitigated, thereby encouraging creativity, change and development (Albert, 2001). The conflict management style of principals is important to the extent that it will determine, among other things, what will happen to teachers' job commitment and the serenity of the school climate.

2.4.6 School Board Conflict Management Approaches

Each state in Nigeria has a Post-Primary School Board. It is basically an arm of the State Ministry of Education. The functions of the School Board include:

- (i) the management of all post-primary schools in the state.
- (ii) the recruitment, appointment, posting, promotion, discipline and transfer of both academic and non-academic staff of government-financed schools.
- (iii) matters related to inter-state transfers, continuity of service.
- (iv) inspection and supervision of schools.
- (v) preparation of Board's budget.
- (vi) remuneration of teachers i.e. payment of salaries and allowances to all staff of the Board.
- (vii) the establishment of conditions of service for the post-primary schools, subject to approval by the Commissioner for Education.
- (viii) compilation and maintenance of post-primary school teachers' records.

- (ix) posting and transfer of principals and vice-principals in secondary schools, subject to approval of the Commissioner for Education.
- (x) awarding of contracts within the existing state tenders Board's guidelines and regulations (Atuma and Peretomode, 1995).

Connelly Jr.(1998) observed that four types of school boards can be identified:

- (i) dominated school boards which are controlled by an elite power structure;
- (ii) factional school boards which are high conflict boards with sharp value differentiations;
- (iii) status-congruent school boards which have a high degree of concern about training children to enter occupations that require a high level of schooling; and
- (iv) sanctioning school boards which are ideologically homogeneous, have no sense of purpose and confine their energy to one community activity.

The school board in Nigeria can possibly be classified under the first type of school board. This is based on the roles they carry out. Therefore, judging from the objectives and composition of the board, one can conclude that it is a conflict-inducing and mitigating body. As a body responsible for the recruitment, appointment, posting, promotion, discipline and transfer of school personnel, it can easily attract conflict in the school. This is because the aforementioned responsibilities are issues that breed conflict in the school.

McGuire (1984) posited that there is a pessimistic conclusion that conflict may be an integral aspect of the school board's operations. According to McGuire (1984) the bases of conflict are inherent in the school board's function and method of governance. On the composition of the board, Keegan and Finn (2004) observed that school boards...often resemble a dysfunctional family; composed of three un-loveable types: (i) aspiring politicians for whom this is a rung on the ladder to higher office; (ii) former employees of the school system with a score to settle; and (iii) single-minded advocates of one dubious cause or

another who yearn to use the public schools to impose their particular bang-up on all the kids in town. This explains the fact that the composition of school board is made up of people with diverse backgrounds, variation in ideological orientations, mode of operations, values and belief systems. Due to their make-up and differences, Duhamel (2007) concluded that school boards are an imperfect institution as are municipal, provincial and federal governments. The factors that inherently made them to be termed “imperfect” are highly tantamount to provoking conflict in the board, as well as in the school. Grissom (2010) asserted that school board conflict has negative consequences for board decision-making and board relationships with the superintendent, as well as negative consequences for the organisation as a whole.

Equally, it also appears that the negative implications of board may extend to more distant parts of the organisation and may influence organisational outcomes (Grissom, 2010). Wirt and Kirst (1992) pointed out that conflict between the superintendent and school board can have profound effects on the functioning of the school system. According to Goodman, Fulbright and Zimmerman (1997) districts with negative relationships, poor communication and lack of trust among the board and superintendents also had lower student achievement.

Grissom (2010) demonstrated that the relationship between school board with organisational outcomes (teacher turnover and student performance) is indirect and both turnover and student outcomes are affected by a large number of factors. These illustrations signify that school board conflict has the potential of affecting the productivity of teachers, which will in turn affect the performance of students, as well as the quality of education. McGuire (1984) posited that an important analytical and practical concern must be how school districts can accommodate their diversity and make constructive use of the debates which arise, in other words, how conflict can be managed to the benefit of the educational system. This is a call for the adoption of appropriate conflict management framework to

resolve conflicts that often confront school board for the growth and development of the educational system. Adopting the right conflict management framework is highly imperative for the school board, because emerging conflict in their circle has the tendency not only to polarise them and make them to head against themselves, individually or in group, but also to destabilise and paralyse the entire educational system. In fact, of all the conflicts that teachers can experience, school board conflict happens to be a major one that can immediately enthroned fear, stress, emotional trauma, headache and fever on teachers. The effective management of conflict involving the school board and school personnel becomes an essential issue in sustaining the quality of education in a country. To achieve this depends on the style of conflict management often employed by the board in handling emerging conflicts within and from outside the board. In fact, this is essential because Wirt and Kirst (1992) stated that the present day school leaders, including superintendents and board members, experience conflict daily in their decision making capacities.

Connelly, Jr. (1998) indicated that how conflict management style selection is perceived within the dyad of superintendent and school board president remains the questions which may have a powerful influence on the success of the educational institution. The school board conflict management approaches play important roles in the success or failure of education in a country. Ikoya and Akinseinde (2009) reported that school board members show preference in the application of avoiding as a conflict management strategy in the school system. McGuire (1984) indicated that cooperative and integrative or problem-solving were emphasised more by the school board. He stated further that several conditions facilitated the adoption of these approaches, which are: homogeneous in socioeconomic status and in educational philosophy. The existing situation and the disposition of the board members play a vital role in the choice of a conflict management style. All the five handling styles can be employed by the board depending on some existing factors in terms of the

person involved, the nature of the conflict and the state of the board members. Therefore, teachers' productivity rest heavily on the mercy of the school board, in terms of conflict handling approaches that will be adopted to deal with school conflicts. Based on this, teachers' productivity and students' performance are some of the school elements that will instantaneously be affected by school board conflict intervention patterns.

2.5 Choice of Conflict Management Styles of Principals

Conflict management styles adopted by principals are influenced by a number of factors. This probably accounts for the reason why different styles are employed even by a person on different conflict episodes. Thomas (1983) noted that conflict-handling behaviour is shaped by a variety of structural variables such as personal predispositions, rules, procedures, incentives, organizational norms, constituent pressures and so on. Hocker and Wilmot (1995) stressed that the three possible situational variables that could influence style, which are:

- (i) nature of the conflict
- (ii) one's success with the style in similar situations; and
- (iii) situational constraints such as the nature of the organisation.

Putnam and Wilson (1982) averred that employee used different conflict styles depending on the peer relationship involved in the situation. Peer relationship is a relationship that exists between people of same age bracket. Chang and Holt (1991) posited that inter-relationship is not only a tool used to avoid conflicts, but also as a social resource used in resolving conflicts among people. In other words, inter-relationship are "potential power in persuasion, influence and control"(Chung, 1991). Interrelationship, whether as in peer, friends, families, supervisor/subordinate, teacher-teacher, principal-teacher, e.t.c. help to determines the nature of styles that will be employed when conflict occurs. Campbell (2003) asserted that an individual's cultural and family traditions, personality and life experience all shape the ways

in which he or she handles conflict. Studies have also shown that the use of conflict management styles vary from one cultural background to another. For example, Ting-Toomey, Gao, Trubisky, Yang, Kim and Lin (1991) reported that Asian-Americans generally respond to conflict with accommodating and collaborative approaches via cultural values of reserved behaviour with regard to emotional expression and emphasised concern for preserving “face”. The power inherent in cultural practices of a people cannot be overlooked when determining the level of influence it can exert on the behaviours of those concerned.

Therefore, the approach people adopt during conflict period can be influenced by their cultural practices. Another factor that can influence conflict management styles is status. Status reflects the position or rank, which an individual occupies in any organisation. Green, Brewer, Mitchell and Weber (2002) stated that upper organisational status individuals were higher on the integrating style (i.e collaborating) while the lower status individuals reported greater use of avoiding and obliging styles. Munduate, Luque and Barron (1997) stated that the style of conflict management depends on whether the conflict is with a superior, a subordinate or a peer. It has been shown that subjects adopt a style of domination in the resolution of differences with subordinates (Philips and Cheston, 1979 and Lee, 1990); while they adopt a compromising style when both parties in a conflict situation hold a similar share of power among peers (Lee, 1990; Philips and Cheston 1979).

Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) found out that extraversion has a positive relationship with dominating, while agreeableness and neuroticism have negative relationships with dominating. Extraversion, openness and conscientiousness have a negative relationship with avoiding, while agreeableness and neuroticism have a positive relationship with avoiding (Antonioni, 1998). Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) indicated the role played by gender on conflict management styles. They indicated that masculine individuals were highest on the dominating conflict style, whereas feminine individuals were highest on the avoiding style

and the androgynous individuals on the integrating style (Cetin and Hacifazlioglu 2004). The review showed that the choice of conflict management styles are determined by a wide range of variables. These include the degree of relationship, the cultural practice one is associated with, the personality and life experiences of people, status or position occupied by one, gender, power and expectations in the conflict. All these factors equally influence the behaviour of principals in the use of any of the style. Abacioglu (2005) discovered that the analysis of correlations between principals' use of conflict management style and demographic variables of school type, gender, the school from which the principal graduated and the years of experience were statistically significant, which means that the identified variables determine principals' choice of conflict handling styles.

Urah (1997) discovered that sex influences the conflict management styles of primary school head teachers and the teachers. Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) found out that academics with 11-20 years of experience accommodate more. The authors indicated that the reason "might be that the older they get the more collaborative they become." This implies that work experience and age of principals play a fundamental role in the determination of the choice of conflict management styles by school personnel. Hendel, *et al* (2005) posited that leadership style and choice of conflict management strategies may strongly influence outcomes of a conflict. The choice of conflict management styles by school principals can affect teachers' productivity most especially, when due consideration is not observed before the choice is made.

2.6 Gap in Literature

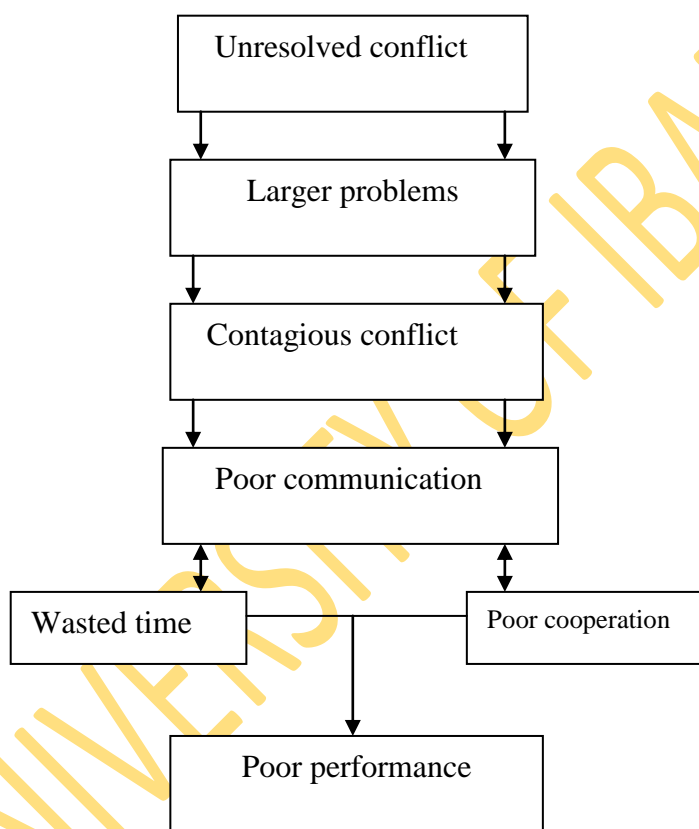
The review revealed that conflict is inherently a part and parcel of the educational system. And that the educational system is highly susceptible to conflict than any other social institution. The uniqueness of this study is based on the fact that while ethnic conflict, religious conflict, indigene-settler quagmire, and electoral violence have attracted greater

attention around the world, school conflict is yet to be given the deserved attention in its exploration, most especially, in Africa and Nigeria in particular. The review indicated that majority of the authors cited are of foreign extractions, and the few home based scholars cited were from the Southern part of the country. Hence, none has been carried out that directly reflects the situation in the Northern part, at least, on the topic under consideration. This study has a Northern origin, therefore, it will fill the lacuna so created in the understanding of the issues of conflict and its management in the educational system from that part of the country. Also, majority of the research works reviewed that indicated the impacts of conflict on teachers were foreign based. The local ones dwell purely on the issues of conflict handling styles of principals and teachers. This study, therefore, will fill the gap created, by examining the correlation between conflict variables and teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State, Nigeria.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

The theories that support this study are the traditional theory of conflict, the human relations and interactionist theories of conflict. The traditional theory which is one of the classical theory of conflict is based on the idea that conflicts are bad and should be avoided by all means because "it indicates a malfunctioning within the group" (Robbins, 1996). The traditional theory of conflict was consistent with the attitudes that prevailed about group behaviour in the 1930s and 1940s. Conflict was seen as a dysfunctional outcome resulting from poor communication, a lack of openness and trust between people, and the failure of managers to be responsive to the needs and aspirations of their employees (Robbins, 1996). Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) noted that the classical theorists believed that conflict produced inefficiency and was therefore undesirable, even detrimental to the organisation and should be eliminated or at least minimised to the extent possible. This theory considered conflict as a bad omen in organisational development and recommended a conflict

management approach that is centered on avoidance. According to Truter (2003) avoidance is not a successful method for achieving a long-term solution since the original cause of the conflict remains. Therefore, using this style make conflicts to be largely unresolved and unresolved conflict leads to poor performance or productivity. Knippen and Green (1999) pointed out that unresolved conflicts tend to grow into bigger conflicts, the more it grows, the greater the chance of causing more conflict. The implication of unresolved conflict on performance is illustrated below.

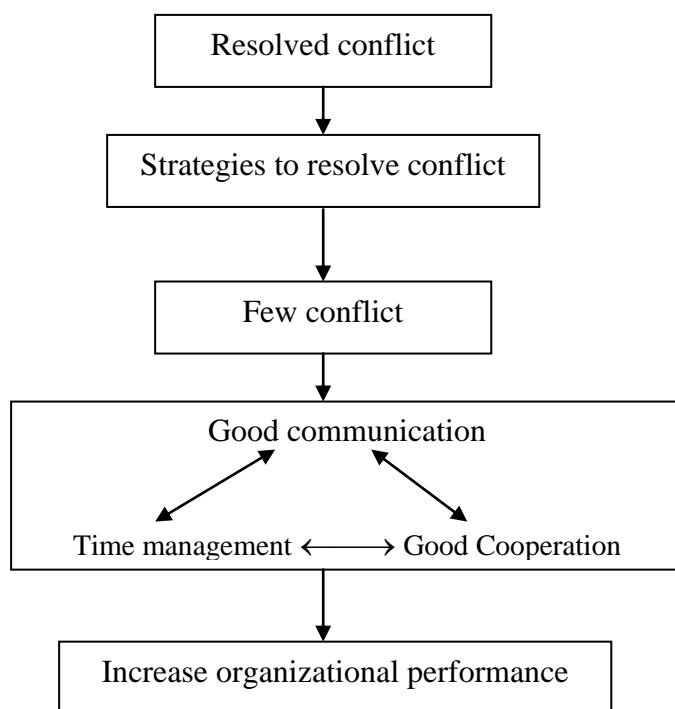


Source: Knippen and Green (1999)

Figure 2.9: Unresolved Conflict and Performance

Figure 2.9 revealed that the end product of unresolved conflict is poor performance. Various styles of conflict management are adopted in the school system to resolve conflicts. Hence, school personnel can employ avoidance style in managing conflicts in schools, if a thorough consideration is not given to its adoption, it may give rise to poor productivity of teachers, which will consequently lead to poor academic performance and poor quality education in the

country. The contemporary theory of conflict is a composition of the human relations theory of conflict and the interactionist theory of conflict. The human relations theory believes that conflict is an inevitable element in social relations. Hence, the theory stipulates that conflict cannot be eliminated. The human relations view dominated conflict theory from the late 1940s through the mid-1970s (Robbins, 1996). Tonsing (2005) argued that this theory sees conflict as a natural and inevitable outcome when people work together in groups and teams and need not be negative. This is based on the ground that conflict cannot be eliminated and there are even times when conflict may benefit a group's performance. The interactionist theory of conflict did not only accept the fact that conflict is a natural part of social interactions, it also established that a given dosage of conflict is required for the success of organisations. Robbins (1996) stated that the interactionist approach encourages conflict on the grounds that a harmonious, peaceful, tranquil, and cooperative group is prone to becoming static, apathetic, and non-responsiveness to needs for change and innovation. The major contribution of the interactionist approach, therefore, is encouraging group leaders to maintain an ongoing minimum level of conflict-enough to keep the group viable, self-critical and creative (Robbins 1996). The contemporary theory recognises the need to understand conflict variables in organisations in order to evolve conflict management strategies that can tackle conflict whenever it occurs for increased productivity in organisations. The impact of resolving conflict constructively on organisational performance is illustrated in Figure 2.10.



Source: Knippen and Green (1999)

Figure 2.10: Resolved Conflict and Performance

Figure 2.10 showed that when conflict is resolved, it increases organisational performance. These theories of conflict, most especially, the contemporary theory explains the fact that conflict is a constant phenomenon in any social relations, and that conflict is not totally bad, but can be transformed into a positive force for the development of relationships and organisations. These theories tried to enlighten people that the outcome of a conflict is a function of the conflict orientations of the parties and the conflict management styles adopted to handle such a conflict. These theories, most especially the contemporary theories, are relevant to this study in the sense that they addressed the ways conflict should be perceived in organisations to bring about its development. Therefore, the theories established that conflict is an inevitable phenomenon in organisations. Hence, the issue that conflict should be eliminated is unthinkable. It is therefore, imperative for organizational leaders to evolve and devise methods capable of reducing conflict to a level that it will become a positive instrument for organisational development. Secondary schools are social organisations,

hence, they are not immune from the experience of conflict. Various forms and magnitudes of conflict exist in the school. Therefore, it is expected of school personnel, most especially, principals and teachers to understand the approaches that can be adopted to tackle conflict, so that it can be constructively managed to enhance teachers' productivity.

2.8 Conflict Variable Model

The model showcases conflict variable which are: conflict communication, conflict level, conflict definition, conflict incident, conflict tactics and conflict management style. These variables individually manifest in various ways in the school, depending on the perceptions and dispositions of the parties concerned. Hence, the model shows the relationship among the conflict variables and teachers' productivity. It indicates that conflict can be initiated in the school system as a result of breakdown in communication process. When this happens, the continued occurrence of conflict will depend on how it is defined and perceived, to invoke the nature of tactics that will be employed. Therefore, where the conflict is wrongly perceived and responded to, it will assume a level, which will continue to escalate until intervention is carried out. Apart from this, when conflict is wrongly defined, it will be difficult to determine the best approach for its management. This development is capable of making conflict to take a dangerous dimension which will halt the good relationship of the parties concerned.

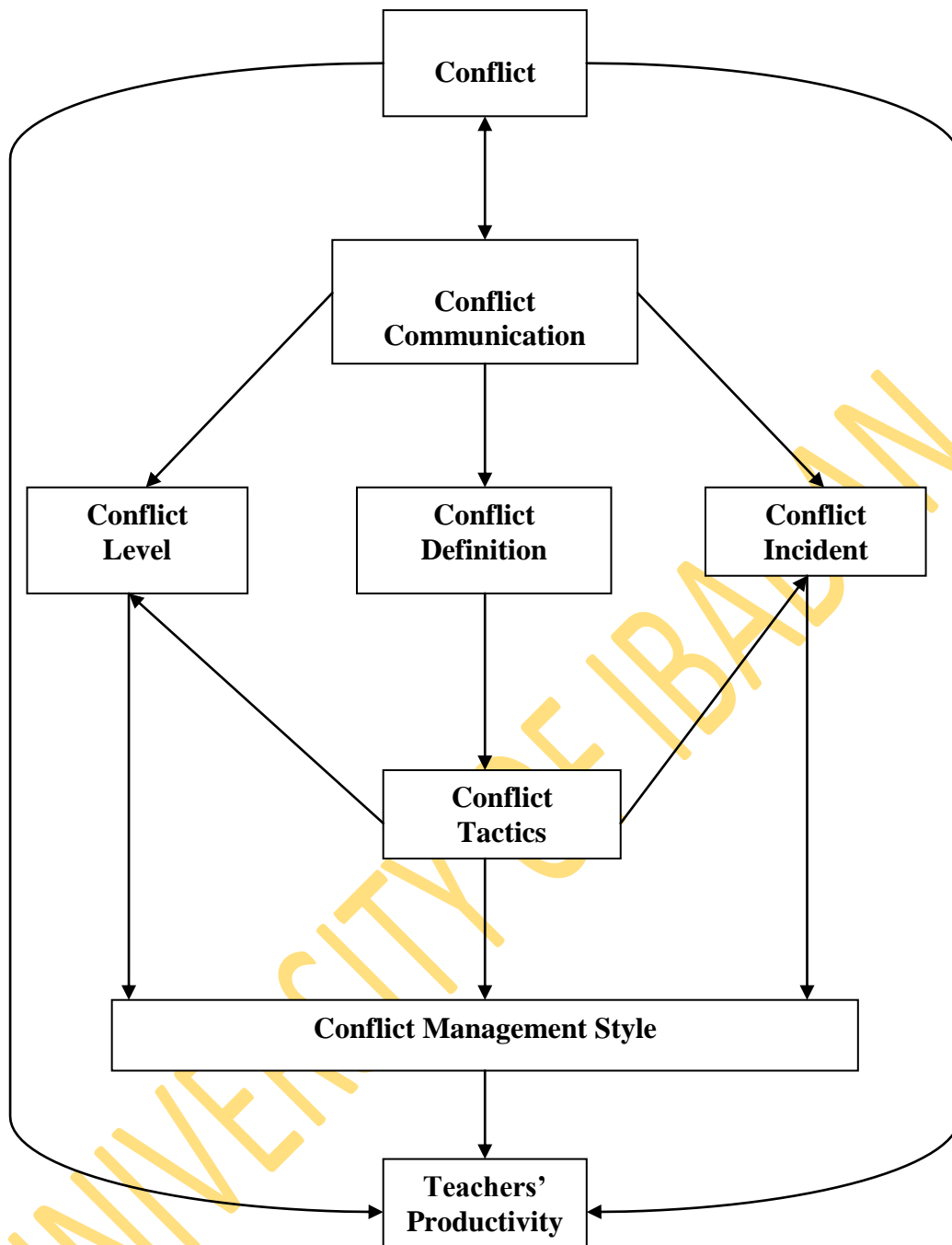


Figure 2.11: Conflict Variable Model

On the other hand, when conflict is properly defined, it will give room for easy identification of the appropriate conflict management styles that will be employed for its effective management in order to improve teachers' productivity.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methods and procedures employed in the course of the study are discussed below.

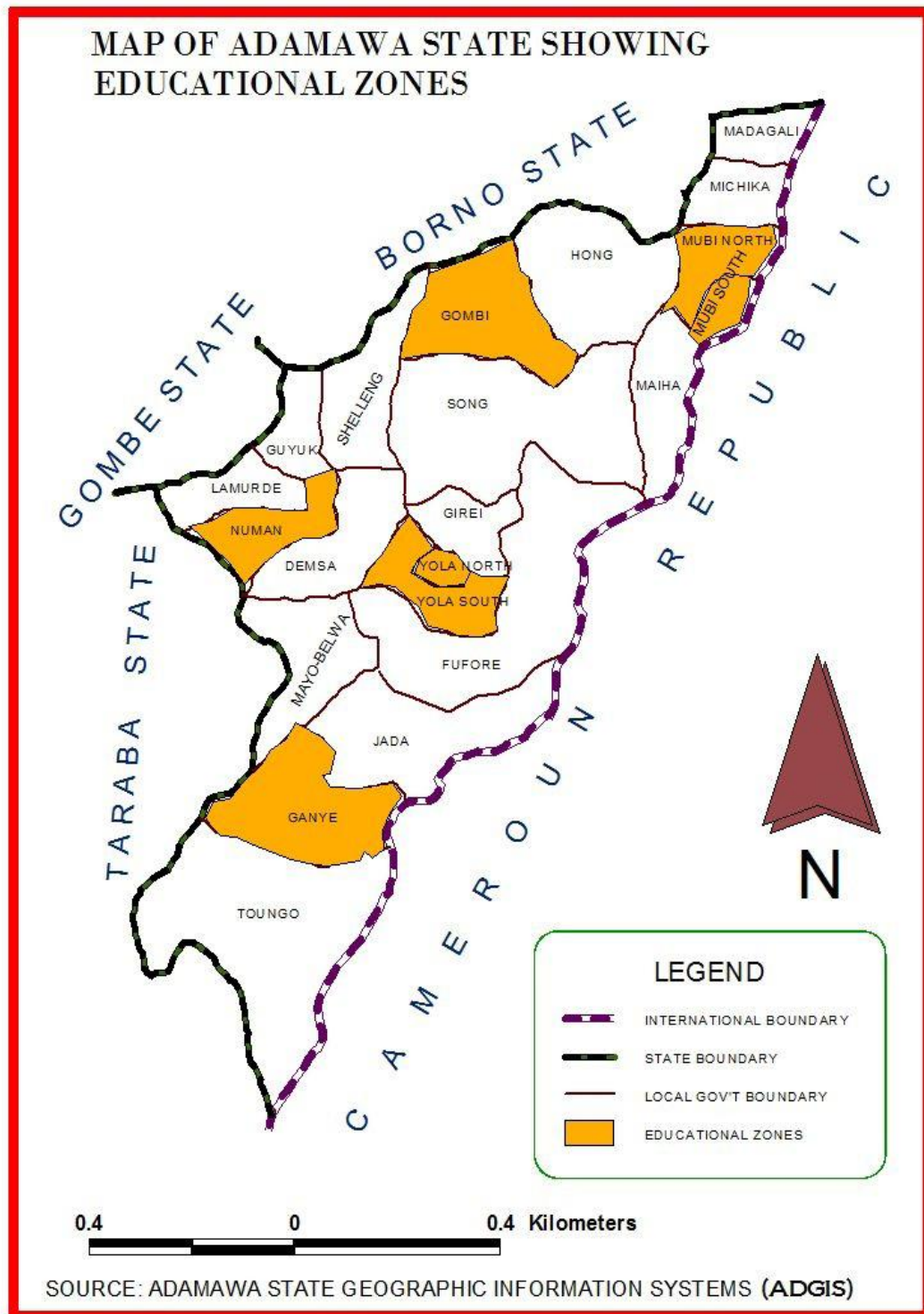
3.1 Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive survey design. It was conducted ex-post-facto. Nwankwo (1984) posited that ex-post-facto research is a research in which the independent variable or variables have already occurred and in which the researcher starts with the observation of a dependent variable or variables. He then studied the independent variables in retrospect for their possible relations to, and effects on, the dependent variable or variables. The design was used to enable the researcher identify and describe the conflict variables, and be able to determine their relationship with teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

3.2 Study Area

The geographical area of the study is Adamawa State. The state is located in the North-Eastern part of Nigeria. It lies between latitude 7° and 11° N of the equator and between longitude 11° and 14° E of the Greenwich Meridian. It shares boundary with Taraba State in the south, Borno in the north, Gombe in the west and Republic of Cameroon in the east. The state covers a land area of about 38, 741km² with a population of 3,168,101 people based on the 2006 census. The main religions of the state are: Christianity, Islam and Traditional Religion. The state is noted for its cultural diversity and the principal towns in the State are: Yola, Numan, Mubi, Hong, Gombi, Ganye, Song, Girei, Demsa, Shelleng, Fufore, Michika, Toungo e.t.c. It has 21 local government areas, 37 development areas and five (5) educational zones. The educational zones are: Yola, Numan, Ganye, Mubi and Gombi.

Figure 3.1 Map of the Educational Zones



The state has various educational agencies that guide in the proper conduct of education, such as School Board, Universal Basic Education Commission, Local Government Educational Authority, etc. The map shown in Figure 3.1 above revealed the educational zones used in the study.

3.3 Study Population

The population of the study is composed of all the principals totaling two hundred and twenty nine (229) and teachers totaling six thousand, three hundred and eight five (6,385) in secondary schools in Adamawa State. Equally, five (5) members of staff of the School Board and three (3) executive members of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) also formed component part of the population of the study.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample of the study was made up of one thousand five hundred and ninety seven (1,597) teachers, indicating 25% of the total population and seventy six (76) principals, indicating 33% of the total population selected from public secondary schools in Adamawa State. Also, five (5) staff of the School Board and three (3) executive members of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) were equally selected through purposive sampling technique. The parameters that guided the use of the purposive sampling technique are the experience and area of operations of respondents. The staff of the School Board involved in the study were mainly those that directly deal with secondary schools operations in the state. The executive members of the NUT are part of the teachers but because of their positions in the NUT, they were interviewed to determine their opinions in relation to the objectives of study. Therefore, a multi-stage sampling technique was used to select the respondents for the study. The stages are showed in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: Sample Size of the Study

S/No	Educational Zone	No. of Teachers	25% of Teachers	No. of Secondary Schools selected for sampling	No. of Principals selected
1	Numan	904	226	20	13
2	Yola	1826	457	25	20
3	Gombi	1655	414	24	18
4	Mubi	1392	348	22	16
5	Ganye	608	152	16	9
Total	5	6385	1597	107	76

Table 3.1 revealed the sample size of the study. A total of seventy six (76) principals and one thousand five hundred and ninety seven (1,597) teachers were selected from secondary schools in the five educational zones, which are Yola, Gombi, Ganye, Numan and Mubi in Adamawa State. The secondary schools where sample were drawn are indicated, and the total number of principals and teachers selected in each of the zone were equally highlighted. Thereafter, secondary schools that are accessible and that have a population of more than twenty (20) teachers were selected for sample in the study.

3.5 Instruments of Data Collection

Conflict Variables and Teachers' Productivity Scale (CVTPS) and Indepth Interview (IDI) were the main instruments used to gather data for the study. Also, Principal conflict Questionnaire (PCQ) was used to elicit information from the principals. The Scale was divided into six sections. Section A dealt with the background information of the respondents. Section B treated the issues of conflict definition, causes and effects of conflict in secondary schools. Section C contained statements on conflict level and conflict incident. Conflict tactics and conflict management styles were treated in section D. Section E raised

statements bordering on conflict communication and teachers' productivity, and Section F was designed to elicit information about the school board conflict management approaches. The Principal Conflict Questionnaire (PCQ) was divided into four sections. Section A dealt with background information. Section B treated the issue of conflict management styles of principals. Statements on factors influencing the choice of conflict management styles was contained in section C and section D dealt with principals' opinion on teachers' productivity in their schools. Also, Indepth Interview (IDI) was used to generate information from the staff of the School Board and some executive members of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) in the State. The IDI was based on the thematic areas of the study. It was made up of ten (10) items each for both groups. The items were used as a guide in the conduct of the interview for the five (5) staff of the School Board and the three (3) executive members of the NUT.

3.6 Validation of the Instrument

Face and content validity were used to validate the research instruments of the study. The researcher's supervisor, including two lecturers who are knowledgeable in the area under consideration helped to validate the instruments.

3.7 Reliability of the Instrument

The test-re-test method was used to measure the reliability of the instruments. Therefore, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to calculate the reliability of the instruments, after administration to sample size of 20 teachers in Federal University of Technology's Secondary School and 10 principals in the state. The correlation between the variables for the scale was calculated and it was 0.89, and that of the questionnaire was 0.91. The high correlation coefficients are indications that all the instruments were reliable.

3.8 Method of Data Collection

Data were collected for the study through the use of questionnaires and IDI. A letter of introduction was collected from the Institute of African Studies to identify the researcher before the respondents. In the process of collecting the data, the researcher personally visited the schools selected for the administration of the questionnaires and the officials that were interviewed. The researcher upon arrival at any of the school selected, reported immediately to the principal for familiarisation. In some schools, the principals actually assisted in distributing and retrieving the questionnaires from their teachers for the researcher. The researcher employed two research assistants to help in the administration of the questionnaires in some of the schools selected for sampling. The principals and teachers were given the questionnaires to fill for one week, before it was retrieved from them. Out of the one thousand, five hundred and ninety seven (1,597) questionnaires for teachers distributed across the schools selected for sampling, one thousand five hundred and twenty eight (1,528) were collected, indicating that 94% teachers responded to the questionnaires. One hundred and twenty (120) questionnaires were distributed to the principals, out of which seventy six (76) were collected, indicating that 63% principals responded to the questionnaires. Five (5) sessions each of the IDI were conducted for the staff of the School Board and three (3) executive members of the NUT in the state.

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

The statistical methods used in the analysis of the data collected were percentage, frequency counts, mean, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression. Charts and graphs were also used to represent the data collected. The bio data of the respondents were analysed with percentage. The research questions raised in the study were analysed with percentage, frequency counts, mean and some represented with charts and

graphs. The hypotheses raised were tested with Pearson Product Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Regression analysis at 0.05 level of significance.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter dealt with results and discussion of findings of the study.

4.1 Results

The data presented below and the subsequent explanations that follow represent data analysis and result interpretations.

Table 4.1: Sex of Respondents

Item	Frequency (F)	%
Male	975	63.8
Female	553	36.2
Total	1528	100.0

Table 4.1 indicated the sex of the respondents. 63.8% of the respondents were male, while 36.2% of the respondents were female. The majority of the respondents sampled were male.

Table 4.2: Age of Respondents

Item	Frequency (F)	%
21-25 years	237	15.5
26-30 years	432	28.3
31- 35 years	347	22.7
36-40 years	182	11.9
41- 45 years	173	11.3
46-50years	97	6.3
51-55years	41	2.7
56-60years	18	1.2
61+ years	-	-
Total	1528	100.0

Table 4.2 revealed the age distribution of respondents. 15.5% of the respondents fell within the age bracket of 20-25years. 28.3% of the respondents were within the age limit of 26-30years, while 22.7% of the respondents were within the age bracket of 31-35years. 11.9% represented those respondents that were within the age range of 36-40years. 11.3% of the respondents fell within the age limit of 41-45years, while 6.3% of the respondents were within the age range of 46-50years. 2.7% and 1.2% of the respondents were within the age brackets of 51-55years and 56-60years respectively. None of the respondent had reached the age bracket of 61+ years. Therefore, those respondents that were within the age distribution of 26-30years constituted the majority in the sample.

Table 4.3: Length of Job Experience of Respondents

Item	Frequency (F)	%
0-5years	579	37.9
6-10years	326	21.3
11-15years	199	13.0
16-20years	186	12.2
21-25years	116	7.6
26-30years	96	6.3
31+ years	26	1.7
Total	1528	100.0

Table 4.3 showed the length of job experience of respondents. 37.9% of the respondents had worked for a period of 0-5years. 21.3% of the respondents had worked for 6-10years, while 13.0% of the respondents had worked for 11-15years. 12.2% of the respondents had worked for a period of 16-20years, while 7.6% of the respondents indicated that they had worked for 21-25years. 6.3% and 1.7% of the respondents represented those that had worked for 26-30years and 31+ years respectively. Based on this, the respondents that had worked for a period of 0-5years constituted the majority in the sample.

Table 4.4: Educational Qualification of Respondents

Item	Frequency (F)	%
NCE/OND	797	52.2
B.Ed/B.Sc/B.A	631	41.3
M.Ed/M.Sc/M.A	92	6.0
Others	8	0.5
Total	1528	100.0

Table 4.4 revealed the educational qualification of respondents. 52.2% of the respondents were holders of NCE/OND. 41.3% of the respondents were holders of B.Ed/B.Sc/B.A, while 6.0% were holders M.Ed/M.Sc/M.A. 0.5% of the respondents represented others who had professional qualifications. The majority of the respondents were holders of NCE/OND.

Table 4.5: Marital Status of Respondents

Item	Frequency (F)	%
Married	859	56.2
Single	611	40.0
Divorced	11	0.7
Widowed	35	2.3
Separated	12	0.8
Total	1528	100.0

Table 4.5 showed the marital status of respondents. 56.2% of the respondents were married, while 40.0% were single. 0.7% of the respondents indicated that they were divorced, while 2.3% of the respondents were widowed. 0.8% of the respondents were separated. The majority of respondents fall within the category of those who were married.

Research Question 1

What is the conflict level existing in secondary schools in Adamawa State?

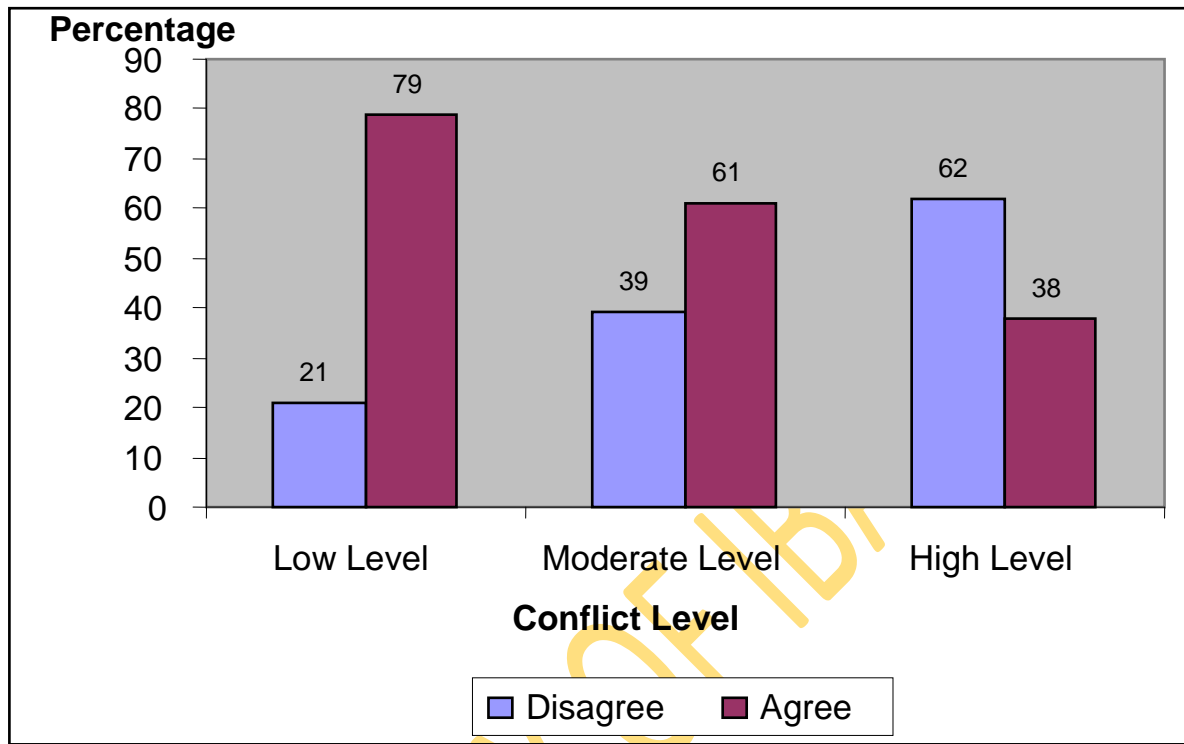


Figure 4.1: Conflict Level in Secondary Schools in Adamawa State

Figure 4.1 is a multiple bar chart illustrating the conflict level in secondary schools in Adamawa state. 21% of the respondents disagreed that the conflict level in their schools was not low, while 79% of the respondents agreed that the conflict level in their schools was low. 61% of the respondents agreed that conflict was operating at a moderate level in their schools, while 39% of the respondents indicated that conflict was not operating at a moderate level in their schools. 62% of the respondents indicated that the conflict level in their schools was not high, while 38% of the respondents agreed that conflict was operating at a high level in their schools.

Research Question 2

What is the conflict communication pattern of teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa State?

Table 4.6: Conflict Communication Pattern of Secondary School Teachers in Adamawa State

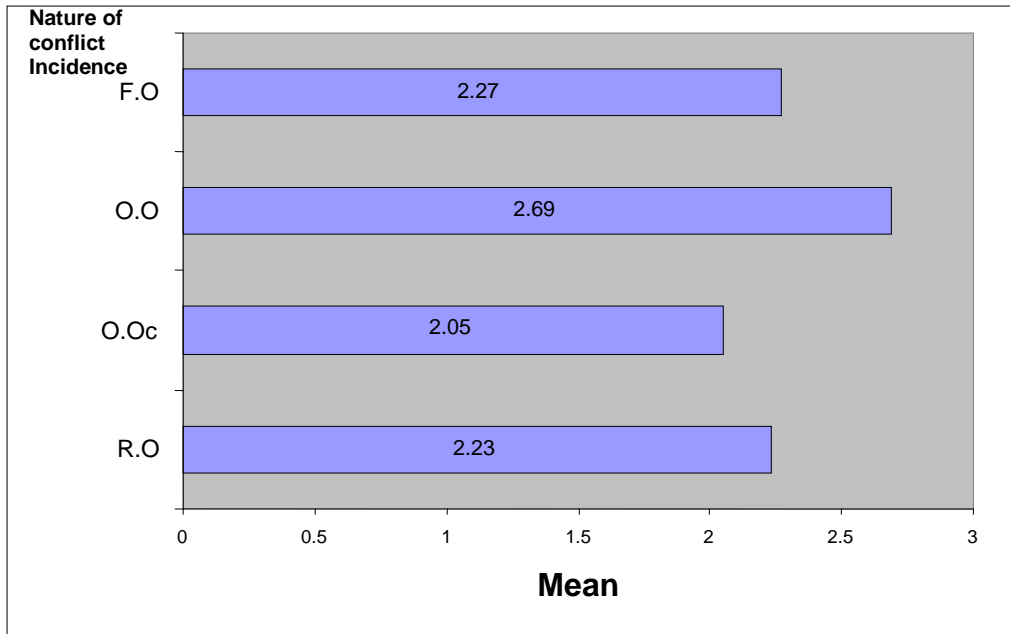
S/No.	Item	N	\bar{X}	SD	Remarks
1.	The pattern of communication of teachers can affect their behaviours positively in the school.	1528	3.20	0.795	Agree
2.	Communication pattern of teachers are highly essential in determining their performance level in the school.	1528	3.19	0.781	Agree
3.	The pattern of communication of teachers can cause conflict in their schools.	1528	3.00	0.924	Agree
4.	The pattern of communication of teachers can negatively affect their work attitudes in the school.	1528	3.01	0.915	Agree
5.	The pattern of communication of teachers can ease tension, making teachers to be more productive on their jobs.	1528	3.07	0.922	Agree
6	The productivity of teachers can be adversely affected by breakdown in communication in the school.	1528	3.03	0.881	Agree

Table 4.6 showed the conflict communication pattern of teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa State. The mean score of respondents that agreed with the statement that the pattern of communication of teachers can affect their behaviour positively in the school was ($\bar{X} = 3.20$). The mean score of respondents that agreed with the statement that communication pattern of teachers are highly essential in determining their performance level

in the school was ($\bar{X} = 3.19$). The respondents that indicated that the pattern of communication of teachers can cause conflict in their schools recorded ($\bar{X} = 3.00$). The respondents with the mean score of ($\bar{X} = 3.01$) were those that agreed with the statement that the pattern of communication of teachers can negatively affect their work attitudes in the school. The mean score of respondents that agreed with the statement that the pattern of communication of teachers can ease tension, making teachers to be more productive on their jobs was ($\bar{X} = 3.07$). The respondents that agreed with the statement that the productivity of teachers can be adversely affected by breakdown in communication in the school recorded ($\bar{X} = 3.03$). Therefore, communication is a central issue in the determination of teachers' productivity. Break down in the communication pattern of teachers will induce conflict, which will affect teachers' job performance negatively, and also the communication pattern of teachers can induce a favourable climate in schools which will motivate teachers to work together for effective performance of their responsibilities to achieve optimum productivity in secondary schools.

Research Question 3

What is the nature of conflict incidence that often manifest in secondary schools in Adamawa State?



Key: F.O = Frequently Occur, O.O = Often Occur, O.Oc = Occasionally Occur and R.O = Rarely Occur

Figure 4.2: Conflict Incidence in Secondary Schools in Adamawa State.

Figure 4.2 is a bar chart illustrating conflict incidence in secondary schools in Adamawa state. The mean score of respondents that indicated that conflict frequently occur (F.O) in secondary schools was ($\bar{X} = 2.27$). The respondents that indicated that conflict often occur (O.O) in secondary school had a mean score of ($\bar{X} = 2.69$). The mean score ($\bar{X} = 2.05$) represented those respondents that indicated that conflict occasionally occur (O.Oc) in secondary schools. The respondents that revealed that conflict rarely occur (R.O) in secondary schools recorded ($\bar{X} = 2.23$).

Research Question 4

What are the conflict tactics often employed by teachers to respond immediately to the occurrence of conflict in secondary schools in Adamawa state?

Table 4.7: Conflict Tactics of Teachers in Secondary Schools in Adamawa State

S/No.	Item	N	\bar{X}	SD
1.	I respond to conflict through retaliation.	1528	2.33	1.070
2.	I respond to conflict by insulting the other party.	1528	2.11	1.012
3.	I respond to conflict by threatening to fight the other party.	1528	2.16	1.070
4.	I respond to conflict by trying to calm down the other party to discuss the issue.	1528	3.08	0.950
5.	I respond to conflict by arguing with the other party.	1528	2.29	1.005
6.	I respond to conflict by bullying the other party.	1528	2.15	1.027
7.	I respond by not talking to the other party.	1528	2.25	1.045

Table 4.7 revealed the conflict tactics often employed by teachers to respond to emerging conflicts instantly in secondary schools in Adamawa State. The major conflict tactics employed by teachers to immediately respond to conflict promptly was by trying to calm down the other party to discuss the issue ($\bar{X} = 3.08$), followed by responding to conflict through retaliation ($\bar{X} = 2.33$). The next conflict tactics utilised by teachers to respond to conflict was by arguing with the other party ($\bar{X} = 2.29$). Responding to conflict by not talking to the other party ($\bar{X} = 2.25$) was also one of the conflict tactics that teachers do use to respond to conflict in schools. Threatening to fight the other party ($\bar{X} = 2.16$) was equally a conflict tactics that teachers do use to react to conflict in schools. Another conflict tactics that teachers employed to respond to conflict was by bullying the other party ($\bar{X} = 2.15$), and the least conflict tactics used by teachers to respond to conflict in secondary school was by insulting the other party ($\bar{X} = 2.11$).

Research Question 5

What are the conflict management styles of teachers, principals and school board in secondary schools in Adamawa State?

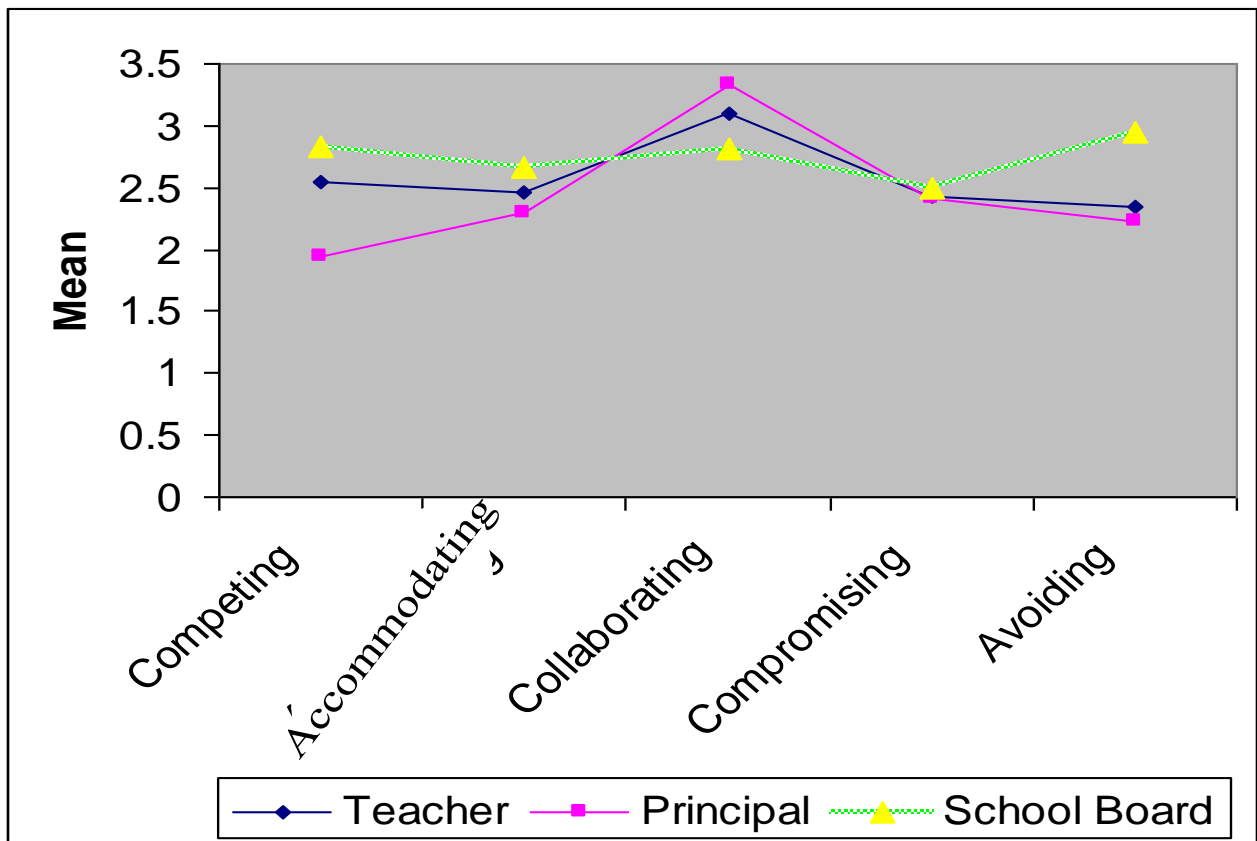


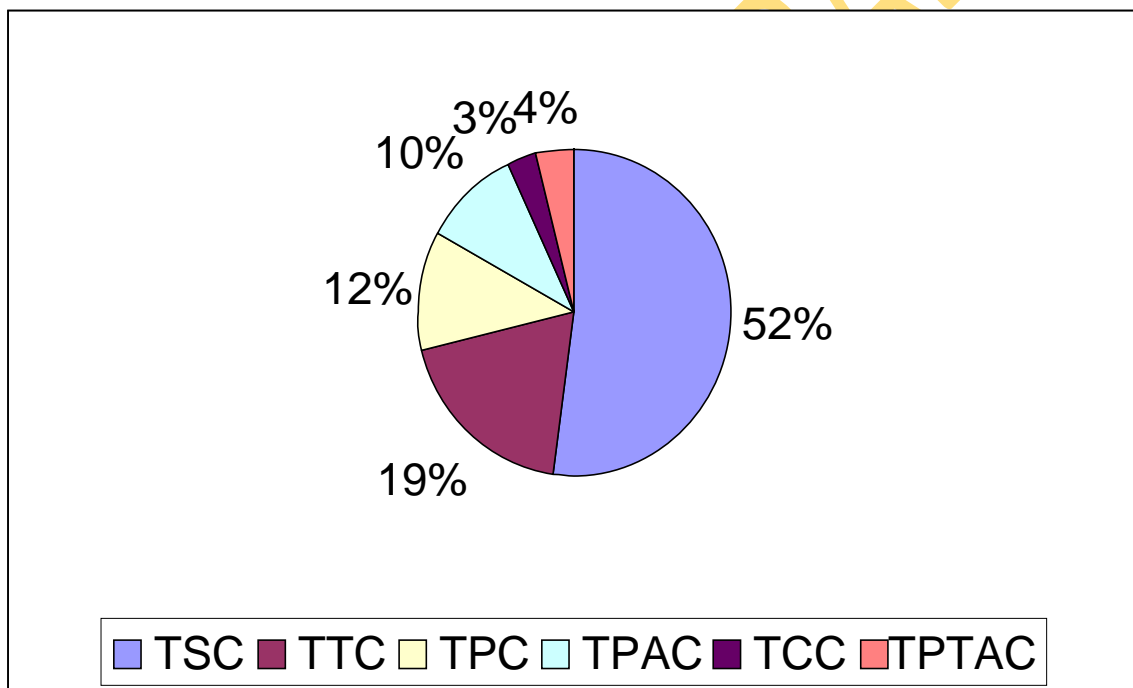
Figure 4.3: Conflict Management Styles of Teachers, Principals and School Board in Adamawa State

Figure 4.3 is a graph illustrating the conflict management styles of teachers, principals and the School Board. The major conflict management style often employed by teachers was collaborating ($\bar{X} = 3.1$), followed by competing style ($\bar{X} = 2.55$). The next style used by teachers was accommodating ($\bar{X} = 2.47$), followed by compromising style ($\bar{X} = 2.42$), and the least style used by teachers to resolve conflicts was avoiding ($\bar{X} = 2.35$). The major conflict handling style of principals was collaborating ($\bar{X} = 3.33$), followed by compromising style ($\bar{X} = 2.41$). The next style was accommodating ($\bar{X} = 2.29$), while the least conflict

management style often adopted by principals after avoiding style ($\bar{X} = 2.23$) was competing ($\bar{X} = 1.94$). The school board resolved school conflicts by adopting avoiding style ($\bar{X} = 2.94$), followed by competing style ($\bar{X} = 2.83$). The next style used by the school board was collaborating style ($\bar{X} = 2.81$). Accommodating style ($\bar{X} = 2.66$) was the next to collaborating, while the least style adopted by the school board was compromising ($\bar{X} = 2.49$).

Research Question 6

What is the nature of conflicts often encountered by teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa state?



Key: TSC=Teacher-student conflict, TTC= Teacher-teacher conflict,
 TPC= Teacher-principal conflict, TPAC= Teacher-parent conflict,
 TCC= Teacher-community conflict TPTAC= Teacher-parent teacher association conflict

Figure 4.4: Nature of Conflicts in Secondary Schools in Adamawa State

Figure 4.4 is a pie chart illustrating the nature of conflicts that teachers can experience in secondary schools. 52% of the respondents indicated that teacher–student conflict (TSC) was a form of conflict that teachers often experienced in secondary schools. 19% of the respondents indicated that teacher–teacher conflict (TTC) was the nature of conflict that

usually confronts teachers in secondary schools. 12% of the respondents revealed that teacher–principal conflict (TPC) was the form of conflict that they often faced in secondary schools. 10% of the respondents indicated that they faced teacher–parent conflict (TPAC). 3% and 4% represented those respondents that indicated that they experienced teacher–community conflict (TCC) and teacher–P.T.A conflict (TPTC) respectively in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Research Question 7

What are the causes and effects of conflict in secondary schools in Adamawa state?

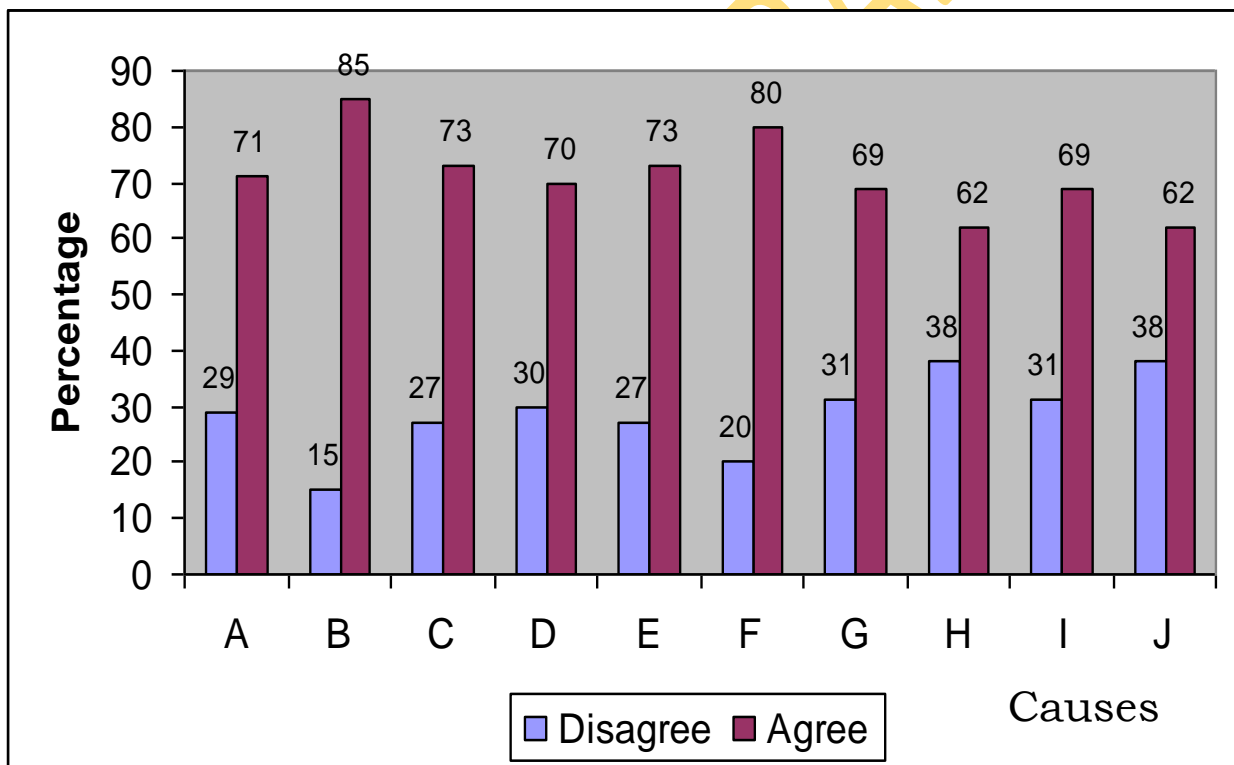


Figure 4.5: Causes of Conflicts in Secondary Schools in Adamawa State

- A = Poor management behaviour of principals
- B = Violation of school rules and regulations
- C = Lateness to school

D = Poor distribution of available school materials for teaching and learning

E = Unclear definition of responsibilities among teachers.

F = Problem of indiscipline

G = Breakdown in communication among teachers

H = Religious fanaticism

I = Gossiping

J = Poor allocation of subjects to teachers.

Figure 4.5 is a multiple bar chart showing the causes of conflict in secondary schools. 71% of the respondents agreed that poor management behaviour of principals lead to conflict in secondary schools, while 29% of the respondents disagreed that poor management behaviour of principals lead to conflict in secondary schools. 15% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that violation of school rules and regulations breed conflict, while 85% of the respondents agreed that it breeds conflict in schools. 73% of the respondents agreed that lateness to school causes conflict, whereas 27% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. 70% of the respondents agreed that poor distribution of available school materials for teaching and learning attracts conflict in secondary schools, whereas 30% of the respondents disagreed that poor distribution of available school materials for teaching and learning attracts conflict in secondary schools. 27% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that unclear definition of responsibilities among teachers leads to school conflict, whereas 73% of the respondents agreed that unclear definition of responsibilities among teachers leads to school conflict. 80% of the respondents agreed that the problem of indiscipline breeds conflict in secondary schools, while 20% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. 69% of the respondents agreed that breakdown in communication among teachers and gossiping generate school conflict, while 31% of the respondents disagreed that breakdown in communication among teachers and gossiping generate school conflict. 62% of

the respondents agreed that religious fanaticism and poor allocation of subjects to teachers lead to school conflict, whereas 38% of the respondents disagreed with the statements.

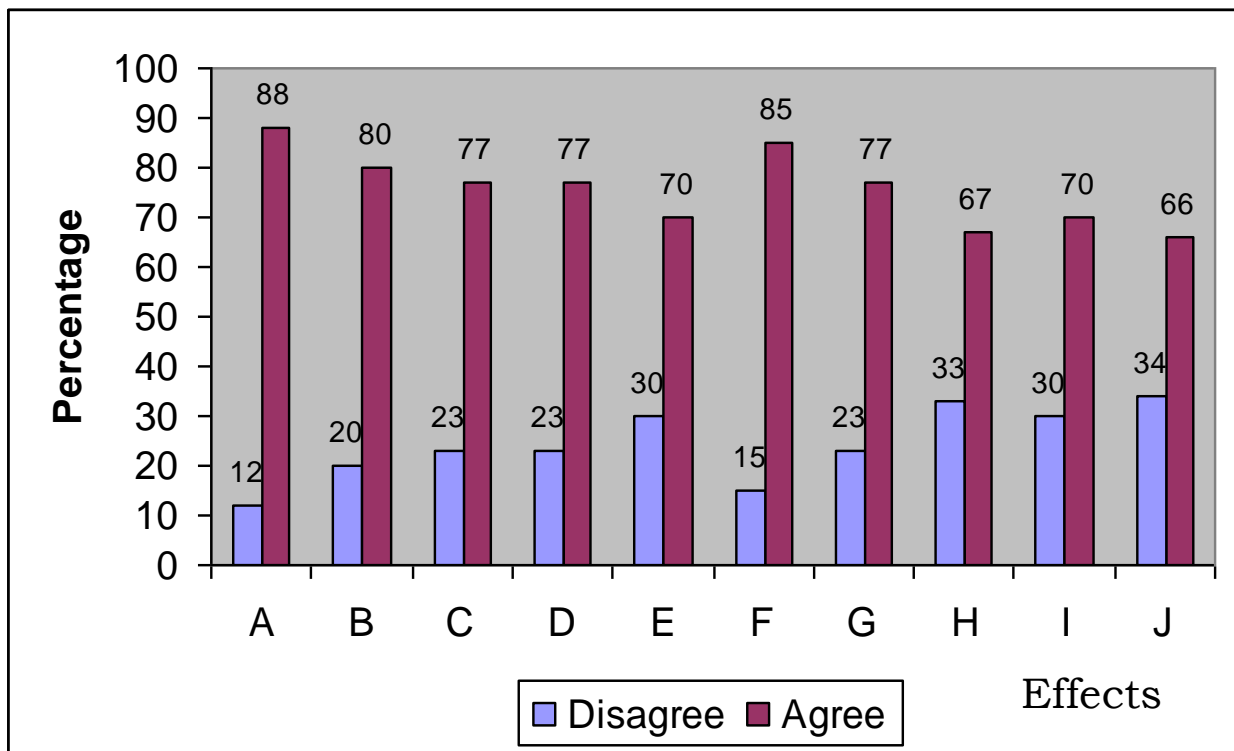


Figure 4.6: Effects of Conflicts in Secondary Schools in Adamawa State.

A = Conflict lowers the productivity of teachers.

B = Conflict discourages effective teaching behaviour in schools.

C = Conflict leads to poor academic performance.

D = Conflict leads to factions/division among teachers.

E = Conflict results in the destruction of school facilities.

F = Conflict makes teachers to lose concentration/dedication on their jobs.

G = Conflict lowers the morale of teachers.

H = Conflict results in suspension of teachers.

I = Conflict leads to violent fight in schools.

J = Conflict breeds stress in teachers.

Figure 4.6 is a multiple bar chart indicating the effects of conflicts in secondary schools. 88% of the respondents agreed that school conflict lowers the productivity of teachers, whereas 12% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that conflict lowers teachers' productivity. 21% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that conflict discourages effective teaching behaviour in schools, while 79% of the respondents agreed that conflict discourages effective teaching behaviour in schools. 77% of the respondents agreed that conflict leads to poor academic performance and leads to factions/division among teachers, whereas 23% of the respondents disagreed with the statements. 77% of the respondents indicated that conflict lowers the morale of teachers, whereas 23% of the respondents disagree with the statement. 70% of the respondents agreed that conflict results in the destruction of school facilities and leads to violent fight in schools, while 30% of the respondents disagreed with the statements. 85% of the respondents agreed that conflict makes teachers to lose job concentration/dedication, while 15% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. 67% and 66% of the respondents indicated that conflict results in suspension of teachers and breeds stress in teachers, whereas 33% and 34% of the respondents disagreed with the statements that conflict results in suspension of teachers and breeds stress in teachers respectively.

Research Question 8

What are the factors influencing the choice of conflict management styles of principals in secondary schools in Adamawa state?

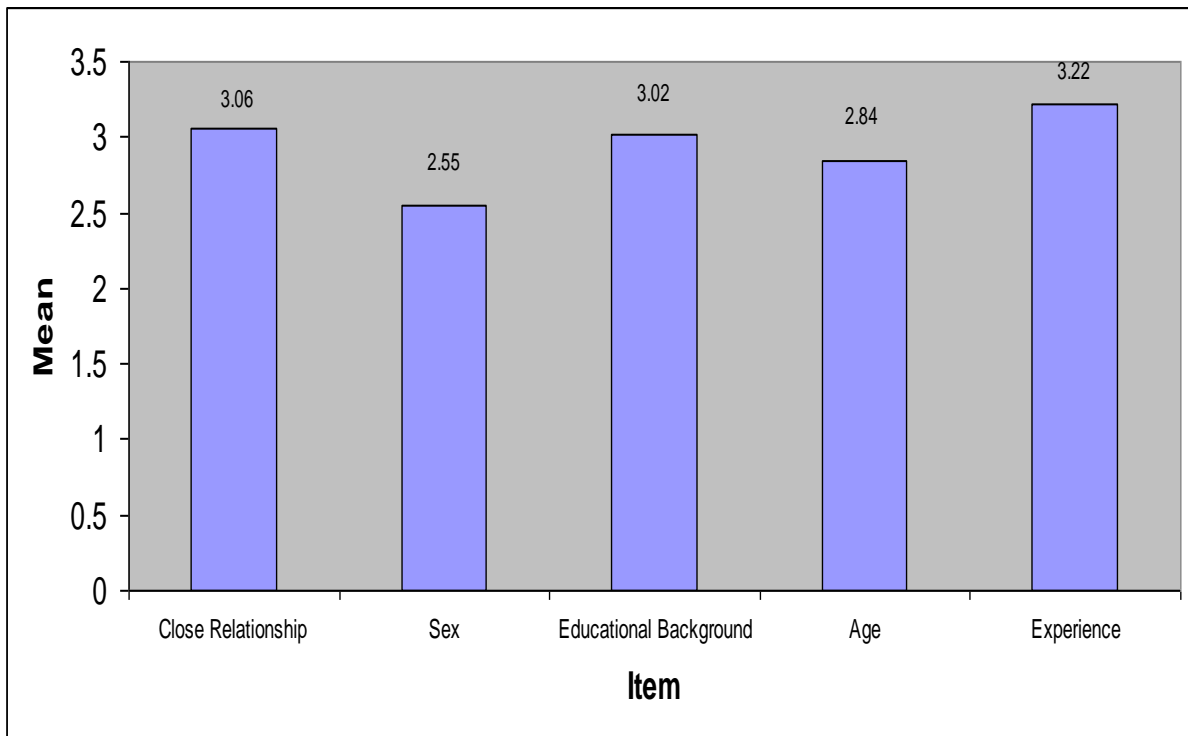


Figure 4.7: Factors Influencing the Choice of Conflict Management Styles of Principals in Adamawa State.

Figure 4.7 is a bar chart illustrating the factors influencing the choice of conflict management styles of principals in secondary schools. Majority of the respondents indicated that experience on their job ($\bar{X}=3.22$) often determined their choice of conflict management style. The next factor that influenced the choice of conflict management styles of the respondents was close relationship with the other party in a conflict situation ($\bar{X}=3.06$), followed by educational background ($\bar{X}=3.02$). Another factor identified by the respondents as influencing their choice of conflict management style was age ($\bar{X}=2.84$). Sex ($\bar{X}=2.55$) was the least factor that influenced respondents' choice of conflict management style in secondary schools. The analysis so far showed that experience is the main factor that influenced the choice of conflict management styles of principals in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Research Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between conflict level and teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Table 4.8: Conflict Level and Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State

Item	\bar{X}	SD	N	r	P	Remarks
Conflict Level	7.9249	2.0007	1523	0.080	0.002	Sig.
Teachers' Productivity	33.4547	5.2103				

Table 4.8 revealed the Pearson Correlation analysis of conflict level and teachers' productivity. The hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there was a significant relationship between conflict level and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.080$; $P < 0.05$). This implied that conflict level can influence teachers' productivity in secondary schools.

Research Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between conflict communication and the productivity of teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Table 4.9: Conflict Communication and Teacher Productivity in Adamawa State

Item	\bar{X}	SD	N	r	P	Remarks
Conflict Communication	18.3165	3.2578	1520	0.414	0.000	Sig.
Teachers' Productivity	33.4547	5.2103				

Table 4.9 showed the Pearson Correlation analysis of conflict communication and teachers' productivity. The null hypothesis was rejected at ($r = 0.414$; $P < 0.05$). This showed that there was a significant relationship between conflict communication and teachers' productivity. This revealed that conflict communication can influence teachers' productivity in secondary schools.

Research Hypothesis 3

Conflict incidence and teachers' productivity are not significantly related in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Table 4.10: Conflict Incidence and Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State

Item	\bar{X}	SD	N	r	P	Remarks
Conflict Incidence	19.2415	2.63296	1528	0.35	0.041	Sig.
Teachers' Productivity	33.4547	5.2103				

Table 4.10 revealed the Pearson Correlation analysis of conflict incidence and teachers' productivity. The null hypothesis was rejected, showing that there was a significant relationship between conflict incidence and teachers' productivity in the secondary schools ($r = 0.35$, $P < 0.05$). This showed that conflict incidence can influence teachers' productivity in secondary schools.

Research Hypothesis 4

There is no significant relationship between conflict tactics and teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Table 4.11: Conflict Tactics and Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State.

Item	\bar{X}	SD	N	r	P	Remarks
Conflict Tactics	16.3687	4.8642	1524	0.000	0.999	n.s
Teachers' Productivity	33.4547	5.2103				

n.s = Not Significant

Table 4.11 indicated the Pearson Correlation analysis of conflict tactics and teachers' productivity. The null hypothesis was accepted, indicating that there was no significant relationship between conflict tactics and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.000$; $P > 0.05$). This implied that conflict tactics employed by teachers at a particular time may not be strong enough to ignite the level of conflict that will directly affect teachers' productivity in secondary schools.

Research Hypothesis 5

Conflict management styles (i.e. competing, accommodating, collaborating, avoiding and compromising) do not make any significant relative contributions to teachers' productivity in Adamawa State.

Table 4.12: Relative Contributions of Conflict Management Styles to Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State.

Item	Competing	Accommodating	Collaborating	Avoiding	Compromising	Teachers' Productivity
Competing	1 1527					
Accommodating	0.349* 0.000 1527	1 1527				
Collaborating	0.004 0.865 1527	0.098* 0.000 1527	1 1527			
Avoiding	0.339* 0.000 1527	0.339* 0.000 1527	0.037 0.151 1527	1 1527		
Compromising	0.269* 0.000 1527	0.289* 0.000 1527	0.184* 0.000 1527	0.273* 0.000 1527	1 1527	
Teachers' Productivity	-0.011 0.67 1527	0.076 0.003 1527	0.325* 0.000 1527	0.042 0.101 1527	0.107 0.000 1527	1 1527

Table 4.12 revealed the Correlation Matrix of the relative contributions of conflict management styles to teachers' productivity. Therefore, it was revealed that Accommodating ($r = 0.076$; $P < 0.05$), Collaborating ($r = 0.325$; $P < 0.05$) and Compromising ($r = 0.107$; $P < 0.05$) were significantly correlated with teachers' productivity, while Competing ($r = -0.011$; $P > 0.05$) and Avoiding ($r = 0.042$; $P > 0.05$) were not significantly related to teachers' productivity. This indicated that accommodating, collaborating and compromising conflict management styles can positively influence teachers' productivity in secondary schools, while avoiding and competing can negatively influence teachers' productivity.

Research Hypothesis 6

The nature of conflicts and choice of conflict management styles of principals are not significantly related to teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Table 4.13: Nature of Conflicts and Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State

R = 0.174

R² = 0.30

Adj R² = 0.026

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1245.398	6	207.566		
Residual	40100.478	1517	26.434	7.852	0.000
Total	41345.876	1523			

Table 4.13 presented a Multiple Regression analysis of the composite contributions of the nature of conflicts (i.e teacher-student conflict, teacher-teacher conflict, teacher- principal conflict, teacher-parent conflict, teacher-community conflict, and teacher-P.T.A conflict) to teachers' productivity. Therefore, the joint contribution was significant at (F(6,1517) =7.852; R = 0.174, R² = 0.30; Adj R² = 0.026; P < 0.05). Hence, about 30% of the variation was accounted for by the nature of conflicts. Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected, indicating that the nature of conflicts make significant composite contributions to teachers' productivity. This implied that the various types of school conflict when considered jointly will significantly influence teachers' productivity.

Table 4.14: Relative contributions of Nature of Conflicts to Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	t	Sig
	β	Std. Error	β		
(Constant)	33.553	0.189		177.286	0.000
Teacher-student	-0.048	0.299	-0.005	-0.159	0.000
Teacher-teacher	0.705	0.517	0.053	1.364	0.002
Teacher-principal	0.210	2.612	-0.013	-0.080	0.000
Teacher-parent	-0.0663	2.612	-0.040	-0.253	0.001
Teacher-community	6.555	1.305	0.204	5.024	0.000
Teacher-P.T.A	-6.697	1.149	-0.262	-5.831	0.000

Table 4.14 showed the Multiple Regression analysis of the relative contributions of the nature of conflicts to teachers' productivity. The results showed that teacher-student conflict ($\beta = -0.005$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-teacher conflict ($\beta = 0.053$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-principal conflict ($\beta = -0.013$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-parent conflict ($\beta = -0.040$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-community conflict ($\beta = 0.204$, $P < 0.05$) and teacher-P.T.A conflict ($\beta = -0.262$, $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to teachers' productivity. This signified that all the conflict types can significantly influence teachers' productivity in secondary schools.

Table 4.15: Choice of Conflict Management Styles of Principals and Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State

Item	\bar{X}	SD	N	r	P	Remarks
Choice of Conflict Management Styles of Principals	7.7010	3.25790	76	0.267	0.000	Sig.
Teachers' Productivity	11.4547	5.21034				

Table 4.15 indicated the Pearson Correlation analysis of the choice of conflict management styles of principals and teachers' productivity. The null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there was a significant relationship between the choice of conflict management styles of principals and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.267$; $P < 0.05$). This implied that the choice of conflict management styles adopted by principals to mitigate conflicts can significantly affect the productivity of teachers in secondary schools.

Research Hypothesis 7

Conflict variables do not make any significant composite contributions to public secondary school teachers' productivity in Adamawa State.

Table 4.16: Composite Contributions of Conflict Variables to Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State.

$R = 0.444$

$R^2 = 0.412$

$Adj R^2 = 0.194$

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	8112.293	5	1622.459		
Residual	33106.886	1513	21.882	71.147	0.000
Total	41219.178	1518			

Table 4.16 reflected the use of Regression analysis to analyse the composite contributions of conflict variables (i.e. conflict level, conflict incident, conflict tactics, conflict management styles and conflict communication) to teachers' productivity. Therefore, the joint contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity was significant at (F (5, 1513) = 71.147; $R = 0.444$, $R^2 = 0.412$, $Adj. R^2 = 0.194$; $P < 0.05$). Therefore, about 41% of the variation was accounted for by the conflict variables. Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected, indicating that conflict variables make significant composite contributions to teachers' productivity. This showed that conflict variables when jointly considered were potent variables that can influence teachers' productivity in secondary schools.

Research Hypothesis 8

Conflict variables do not make any significant relative contributions to teachers' productivity in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

Table 4.17: Relative contributions of Conflict Variables to Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	t	Sig
	β	Std. Error			
(Constant)	221.440	0.791		27.107	0.000
Conflict Tactics	8.999E -02	0.072	0.035	1.250	0.211
Conflict Incident	-0.129	0.62	-0.065	-2.064	0.039
Conflict Level	-0.174	0.035	-0.162	-5.017	0.000
Conflict Management Styles	0.261	0.051	0.160	5.235	0.000
Conflict Communication	0.651	0.039	0.407	16.638	0.000

Table 4.17 showed a Multiple Regression analysis of the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity. The result showed that conflict tactics ($\beta = 0.035$, $P < 0.05$) was not significantly related to teachers' productivity, while conflict incidence ($\beta = -0.065$, $P < 0.05$) conflict level ($\beta = -0.162$, $P < 0.05$), conflict management styles ($\beta = 0.160$, $P < 0.05$) and conflict communication ($\beta = 0.407$, $P < 0.05$) were found to be significantly related to teachers' productivity.

4.2 Analysis of Indepth Interview (IDI)

The results of the Indepth Interview (IDI) conducted with the staff of the Post Primary School Board and members of the Executive of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) were presented below.

4.2.1 Indepth Interview of Staff of the School Board (SSB) on the Nature and Causes of Conflict in Secondary Schools

The IDI conducted with the SSB revealed the nature and causes of conflict in secondary schools in Adamawa State.

The nature of conflicts identified by the staff of the School Board was:

- (i) Principal-teacher conflict
- (ii) Teacher-student conflict
- (iii) School Board-teacher conflict
- (iv) School-community conflict.

(i) Principal-Teacher Conflict

This form of conflict which occurs between principals and teachers was identified by the SSB as prevalent in secondary schools. The SSB indicated that principals' bossy attitudes/poor management attitudes of principals; violation of school rules and regulations; indiscipline problems and, principals' preferential treatment of staff were some of the causes of principal-teacher conflict in secondary schools. The SSB also indicated that the conflict often result in disunity and hatred among staff, and can render school administrators ineffective, most especially when the teacher involved in the conflict got the job through an influential/ popular politician or the teacher is well connected with some big personalities in the state.

(ii) Teacher-Student Conflict

This type of school conflict which occurs between teachers and students was reported by the SSB to be majorly caused by: rude behaviours of student, shortage of water and food for students in the boarding schools, maltreatment of students and the problem of a male teacher dating a female student in secondary schools. The SSB indicated that the conflict may escalate, taking a dangerous dimension when the student in question is from a well to do family in the state.

(iii) School Board-Teacher Conflict

School board-teacher conflict is a form of conflict experienced between a teacher or a group of teachers and the School Board. The SSB revealed that this form of conflict becomes more pronounced during: school inspection/supervision, transfer issue, salary stoppage, promotion problem and delay in handling issues concerning teachers in the state. The SSB also noted that the conflict was usually associated with lapses from the principals' administrative behaviour and negligence on the part of a teacher or teachers to carry out their responsibilities as expected. When this happens, the School Board will be accused of being adamant in attending to teachers' demand as quick as possible.

(iv) School-Community Conflict

Conflict that exists between the school and the community in which the school is sited is described as school-community conflict. The SSB indicated that encroachment on school land; community rejection of a principal/teacher transferred to the community school; poor social relations between the school and the community and prevention of the community from using school facilities were some of the causes of the conflict. The SSB noted that all the types of conflict so far discussed can undermine teachers' productivity in secondary schools. To manage conflicts reported to the Board, the SSB observed that a committee of enquiry is set up to investigate the conflict and reported back to them for appropriate action. Therefore, depending on the report of the committee, most especially when the case of principal-teacher conflict, teacher-teacher conflict or teacher-community conflict is involved, transfer is usually used to separate the conflicting parties for the sake of peace in the school. The SSB revealed that in the case of school-community conflict that have bearing on land encroachment, the case will be referred to the Urban and Regional Planning Unit/Ministry of Works to determine the limit of the border of the school in relations to the community.

4.2.2 Indepth Interview of the Executives of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT)

The interview was conducted with the three (3) members of the Executive of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT). It showed that various forms of conflict were experienced by teachers in the school system, and that the most problematic was the school board-teacher conflict. The respondents revealed that the School Board is responsible for the promotion, payment, training and transfer of teachers in the state, hence, they easily experience conflict with teachers. One of the executive member of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) revealed that the School Board often misuse the authority confer on them by law, when discharging these responsibilities. Apart from this, the Executive members of NUT reported that teachers also experience teacher-student conflict, principal-teacher conflict and teacher-teacher conflict, but the most disturbing of all the conflicts is the school board-teacher conflict. The NUT executive members equally revealed that poor state of school facilities and poor welfare packages for teachers were the major problems that often ignite conflict in schools. The executive members of NUT interviewed showed that conflicts highlighted above have the tendency to negatively impact on teachers' productivity. The NUT executive members interviewed acknowledged the fact that conflict is a contributory factor to low productivity of teachers in secondary schools in the state. However, they indicated that most of the conflicts that occur in schools were often not reported to them, except when it becomes a collective issue in schools or generally as a problem affecting the entire body of teachers in the state.

4.3 Discussion of Findings

The findings of the study are discussed in line with the following subtopics:

- (i) Conflict Level and Teachers' Productivity
- (ii) Conflict Communication and Teachers' Productivity
- (iii) Conflict Incidence in Secondary Schools

- (iv) Conflict Tactics and Teachers' Productivity
- (v) Conflict Management Styles and Teachers' Productivity
- (vi) Nature of School Conflicts
- (vii) Causes and Effects of School Conflicts
- (viii) Choice of Conflict Management Styles

4.3.1 Conflict Level and Teachers' Productivity

Conflict level is the intensity of conflict operating in an organisation. Conflict graduates, hence, it is not static. It graduates from a simple state to a more complex or difficult level, where it attracts negative consequences. This study discovered that the conflict level operating in secondary schools sampled ranges from low to moderate to high level. Table 4.8 revealed the hypothesis raised in relation to conflict level and teachers' productivity. The hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there is significant relationship between conflict level and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.80$; $P < 0.05$). This means that the level at which conflict is operating in a school matters a lot in the determination of teachers' productivity. Therefore, teachers' productivity will rise in schools with low conflict levels, while schools with a high conflict level will experience decline in the productivity of their teachers.

Table 4.17 indicated the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity. Conflict level was significantly related to teachers' productivity ($\beta = 0.035$, $P < 0.05$). These findings are in agreement with the positions of Booker (1990), Hagel and Brown (2005), Akpan, Okey and Esirah (2006), Iravo (n.d), Schermerhon (2001) and Peretomode and Peretomode (2008). Booker (1990) discovered that high level of interpersonal conflict have been found to be negatively related to the organisational commitment of teachers. In the same vein, Hagel and Brown (2005) posited that certain level of conflict is beneficial as it serves as a powerful motivator to improve performance and satisfaction. This implies that

when conflict is operating at a low level, performance and satisfaction will rise. Akpan, Okey and Esirah (2006) indicated that there is increased productivity and school effectiveness in institutions with low organisational conflict. Iravo (n.d) reported that when conflict level is too high, performance suffers. Schermerhorn (2001) posited that too much conflict is distracting and interferes with other more task-relevant activities; too little conflict may promote competency and the loss of creative, high performance edge. By implication, an optimal or appropriate level of conflict may energise people in constructive directions and lead to maximum organisational performance (Peretomode and Peretomode, 2008). These findings including the findings of this study revealed that conflict level can either affect teachers' productivity positively (i.e. with a moderate conflict level) or negatively (i.e with a high level of conflict) in the school.

4.3.2 Conflict Communication Pattern and Teachers' Productivity

Conflict communication is the pattern of communication that induces conflict in the school. The study found out that the conflict communication pattern of teachers has the capacity to determine the form of social interaction that will exist among teachers in their schools. That is, the pattern of communication of teachers can cause conflict in the school as well as easing tension, thereby making teachers to be more productive in their jobs. Table 4.9 revealed the hypothesis formulated in relation to conflict communication and teachers' productivity. The hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there is significant relationship between conflict communication and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.414$; $P < 0.05$). Equally, Table 4.17 showed the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity. Conflict communication was significantly related to teachers' productivity ($\beta = 0.407$, $P < 0.05$). This implies that the way communication is used will determine the nature of the corresponding responses that will be elicited by the other party. Therefore, conflict inducing communication is bound to affect teachers negatively, while positive oriented communication

will produce optimistic outcomes on teachers. O'Hair, Friedrich, Wiemann and Wiemann (1995) posited that the exact distribution of control in interpersonal relationship is communicatively worked out by the way people talk with each other, how they structure their conversations as well as the content of such conversations. In the same vein, Isola's (2010) position confirmed the findings of this research work. Isola (2010) posited that without adequate communication, people cannot live peacefully in a geographical space since the quality of communication defines the quality of interaction among people. It therefore shows that teachers' communication patterns have the tendency to impact on their work commitment positively or negatively. Murphy (1994) stated that ongoing and open communication lead to increased mutual respect, resulting in stronger work relationships. Varona (1981) posited that poor or lack of communication and trust are negatively related to the commitment of teachers. Picchioni and Rose (2007) explained that ineffective communication, unresolved disputes, and the lack of respect for diverse thoughts and approaches all translate to decreased productivity, strained relationships, and ultimately a work environment that is not conducive to optimum performance. The findings of the study confirmed the scholarly works used as supporting reference points.

4.3.3 Conflict Incidence in Secondary Schools

Conflict incidence is the frequency or rate at which conflicts occur in a place. This study discovered that conflict incidence vary from one secondary school to another. The study found that conflicts frequently occur (F.O), often occur (O.O), occasionally occur (O.Oc) and rarely occur (R.O) in schools. The majority of the respondents sampled indicated that conflicts often and frequently occur in the school. The findings of the study tally with the positions of Johnson and Johnson (1996). They posited that the frequency and severity of conflicts (in schools) seem to be increasing. Fighting, violence and gangs tied with lack of discipline are the biggest problems in public schools. In the same vein, Fleetwood (1987)

asserted that principals are so frequently in conflict with students, teachers and parents. This showed that conflicts frequently occur in schools. Adeyemi (2009) in a study delimited the conflict issues into those conflicts that occurred 30 times and above as high level occurrence, 11 to 29 times as moderate level occurrence, while conflicts that occurred 10 times and below were considered as low level occurrence. The findings of Adeyemi (2009) showed that certain conflict occur more frequently than others. Table 4.10 showed the null hypothesis raised in relation to conflict incidence and teachers' productivity. The null hypothesis was rejected at ($r = 0.35$; $P > 0.05$). This shows that there is significant relationship between conflict incidence and teachers' productivity. Table 4.17 revealed the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity. Conflict incidence was also found to be significantly related to teachers' productivity.

This implied that the rate at which conflict occurs in schools has the potential to positively or negatively impact on teachers' productivity, depending on how it is perceived and managed. Tye (1972) stated that conflict most often arises in school climate because of differences in values, philosophies, or perceptions. Based on this, Fleetwood (1987) reported that it is necessary to impress upon principals through the literature that conflict does have potential for positive growth. There is nothing wrong with the often or frequent manner in which conflicts occur in schools, but what is important is the ability of school personnel to convert emerging conflicts into constructive force for school development. Schofield (1977) pointed out that conflict is the raw material of school administration and that conflict is desirable and necessary for growth and change in education. Schofield (1977) argued further that the goal of an effective organisation or leader... is not the reduction or elimination of conflict... the goal is to increase organisational or individual capacities for handling conflict. Therefore, conflict incidence in schools does not indicate unhealthy situation, rather it shows that the school is a social organisation characterised by a web of complex interactions, which

therefore indicate that conflict is a part and parcel of the system. What is important in schools is for principals and teachers to develop the ability to convert school conflicts into positive source of energy that will enthrone growth and development in their schools. Therefore, when conflict occurs too frequently in a school, there is the tendency that teachers' time for teaching and learning will be compromised in a bid to resolving these conflicts. This will primarily affect teachers negatively in their assigned responsibilities to the students and to the school. However, if emerging conflicts are occasioned by effective management patterns, teachers' productivity will improve.

4.3.4 Conflict Tactics and Teachers' Productivity

Conflict tactics is the immediate response to a conflict episode. The immediate responses or reactions of people to conflicts have the capacity to make conflict to escalate or prevent it from rising for ease resolution. Whichever one that occurs, has the potential to positively or negatively impact on peoples' work attitude. This study discovered that various conflict tactics were utilised by teachers to respond to different conflict situations. Therefore, parameters such as most favoured, favoured, less favoured and least favoured were used to describe the degree of preference for the conflict tactics by teachers, based on their mean scores. The study discovered that the most favoured conflict tactics employed by teachers to respond to conflict was by calming down the other party to discuss the issue. The favoured conflict tactics was through retaliation, while the less favoured conflict tactics employed by teachers were responding to conflict by arguing with the other party and by not talking to the other party. The least favoured conflict tactics used by teachers were responding to conflict by threatening to fight the other party; by bullying the other party and by insulting the other party. Table 4.11 indicated the null hypothesis raised in relation to conflict tactics and teachers' productivity. The hypothesis was thus accepted at ($r = 0.000$. $P > 0.05$). This means that there is no relationship between conflict tactics and teachers' productivity. The mean

score of conflict tactics is (16.3687), hence, it is not high enough to exert the required influence on teachers' productivity, with a higher mean score of (33.4547). This showed that conflict tactics employed by teachers at a particular time may not be strong enough to ignite the level of conflict that will directly affect teachers' productivity. Table 4.17 revealed the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity. Conflict tactics was also not significantly related to teachers' productivity. The positions of Johnson (2003) and Ageng'a and Simatwa (2011) showcased the fact that conflict tactics affects teachers negatively. Johnson (2003) posited that conflict tactics and strategies include attacking others' ideas and beliefs, offering derogatory remarks and demanding concessions from others. Johnson (2003) added that "intense and tenacious enemies often emerge as an aftermath to this response". When conflict tactics degenerates to the point where "intense and tenacious enemies" are formed, it will have adverse effects on the performance of teachers.

Ageng'a and Simatwa (2011) submitted that physical confrontation and verbal exchange during teacher-teacher conflict can lead to teacher being disciplined by the Teacher Service Commission. This shows that conflict tactics employed at a particular time can affect teachers' job performance. This development is a reflection of the fact that positive conflict tactics were majorly employed by teachers to respond to conflicts in their schools. Therefore, the effect of conflict tactics rest heavily on how it is applied, expressed and exhibited. Based on this, it is important to note that the effects of conflict tactics are inherently embedded in how it is expressed and applied. When the response is such that involves calming down the other party to discuss the issue, it will create positive impact, but negative effects will be recorded, when harsh and insulting words are used. Therefore, conflict tactics can directly or indirectly impact on the productivity of teachers.

4.3.5 Conflict Management Styles and Teachers' Productivity

Conflict management styles employed in conflict situations are highly important in defining and determining conflicts outcomes. Various conflict management styles are at the disposal of people for mitigating conflicts. In this study, the various conflict management styles exhibited by teachers, principals, and the school board were determined. The conflict management styles were expressed according to the degree of usage by respondents. Therefore, most highly favoured, highly favoured, favoured, less favoured and least favoured were used to describe the frequent manner the styles were used by teachers, based on their mean scores.

The study, therefore, discovered that the commonly used style by teachers was collaborating, which is followed by competing style. The next style to competing employed by teachers to manage conflict in their schools was accommodating style. Compromising is considered as the fourth style that teachers are disposed to manage conflict in their schools. The least style employed by teachers to mitigate school conflicts was avoiding style. This description indicates that the most highly favoured conflict management style employed by teachers was collaborating style. The highly favoured style utilised by teachers to resolve conflicts in their schools was competing. This is followed by the favoured style which was accommodating. The less favoured style used by teachers to deal with school conflict was compromising while avoiding was considered as the least favoured style used by teachers during conflict situations in schools.

The findings of the study support the works of Ikoya and Akinseide (2009). They posited that that collaborating style is the most used style by teachers. They submitted that in secondary schools, bargaining (i.e collaborating) is the highest used style by teachers, while avoiding is the least, followed by forcing (i.e. competing). Baser and kaya (2010) found that teachers of age bracket of 30–39 and 40 years and over age groups emphasise “collaboration”

style as the most effective conflict management style. Balay (2006) found that administrators and teachers in private schools tend to use compromising, avoiding and competing behaviours than their colleagues at public schools. The findings of Balay (2006) point to the fact that teachers in public schools are more favourably inclined to using collaborating and accommodating approaches than any other approaches. These findings consolidated the assertions of researchers mentioned above. The study also discovered that the major conflict management style employed by principals was collaborating. The second most used style by principals was compromising. This is followed by accommodating style and the next was avoiding style. The least style employed by principals in conflict situations in the school was competing.

These findings suggested that the most highly favoured conflict management style employed by principals was collaborating. The highly favoured style adopted by principals in managing school conflict was compromising. Accommodating was the favoured style while avoiding was the less favoured conflict management styles that principals often employ in conflict situations in the school. Competing was the least favoured style used by principals. Gumeseli (1994) found that integrating (i.e. collaborating and compromising) were the most frequently used styles of conflict management by principals, whereas dominating (i.e. competing) was the most infrequently used style.

Baser and Kaya (2010) discovered that the most effective conflict management style exhibited by their principals was collaboration style, on the other hand, compromise, avoidance and accommodation were perceived relatively less effective but the domination style (i.e. competing) was perceived the least effective style employed by principals. Ural (1997) found that in managing school conflict, principals used the collaborating and compromising methods always, the avoiding method usually and the forcing method (i.e. competing) never in managing their conflicts with teachers. The findings of the study are

consistent with the above cited findings. The conflict management styles exhibited by the school board clearly show that the mostly highly favoured style was avoiding, competing was the highly favoured style used by the school board. Collaborating was the favoured style used by the board and the less favoured style utilised by the school board was accommodating. The least favoured style employed by the schools board was compromising. The findings of the study tally with the findings of Ikoya and Akinseinde (2009). They posited that schools board members show preference for avoiding as a conflict management strategy in the school system.

Contrary to the findings of the study, McGuire (1984) discovered that cooperative and integrative or problem-solving (i.e. collaborating) were emphasised more by the school board. The variations in the findings are possibly based on the conflict orientations of the board, those they are dealing with and regional peculiarity. The hypothesis raised in relation to conflict management styles and teachers' productivity in table 4.12 showed the relative contributions of the conflict management styles to teachers' productivity. It was discovered that accommodating style ($r = 0.076$; $P < 0.05$), collaborating style ($r = 0.325$; $P < 0.05$) and compromising style ($r = 0.107$; $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to teachers' productivity, while competing style ($r = 0.011$; $P > 0.05$) and avoiding style ($r = 0.042$; $P > 0.05$) were not significantly related to teachers' productivity.

These results suggested that conflict management style adopted by school personnel can produce positive or negative effect on teachers' productivity. Table 4.17 revealed the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity. Therefore, conflict management styles were jointly found to be significantly related to teachers' productivity. This means that conflict management style employed at a particular time can influence the performance of a teacher. The findings of the study are in agreement with the submissions of Byers (1987) and Hajzus (1990). Byers (1987) found that the use of confronting and

cooperative conflict resolution styles by principals positively impact on teachers' commitment. Hajzus (1990) discovered that an imposing or withdrawing conflict resolution style of principals is negatively related to the organisational commitment of teachers. Therefore, the nature of the conflict management styles adopted at a particular time to contain conflict has the potential of influencing teachers' productivity positively or negatively.

4.3.6 Nature of School Conflicts

The nature of school conflicts is associated with the different forms of conflict that confront school personnel. The study discovered that the nature of conflicts that teachers face in secondary schools are teacher–student conflict (TSC); teacher–teacher conflict (TTC); teacher–principal conflict (TPC); teacher–parent conflict (TPAC); teacher–community leaders conflict (TCC) and teacher–PTA conflict (TPTAC). The conflict that teachers constantly experience in secondary schools is teacher–student conflict (TSC). This is understandably so because teachers interact more with students on a daily basis, than any other person in the school. The routine job of teachers is to take care of students and in so doing conflict is inevitable. This finding is in congruent with the findings of Okotoni and Okotoni (2003), Turay (n.d) and Meyers, Bender, Hill and Thomas (2006). They discovered that teacher – student conflict (TSC) is the most common phenomenon that teachers face in schools. The conspicuous nature of teacher–student conflict in schools, perhaps, motivated Boice (2002) to define conflict as the product of an escalating interplay between instructors' (i.e teachers) and students' misbehaviours. Some of the factors responsible for teacher–student conflict (TSC) are inappropriate classroom placement, irrelevant instruction, inconsistent management, overcrowded classrooms, rigid behavioural demands or insensitivity to student diversity (Gable, Manning and Bullock, 1997; Gable and Van Acker, 2000). Similarly, teacher–student conflict (TSC) can also occur as a result of “misunderstandings about coursework or the teacher’s intentions and manifest themselves in

behaviours that teachers find offensive or discourteous-- coming to class late and leaving early, complaints about test questions or grades, sarcastic comments and disapproving groans during class, etc” (Boice,1996). The University of North Carolina’s Centre for Faculty Excellence (2004) reported that if the instructor (i.e teacher) is unprepared to handle these conflicts when they occur, the crisis can derail the course and poison the atmosphere to such an extent that effective learning is no longer possible.

To manage this type of conflict, Gable and Van Acker (2000) recommended creation of “a positive school climate, identification of and response to early violence warning signs, relevant coursework which is neither too simple nor too complex, clear classroom rules and explanations and the avoidance of power struggles”. Meyers, Bender, Hill and Thomas (2006) indicated that this type of conflict can be tackled by communicating respect, interest and warmth to students; addressing the students outside of class; focusing on students’ feelings and expressing empathy and clarifying the goals and agenda for the course to ensure that students found them meaningful. Apart from this conflict type, the study also discovered that the second most conspicuous conflict faced by teachers in secondary schools is teacher–teacher conflict (TTC).

Spaulding and Burleson (2001) considered some of the behaviours that can attract teacher–teacher conflict as: bullying, derogatory comments, gossip, disrespect of authority, harassment, predetermined expectations of others, discord between individuals and groups and angry outbursts. Spaulding (2005) added to this statement that not only did teachers witness these actions among their peers, but when asked to label these behaviours, they identified them as either violence or precursors to violence. The third type of conflict often experienced by teachers is teacher–principal conflict (TPC). The use of derogatory comments, gossip and disrespect of authority (Spaulding and Burleson, 2001) can cause teacher-principal conflict (TPC). Onanuga (2003) pointed out that as principals versus

teachers' conflict rises, students' academic performance fall. Other forms of conflicts discovered by the study are teacher–parent conflict; teacher–PTA conflict and teacher–community conflict. These conflicts are capacity of making teachers to be uncomfortable and ineffective in discharging their responsibilities in the school. To overcome these forms of conflicts, Moore (1997) reported that if administrators and teachers want to change students' behaviour and attitudes, they should start by modifying their own behaviour and attitudes. Therefore, behaviour and attitudinal modifications in principals and teachers will go a long way to checkmate these conflicts in schools.

The hypothesis raised in relation to the nature of conflicts in Table 4.13 revealed that the joint contributions of the nature of conflicts were significant at ($F(6,1517) = 7.852$; $R = 0.174$, $R^2 = 0.30$; $Adj R^2 = 0.026$; $P < 0.05$). Hence, about 30% of the variation was accounted for by the nature of conflicts. Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected, indicating that the nature of conflicts make significant composite contributions to teachers' productivity. Furthermore, Table 4.14 showed the relative contributions of the nature of conflicts to teachers' productivity. The results showed that teacher-student conflict ($\beta = -0.005$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-teacher conflict ($\beta = 0.053$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-principal conflict ($\beta = -0.013$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-parent conflict ($\beta = -0.040$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-community conflict ($\beta = 0.204$, $P < 0.05$) and teacher-P.T.A conflict ($\beta = -0.262$, $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to teachers' productivity.

Drugli (2013) posited that conflict in student-teacher relationships correlated highly with child mental health factors and in particular problems of externalization. This is a suggestion that teacher-student conflict that is not properly resolved will create health problems for students and also impact adversely on the teachers. Similarly, Diamond (1992) asserted that in most classrooms, conflict between the teacher and a student is a regular occurrence, part of the daily routine. If it is resolved effectively, the student learns that he

cannot misbehave in the teacher's room without unpleasant consequences, and the class is a more orderly learning environment. This suggested that properly managed teacher-student conflict will foster orderliness, respect and harmony in the class. These values will enhance teachers' productivity and effective learning in the school. Where such a conflict is poorly managed it will lead to decline in their work performance of teachers, and consequently results in poor performance on the part of the students. Janssen (2004) asserted that in superior/employees conflict, conflicts with superiors may hinder empowered employees to develop or maintain high levels of organisational commitment. Uchendu, Anijaobi-Idem and Odigwe (2013) indicated that unresolved conflicts among principals and teachers can affect the organisational performance and lead to non-attainment of the educational goals and objectives. This implied that principal-teacher conflict can produce a detrimental effect on teachers' productivity in schools, which will consequently affect the educational goals of the country. Onanuga (2003) showed the relationship between principal-teacher conflict, and concluded that students' academic performance falls as principal-teacher conflict rises and students' academic performance rises as principal-teacher conflict falls. This is an indication that principal-teacher conflict affects teachers' productivity negatively, since it leads to poor academic performance.

Similarly, Onanuga (2003) posited that teacher-teacher conflict affect the performance of students. He indicated further that when teachers are at loggerheads, they will use their energy to fight one another and valuable time will be wasted on bitter criticisms, petitions and accusations. This implied that teacher-teacher conflict makes teachers' productivity to decline, thereby affecting the students and the school in general. The findings of the study are in congruence with the above supported findings. Teacher-parent conflict is also one of the conflicts that can affect teachers in schools. Therefore, teacher-parent conflict was found to be significantly related to teachers' productivity. Katz, Aidman, Reese and Clark (1996)

posited that preventing and resolving the differences that may arise between parents, teachers, and children with constructive communication, respect, grace and good humor can help make school a pleasant place. This means that teacher-parent conflict that is wrongly managed can make teachers' productivity to decline, by making the school unpleasant place for teachers to operate. Hence, the findings of the study tally with the above findings.

4.3.7 Causes and Effects of Conflict

4.3.7.1 Causes of Conflict

School conflicts are caused by various factors. In this study, it was discovered that the causes of conflicts in secondary schools are: poor management behaviour of principals, violation of school rules and regulations, lateness to school, poor distribution of available school materials for teaching and learning, unclear definition of responsibilities among teachers, problems of indiscipline, breakdown in communication among teachers, religious fanaticism, gossiping and poor allocation of subjects to teachers. These findings tally with studies such as Kruss and Morsella (2000), Spaulding and Burleson (2001), Calitz, Fuglested and Lillejord (2002), Jonkman (2006), Gumuseli and Hacifazlioglu (2009). Kruss and Morsella (2000) identified ambiguous communication and autocratic approach to exercising power; Spaulding and Burleson (2001) mentioned derogatory comments and gossip, Jonkman (2006) indicated communication barrier, role ambiguity, unclear expectations or rules, disagreement on task and content issues and principals' poor management behaviour. Calitz, Fuglested and Lillejord (2002) posited that competition for scarce resources, differences in values and inconsistencies among educators and learners bring about school conflict. Devereaux (2003) linked the conflict causative factors in schools to leadership of principals. Gumuseli and Hacifazlioglu (2009) identified unclear and different goals, workload sharing, role and authority ambiguity, limited resources as causes of conflict in schools. The various

causes of conflict in the school system suggested that the school is a conflict-laden institution.

4.3.7.2 Effects of School Conflict

The effects of school conflict are numerous. They can manifest in teachers, students and the school in general. This study discovered that the effects of conflict in secondary schools were conflict: lowers the productivity of teachers; discourages effective teaching behaviour in schools; leads to factions/division among teachers; results in the destruction of school facilities; makes teachers to lose concentration/dedication on their jobs; lowers the morale of teachers; results in suspension of teachers; leads to violent fight in schools, and breeds stress in teachers. The findings of the study are in agreement with the findings of Swart (2001), Karip (2000), Onanuga (2003), Akanji (2005), Jonkman (2006), Emechebe (2009) and Adeyemi (2009). Swart (2001) found out that conflict gradually worsen interpersonal relationships, decreases productivity and produces negative organisational results. Karip (2000) discovered that conflict lowers morale; brings about decrease in work productivity and communication problems in the educational system. Jonkman (2006) indicated that conflict in schools leads to low morale and poor performance. Akanji (2005) enumerated some of the effects of conflicts as: dislocation of the entire group and polarisation, reduced productivity and job performance, psychological and/or physical injury, etc. Emechebe (2009) highlighted the effects of conflict as decreases competence, leads to irresponsible behaviour such as fighting, leads to poor working relationship, lowers morale and decreases productivity. Onanuga (2003) reported that the major effect of conflict, whether teacher–teacher, teacher–student, or teacher–principal conflict, is that it leads to poor academic performance. Adeyemi (2009) stated that the major effect of conflict is possible loss of lives and properties. The effects of conflicts in the school system suggested that teachers' productivity is at risk, when poorly managed.

4.3.8 Choice of Conflict Management styles of Principals

The choice of conflict management style determines the outcome of a conflict, which can influence the job behaviour of people. Therefore, this study discovered that close relationship, sex, educational background, age and experience are some of the factors that influence the choice of conflict management styles of principals in secondary schools. Table 4.15 indicated the hypothesis raised in relation to the choice of conflict management styles of principals and teachers' productivity. The hypothesis was rejected, illustrating that there is a significant relationship between the choice of conflict management styles of principals and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.267$; $P < 0.05$). This indicated that the choice of a style adopted to resolve conflict will have impact on teachers' productivity. Baser and Kaya (2010) posited that age and educational level influenced the choice of conflict management styles of teachers. According to Baser and Kaya (2010) the 20-29 age group of teachers perceives avoidance as the most effective, while 30-39 and 40 and over age groups emphasise collaboration style as the most effective conflict management style. Baser and Kaya (2010) further noted that the perceptions of the teachers on the effectiveness of the conflict management styles differ according to their educational level.

These ideas suggested that the choice of conflict management styles is influenced by age and educational level. Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) identified sex as a major variable that influences the choice of conflict management styles. Gender and life experiences are also found as factors that influence the choice of conflict management styles (Drory and Ritov, 1997., Brewer, Mitchell and Weber, 2002., Cetin and Hacifazlioglu, 2004., Brahnam, Margavio, Hignite, Barrier, and Chin, 2005., and Chan, Monroe, Ng, and Tan, 2006). Putnam and Wilson (1982) and Chang and Holt (1991) found relationship to be highly imperative in the choice of conflict management styles. The styles that will be chosen by principals to deal with conflict are consequential on the above highlighted factors. Therefore,

the style adopted has the tendency to influence teachers' performance constructively or dysfunctionally. It is imperative for principals to be very careful when making choice of conflict management styles. Abacioghu (2005) posited that demographic variables such as school type, gender, the school from which the principal graduated and the years of experience were statistically significant with conflict management styles of principals. Therefore, the findings of the study are in consonance with the above findings.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This study investigated conflict variables as correlates of public secondary school teachers' productivity in Adamawa State. The conflict variables addressed in the study were categorised into three, namely: conflict identification variable, conflict operational variable and conflict management variable. The variables were composed of eleven (11) elements, which formed the basis for developing the specific objectives and hypotheses of the study. Based on this, eight (8) research questions were raised and answered and eight (8) hypotheses were developed and tested at 0.05 level of significance in the course of the study. Questionnaires were used to elicit information from principals and teachers in secondary schools for data analysis, while Indepth Interview (IDI) was used to generate information from some of the staff of the School Board and some executive members of the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) in the state. The highlights of the findings were:

- (i) teacher–student conflict (TSC) was the major form of conflict confronting teachers. This was followed by teacher–teacher conflict (TTC) and the next was teacher-principal conflict (TPC). Other forms of conflict also facing teachers in secondary schools were equally discovered in the study.
- (ii) violation of school rules and regulations, problems of indiscipline, poor management behaviour of principals and lateness to school were the most severe causes of conflict in secondary schools.
- (iii) the most severe effects of conflict in secondary school were: it lowers the productivity of teachers, it discourages effective teaching behaviour and it leads to poor academic performance.
- (iv) conflict level in secondary schools ranges from low, moderate to high levels.

- (v) the major conflict tactics that teachers often employed to respond to conflict was by trying to calm down the other party to discuss the issue ($\bar{X} = 3.08$).
- (vi) collaborating style was discovered as the most highly favoured conflict management style used by teachers ($\bar{X} = 3.1$) and principals ($\bar{X} = 3.33$), while avoiding style was discovered as the most highly favoured conflict management style adopted by the Schools Board ($\bar{X} = 2.94$).
- (vii) the communication pattern of teachers have the tendency to impact positively or negatively on teachers' productivity. This is because communication pattern employed by teachers at a particular time have the tendency to ignite or prevent conflict.
- (viii) the length of work experience ($\bar{X} = 3.22$) was discovered as the main factor that influenced the choice of conflict management styles of principals, which was followed by close relationship with the conflicting party ($\bar{X} = 3.06$).
- (ix) there was a significant relationship between conflict level and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.080$; $P < 0.05$).
- (x) there was a significant relationship between conflict communication and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.414$; $P < 0.05$).
- (xi) there was no significant relationship between conflict tactics and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.000$; $P > 0.05$).
- (xii) there was a significant relationship between conflict incidence and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.35$; $P < 0.05$).
- (xiii) there was a significant relationship between the choice of conflict management styles of principals and teachers' productivity ($r = 0.267$; $P < 0.05$).
- (xiv) the relative contributions of the nature of conflicts to teachers' productivity indicated that teacher-student conflict ($\beta = -0.005$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-teacher

conflict ($\beta = 0.053$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-principal conflict ($\beta = -0.013$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-parent conflict ($\beta = -0.040$, $P < 0.05$), teacher-community conflict ($\beta = 0.204$, $P < 0.05$) and teacher-P.T.A conflict ($\beta = -0.262$, $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to teachers' productivity.

- (xv) the composite contributions of conflict variables were found to be significantly correlated with teachers' productivity at ($F_{(5, 1513)} = 71.147$; $R = 0.444$, $R^2 = 0.412$, $\text{Adj. } R^2 = 0.194$; $P < 0.05$). Hence, conflict variables accounted for 41% variation in teachers' productivity.
- (xvi) Collaborating style ($r = 0.325$; $P < 0.05$), accommodating style ($r = 0.076$; $P < 0.05$) and compromising style ($r = 0.107$; $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to teachers' productivity, while avoiding style ($r = 0.042$; $P > 0.05$) and competing style ($r = -0.011$; $P > 0.05$) were not significantly related to teachers' productivity.
- (xvii) the relative contributions of conflict variables to teachers' productivity indicated that conflict level ($\beta = -0.162$, $P < 0.05$), conflict incidence ($\beta = -0.065$, $P < 0.05$), conflict communication ($\beta = 0.407$, $P < 0.05$), and conflict management styles ($\beta = 0.160$, $P < 0.05$) tested positive and were found to be significantly related to teachers' productivity, while conflict tactics ($\beta = 0.035$, $P < 0.05$) was not significantly related to teachers' productivity.
- (xviii) the IDI revealed that the School Board officials preferred avoidance style because of the pervading syndrome of godfatherism that often underscored teachers' appointment. In addition, they indicated that conflict, when mismanaged, adversely affects teachers' productivity. The NUT executive members opined that conflicts confronting teachers stem from poor management attitudes of principals and the School Board patterns of handling issues relating to promotion and salaries of teachers.

5.2 Conclusion

Considering the subsequent results that emerged from the exercise of data analysis, there were numerous causes of school conflict and its effects on teachers, students, school and the society in general were usually not palatable. However, it is important to note that the inevitability of conflict in the school does not connote a bad phenomenon, rather it shows how alive the system is, based on its diverse orientations. The fact that people from different background, having different aspirations, orientations, interest, and goals are assembled in a place, showcased the elasticity of the diversity of the school and the realistic tendency for manifestation of conflicts. There is nothing wrong with the existence or presence of conflicts in the school arena, but it will be wrong to allow emerging conflicts to escalate, turning the school environment into uncondusive and unstable place for optimum production. In view of this, the study investigated conflict variables as correlates of public secondary school teachers' productivity in Adamawa State.

Conflict variables formed the template for analysis in the study. Therefore, it was discovered that secondary schools are dominated by various forms of conflict and when mismanaged, teachers' productivity will be adversely affected, resulting in poor students' learning outcome and generally affecting the quality of education. The benefits associated with constructive management of conflict should serve as a prototype for teachers to understand that school conflicts can be positively managed for effective functioning of the school to achieve its set objectives. The attachment of negative inferences to conflict was one of the stereotypes that often create perceptual problems in handling conflict constructively in the school. Perception underscores the various conflict causative factors in the school. The way conflict is perceived by school personnel will determine the nature of conflict tactics that will be employed in the first place and the communication pattern of those concerned will equally be shaped by the perception formed. And finally, the pattern conflict management

styles that will be adopted in the course of the conflict will equally be linked to the perception formed by the parties. Positive responses to conflicts will beget positive results. This is true to the extent that conflict behaviours formed overtime will rest on the communication patterns, conflict tactics used, and the long-term conflict management styles employed by the conflicting parties. It will be wonderful if conflicts emerging from the school system were positively perceived and deserving mitigating techniques employed by principals and teachers to prevent them from escalating into violent conflicts. This is because conflict has the capacity to diminish, thwart and distort teachers' productivity and principals' administrative behaviour. Therefore, since teachers' productivity is the template for determining the quality of education, the educational system will equally be adversely affected in a country where the productive capacity of teachers have been put at risk.

This means that principals and teachers need to be empowered to confront conflict positively in order to create peaceful and harmonious environments required for effective and efficient performance of their jobs for the collective growth of the school system in the country. The point is that school-based conflicts need appropriate capacity building for school personnel to make the educational environment conducive for teaching and learning and to achievement the set goals of the system. The fact that the various conflict types affected teachers' productivity, as well as conflict level, conflict communication and conflict management styles equally affect teachers' productivity is an indication that teachers are at the centre of conflict experience in the school. This showed how entangled are teachers with school conflicts. Even the external sources of conflict in the school system such as school-community conflict, school board-teacher conflict, government policies among others, also have bearing on the teachers and their performance levels. The effects of conflict on teachers cannot be underestimated, hence, the reason why the conflict variables explored in the study showed significant relationship with teachers' productivity. Conflict management styles such

as accommodation, collaboration and compromise were significantly correlated with teachers' productivity while avoidance and competition were not significantly related to teachers' productivity. Therefore, secondary school teachers should be aware of the fact that school conflict dynamics and how to handle them are essential parameters in modern time school administration for the expected desired level of change to take place in the educational system.

5.3 Recommendations

Sequel to the conclusion and subsequent findings of this research work, it becomes imperative to make the following recommendations:

- (i) courses on conflict management and conflict resolution should be introduced into the curricula of colleges of education and faculties of education. This will allowed prospective teachers to understand conflict behaviours and its management patterns, so that conflicts that they would encounter while on the job would be constructively managed to enhance their productivity.
- (ii) since communication is a conflict inducing phenomenon, communication education becomes essentially paramount for school personnel, most especially teachers, to expose them to communication approaches that are capable of creating harmonious school environment that will permit positive social relation for optimum performance and for the growth and development of education in the state and generally in the country.
- (iii) since principals are equally conflict causative agent in schools, it becomes imperative for government/Ministry of Education to make sure that those that will hold the position of principalship are exposed to peace education and conflict management training programmes, so that their administrative capability can be

sharpened to handle conflicts constructively for better results in secondary schools.

- (iv) conflict manifestations in secondary schools ranges from low, moderate to high levels, therefore, early warning signals should be mounted in highly prone conflict schools so that emerging conflicts can be nipped early enough in the bud, to prevent them from escalating into violent conflicts, capable of making the school environment uncondusive and unstable for teaching and learning.
- (v) effective and adequate supervisory activities should be embarked upon in secondary schools, in order to reduce the problems of indiscipline which is a major conflict causative factor in the system.
- (vi) shortage of school learning facilities is one of causes of resource conflict in secondary schools, therefore government should make sure that the needed facilities are provided for schools to enable them contain the conflict inherent in problem of learning resources.
- (vii) conflict management has assumed a serious place in any social organisation that want to sustain its relevance in this global era. Therefore, school personnel should be exposed to factors that underpin the choice of conflict management pattern, its usability and conflict management techniques for effective and efficient performance in schools.
- (viii) Principals and teachers should make sure that the adoption of avoiding and competing conflict management styles are thoroughly examined to ascertain that the existing conflicting situation will favour their adoption to the extent that the styles will not produce negative outcomes on the job performances of principals teachers immediately or in future.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

In the course of the study, the researcher encountered some challenges. Firstly, the locations of some secondary schools were not easily accessible as a result of bad roads and poor transportation network. The researcher made provision for private arrangement by those who are conversant with the terrain for easy access to the schools. Apart from this, filling the questionnaires adequately was a problem for some of the respondents. This led to spending longer time than estimated to make sure that the questionnaires were adequately filled before retrieval. Also, some of the sampled schools were located in interior places with natural barrier such as flooding, most especially during raining season. This delayed the administration of questionnaires in such places. The researcher waited for the off-season in which movement to such places were significantly high to distribute the questionnaire to respondents and also retrieve from them.

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**UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN.
INSTITUTE OF AFRICAN STUDIES**

22nd April, 2010

CONFLICT VARIABLES AND TEACHERS' PRODUCTIVITY SCALE (CVTPS)

Dear Respondent,

I am a Ph.D student in the Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan. I am conducting a research on Conflict Variables as correlates of Public Secondary School Teachers' Productivity in Adamawa State, Nigeria. I wish to solicit for your support to fill the attached questionnaire to enable me generate the required information for the study. Your responses shall be treated with strict confidentiality.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Alimba C.N.

SECTION A (Background Information of Respondent)

Instruction: please mark (x) where applicable.

- (1) **Sex of respondent:** (a) Male () (b) Female ()
- (2) **Age of respondent:** (a) 20-25years () (b) 26-30years () (c) 31-35years ()
 (d) 36-40 () (e) 41-45years () (f) 46-50years () (g) 51-55 years ()
 (h) 56-60years () (i) 61years and above ()
- (3) **Length of job experience of respondent:** (a) 0-5years () (b) 6-10years ()
 (c) 11-15years () (d) 16-20 () (e) 21-25years () (f) 26-30years ()
 (g) 31years and above ()
- (4) **Highest educational qualification of respondent :**(a) NCE/OND () (b)
 B.Ed/B.A/B.Sc() (c) M.Ed/M.A/M.Sc() (d) Other qualifications, please specify.....
- (5) **Marital status of respondent:** (a) Married () (b) Single () (c) Divorced ()
 (d) Widowed () (e) separated ()

SECTION B (Conflict Definition, Causes and Effects of Conflict)

(6) **Indicate which person(s) you usually experience conflict within your school.**

- (a) Students () (b) Teachers () (c) Principal () (d) Parents ()
 (e) Community leaders () (f) The P.T.A ()

Indicate those factors that cause conflict that you often experience in your school.

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	Poor management behaviour of principals leads to conflict in my school.				
(2)	The violation of school rules and regulations result in conflict in my school.				
(3)	Lateness to school often causes conflict in my school.				
(4)	Poor distribution of available school materials for teaching and learning can cause conflict in my school.				
(5)	Unclear definition of responsibilities among teachers leads to conflict in my school.				
(6)	The problems of indiscipline in my school often lead to conflict.				

(7)	Breakdown in communication among teachers result in conflict in my school.				
(8)	Religious fanaticism also results in conflict in my school.				
(9)	Gossiping leads to conflict in my school.				
(10)	Poor allocation of subjects to teachers results in conflict in my school.				

Indicate the effects of conflict in your school.

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	Conflict lowers the productivity of teachers.				
(2)	Conflict discourages effective teaching behaviour in my school.				
(3)	Conflict leads to poor academic performance.				
(4)	Conflict leads to factions/division among teachers in my school.				
(5)	Conflict results in the destruction of facilities in my school.				
(6)	Conflict makes teachers to loss concentration and dedication on their jobs.				
(7)	Conflict lowers self-esteem of teachers.				
(8)	Conflict results in the suspension of teachers.				
(9)	Conflict leads to violent fight in my school.				
(10)	Conflict leads to stress among teachers in my school.				

SECTION C (Conflict Level & Conflict Incident)

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	Conflict is operating at a low level in my school.				
(2)	Conflict is operating at a medium/moderate level in my school				

(3)	Conflict is operating at a high level in my school.				
(4)	Conflict occurs frequently in my school.				
(5)	Conflict occurs occasionally in my school.				
(6)	Conflict occurs always in my school.				
(7)	Conflict never occurs in my school.				

SECTION D (Conflict Tactics and Conflict Handling Styles)

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	I respond to conflict through retaliation.				
(2)	I respond to conflict by insulting the other party.				
(3)	I respond to conflict by threatening to fight the other party.				
(4)	I respond to conflict by trying to calm down the other party to discuss the issue.				
(5)	I respond to conflict by arguing with the party				
(6)	I respond to conflict by bullying the other party				
(7)	I respond by not talking to the other party.				
	Conflict Management Styles				
(8)	I try to defeat the other party to get what I want when conflict occurs.				
(9)	I always make sure that I fight for my right				
(10)	I believe in competition when pursuing a goal.				
(11)	I often allow the other party to have his ways when conflict occurs.				
(12)	I try to be considerate when dealing with the other party.				
(13)	I make sure that I find an acceptable solution, which satisfies both parties concerns in the conflict.				
(14)	I try to look for a middle ground when conflict occurs.				
(15)	I just ignore or avoid the other part.				
(16)	I do not like to hurt the feeling of people, so I try to				

	over look issues when conflict occurs.				
(17)	I use give-and-take so that a compromise can be reached.				
(18)	I often try to satisfy the other party to allow the issue to rest.				

SECTION E (Conflict Communication Pattern and Teachers' Productivity)

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	The pattern of communication of teachers can affect their behaviours positively in the school.				
(2)	Communication patterns of teachers are highly essential in determining their performance level in the school.				
(3)	The pattern of communication of teachers can cause conflict in their schools.				
(4)	The pattern of communication of teachers can negatively affect their work attitudes in the school.				
(5)	The pattern of communication of teachers can ease tension, making teachers to be more productive on their jobs.				
(6)	The productivity of teacher can be adversely affected by breakdown in communication in the school.				
	Teachers' Productivity				
(1)	I am a very productive teacher				
(2)	I work hard to make sure that I cover the syllabus as expected for the performance of the students				
(3)	I demonstrate a good mastery of my subjects in such a way as to bring about a productive learner.				
(4)	I implement my lessons effectively to enhance the teaching and learning process in my school.				
(5)	I manage my classes effectively to make sure that				

	students perform better.				
(6)	I am dedicated to my duties.				
(7)	I make use of the available resources judiciously to achieve the set goals of the school.				
(8)	I communicate effectively with my students to encourage them to participate in the class activities.				
(9)	I have a positive interpersonal relationship with my colleagues for effective performance of my duties.				
(10)	The academic performance of my students is high because of my efficient discharge of my responsibilities.				

SECTION F (School Board Conflict Handling Styles)

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	School board contributes in no small measure to the conflicts that occur in secondary schools.				
(2)	Conflict handling styles of the school board often makes conflict to rise.				
(3)	The way the school board handles conflict often reduce its occurrences in secondary schools.				
(4)	School board resolves conflict by allowing the conflicting parties to argue their case in order to determine its merit for action.				
(5)	School board handles conflicts by allowing the parties to a conflict to work together to reach an acceptable ends that meet their needs.				
(6)	School board settles conflict by posting out one of the parties to another school so that they can stay away from each other to avoid further conflict.				
(7)	School board settles conflict by allowing the conflict parties to make concessions so that the				

	conflict can be resolved.				
(8)	School board resolves conflict by making sure that a party to the conflict disregard his own needs by satisfying those of the other party.				

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

PRINCIPALS' CONFLICT QUESTIONNAIRE (PCQ)

SECTION A (Background Information of Respondent)

Instruction: please mark (x) were applicable.

- (1) **Sex of respondent:** (a) Male () (b) Female ()
- (2) **Age of respondent:** (a) 20-25years () (b) 26-30years () (c) 31-35years ()
(d) 36-40 () (e) 41-45years () (f) 46-50years () (g) 51-55 years ()
(h) 56-60years () (i) 61years and above ()
- (3) **Length of job experience of respondent:** (a) 0-5years () (b) 6-10years ()
(c) 11-15years () (d) 16-20 () (e) 21-25years () (f) 26-30years ()
(e) 31years and above ()
- (4) **Highest educational qualification of respondent :**(a) NCE/OND () (b)
B.Ed/B.A/B.Sc() (c) M.Ed/M.A/M.Sc() (d) Other qualifications, please specify.....
- (5) **Marital status of respondent:** (a) Married () (b) Single () (c) Divorced ()
(d) Widowed () (e) separated ()

SECTION B (Conflict Management Styles of Principals)

	Conflict Management Styles				
(1)	I try to defeat the other party to get what I want when conflict occurs.				
(2)	I always make sure that I fight for my right				
(3)	I believe in competition when pursuing a goal.				
(4)	I often allow the other party to have his ways when conflict occurs.				
(5)	I try to be considerate when dealing with the other party.				
(6)	I make sure that I find an acceptable solution, which satisfies both parties concerns in the conflict.				
(7)	I try to look for a middle ground when conflict occurs.				
(8)	I just ignore or avoid the other part.				
(9)	I do not like to hurt the feeling of people, so I try to over look issues when conflict occurs.				

(10)	I use give-and-take so that a compromise can be reached.				
(11)	I often try to satisfy the other party to allow the issue to rest.				

SECTION C (Factors influencing the choice of Conflict management Styles of Principals)

S/No	Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
(1)	My closeness with someone will determine how I will treat him when we are in conflict.				
(2)	I often give preference to the opposite sex in the way handle conflict with people in the school.				
(3)	My educational background influence the way I approach conflict with my colleagues in the school.				
(4)	Age often influence the ways I handle conflict in my school.				
(5)	My length of experience in my job is a major factor that influence the way I handle people during conflict period.				
(6)	My relationship with a person will determine the style that will be adopted to resolve a conflict.				

SECTION D (Principals' Opinion about Teachers' Productivity in their schools)

	Teachers' Productivity				
(1)	My school teachers are productive.				
(2)	My school teachers work hard to cover the syllabus as expected for the performance of the students				
(3)	My school teachers demonstrate good mastery of their subjects in such a way as to bring about a productive learning.				
(4)	My school teachers implement their lessons plan				

	effectively to enhance the teaching and learning process in the school.				
(5)	My school teachers manage their classes effectively to make sure that students perform better.				
(6)	My school teachers are dedicated to their duties.				
(7)	My school teachers make use of the available resources judiciously to achieve the set goals of the school.				
(8)	My school teachers communicate effectively with their students to encourage them to participate in the class activities.				
(9)	My school teachers have positive interpersonal relationship with their colleagues for effective performance of my duties.				
(10)	The academic performance of my students are high because of the efficient manner they discharge their responsibilities.				

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QUESTIONS FOR INDEPTH INTERVIEW (IDI)

(a) Questions for Staff of the School Board

1. What are those factors that cause conflict in secondary school in Adamawa state?
2. What are the effects of conflict in secondary schools?
3. How do you consider the productivity of teachers in secondary schools in Adamawa state?
4. Do you think that conflict affects the productivity of teachers?
5. If Yes, how does conflict affect them?
6. In what ways does the Board intervene in resolving conflict in the school?
7. Describe the ways in which the Board contributes to causing conflict in the school?
8. Do you think that the principals are part of the conflict causative element in the school.
9. If Yes, in what ways do they cause conflict in the school.
10. How do you think that conflict can be reduced to enhance teachers' productivity in the school.?
11. Is the conflict handling styles of principals effective.

(b) Questions for the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT)

1. Do you consider your teachers productive considering the state of the secondary school in Adamawa state?
2. Do you think that conflict do occur in secondary school climate?
3. What are the factors that are responsible for the conflict?
4. Do you think that conflict affects the productivity of teachers in secondary schools?
5. If Yes, in what ways do conflict affect the productivity of teachers in the state?
6. How do you contribute to manage conflicts occurring in secondary schools?
7. How do you consider the activities of the School Board in relation to conflicts occurring in secondary schools in the state?
8. What are the conflict management approaches often employ by School Board in resolving conflict in secondary schools?
9. How can you describe the conflict level operating in your schools?
10. How do you describe the activities of principals in relation to conflict in their schools?