UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, TAMALE

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE STRATEGIES USED IN HANDLING

STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN TERTIARY

INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: THE CASE OF UNIVERSITY FOR

DEVELOPMENT STUDIES FROM 1999 TO 2009

JOHN YAW AKPAREP

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

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AN ASSESSMENT OF THE STRATEGIES USED IN HANDLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: THE CASE OF UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES FROM 1999 TO 2009

BY

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THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES, FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, UNVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

MAY, 2018

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature………………………….. Date…………………

Name: John Yaw Akparep

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Principal Supervisor's Signature………………………….. Date…………………..

Name: Professor Daniel A. Bagah

Co-Supervisor's Signature……………………….….. Date…………………..

Name: Dr. Frank K. Teng-Zeng

ABSTRACT

This thesis was conducted to assess the strategies used in handling students-management conflicts in tertiary institutions in Ghana: The case of University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009. It sought to ascertain the effectiveness of the strategies used in the handling of students-management conflicts by the University using qualitative research design. Questionnaires and interview guides were the data collection tools employed and administered to 40 respondents. Relevant literature and secondary data were reviewed to support primary data collected. Data were analyzed qualitatively in narratives and with charts, graphs, tables and matrices. My study found that: there was a big class structural gap between students and management; re-enforced by the autocratic/authoritarian leadership style of Management. Conflicts were high and worrying in the University. Conflicts between students and university management most frequently occurred and often took the nature of revolts, violent demonstrations, boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examinations, verbal assaults and physical attacks. Wide communication gap between students and university management, infrastructural deficiencies and leadership crises were the major causes of the conflicts. Negatively, the conflicts led to low productivity and tarnished the reputation of the University. Positively, the conflicts transformed governance of the University. The University in handling the conflicts relied mainly on forcing/domination strategy but also frequently used ignoring, suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication/threat of rustication of student leaders. Integration, negotiated compromises and the use of security forces were also used but rarely so. None of the

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strategies used in managing the conflicts was very effective. Just one was effective yet rarely used. One was moderately effective but rarely used too. The strategies used were more regulatory and repressive. My study concluded that the strategies used in handling the conflicts were less effective and only managed them somehow. The study recommended that in handling students-management conflicts, the University should rely more on cooperative strategies like integration and negotiated compromises and very less on regulatory and repressive strategies as: forcing/domination, ignoring, suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication/threat of rustication of student leaders and the use of security forces.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to all those whose contributions have brought me this far in life.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADR………………………….   Alternative Dispute Resolution

ACME…………………………   African Centre for Media Excellence

AFUF ………………………….   Academic Facility User Fees

APA…………………………....   American Psychological Association

BECMAN……………………...   Business, Economics and Commerce Manual

FUSSAG ………………………   Federation of University Senior Staff Association of

Ghana

GAUA………………………….   Ghana Association of University Administrators

GNSO………………………….   Ghana National Students' Organization

ICAs …………………………...   Imperatively Coordinated Associations

NCTE… ……………………….   National Council for Tertiary Education

NSO…………………………….   Nonprofit Service Organizations

NUGS…………………………..   National Union of Ghana Students

PBL….. ………………………..   Problem Based Learning

PNDC ………………………….   Provisional National Defense Council

SAHO………………………….   South African History Online

SRC ……………………………   Students Representation Council

TEWU..................................   Tertiary Education Workers Union

TTFPP …………………………   Third Trimester Field Practical Programme

UDS……………………………   University for Development Studies

UK……………………………..   United Kingdom

UNESCO ……………………..	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIBEN………………………	University of Benin, Nigeria
USAG ………………………...	University Students Association of Ghana
UTAG…………………………	University Teachers Association of Ghana

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Conflict is part of human life such that people can hardly exist anywhere—home, school, work or even at a place of worship without it. Conflicts are therefore bound to occur in the work place. The workplace could be a big company or a small family business; it could be a government agency, school (university) or a non- governmental organization (Runde and Flanagan, 2007). Thus, "conflict is an ever-present feature of modern life" and "an unavoidable aspect of organizational life" (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004:485). Conflicts occur between and among employees and between employees and employers. Conflicts also occur in organizations involving other stakeholders including customers who, according to Wright and Noe (1996), are the direct recipients of the services of service organizations such as students in the case of a school. Describing the university as a social organization, Adebayo (2009) asserted that, it experiences conflicts between different groups within its jurisdiction such as students and management. Therefore, tertiary institutions just like other organizations are not without conflict (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013).

Adebayo (2009) submitted that students-management conflicts seem as old as institutions of formal education. Aina (1977) is cited in Adebayo (2009) as tracing students-management conflicts to a period of over two and half centuries in American Universities where students often protested violently. Aina (1977) therefore asserted that students' crises had their roots in American Universities. Conflicts between students and authorities in institutions of higher

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learning are worldwide phenomena and occur across continents, countries and institutions (Malekela et al., 1994). According to (Mbwette and Ishumi, 1996), students' uprising in contemporary times in universities dates back to the late 1960s in Europe and North America. In Africa, the story has not been different. Nigerian University students from the University College of Ibadan were cited to have staged the first ever protest in 1957 over barbed-wire barricade that was allegedly set up to control the unlawful movement of students out of halls of residence (Adebayo, 2009). South Africa's Apartheid Regime came crushing with native South African Students; playing major roles towards independence (SAHO, 2017). Cameroonian Universities had their share of these conflicts in the last decade (Nyamnjoh et al, 2012). In recent times, students-management conflicts have become topical with incidences in Canada, the Netherlands and the UK in 2015 in the world front (Shaw, 2015). In Africa, South Africa and Uganda among others were not spared of similar incidences in 2016 (Hall, 2016; ACME, 2016).

In Ghana, Boahen (1994) pointed out that the first students' upheaval occurred in 1964. This was a confrontation between students of the Universities of Ghana and Nkrumah's government when National Union of Ghana Students (NUGS) passed resolutions condemning the dismissal of the Chief Justice and protesting against the deportation of six members of the academic staff of the University of Ghana. Boahen (1994) added that the students of the University of Ghana followed this up with a demonstration on the campus and government responded by closing the three universities for seventeen days and forming a rival student association, the Ghana National Students' Organization (GNSO) to replace NUGS. Ghana saw more students uprising thereafter and more so in the late 1990s over

government's "cost sharing" principle in the midst of strained classrooms, overcrowded dormitories, deficient libraries with only few new books and journals and poorly equipped laboratories. For example, it was noted that in late 1999 students embarked on strikes to protest rising "user fees"; the charges that university administrations levied on students for accommodations, meals and use of laboratories and libraries (Harsch, 2000).

The University for Development Studies (UDS) was not left out in these upheavals. Whereas, the upheavals appeared general, they had their own peculiarities and much more grounded on institutional issues but found expression in the national strikes. Available accounts to the researcher have it that, in UDS, students' protests emerged in 1999 as an extension of the national strikes and also over disagreements between students and management on academic programmes and programmes accreditation concerns. The issue of students-management conflicts thus became a sprawled issue in the university spanning over a decade.

Wall and Callister (1995: 517) defined conflict as "a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party". By this definition, the source of a conflict can either be real or imagined. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) categorized organizational conflicts into two main types based on how they affect the organization's interest. Conflicts that support the goals of the organization and improve performance are termed functional or constructive or cooperative forms of conflict.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) identified the second type of conflicts as dysfunctional or destructive which hinder organizational performance and as such are undesirable, hence the need for efforts to eradicate them or at worse, reduce them.

Unfortunately, organizational conflicts, especially, students-management conflicts in Universities take the form of dysfunctional conflicts; plagued by apathy, lack of creativity, indecision and missed deadlines. As remarked by Fisher et al (1995) in Adeyemi and Ekundayo (2012), students-management conflicts in universities are mostly characterized with violence, protests, unrest and turmoil. Tyson and York (1996) asserted that conflicts of dysfunctional nature impede organizational growth and success as they lead to waste of productive working hours, tarnish the public image of the organizations concerned and reduce the goodwill the public has for them.

It is worth-noting that conflicts could be dysfunctional, however, depending on how they are managed, they could be constructive with such desired outcomes as equitable and fair agreements, stronger relationships between conflicting parties through the building of bridges of goodwill and trust for future use and enhanced self-awareness and creative problem solving experience (Bennett, 1994).

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1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Public Universities as Nonprofit Service Organizations (NSO) survive and grow without making profits (Blau and Scott, 1962 in Kreitner, 2001). Universities as organizations exist with given mandates to pursue set visions. For instance, the University for Development Studies which was established in May, 1992 by PNDC Law 279 Section 2 envisages a vision "to become a Home of World Class Pro-Poor Scholarship". It has the mandate of providing access to education to the people of its catchment area so as to deal with the developmental concerns and needs of rural communities in northern Ghana in particular and the country at large (UDS, 2015:6; 2016).

This researcher has firsthand experience that shows that in pursuit of its vision, UDS was intermittently obstructed by the recurrence of students-management conflicts that plagued it from 1999 to 2009. The UDS recorded students-management conflicts in the 1999/2000 academic year on Nyankpala Campus, 1999/2000, 2001/2002 and 2004/2005 academic years on Navrongo and 2005/2006 academic year and 2008/2009 academic year on Wa Campus (UDS, 2009; 2011; Boateng, 2008). These conflicts were characterized by demonstrations, boycott of classes, disorderliness and obstruction of University activities, turmoil and protests.

Aside these manifested conflicts, the University also witnessed and is still witnessing a number of students-management conflicts in their latent forms at multiple levels; from the point of students' enrollment, registration and matriculation through their stay and study to graduation and collection of certificates and transcripts. As remarked by Adeyemi and

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Ekundayo (2012), students-management conflicts in the University have often had undesirable consequences on all stakeholders of education and being severer on students, parents, the University and government.

It is worth noting that the reputation of the University depends largely on the quality of its students (customers) turned out. Unmanaged conflicts affect the quality of the students the University produces, which paints a negative picture about the competence of the University's employees (academic and administrative). Ada

Given the view that conflicts are inevitable and the fact that most organizations aim to minimize dysfunctional conflicts, management of UDS had strived to deal with students-management. For instance, in the case of the 2008/2009 academic year student conflicts with Management on the Wa Campus, the Ministry of Education and National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) had to intervene in its resolution (UDS, 2009). The resounding question then is: why did these conflicts re-occur in the University? Perhaps, Ross (1993:1) is right to say "the problem is not conflict per se, but how we handle it". Thus, the ability to effectively handle conflicts is very important for organizational success.

Unfortunately, a number of organizations, like the universities, lack the ability to effectively manage conflicts, hence their upsurge. Animba et al (2003) argued that the inability of institutions of higher learning to manage their institutions effectively is a source of conflict between student unions and management. They contended that some university officers do not have an understanding of the nature of students and ways of enhancing effective

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interaction with them, resulting in conflicts. Could this be the cause of the various students-management conflicts witnessed in UDS?

From scholarly arguments, effective management could control conflicts, and for that matter, students-management conflicts in the school setting (Animba et al, 2003; Ross, 1993). Managing students-management conflicts in the university requires the use of appropriate leadership strategies by management (Capozzoli, 1995; Adeyemi, 2006 in Adeyemi and Ekundayo, 2012). Thus, the recurrence of these students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 remained not only a serious concern to the University Management, UDS (2009 and 2011), but also an indication of failed attempts by the University to effectively manage them. Assessing the strategies used in handling students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 is thus, the problem that engenders this study.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.3.1 Main Research Question

The main question that the research seeks to answer is: what strategies were used in handling students-management conflicts by the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009?

1.3.2 Sub Research Questions

Specifically, the research will address the following questions:

1. What was the nature of students-management conflicts in the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009?

2. What were the causes of these conflicts in the University?

3. What were the consequences of students-management conflicts in the University during the period?

4. What conflict management strategies were used by the University in handling these conflicts?

5. How effective were the strategies used in handling students-management conflicts in the University during the period?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Main Research Objective

The main objective of this study is to ascertain the strategies used in the handling of students-management conflicts by the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009.

1.4.2 Sub Research Objectives

Specific objectives set for the research are:

1. To determine the nature of students-management conflicts in the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009

2. To ascertain the causes of these conflicts in the University

3. To establish the consequences of students-management conflicts in the University during the period

4. To examine the conflict management strategies that were used by the University in handling these conflicts

5. To assess the effectiveness of the strategies used in handling students-management conflicts in the University during the period

1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.5.1 Theories of Conflict

A conflict theory explains conflict in a given conflict situation as regards how it begins, the dynamics and the effects that come along and as well how to deal with it (Faleti, 2006). To Faleti, a theory has explanatory, predictive, and problem-solving value and explains or suggests ways of explaining why a subject matter has certain characteristics. Theoretical explanations are necessary in presenting good analysis of conflict situations. This is particularly important given the difficulty in locating the specific cause of a given conflict situation in a single theoretical conflict domain; although disagreement remains the common denominator to conflicts (Faleti, 2006). For instance, Faleti (2006:36) stated that:

It is difficult to point to a single explanation for the emergence, escalation, or protraction of conflict whether violent or otherwise. In the case where a conflict has degenerated to the point of crisis, it is common that those involved will even find it difficult to remember what led to the initial disagreement.

Accordingly, Mayer (2008) perceived conflict as having many roots and that there are many theories trying to explain these origins. Faleti (2006) thus, concluded that, scholars have divided opinions on the nature, causes and impact of conflict, which he said are reflected in the fact that there is no single widely accepted theory on which scholars agree, though he also said the divided opinions could be the result of the multi-disciplinary nature of conflict research and the elastic nature of the concept of conflict.

One other important reason why the theoretical analysis of conflict is necessary in conflict studies like this is the fact that, the theoretical perspective from which one makes sense of a conflict situation affects the management strategy that one adopts in handling the conflict. Faleti (2006) explained that, differences in theoretical approaches to conflict analysis have also influenced the practice of conflict resolution (Faleti, 2006). To buttress his point, Faleti (2006) cited Sandole (1992: xi) as saying "theory is tested by practice; and theory is generated by practice"; noting a direct relationship of mutual dependence between theory and practice. To put students-management conflicts in the appropriate theoretical perspective, the structural conflict theory was adopted on class, power and authority

arrangements without its exploitative relationship. It was supported by the frustration aggression theory and the human needs theory of conflict.

1.5.1.1 Structural Conflict Theory

Known as the classical conflict theory, the structural conflict theory, has its roots dating back to the works of Karl Marx (1818 – 1883); to whom is attributed the origin of conflict theory. Marx's initial statements on class and the dialectics of capitalism formed the bases of the theory. Drawing from Marx's propositions, Weber emphasized that there are other factors that contribute to social inequality, most notably, status and party (or power), aside class consciousness and failure of the economy (Allan, 2006). Thus, Marx and Engels (1948) and Weber (1968) among others who share the view of the theory argued that conflict is built into the particular ways societies are structured and organized. The scholars believed that, social problems like political and economic exclusion, injustice, poverty, disease, exploitation, inequity among others are the sources of conflict. They asserted that conflicts occur because of the exploitative and unjust nature of human societies, domination of one class by another among others; and this is where this study comes in (Faleti, 2006; Allan, 2006; Chibuokwu and Nwosu, 2015). Structuralists maintained that society is divided into two antagonistic classes — the oppressor and the oppressed (haves and have-nots) which creates conflict. Their emphasis is on how competing interests of groups tie conflict directly into the social, economic and political organization of society in relation to the nature and strength of social networks within and between community groups (Faleti, 2006).

In the university organization, students on one side and management on the other, fit well into the two-class analysis of the structuralist capitalist system with focus on exploitation and class struggle. Given the unequal power relations as espoused by Marx, students, in this case, could be likened to the proletariats and weaker class and management, the bourgeoisies and stronger class. The attempts by management to dominate meet resistance from students who are increasingly becoming conscious of their rights but remaining ignorant of their responsibilities leading to conflicts. Scarborough (1998) in Faleti (2006) asserted that where the existing structures are tilted in favour of one group while putting the other(s) at a disadvantaged position, and where holders of certain powers or privileges are unwilling to acknowledge the rights of others to be different, there will be conflict.

Revisiting the ideas of Marx, Weber, and Simmel in the 1950's, Neo-Marxists, Lewis Coser and Ralph Dahrendorf, particularly, Dahrendorf argued that it is power that both defines and enforces the guiding principles of society (Allan, 2006). Analyzing his position, Dahrendorf (1959:166), quoted Weber, defining power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests". Drawing on Weber, Dahrendorf also differentiated between power and authority; intimating that power "is something that can be exercised at any moment in all social relations and depends mostly on the personalities of the individuals involved". Like Weber, Dahrendorf showed more interest in authority than power which he referred to as 'factual' power. For Dahrendorf, along with Weber, authority is legitimate power that is "always associated with social positions or roles" (Dahrendorf, 1959:166).

Thus, authority is inherent in status, positions, roles, and norms of organization to be exercised by the individuals occupying those positions and not in those individual personalities occupying the positions in the organizations. Allan (2006) asserted that, authority is embedded in social organizations and not individual personalities. For instance, the Vice Chancellor in the university has authority. Considering the fact that authority is embedded in organizations, Dahrendorf referred to authoritative social relations as Imperatively Coordinated Associations (ICAs).

Allan explained ICAs to mean that social relations are managed through legitimated power (authority). Dahrendorf (1968) believed that norms and values of society are established and imposed through authoritative power and that society is created through roles, norms, and values that work through power rather than collective consensus. For Dahrendorf (1968), roles, norms, status, positions, values among others as established in society is for the interest of the powerful. Corroborating Marx's position, Dahrendorf (1968) noted that, the culture of any society reflects the interests of the powerful elite and not the political interests of the middle or lower classes. That is, by and large, Dahrendorf concluded that class is related more to power than to money or occupation, noting that both of these might be important, but the reason for this is that they contribute to an individual's power within an ICA which is the source of conflict within the ICA.

The structural conflict theory focuses on forcing and other assertive strategies in the management of conflicts with much emphasis on the use of power which often worsen conflicts than solve them. Also, it seems to be narrow in explaining conflict as it focuses so

much on material interests just like the economic conflict theory except its extended focus on exploitative tendencies between the class structures of society/organizations. Thus, it should be noted that material interests in conflict may just be the result of needs beyond physiological to include certain psychological needs in better highlighting the intensity, duration and outcome of internal conflicts. Combining it with other theories like the frustration-aggression theory and the human needs theory gives a better understanding of students-management conflicts.

1.5.1.2 The Frustration-Aggression Theory

The Frustration-Aggression theory is credited to John Dollard and his colleagues dating back to 1939 (Dollard, et al 1939). The theory was expanded and modified by the likes of Berkowitz (1962) and Yates (1962). The theory which relies on the psychological theories of motivation behaviour is said to offer a vivid explanation to violent behaviour emanating from failure to satisfy needs (Faleti, 2006). The theory is based on what Feierabends et al (1969) referred to as the "want-get-ratio". That is the difference between what people believe they should get in relation to what they actually get—the people's ideal expectations versus their actual/real receipts of their needs (Davies, 1962). For Frustration-Aggression theorists, when it so happens that people are unable to get what they feel they legitimately deserve, there is the likelihood that they would rise against those they think serve as impediments to their getting what they deserve. And so Gurr (1970:24) in his analysis of the relative deprivation thesis, remarked that "the greater the discrepancy, however marginal, between what is sought and what seem attainable, the greater will be the chances that anger and violence will result". In this situation, people become aggressive only as a reactive

measure against being frustrated and not as a natural human instinct as the biological theory seeks to allude or as an environmental influence as in the light of the physiological theory (Faleti, 2006).

Where conflict is as a result of frustration from unmet deserved needs administrators/management is best admonished to ascertain the expectations of the parties in question and to dialogue with them. Given the authoritarian nature of management, however, there is always the tendency to adopt assertive measures and show of power as Faleti (2006) might want to imply rather than cooperative ones which eventually worsen the situation.

1.5.1.3 Human Needs Theory

The human needs theory is not very different from the Frustration-Aggression and Relative Deprivation theory. It is premised on the proposition that all humans have basic human needs which must be met for survival and that when they are denied these needs and/or frustration from getting these basic needs, it will result in conflict (Rosati et al, 1990 in Faleti, 2006). Rosati et al (1990) identified these needs to include: physical, psychological, social and spiritual needs and that the denial of even one could amount to denial and could result in conflict in pursuit of it. Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs—physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love, esteem and self- actualization needs, with the assumption of being of equal importance comes in handy in this analysis.

Burton (1979:72) who is credited as the pioneer of the human needs theory identified response, stimulation, security, recognition, distributive justice and meaning as the needs, the denial of which people resort to violence to protest for. John Burton identified food, shelter, sex and reproduction among others as basic needs that must be met. Burton intimated that survival, protection, affection, understanding, participation, creativity, security, recognition, autonomy and identity, to name but a few are human needs inherent in all people which they can hardly let go. Attempts that frustrate or suppress such needs would result in conflicts. For Burton, failure to meet basic needs would lead to frustration which would force humans into acts of aggression against groups and institutions thought to be working against their access to such needs.

Commenting on the human needs theory, Faleti (2006) concluded that despite the wide range of human needs identified by scholars as basic, they agree that the frustration of such needs inhibit potential actualization of individuals and groups which often lead to conflict. Faleti (2006) added and this is true, that, the scholars almost are in agreement to the fact that the best way to resolve or prevent a conflict emanating from the denial of basic human needs is to satisfy the parties in conflict with those needs. Managers in positions of authority as in the university, as Faleti (2006) inferred, fearing to be perceived as being weak as in the case of the frustration-aggression (if they yield to public demands or engage the weaker class in negotiation), often adopt assertive strategies in dealing with conflict related to needs denials and hence conflicts escalate.

1.5.2 Theoretical Approach and Model to the Study

The theories of conflict examined—the structural conflict theory, the frustration aggression theory and the human needs theory are applied to the analysis of students-management conflicts in this study in the light of the behavoural leadership approach in consolidation with the bureaucratic conflict management model.

1.5.2.1 The Behavoural Leadership Approach to the Analysis of the Conflict Theories

To better understand the relationship between students and management in the university community in the light of Dahrendorf's ICAs in the structure of the organization, it is important to take a look at the behavoural leadership style of administrators/managers. Three types of leadership styles: Democratic, Autocratic/Authoritarian and Laissez-Faire are identified by scholars such as (Blake and Monton, 1964; Liket, 1961). Explaining students-management conflicts in the light of the behavoural leadership approaches, Ajibade (2013) asserted that the democratic leaders/administrators often take into consideration the views of staff and students, encourage participation and are accessible. He however, argued that the autocratic/authoritarian leaders rely on one way communication, decide for staff and students and do more talking than listening. In fact autocratic leaders like to exercise their powers to the highest level possible. Ajibade (2013) further stated that laissez-faire leaders grant staff and students a high degree of independence to formulate their own goals and means of realizing them.

Whereas, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles have their own weaknesses, autocratic/authoritarian leadership is worse. Unfortunately, this is the style mostly practiced by university administrators. For instance, as noted by Ajibade (2013:67) that:

> most of the heads of tertiary institutions, especially in Nigeria adopt authoritarian/autocratic leadership style by not listening to the yearning and aspiration of the students and are lackadaisical in terms of provision of amenities such as water, health facilities, etc. He asserted that acts as strain on the students' actualizing of their dreams or goals invariably result to crises situation in most of the tertiary institutions.

The power differentials between students and university management and the subsequent domination by authoritarian university management are exemplified by the structural conflict theory involving the bourgeoisies and proletariats; domination and class consciousness, leading to protest or rebellion against domination by the under-dogs. Additionally, by the inferences of Faleti (2006), managers/leaders in positions of authority when confronted with conflicts emanating from the frustration and denial of human basic needs tend not to want to be perceived as being weak in yielding to the demands of the weaker class or engaging the weaker class in negotiation. They therefore often exhibit the authoritarian behavour, adopting assertive strategies such as forcing in dealing with conflicts which rather fuel most of such conflicts.

1.5.2.2 The Bureaucratic Conflict Model and the Analysis of the Conflict Theories

According to De Dreu and Weingart (2003), the bureaucratic conflict model mainly has to do with the problems caused by institutional attempts to control behavour and the organization's reaction to such controls. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) noted that the model is best fit for the analysis of superior-subordinates conflicts. That is conflicts between and among the hierarchy of an organization as in students-management conflicts. Therefore, be it structural, frustration-aggression or human needs based conflict, once, it occurs between students and management, there will often be attempts by management to control the behavour of the students. A reaction from the students to these control attempts by management as per the model results in conflicts.

1.6 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The study attempted to operationalize the important variables around a schematic diagram. That was to help make more sense of the study. Its important variables were conceptualized as in Figure 1.1

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Figure 1.1 A Conceptual Framework of the Study

<u>**Perceived Ineffective University Management/Non-Appropriate Students Behaviour**</u>

<u>**Disgruntled Student Body/Management Reacts**</u>

<u>**Intervening Variables**</u>

<u>**Expectations/Assumptions**</u>

Failed Management efforts to meet Students needs/expectations

Authoritarian leadership of Management

Hostile environment

Management denies Students opportunities to express their displeasure

General domineering attitude by Management and least regard for Students' welfare

Student union extremism

Students' complexity and complicity

DIMENSIONS

Incidence(s) of

Students-Management

Conflicts

- Effective conflict handling strategies applied
- Students and Management see each other as collaborators for common purpose

- Good Management and Students relations
- Minimizes conflicts
- Benefits all stakeholders

<u>**Internally and externally;**</u>

Creates good will towards the University

Students over stressed/Management irritated

Source: Author's Construct, August, 2016

From Figure 1.1, it is perceived that the University Management is ineffective and so is unable to meet students' expectations/needs/goals. The perceived management's ineffectiveness could result from and be re-enforced by its failed efforts to meet students' needs/expectations. Authoritarian leadership of management exercised in the light of the behavoural leadership approach amidst management's failure to meet students' needs/expectations only heightens its perceived ineffectiveness and attempts to bulldoze its way through and this creates a hostile relationship between it and students leading to discontent. Disgruntled students when denied opportunities to express their displeasure by management if further met with domineering attitude of management with least regard for their welfare may eventually get over stressed. Their displeasure, once goes beyond tolerance level will eventually find expression in clashes with management in furtherance for their demands, hence, students-management conflict. On their part, student union extremism and students' complexity and complicity could irritate management and when resisted unprofessionally, could result in students-management conflicts.

Once conflict occurs, appropriate intervention is required. When effective conflict handling strategies are applied, which is satisfactory to both students and Management, it could create an environment that will make students and management begin to see each other as collaborators for common purpose. It is expected that when students-management conflicts are well handled, will bring about good students and management relations, minimize the occurrence of conflicts between them and eventually create conditions for all stakeholders— students, management, parents and government among others to benefit from quality university education.

Thus, good will towards the university will be created both internally and externally to enhance its success in the pursuit of its vision.

1.7 OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE KEY TERMS

For better understanding and easier readership, a number of terms that are relevant to the study are operationalized. They are arranged alphabetically as follows:

A. Assess: Examine and evaluate the effectiveness of a strategy for managing conflicts

B. Authority: Though also used here as University authority to mean university management/university administrators, authority refers to the right to control, to give orders, to determine subordinates' workloads and take official decisions on behalf of a group. It is the legitimacy inherent in power (Bennett, 1994).

C. Bureaucracy: Is the hierarchical arrangement of institutions/organizations, differentiated by qualifications and competencies and governed by a consistent system of abstract rules, regulations and procedures where by the behaviour of the officials is subject to systematic discipline and control (Sharma et al, 2012).

D. Conflict: Conflict arises from the interactions of human beings in situations where ends are incompatible and where the ability of one's ends to be satisfied dependents on the other's choices, decisions and behaviours (Ada, 2013). It is a product of goals incompatibility, often emanating from opposing behavours of the concerned parties (Bua et

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al, 2015). It simply refers to disorderliness between and among individuals and groups due to goal incompatibility.

E. Conflict Management: Conflict management is the act of lowering the negative and destructive potential of conflict through given strategies and by working with and through the parties involved in that conflict and satisfying their inherent needs (Olajide, 2011; Aseka, 2001).

F. Conflict Management Strategies: Refers to the techniques/methods/styles used in controlling conflicts especially between students and management in the university so as to reduce their destructive potential.

G. Customer: A client who patronizes the products or services of and organization such as a student in the university organization

H. Dialogue: "Interchange and discussion of ideas, especially when open and frank, as in seeking mutual understanding or harmony" (Webster's Dictionary)

I. Dysfunctional Conflict: This is the type of conflict which hinders organizational performance and impedes the attainment of organizational goals. It is also known as destructive conflict (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004).

J. Effectiveness: The ability of a conflict handling strategy to deescalate conflicts satisfactorily and acceptably to stakeholders, in an ethical manner and induce organizational learning in respondents' judgment, ensure durability of solution and bring about positive change in relationships of disputants (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013; Ross, 1993).

K. Effective Communication: Refers to the exchange of information required for the parties in conflict in making decisions towards arriving at a solution, by sharing information that include one's own position and that of the other party that have to do with the issue(s) in conflict (Ross, 1993).

L. Ethics: These are principles of morally acceptable conduct (Wright and Noe, 1996)

M. Functional Conflict: Functional conflict, also called cooperative or constructive conflict is the category of conflicts that support the achievement of goals of the organization and improve performance. It is based on win-win attitude towards resolution (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004).

N. Intervening Variable: A variable that aids comprehension of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables when such variables seem not to have a definite connection (Sekaran, 2006 in Iravo, 2011).

O. Joint Problem Solving: Refers to a collaborative search for a solution to conflict by disputants (Ross, 1993).

P. Leadership: Leadership is the art of influencing others to do things in a particular manner. One is said to exercise leadership when he/she is able to influence others to willingly commit themselves to his or her goal (Wright and Noe, 1996).

Q. Management: Management is used in this study to mean two things.

1). Management is used in the first instance to mean University Authority/Administrators including the Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Registrar, Finance Officer, Director of Work and Physical Development, the University Librarian, Faculty Deans, Dean of Students as well as Faculty Officers as in the case of a multi-campus based University like UDS. **Management** and **University Management** in this instance are used interchangeably.

2). Management is used in the second instance to mean **handling** and indeed is used replaceable in many instances in this study including its use as the art of handling conflicts. Management is "a process used to achieve certain goals through the utilization of resources (people, money, energy, materials, and space, time)" (Turban and Meredith, 1991:4).

R. Negotiation: Negotiation is a give-and-take decision-making process that involves interdependent parties with different interests (Neale and Bazerman, 1992).

S. Occultism: It refers to witchcraft, Satanism, neo-paganism, or any of the various forms of psychic discernment such as astrology and palm reading among others as practiced in the universities by students (Lawson, 2009).

T. Organizational Success: Organizational success is measured in terms of the level of stakeholder satisfaction. This is the ability of an organization to meet the needs of employees, shareholders, host society and customers.

U. Organization: An organization is 'a social unit or human grouping deliberately structured to seek specific goals". Examples are schools (the university), churches and prisons among others.

V. Power: This is the ability to get others to do what one wants irrespective of whether they are willing or not. It is the ability to get people to do things one wants done or the ability to make things happen in the way one wants them to happen regardless of their resistance (Bennett, 1994 and; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1987).

W. Politics: Refers to activities focused at obtaining power and exercising it to advance interests, which may be personal or organizational (Wright and Noe, 1996).

X. Students: A group of people attending school such as universities and polytechnics, to name but a few, with a view to acquiring knowledge and skills needed to function in their immediate environment and society at large (Ajibade, 2013).

Y. Students-Management Conflict: Any form of conflict (disorderliness) that arises out of goal incompatibility between students on one side and university management/authority/ administrators on the other side against each other.

Z. Tertiary Institutions: These are organizations of high learning such as the Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education and Colleges of Technology where students attend to obtain extra knowledge beyond that gotten from the primary and secondary schools (Ige, 2014; Jude-Iwuoha et al, 2014).

1.8 PROFILE OF STUDY ORGANIZATION/STUDY AREA

The University for Development Studies (UDS) was the organization chosen for the study. The University was chosen from among many others because of its uniqueness and the fact that it had also witnessed a number of students-management conflicts from 1999 to 2009. University for Development Studies is unique in the sense that it is the only University in Ghana that operates a trimester system with the third trimester devoted to community work. Also, it was the first Public University in Ghana established to be autonomous without affiliation to another University. Another unique feature of the University lies in its multi-campus based nature by law at inception: a deviation from the usual practice of having universities with centralized campuses and administrations.

The University for Development Studies, Tamale, was established in 1992 as a multi-campus institution. It is the fifth public university to be established in Ghana. The University currently has campuses in the three Northern Regions of the country: the Northern Region, Upper East Region and the Upper West Region. Table 1.1 shows the distribution of the campuses of the University.

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Table 1.1 Distribution of Campuses and Faculties/Schools of the University for

Development Studies

S/n.	Region	Campus Location	Faculties/Schools
1	Northern Region	Nyankpala	Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty of Agribusiness and Communication Sciences, Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources and School of Engineering
		Tamale	School of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of Allied Health Sciences, Faculty of Education and the Graduate School
2	Upper East Region	Navrongo	Faculty of Applied Sciences and Faculty of Mathematical Sciences
3	Upper West Region	Wa	Faculty of Integrated Development Studies, Faculty of Planning and Land Management and the School of Business and Law

Source: Adapted from UDS (2016)

One other unique feature of the University for Development Studies and worth noting is the fact that it has successfully blended its academic programmes with intensive community – based field practical training, dubbed the Third Trimester Practical Field Programme (TTFPP). The PNDCL 279 (1992) which established the University, among other things, mandates her to "blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide

constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana in particular and the country as a whole" (UDS, 2016:6). In fulfillment of this mandate, the University devotes the Third Trimester solely to practical field work in the local communities. During the Third Trimester, students who are integrated across campuses and faculties in smaller numbers live and undertake studies on developmental issues over a period of eight weeks per year for two years. The programme since its inception in 1993 has improved in quality and contributed significantly to the development of communities in which it is undertaken (UDS, 2016).

It could be argued that the uniqueness of the University lends itself to a number of crises including students-management conflicts, hence the choice of it to do this study. The arguments are based on: the fact that, the University was established right from its inception as an autonomous entity and did not have the opportunity to be mentored by another University, from which it could learn best management practices including the handling of conflicts, the fact that the University operates a trimester system such that, its calendar of events get so packed; giving little room for stakeholder consultations and the fact that it is a multi-campus based University that makes its administration from the Centre a bit distanced such that crises are hardly realized and dealt with promptly. As remarked by Ada (2013:78), "tertiary institutions are always in crises when conflicts occur, which vary from campus to campus depending on the size, location, student population, mission, specialization, governance and unionization. What can trigger conflict, perhaps even large scale ones, on one campus may be inconceivable on another". The study done on the University for

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Development Studies was therefore done on its own right and not in comparison with other Universities.

1. 9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study was motivated by a reflection on how conflicts are managed in organizations of higher learning as in the case of the University for Development Studies. The study looked at conflicts management as a nature of governance in organizations (Zartman, 1997). As posited by Nwaoma and Omeire (2014), many social scientists have paid much attention to social and political conflicts in the larger society without focusing them to our institutions; a situation that is so glaring about conflicts in the Ghanaian University System. The irony is that, our leaders and other members of society who often find themselves in the limelight of these social and political conflicts are products of these institutions who naturally reflect the institutions' disposition. Even the scholars who have written on conflicts in organizations, not so much attention is paid to the customer's view point. For instances, on organizational conflicts, Wright and Noe (1996:681-682) have said that whilst "it is true that dysfunctional conflict among workers or between workers and managers within an organization can destroy it," managing conflicts "not only can prevent harm but can support the organization's efforts to sustain a competitive advantage". From the standpoint of Wright and Noe (1996:681-82), Bennett (1994) and Tyson and York (1996:234) among others, one begins to see organizational conflicts as occurring only among workers and between workers and managers. Such a standpoint overlooks the involvement of the customer, the student as in the case of the University, who is an important force and stakeholder in the organizational environment and obviously cannot be left out in the analysis of organizational

conflicts. In the analysis of forces in the organizational environment, customers are key and conflicts between customers and organizational managers are an important part of organizational conflict analysis. Unfortunately, several scholars have turned blind eyes to the customers' aspect of organizational conflict analysis. There is thus, a gap to fill in the analysis of organizational conflicts to deal with the customers' aspect of organizational conflicts. Therefore, this identified gap of non-customers' conflict analysis in organizations, coupled with the recurrence of students' conflicts in the University for Development Studies for over a decade makes this study timely and relevant. It would help fill the gap and reveal how to effectively manage conflicts involving customers of organizations as with students in the case of the University for Organizational Success. That is as Adebayo (2009) corroborated, the study would be of help to the university management in handling students-management conflicts as likely solutions to deal with conflicts such as strategies to be employed are appraised and highlighted. The study also reveals to students the need to be patient, understanding and handle conflict through dialogue rather than violence. Moreover, as a retrospective study, its relevance can be found in the popular proclamation by Santayana (1953) that "those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it". That is to say that the study unearths lessons to guide future decision in the handling of students-management conflicts in the University.

Also, given the topical nature of conflicts and their related issues; particularly in the wake of rising students-management conflicts in the country, this study would not only prompt other researchers but would also trigger their interest to do further research in the area, where this study could serve as the basis. This would lead to new discoveries on conflicts management,

especially from the customer perspective, adding to the knowledge base of society and thus, helping solve problems of society.

1.10 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Given that conflict is a natural and unavoidable part of human life, makes it topical and thus represents a field too vast to study. This study focused on the nature of students-management conflicts in the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009, the causes of students-management conflicts in the University and the consequences of such conflicts in the University. This study also tried to find out the strategies that were used by the University Management in handling students-management conflicts during the period, and as well, assessed the effectiveness of the strategies used by the University Management in handling the conflicts. This study also broadly examined some important conflict theories and concepts that relate to it.

This study limited itself to organizations of higher learning—Universities, especially, the University for Development Studies. The place of a university in the analysis of organizations, thus, was of much interest to this study and so was explored. Choosing the University for Development Studies as a multi-campus based University, established without affiliation and operating a trimester system gave it a unique character that marshaled some level of interest to study. The student as a university customer and his/her interactions with management and conflict-related outcomes in the University was examined. Also, the study touched on power, authority and politics in the light of conflict handling. Some more concepts of conflicts were also explored to put the work in appropriate perspective.

1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Any flaws to the study primarily had to do with the collection of data. There were difficulties getting some respondents at the right setting, especially, management members to administer questionnaires and interview. Data collected in such circumstances could be marred. Also, as Marshal and Rossman (1995) noted, some respondents who were directly affected by the conflicts were not only uncomfortable and tried to avoid responding to some questions, but also, tried sometimes to divert attention to some discussions that had no relevance to the study. Also, some respondents could not remember all that happened during the conflicts due to the lapse of time. Inferences therefore had to be made from responses that could not be taken wholesale. Notwithstanding the above limitations, relevant data was obtained for the study through the use of multiple sources and methods as well as crosschecks beyond respondents.

1.12 ORGANIZATION OF THESIS

This research was organized in five chapters for clearer and orderly presentation. Chapter one gave a background to the study. The problem statement, research questions and objectives together with the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study were handled under chapter one. Some terms that were relevant to the study were also operationalized in chapter one. Additionally, profile of the study organization/study area, justification and the scope as well as limitations and organization of the study were captured in this chapter.

Chapter two of this study covered a review of literature. It explored scholarly debates on the topic. This was extensively done to put the study in a proper context. The work of chapter two brought to bear on the study previous works done in relation to it.

The research methodology— research design, sampling details, primary data collection techniques, review of secondary data, techniques of data analysis and presentation were examined in chapter three. This chapter also outlined the research process. Thus, chapter three looked at the procedures used in doing the study as well as ethical considerations in the study.

In chapter four, analysis of data was done and findings presented. The concluding chapter, chapter five presented summaries of the main findings and revisited the research problem, questions and objectives. Subsequently, findings presented were discussed to address the research problem. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations to the study made.

1.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Organizational conflicts are simply referred to as conflicts that occur within organizations, including the university organization. Students-management conflicts that plagued the University for Development Studies and analyzed in this study are examples of organizational conflicts. The study focused on customer related organizational conflicts with the University as target organization; with great concern on the effectiveness of strategies used by the University in handling students-management conflicts.

Studied in the context of the structural conflict theory and supported by the frustration aggression theory and the human needs theory of conflict, the study was approached from the behavoural leadership perspective under the bureaucratic conflict model. The study was meant to fill the gap created by many scholars on organizational conflicts whose attention had been directed solely to employee-management conflicts to the neglect of the customer. It particularly, has the potential of helping university management in handling students-management conflicts as likely strategies to deal with such conflict were appraised and highlighted.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews scholarly works on conflicts in the context of organizations with focus on customers—students in the university and university management. It therefore looks at the nature of organizations and their classifications with emphasis on the university organization, its structures, actors and conflicts. The chapter tries to analyze and theorize conflicts from existing literature. It discusses issues of participation and loyalty, discipline, power, authority, and organizational politics and their relations with conflicts.

The nature of conflicts in the university organization is looked at with emphasis on students-management conflicts. The causes of students-management conflicts and their consequences in the university are reviewed. Also very important in the literature review is management and management of conflicts. Some management approaches are reviewed to put the study in proper context. The review covers conflicts management strategies and their effectiveness with focus on the handling of students-management conflicts. Concepts such Third-Party Intervention in conflict management and Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) with negotiation and dialogue are also given attention in the review of literature. The literature review also touches on measures to control students-management conflicts in the university.

2.2 CONFLICTS

2.2.1 Conflicts in Organizations

Conflict is a natural part of human beings such that human beings can hardly exist anywhere without conflict. Among other circumstances, conflict arises when resources are scarce and are been competed for, when there is communication breakdowns, status differentials and unmet expectations. Since these circumstances continue to be inevitable part of human life as in the university situation, conflict never ceases to exist. Adebayo (2009) explained that in any organization, where there are two or more persons in a group such as in the case of students-management, and in which situation the managers have to handle people's lives, conflict surely functions. The university as an organization houses people from widely varied cultural backgrounds with varying expectations and that make up both students and authority/management. These differences in expectations coupled with behavioral differentials among other circumstances often degenerate to conflicts. Ada (2013), thus asserted that conflicts are unavoidable in tertiary institutions, particularly the university. Indeed, students often engage management in one form of conflict or another (Adepoju and Sofowora, 2012).

Conflicts arise from the interactions of human beings in situations where ends are incompatible and where the ability of one's ends to be satisfied depends on the other's choices, decisions and behaviour (Ada, 2013). Ada's (2013) explanation of conflicts, together with power differentials that often exists between students and management in the university's setting aptly explains the development of students-management conflicts. On their side, Bua et al (2015) saw conflict as a product of goals incompatibility, often

emanating from opposing behaviours of the concerned parties. Bua et al (2015) rightly maintained that in the academic setting as in the university, conflicts occur frequently since consensus of opinions regarding rules that govern schools do not often exist among participants who include: students, teachers, parents and school administrators who often perceive each other as opponents in several decision making situations. This perhaps could explain why most students find something wrong in almost every decision taken by administrators, resulting in conflicts. Thus, decisions taken by either side are often misconstrued.

Tjosvold (1993:8) viewed conflict as involving "incompatible behaviours; one person interfering, disrupting, or in some other way making another's actions less effective". Tjosvold's view of conflict helps overcome the notion that conflicts always connote negativity. That is to say that, incompatibility in behaviours does not necessarily amount to negative outcomes but equally, to positive results as well. From his definition, Tjosvold classified conflicts into two: competitive and cooperative conflicts. According to him, conflict is said to be competitive when the issue of incompatibility leads to opposing interest such that disputants struggle for dominance and cooperative when the issue of incompatibility pushes disputants towards mutual benefit.

In the competitive conflict situation, Tjosvold asserted that the conflict process is often characterized by mistrust, disbelieve and win-lose attitude. He further argued that conflicting parties often avoid dialogue with each other and eventually go separate ways; widening the path of disagreement. There is often very little attempt if any to find solutions.

On the other hand, as noted by Tjosvold (1993), cooperative conflicts, also known as constructive conflicts, disputants often assume win-win posture. They rely and trust each other and on that bases discuss for common interest, cooperative goals with the hope to moving forward together to common grounds—a solution. Unfortunately, the latter scenario is not a common phenomenon in several conflict situations, especially in students-management conflicts where there is power imbalance between disputants.

2.2.2 Conflict Analysis

Best (2006) has explained that conflict analysis refers to "seeking for and creating relevant frameworks and paradigms for explaining the causes of conflict and the range of methods available for its management, resolution and transformation". It is the act of theorizing conflict. It worth noting that knowledge of a problem is part of the solution to it. In other words, without knowing and understanding a problem, one can hardly prescribe a solution, irrespective of the pedigree of ones level of professionalism and expertise in the area of such problem as in conflict situation. It is for this reason that conflict analysis is of great importance to the understanding and management of conflicts of all forms. By the analysis of conflict, actors in the field are able to trace and understand a given conflict: its background and context, the stage/level it has reached, its perspectives (how it is interpreted and understood), the parties to it, and the positions, interests, needs and fears of these parties (Best, 2006). Satisfactory conflict management outcomes are attainable through proper conflict analysis. The choice and application of a given conflict management strategy is best determined through conflict analysis.

Ada (2013) proposed two models to the analysis of conflict in educational institutions, the university inclusive—structural and process models. These models find their relevance in aiding the understanding and effective management of school based conflicts. According to the structural model, the best way to understand a particular conflict is to focus on circumstances that initiate, condition and direct such conflict behavior in a relationship such as formal organizational roles and informal group membership (Ada, 2013). The process model on the other hand, examines the series of occurrences of the conflicts so as to understand and step into the process.

Making reference to Thomas (1976), Ada (2013) noted that by the process model, conflicts so analyzed are handled by examining the dynamics of the occurrences and how they are related so as to identify trends that could aid the management process. It is worth noting here however, that where the conflict occurrences do not have clear correlations, the process model cannot provide accurate analysis. Conflicts in school such as students-management conflicts often emanate from systems inefficiencies such management's inability to provide students with basic infrastructure. To manage conflict from the structural point of view, there is the need to reshape such circumstances that led to the conflict.

2.3 ORGANIZATIONS

It is worth noting that conflicts in organizations (institutions) though have similar connotations as community or society-based conflicts, occur in different environmental set ups and so are better analyzed from the contexts within which they occur. Therefore, an analysis of conflicts in the organizational setting is only apt when the concept of an

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organization is properly contextualized. An organization, according to Kreitner (2001:260), is defined as "a cooperative social system involving the coordinated efforts of two or more people pursuing a shared purpose". On his part, Barnard (1938:73) defined an organization as "a system of consciously coordinated activities or efforts of two or more persons". Organizations (universities inclusive) are identifiable by some characteristics. Schein (1980) in Kreitner (2001) said that all organizations have four common features: coordination of efforts among actors, common goal or purpose, division of labour, and hierarchy of authority and this is key in the analysis of students-management conflicts in the university. The features identified by Schein conform to those discussed by (Bedeian and Zamnuto, 1991; Bennett, 1994).

Organizations of all kinds are formed for unique purposes despite the fact that some of the purposes do overlap with others. Organizations thus vary from one another by intent and purpose of their establishment. Blau and Scott (1962) in Kreitner (2001) classified organizations into four categories according to their purpose:

1. Business organizations which are established to make profits in a socially acceptable manner such restaurants and private universities

2. Nonprofit service organizations, the survival and growth of which do not depend on profits generation as in the case of public universities such as the University for Development Studies.

3. Commonweal organizations such as the police, the army and fire service which offer public services without generating profits in return and

4. Mutual-benefit organizations which exist to satisfy the interest of their members such as political parties, labour unions and student unions.

2.3.1 Universities as Complex Organizations

Institutions of learning, according to Ada (2013) are perfectly qualified to be regarded as organizations by all standards. Barnard (1938) has described organizations as cooperative systems. He explained that "a cooperative system is a complex of physical, biological, personal, and social components which are in a specific systematic relationship by reason of the cooperation of two or more persons for at least one definite end". Barnard's description of organizations as complex could never have been wrong as coordination of efforts in the formation of organizations is the result of the interactions of people who often come from different background with different habits. Wright and Noe (1996:168) submitted that "complexity of the organizations environment is influenced by the number of competitors, customers, suppliers, and regulations"; adding that "an organization in a highly complex environment needs information about a multitude of environmental forces". Thus, the complex nature of organizations also arises from the many forces that exist in them. For instance, Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) have identified four forces in an organization's Environment as suppliers, customers, competitors and distributors.

The interactions among these forces are often difficult to define and control. Human beings with wavering opinions make them hardly predictive. The many forces in the organization's environment who could often be self-centered and cynical exhibit different unpredictable behaviours in their relationships. Thus, even though they all act for the good of the

organization, the unpredictable behaviours in their relationships make the organization a complex system.

The complexity is more pronounced in the university organization than it is with industrial organizations. In their comparison of other organizations with the University as a more complex organization, Faniran and Akintayo (2012:2) wrote "analyst of higher education have long pointed out that universities are complex organizations that are different from industrial organizations, governmental departments and firms". Faniran and Akintayo outlined a number of reasons why the university is more complex than the other organizations. Two of such reasons which are of interest to this study are:

A. the fact that they are people processing institutions that serve clients—students who typically demand a voice in the decision–making processes and

B. the fact that universities are professionalized organizations in which employees demand a large measure of control over institutional decision processes.

Drawn from a myriad of cultural backgrounds, students and professionalized employees of universities tend to exhibit equally diverse subcultures that come to bear on the organizations activities creating more conflicts than happen in the other organizations. This is particularly so since people of different subcultures in co-existence often possess and exhibit different behaviours in such complex manner which serve as recipe for conflicts. Society, the supplier of students; the university customers is in itself so complex and so are the customers who go to make the raw materials of universities. It follows therefore that, the processing of these complex raw materials that live side by side the organization during the

processing period is a complex task. Olaleye and Arogundade (2013:96-97) commenting about the university organization alluded to this fact as they observed that:

> the modern university system comprises a variety of communities based on the wide range of academic disciplines and functions. Its internal behavior constitutes a very complex organism shaped by these many hands. This implies that, internally the university life is shaped by many logic, habits and dynamics. It is also influenced by various challenges, constraints and pressures from the outer environment. The combinations of external pressures and internal pressures within the university systems make administration very difficult and complex, therefore conflict is inevitable.

In line with Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) assertion, Onokerhoraye (2000:3) in Faniran and Akintayo (2012:3) noted that the distinguishing factors, together with similar characteristics have made theorists of higher education to refer to universities as 'organized anarchies' and 'loosely coupled systems'. Faniran and Akintayo (2012:3) identified an additional situation that adds to the complexity of the university organization; bordering on the existence of multiple worker and student unions which do not exist in the other industrial organizations. Examples are: University Teachers Association of Ghana (UTAG), Ghana Association of University Administrators (GAUA), Federation of University Senior Staff Association of Ghana (FUSSAG) and Tertiary Education Workers Union (TEWU), Students Representation Council (SRC) and the National Union of Ghana Students (NUGS). Multiple unions in an organization will often imply multiple interaction and multiple clashes.

Also, the university organization has two structural systems: an open system made up of academic staff and a closed system composed of administrative staff which run parallel to each other but are functionally integrating and re-enforcing. All these contribute to making universities more complex than the other organizations which are single-closed system in structure. Machingambi and Wadesango (2012) concluded that universities and colleges are social systems made up of many different categories of people, so heterogeneous that they inevitably disagree with one another on many grounds which result in conflict of various forms. University organizations are therefore prone to more conflicts than the other organizations.

2.3.2 The Bureaucratic Structures of the University Organization

University organizations are structured in such a complex manner with many hierarchical levels of authority and roles that make them fit in the bureaucratic accounts of organizations. As noted by Sharma et al (2012), bureaucracy is the hierarchical arrangement of institutions/organizations, differentiated by qualifications and competencies and governed by a consistent system of abstract rules, regulations and procedures where by the behavior of the officials is subject to systematic discipline and control. By the standards of Hall (1963) in Sharma et al (2012:385), a bureaucratic organization has: a functionally specialized division of labour in place, an explicit hierarchy of authority, rules which describe the duties and rights of officials, a set of standard operating procedures, impersonal relations between officials and employment and promotion based on technical merit. These characteristics make a public organization such as the university a bureaucratic organization. Much as all these features are relevant in classifying a bureaucratic organization, the concern is about the

availability and use of rules, regulation and procedures as well as power and authority, the lapse of which potentially would lead to conflicts.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the organization structure (known as organization chart) of the University for Development Studies as an example of a typical structural arrangement of a university organization in Ghana. For the purposes of clarity, an organization chart is a diagram of an organization's official positions and formal lines of authority. It visually displays the structural skeleton of an organization (Kreitner, 2001).

Figure 2.1 Organization Structure/Chart of the University for Development Studies

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
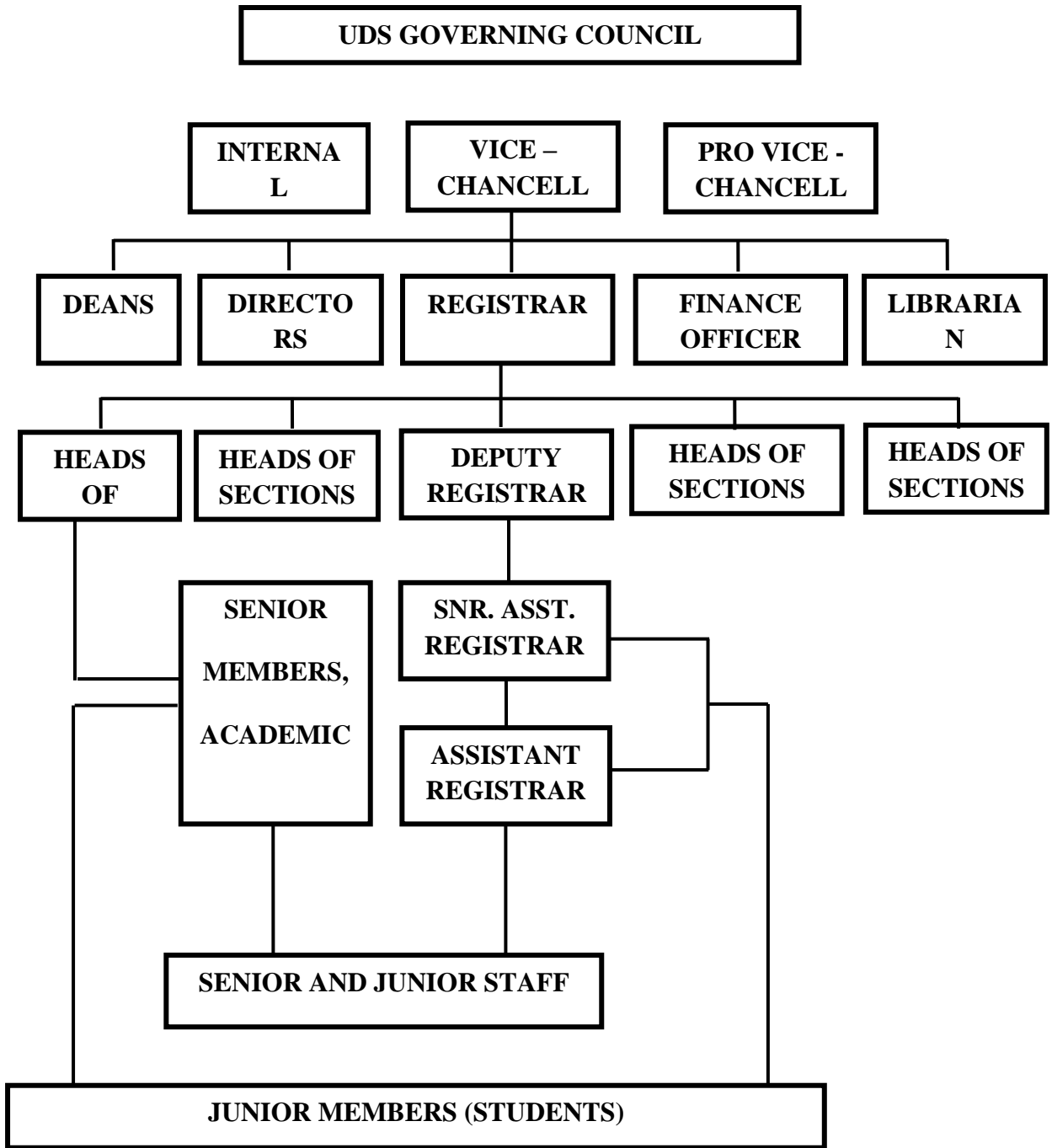
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                        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
                        │     UDS GOVERNING COUNCIL       │
                        └─────────────────────────────────┘

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        │              │    │   CHANCELL   │    │   CHANCELL   │
        └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘

  ┌─────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐
  │  DEANS  │  │ DIRECTORS│  │ REGISTRAR│  │ FINANCE  │  │ LIBRARIAN│
  │         │  │          │  │          │  │ OFFICER  │  │          │
  └─────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘

  ┌─────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐
  │ HEADS   │  │ HEADS OF │  │ DEPUTY   │  │ HEADS OF │  │ HEADS OF │
  │  OF     │  │ SECTIONS │  │ REGISTRAR│  │ SECTIONS │  │ SECTIONS │
  └─────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘

              ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐
              │ SENIOR   │  │ SNR. ASST.│
              │ MEMBERS, │  │ REGISTRAR │
              │ ACADEMIC │  └──────────┘
              │          │  ┌──────────┐
              │          │  │ ASSISTANT│
              └──────────┘  │ REGISTRAR│
                            └──────────┘

            ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
            │    SENIOR AND JUNIOR STAFF      │
            └─────────────────────────────────┘

    ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
    │        JUNIOR MEMBERS (STUDENTS)            │
    └─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Source: Adapted from (UDS, 2008)

The many hierarchical levels in the structure/chart, however, could be fitted into Bennett' (1994) three main levels of management. Bennett's (1994) first level of management is the Strategic Management Level which he said, functions in deciding the general direction of the organization and formulating the overall organizational policies. This in the university structure matches the university council which provides governance to the university. The Executive (Tactical) Management Level which Bennett identified as the second level of management is what is referred to in the university organization as University Management charged with the implementation/execution of the strategic decisions taken at first level by acquiring, deploying resources, allocating duties, specifying secondary objectives, monitoring performance and reporting back to higher levels of authority. The third and final management level according to Bennett is the Supervisory (First Line) Management Level where supervisors exist; acting as a link between management and other grades of employees to control operations in the organization. This level in the university is likened to faculties, schools, institutes and colleges in the university organization. All these management levels in the university have some responsibility in the management of students-management related conflicts and need to be discussed in putting the study in the right perspective. Wohlgemuth, (1998:11) in Faniran and Akintayo (2012), supported the analysis of the university structural arrangement and its influence on the management of conflicts within the structure by way of putting the discussions in the right perspective.

2.3.2.1 University Governing Council

At the apex of all formal organizations, both private and public is mostly a governing body that gives the organization strategic direction. The governing body in the university organization is the University Governing Council; headed by the Council Chairman. The Council, as the governing body at the highest level of the University formulates policies that guide the operations of the University. The Council provides leadership and the general direction of the University and so its importance cannot be overemphasized. It is the council that puts together the University Management and its subsidiaries. Thus, referred to as board of directors in some other organizations, the university governing council serves as 'watchdog' to the operations of the university, it formulates policies and makes sure they are implemented to achieve organizational objectives. It is responsible for appointing top executives of the organization, keeping the right organizational structure and maintaining effective management (Green and Matthias, 1997; BECMAN, 1997).

How functional a university governing council is, determines how functional the university would be. Faniran and Akintayo (2012) have said that "the Council has a general control, superintendence and management of the University" and that "the negative or positive leadership provided by the University Council will affect the tone of the University and send negative or positive signals to the entire University community". Thus, as the apex body of the university structure, it has the responsibility of ensuring that the university operates from an environment that promotes teaching and learning — the core purpose for its establishment. Providing a teaching and learning friendly environment requires a lot of management activities including dealing with conflict which is inevitable in the

organization. Membership of the university governing council includes student leaders and worker unions in the university who represent the interest of their constituents. Representation however, might not amount to being able to influence policies to favour one's constituents.

2.3.2.2 University Management

In the structural arrangement of the university organization, the authority next to the University Governing Council is the University Management. The University management is composed of the Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Registrar, Finance Officer, Director of Work and Physical Development and the University Librarian. The Vice-Chancellor at this level, functions as the Chief Executive Officer. He/she chairs the Academic Board and provides leadership in the day-to-day administration of the university. Also, as a member of the University Governing Council, the Vice Chancellor reports to the Council about the administration of the university; which for the purposes of this study, includes what Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) regarded as the function of ensuring general discipline in the university. Representing University Management at the Faculty/School/Institutes/Colleges levels are the Deans, Directors and Provosts who are directly in touch with students but who act on the directives of Management. By extension, Deans, Directors and Provosts are part of management at the supervisory level. As rightly noted by Faniran and Akintayo (2012), each member of the management team has specific functions in the system that facilitates the performance of the Vice-Chancellor as the Chief Executive including the management of conflicts. For Faniran and Akintayo (2012), it is important for all members of the management of any University to note that the good

management of the University involves team work and the Vice-Chancellor especially, should bear this concept of team work in mind.

Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) have noted the significance of approval of courses and programmes, and their accreditation and the maintenance of academic standards in the University for Smooth Development. Importantly, it is the responsibility of management of the university as part of its administrative functions to design and mount relevant programmes and get them accredited for students to enroll on. Furtherance to mounting and running good academic programmes, Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) posited that university management has the charge in staff development training and development needed to ensure quality academic standards.

2.3.2.3 Junior Members of University (Students)

Ajibade (2013:56-76) provided useful insights that help in understanding who students are. For Ajibade, students, also called junior members, are "a group of people attending school such as universities, polytechnics, etc, with a view to acquiring knowledge and skills needed to function in their immediate environment and society at large".

Alabi (2002) has submitted that students are perhaps the most complex of all actors in the university environment and that the fact that they form a heterogeneous group, "they have conflict within each of them, yet they have to conform to learning certain things in order to acquire a degree". A number of the general characteristics of students, adapted from Ajibade (2013) for this study are discussed as follows:

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Most students are youth in terms of age analysis. Berger (1972) in Ajibade (2013:58) posited that youth cuts across age, pointing to culture as what really matters in the determination of who is youth. Berger added that, anyone who shows such qualities as spontaneity, impulsiveness, energy among others is a youth. Yinusa (2005) in Ajibade 2013 viewed youth as any one between the ages of eighteen and thirty; a definition that suitably fits into the description of youth, especially in the context of students. To a limited scale, however, it is observed that Ghanaian universities often have students who are even in the age range of 50 and 60 who will sometimes exhibit similar qualities as those in the youthful ages.

Ajibade (2013) cited Lipset (1971) characterizing students as marginal men between roles who crave to find a status of their own. From their standpoint, Ajibade (2013) believed students, like all marginal men, suffer from special insecurities and also have special capacities to see the imperfection of society, adding that studentship is a period in which the person is not burdened by financial or social responsibility. This is particularly true to the extent that some students who even study on study leave with pay still have the opportunity of been remitted by "society" who would have burdened them with financial problems if they were not in school.

One other important feature of students is the magnitude of freedom. Apparently, people with very little or no financial and social responsibilities wallow in a high degree of freedom that allows for laxity than those with such responsibilities. Students truly have more freedom than adults especially when in school away from home and thus are without parental control, financial responsibility and without work engagement (Mohantey, 1999). Given this

freedom, students often exhibit some behaviours crowded with negligence; a position an adult and out of school population with myriad of responsibilities would hardly assume. Alabi (2002) noted that students are "young adolescents, possibly experiencing freedom and independence for the first time" and that as such "the university campuses are filled with and threatened by, noise, aggressive styles of dress, sexual behaviours, aesthetics and secret peer associations (e.g. cultism)".

It is observed that students often resent the authority of adults and rely more on their peers in their behaviour (Jupp, 1970; Cannavals et al 1970 in Ajibade, 2013). Ajibade (2013) also cited Lipset (1971) as saying that student stratum, as such creates a whole array of age-group symbols which makes it different from others in society in general and from adults in particular; they exhibit unique patterns of personal appearance, different style of communication and different life styles. They often would see society's behaviour as outmoded whilst seeing their way of doing things as exemplifying superiority and currency. In exhibiting these behaviours which serve as sense of identity among them, students would often resist adult control and seeming imposition of adult value which they (the students) consider outmoded and worth discarding. These behavours draw them into friction with adult authority inherent in management in the university situation that brings about conflicts (Ajibade, 2013).

In furtherance, Lipset (1971) in Ajibade (2013) asserted that student communities often demonstrate an idealistic orientation and that whilst university students could be characterized biologically as adult, they socially could be irresponsible and idealistic.

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Lipset believed that students looked at issues in absolute terms, right or wrong, good or bad, and just or unjust. Where an adult will pause to try to give meaning to an issue before an action is taken, a student would act before thought is given of it. The habit of analysis is often an after-thought phenomenon among students especially when they are in groups and carried away by peer influence. They are often reactive than proactive toned by the lack of sense of responsibility that result in activism that is a deviation from adult expected behaviour. In support of Lipset (1971), Oludayo et al (2014: 359-371) noted that one of the major problems among university students is their novice behaviour of making comparisons. For them, students would like to compare one institution with another with the hope of copying prevailing issues, without any consideration for factors that gave birth to institutions involved and also consider the effect of such issues on their institutions and personal lives.

It is noted moreover, that as long as students remain on the campus, they are the non-established; and without full time employment. They are dependent on their families, educational institutions or on their own part time work for survival (Lipset, 1971 in Ajibade, 2013). To this extend, Lipset observed that students are foot loose; they are not restrained by either economic or social obligation and have considerable energies to use up. From this stand point as pointed out by Lipset (1971), their anti-system or anti-establishment tendencies are not necessarily accidental but closely related to their economic and social status. Lipset (1971) in Ajibade (2013) also described colleges/higher institutions as self-contained communities. To him, the existence of a large number of students at one location with more or less similar interests, and subject to a common environment inculcates in them a sense of community.

The discussions above suggest that students from a special self-contained community develop a strong bond of commonness and a sense of obligation not to betray their peers. More so, they develop a strong inclination to question the legitimacy of adult authority, and make a remarkable capacity for immediate action through agitations, movements and violent demonstrations on matters that do not make sense to them.

2.4 STUDENT UNIONISM

Student unions exist to serve the larger interest of students in schools. Student unions are very influential in the tertiary institutions to the extent that they are sometimes even able to influence government policies. With the strength in numbers, students unions are mostly forces for management to reckon with. Examples of such unions in Ghanaian Tertiary Institutions are the Students Representative Council (SRC), The National Union of Ghana Student (NUGS) and The University Students Association of Ghana (USAG). Wright and Noe (1996) have described the formation of unions as a political strategy. They explained that politics is the art of obtaining power and exercising it to advance interests in an organization. That is by joining unions, students increase their bargaining strength and for that matter, their level of influences and control in the university environment. Potential student leaders who stand to defend students' interest often gain students support with the aim of helping to champion the course of students.

In this analysis, it is important to underscore student unions as political organizations in the school setting which seek to gain students support as a source of power to influence management decisions for the benefit of its members. Students' demands are often pressed

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home by student leaders/representatives. Fisher and Ronald (1997:7) observed "political factors expressed through constituent pressure on representatives also contribute to the escalation that spirals to new levels at each round of destructive interaction". It is this political attribute together with the general characteristics of students as zealous and less responsible that characterizes the escalation of conflicts involving students in the school environment that make students-management conflicts less amenable to prompt resolution. Perhaps it is in this that management often justify its adoption of coercive emergency measures including the use of military and police intervention to deal with student conflicts in the university organization as immediate response.

2.5 THE STUDENT AS A UNIVERSITY CUSTOMER

Every organization has customers (both internal and external customers). To the hospital, patients are the internal customers, while passengers are the customers to commercial transport units. In the university setting, students constitute the internal customers. Good customer relations are very important for organizations. Whereas in other organizations, customers are a detached stakeholder component and living outside the organizations, customers— students in the university organization form an integral part of the institution. They serve as the core supplies, the processed and the product. For instance, Ige (2014) has noted that students are formidable inputs in tertiary institutions apart from the infrastructural facilities and staff. Thus, as inputs, they are turned out as products of the tertiary institutions. Their relationship with the university even remains forever after graduation as they become alumni, as opposed to customers of other organizations who can easily switch away from such organizations with erased memory. This makes customer—management relationship

more integrating in the university than as in other organizations; bringing into resemblance Zaleznik's (1989) illustration of Sigmund Freud's porcupine relationship as cited by Kreitner (2001) that:

> because people come together to satisfy a wide array of psychological needs, social relations in general are awash with conflict. In the course of their interactions, people must deal with differences as well as similarities, with aversions as well as affinities. Indeed, in social relations, Sigmund Freud's parallel of humans and porcupines is apt: like porcupines, people prick and injure one another if they get too close; they will feel cold if they get too far apart.

That is, since customers in the university organization closely relate with management of the institution, they easily prick each other that result in conflict. Also worth noting is the fact that, in the university situation, customers belong to unions such: the SRC and NUGS that help them negotiate collective issues with management. In other organizations, however, customer unions hardly exist and in fact, customers may not even know one another or may never even meet themselves and to discuss issues of concern to them and eventually hit back at their service providers. These explain why in other organizations, unlike in the university, known conflicts are usually employee—management oriented.

In the view of Wright and Noe (1996), sustained competitive advantage is more likely when managers apply practices that meet the needs of their customers and employees. Students as customers of the university, when treated fairly and are satisfied will often become ambassadors of the university even after completion.

2.6 CUSTOMER PARTICIPATION AND LOYALTY

2.6.1 Customer Participation

Customer participation is one of the many antecedents to customer loyalty in organizations. Customer participation is of particular importance to this study because, the lack of it in the university organization is recognized by many researchers as a cause of students-management conflicts (Azar, 1983; Adepoju and Sofowora, 2012; DuBrin, 2010; Adeyemi et al, 2010). Customer participation is referred to as involvement in some cycles in the management of organizations. Participation has to do with "psychological, physical and even emotional offerings during the process of producing or delivering services" (Rodie and Kleine, 2000 in Hsu and Chen, 2014:131).

"The level and extent of customer participation however, varies from organization to organization usually depending on the value placed on it by the concerned organization" (Akparep, 2014:64). It was observed that students generally lack participation in institutional governance and that they are the least of all reference groups within the school involved in major educational decision-making and are often completely excluded (Mennon, 2003; Bergan, 2003).

It is however, observed that in recent times, students are increasingly been involved in university governance due to the recognized relevance of such involvement. For instance, Ezekwem (2009) in Akomolafe and Ibijola (2011) has argued that students' union government has great influence in instilling discipline among students. Student leaders often are able to influence the actions of their followers. It is further observed that students' union representatives are allowed to serve as members on some universities' boards and committees. This instills in the student body and student in general a sense of belonging and ownership of decisions made; which helps in forestalling conflicts between them and university management (Akomolafe and Ibijola, 2011).

2.6.2 Customer Loyalty

Customer loyalty directly relates to customer satisfaction. Rai and Srivastava (2013) have noted that the significance of customer loyalty for service industries has been acknowledged by many researchers. Customer loyalty is defined variously including the fact that it is "when a person regularly patronizes a particular (store or non-store) that he or she knows, likes and trusts" (Khan and Khan, 2006). Despite the many definitions provided in literature, the definition provided by Rai and Srivastava (2013:140) is apt for this study. Their definition is premised on personal relationships. Thus, they defined customer loyalty as "a feeling or an attitude of devoted attachment caused by affection" and that "such attachment makes a person feel responsible to persevere with that relationship even in adverse times".

It is based on this understanding of customer loyalty that customer commitment is analyzed. For instance, Moorman et al (1992) defined commitment as "an enduring attitude or desire for a particular brand or firm"; adding that "it is the degree to which customers as members of an organization are emotionally connected to an organization, its brand or product, sustained by continues desire to maintain membership". It is common to see past students of a university recommend it to others with past student of another university vowing never to have their relations in such a university, depending on the level of satisfaction they got from the university that eventually affected their loyalty and by extension their commitment to such an institution.

2.7 MAINTENANCE OF DISCIPLINE AND CONFLICTS IN THE ORGANIZATION

Discipline in organizations is required to ensure organizational stability. Recognizing existing rules and regulations that govern organizations and abiding by them are encouraged in all organization for the smooth running of such organizations. In outlining his 14 principles of management, Fayol (1930) emphasized discipline, the third, as key to the functioning of organizations. On discipline, he observed that "members in an organization need to respect the rules and agreements that govern the organization". Discipline, a principle must be seen reflecting at all level of the organization; taking leadership by example. In any case, in the exercise of authority as Fayol's second principle, managers, expect obedience as a result of the legitimacy of the power they hold. This legitimacy is embedded in the rules and regulation and will be observed by subordinates as such when given the same recognition and observance by superiors. Maintenance of discipline is

therefore a collective responsibility by both superiors and subordinate as required of all within the organization's environment to ensure its smooth function; a breach of which could result in conflict. Contrary to this expectation, however, is the view commonly held by superiors. They tend to see themselves as being responsible in instilling discipline among subordinates whiles being immune by themselves to discipline; and this is the point of conflict as is mostly the case between students and management in the university.

2.8 POWER, AUTHORITY AND CONFLICTS

Kim et al (2007:25) in Havenga and Visagie (2011) have noted that people use different conflict management styles depending on the level of authority of the parties in the conflict. They said for example that whereas superiors are more likely to force their interests and employees are more likely to compromise with their peers, subordinates would mostly prefer to yield their interests. In the study of students-management conflicts therefore, there is the need to explore the issues of power and authority and how they define students and management relationship as well as their influence in the management of conflicts between the two actors in the university environment.

2.8.1 Power

The role power plays in conflict management is of great significance and worth attention. Power is the ability to get others to do what one wants irrespective of whether they are willing or not. It is the ability to get people to do things one wants done or the ability to make things happen in the way one wants them to happen regardless of their resistance (Bennett, 1994; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1987).

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Understood in this context, power implies the application of force or lure, but most times force in the achievement of an objective. Omisore and Nweke (2014) commenting on power, therefore acknowledged sanctions as inherent in power relations. Omisore and Nweke added that extent of power at play depends largely on the value placed on it by the one power is directed at. It also holds true that the level of influence of power on whom it is directed to also depends to a large extent on the value such individuals or groups place on that power.

It should be noted that, unlike it is with authority, which is unidirectional, the flow of power in the organization is multidirectional. This means that authority mostly flows from the top of the organizational hierarchy to the bottom. It is held by superiors and applied on subordinates. Power on the other hand, could be held by both superiors and subordinates and applied towards the achievement of their objectives. This is what makes the use of power delicate. Since changes in circumstances can lead to shift in the power stance from superiors to subordinates and vice versa and used in a retaliatory manner. Accordingly, Barcharach and Lawler (1980) have indicated that power gives subordinates the ability to manipulate superiors and also gives superiors the ability to obtain more from their subordinates than is stipulated in formal role definition. For this reason, Omisore and Nweke (2014) have concluded that organizations must beware of the use of particularly, coercive power (the use of threats and punishments or sanctions to influence behaviour) and the negative influence of organizational politics so as to reduce frustration, friction and conflicts. For Wright and Noe (1996), people get addicted and misuse power because: it is available to them and the available power makes the users see themselves as having control over others such that they forget about their interdependence with the others.

2.8.2 Authority

Moral authority is required in the management of conflicts in educational institutions (Faniran and Akintayo, 2012). Authority refers to the right to control, to give orders, to determine subordinates' workloads and take official decisions on behalf of a group. It is the legitimacy inherent in power (Bennett, 1994). Authority could be seen grounded in relations. In management, particularly, in the management of conflicts, authority is important. This is particularly so when authority as espoused by Max Weber is examined from both the angles of the 'authorizing source and the authorized'. That is, the 'legitimacy' inherent in power that makes it authority and which gives the 'authorizing source' the right to give orders, commands and instructions and exact compliance in return, should also give the 'authorized' some level of willingness to comply to the orders. Weber (1968:212) using domination in place of authority said "every genuine form of domination implies a minimum of voluntary compliance, that is, an interest (based on ulterior motives or genuine acceptance) in obedience". It is perhaps for this understanding of what authority stands for that made Barnard (1938) to view it as the readiness of individuals in an organization to contribute to it. Authority is about the alignment of interest in the organization by superiors and subordinates. For Barnard (1938:163), it is the authorized who wields power. He thus posited that "If a directive communication is accepted by one to whom it is addressed, its authority for him is confirmed or established".

Barnard's view of authority is important in this study as it demystifies the notion that authority is all about orders and compliance and hierarchy and power. Therefore, authority when wielded and understood in the light of these views by Weber and Barnard will not be

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exercised arbitrarily as in the exercise of power but will embrace cooperative strategies to conflicts management in the organization.

The preceding arguments may suggest that management of universities is at variance with what Weber and Barnard stand for viewing authority as orders and compliance, hence the many conflicts in such relations. Where the exercise of authority is dominated by high degree of coercion and seemingly, devoid of reasonable minimum level of willingness to comply, conflict will arise. It is therefore imperative to demonstrate some amount of caution in the exercise of authority of whichever type—legal rational, traditional or charismatic. In other words, when authority is over applied beyond what the authorized can contain, there is the likelihood to resist such authority and the product of the resistance will be conflict.

2.9 POLITICS IN THE UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

Politics is integral part of human life. In every aspect of human life where two or more people interact, politics emerges since there will emerge the tendency for one or some to want to influence the other(s). Thus, the desires to acquire power and use same to influence others is politics and inherent in human nature. Sharma et al (2012:109) defined politics as "the process by which power and influence are acquired and exercised" and that "the effort to gain power and influence is a characteristic of all organizations including the governmental organization". Politics therefore concerns not only political parties and elections as is often taken by many to be.

In many organizations, the desires of individuals and or groups to influence, control and manipulate its policy are often high. As cited in Sharma et al (2012:109), Stahl asserted "the formulation of public policy represents the ultimate expression of power in a government situation. The person who has power influences policy – and the person who influences policy has power". The craze to dominate, influence and control policy in the organizations, especially, by administrators is high. This is referred to as administrative politics as against democratic politics practiced by political parties in elections (Sharma et al, 2012). Such political exploits, particularly, in bureaucratic organizations as the university has often resulted in conflict between individuals and groups. It is common to have administrators interfere in the election of student leaders. Also, the election of student leaders in the university is mostly based on the perceived ability to influence the formulation of policy in favour of students. Another form of politics in the university could occur when workers incite students' uprising against management to influence decision for the wellbeing of the workers.

2.10 CONFLICTS IN THE UNIVERSITY

Conflict in the university is a regular issue. Administrators, teachers, students, and parents hardly agree on issues concerning rules governing the school. "These parties, particularly administrators and students, see one another as adversaries, not as those working toward a common goal, as is generally the case in other organizations" (Bua et al, 2015:59). Conflict thus abounds in decisions administrators make about students (Bua et al, 2015). Consequentially, conflicts in the university organization are in a myriad forms. This is as a result of the many different stakeholder interactions that take place in the university

environment. For instance, Awosusi (2005) identified conflicts in the university as taking the form of staff-management conflicts, students-management conflicts, staff-government conflicts, students-students conflict and staff-staff conflicts. On their contribution to the frequency of occurrence of different types of conflict in universities, Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) in their work "Conflict Management Strategies of University Administrators in South-West Nigeria" presented findings which are extensive enough and useful to this study as presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Frequency of Occurrence of Different Types of Conflict in South-West Nigeria Universities

S/N	Items	N	frequency	%	Rarely	%
1	Conflict between Academic and the professional administrators	400	309	77.25	91	22.75
2	Conflict between Academic Staff and the Government	400	216	54.00	184	46.00
3	Conflict between non-teaching staff and the professional administrator	400	266	66.50	134	33.50
4	Conflict between students and the university administrators	400	213	53.25	187	46.75
5	Conflict between non-teaching staff and the Government	400	315	78.75	85	21.25

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6	Conflict between students and the Government	400	216	54.00	184	46.00
7	Inter-personal conflict among staff	400	295	73.75	105	26.25
8	Inter-personal conflict among Students	400	308	77.00	92	23.00
9	Conflict between academic staff and Students	400	341	85.25	59	14.75
10	Conflict between students and the host community	400	150	37.50	250	62.50
11	Conflict between Academic staff union and non-academic staff union	400	209	52.25	191	47.75
		400	267	66.80	133	33.20

Source: Olaleye and Arogundade (2013)

As in Table 2.1, Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) clearly outlined the numerous forms of conflicts experienced in the university environment, prominent among which are conflicts between academic and professional administrators, conflicts between non-teaching staff and the government, conflict between non-teaching staff and the professional administrator, inter-personal conflicts among students, conflict between students and the host community and most importantly, a combination of conflicts between academic staff and students and between students and the university administrators referred to in this study as students-management conflicts. Accordingly, Jude-Iwuoha et al (2014) have observed that most

tertiary institutions in developing countries experience conflict either between the school administration and government, staff and school administration, among staff themselves or among staff and students.

The work of Jude-Iwuoha et al (2014) however has a shortfall of failing to mention as part of the conflicts in tertiary institution, students-management conflict. And this is rightly so, if their use of staff is limited to and means employees. Adding to the discourse, Ada (2013:78) noted that "conflict can occur at the level of interpersonal, inter group/organization or intra-organizational relationship involving chief Executive (Vice chancellors, provost or rector) and the rest of the staff, the students the super-ordinate cadre, and the subordinates, the senior and the junior staff, the student and school authority, the community and the school". From the discussions this far, it is glaring that students-management conflicts are notably inherent in the university environment and worth equal attention towards handling them. The focus of this study is, thus, on students-management conflicts in the university.

2.10.1 The Nature of Students-Management Conflicts in the Universities

It has been observed that students-management conflicts are characterized by protests, revolts, unrests and violence, as well as frequent closure of schools (Adeyemi et al, 2010). Alabi (2002:2) noted that "a conflict situation is characterized by the inability of those concerned to iron out their differences and reach an agreement on issues of common interest. This inability manifests in one form of protest or the other such as strikes and other work–disruptions (slow-downs, planned absenteeism and sabotage)". Though this observation is made from a general view point, it particularly, zeros down to the students situation which in

most cases involve boycotts of classes and sabotage as in undermining the public image of management of the institution. Insubordination and physical attack, violent demonstration and in recent times, falsification and blackmailing through the media have also been glaring features of students conflicts with university management (Ada, 2013). Fatile and Adejuwon (2011) also intimated that, students-management conflicts are often chaotic and undermine many programmes aimed at enhancing and imparting knowledge and skills in the future human resources. Fatile and Adejuwon (2011) further observed that, as a result of mismanagement of conflict and weak school-based security mechanisms, many mild school conflicts have turned violent and some become unresolved and protracted. These probably are only the manifested students-management conflicts. On the latent note, student management conflicts assume the nature of verbal assaults and scorns among others.

2.11 CAUSES OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN THE UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

In examining the problems of university management in Nigeria, Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) citing Ibukun (1997) indicated that university governance in Nigeria today is nothing but crises management. This observation is not peculiar to university governance in Nigeria alone but in Ghana as well. The media in recent times is full of stories on students' unrest in Ghanaian Universities. A number of factors account for these conflicts, particularly, between students and university management.

In their study on "Managing Students' Crisis in Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria", Adeyemi et al (2010) identified the following, see Table 2.2 as the causes of students' crisis in tertiary institutions in Ondo State, Nigeria.

Table 2.2: Causes of Students' Crisis in Tertiary Institutions in Ondo State, Nigeria

S/N	Causes of students' crisis	No.	Agree	%	Disagree	%
1.	Wide communication gap between students and the school authority.	760	630	82.9	130	17.1
2.	Delay in meeting students' demand by the school authority.	760	623	82.0	137	18.0
3.	Failure on the part of the school authority to guarantee security of lives and properties.	760	675	88.8	85	11.2
4.	Inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms, laboratories and equipment.	760	639	84.1	121	15.9
5.	Drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations.	760	580	89.5	80	10.5
6.	Students' reaction to harsh government policies.	760	479	63.0	281	37.0
7.	Frustration and uncertainty from the larger society.	760	479	63.0	281	37.0
8.	Academic stress.	760	411	54.1	349	45.9

9.	Students' non-involvement in decision that concern their welfare.	760	623	82.0	137	18.0
10.	Students being forced to pay a special fee.	760	684	90.0	76	10.0

Source: Adeyemi et al (2010)

Whilst appreciating and adapting their findings for discussions in this study, it should be noted that the work of Adeyemi et al (2010) focused beyond issues that result to students rising up against management to include student government impasses and also going beyond the university to include other tertiary institutions such as the polytechnics. Their focus notwithstanding is relevant to this discussion. The causes of students-management conflicts are thus discussed as follows:

2.11.1 Communication Gap between Students and the School Authority

In their study, Adeyemi et al (2010) had 82.9% of respondents agreeing to the fact that communication gap between students and the school authority was a cause of students-management conflict. Including what they referred to as structural factors and personal behaviour factors, Havenga and Visagie (2011) identified communication factors as the three basic forces or causes of conflict. Indeed, when there is communication breakdown as in the words of Kreitner (2001) between students and management, conflicts would arise. According to Kreitner, communication is a complex process beset by many barriers which often provoke conflict and that it is easy to misunderstand another person or group of people

if two-way communication is hampered in some way. In the university situation, power imbalance between students and management is one of such communication barriers that not only result in (one way communication) top-down communication by way of giving information to students but widen the communication gap that leads to students-management conflicts. Ajibade (2013) and Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) agreed that poor communication between institutions authorities and students is a cause of students-management conflicts.

2.11.2 Failure on the Part of the School Authority to Guarantee Security of Lives and Properties

Azar (1983) has noted that protracted social conflicts emanate from denial of elements necessary to the development of all people whose pursuit is thus a compelling need. Among those compelling needs is security. In Abraham Maslow needs hierarchy, security needs are given prominence; coming next only to physiological needs (Maslow, 1943). In their analysis of Maslow's needs hierarchy, Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) observed that security needs are the desire for safety, stability, and the absence of pain, threat, or illness and that, like physiological needs, unsatisfied security needs cause individuals to be preoccupied with satisfying them. Preoccupation in satisfying security needs could be constructive as in negotiation or destructive as in battling. The latter, though not preferable is resorted to when options are exhausted— hence conflicts. So as in the study of Adeyemi et al (2010), up to 88.8% of their respondents noted that failure on the part of the school authority to guarantee security of lives and properties was a cause of students-management conflicts in tertiary institutions. Adebayo, (2009) studying "Student-Authority Conflict in Nigerian

Universities" found that one of the most sensitive causes of students-management conflicts was when the management failed to guarantee security of lives and property on campus. Adepoju and Sofowora (2012) conclude that this amounts to insensitivity of management to students' welfare which leads to students-induced conflict and aggressive behavour.

2.11.3 Inadequate University Facilities/Infrastructure

Ajibade (2013) identified the lack of university amenities as a source of students-management conflicts; indicating that many tertiary educational institutions lack basic amenities like functional laboratory, well equipped library, sports equipment and adequate hostel with functional facilities like water and light among others, necessary for successful academic enterprises. Thus, poor infrastructure as well as the inadequacy of it could cause students to rise up against university management. It should be noted that, whereas the craze for university education is on the increase causing increases in university enrollment, there is no corresponding increase in university infrastructure. A classic example is what was observed in the University for Development Studies in 2011, compelling management to cut down on enrollment by over 50%.

Lecture halls, students' hostels, water supply systems, library space with books and journals laboratories, to mention but are few in Ghanaian universities are not only inadequate but also fast degenerated by the pressures on them by the overwhelming students numbers. It is therefore not strange to find some students standing outside lecture halls while attending lectures; even without public address system to enable them hear what lecturers present. Ige

(2014:131) corroborated this fact when he observed that existing classrooms in a number of the:

> institutions cannot accommodate many students at a time thus making many students to often run to secure seats to receive lectures. He observed that many students are fond of receiving lectures on their feet, outside classrooms, rather than on their seats. The condition of many classrooms in these institutions also leaves much to be desired. Many of the classrooms lack the necessary facilities, which can guarantee the comfortability of students while receiving lectures.

As far back as 1994, the World Bank observed that, the equipment for teaching, research and learning are either not available or very insufficient and in a bad shape to permit the universities the freedom to carry out the basic functions of academics (World Bank, 1994 in Chinyere and Goodluck, 2015:209). This situation when persist is a recipe for students-management conflict in the university. Adebayo (2009) intimates that when educational facilities are inadequate, it could be enough to upset the peace between the students and the universities authorities.

2.11.4 Delay in Meeting Students' Demand by the School Authority

Student political leaders' activities and external political influence as well as organizational politics to some extent contribute to students-management conflicts. Whilst campaigning for leadership positions, student politicians often look at issues of serious concern to students, promising to deal with them when elected into office. Attempts to fulfill these promises

which may be incompatible to management's decisions and so are unmet or delayed management's attempts to meet such demands lead to clashes between the two. The situation becomes worse when leadership of management does not have the necessary skills to deal with conflicts. This is particularly the case when some Vice Chancellors are appointed due to political considerations without much regards to competence in university management. One other important dimension to this argument is where university staff incites students against management to address issues that bother on student's welfare and by extension that of the staff. For a number of situations when students agitate for the removal of a vice chancellor from office, employees are often behind the move. The situation fits into what Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) refer to as militant student unionism. This way, student unions reacting aggressively to problems in the university often lead to student management conflicts. Ibukun (1997) and Akindutire (2004) in Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) have observed that the result of student militancy and violent unionism has been the constant closure of universities, removal of vice-chancellors among others. The student-management impasse that hit the Wa Campus of the University for Development Studies in 2008/2009 academic year where academic activities were suspended for at least a week, could well fit into Ibukun (1997) and Akindutire's (2004) observation.

2.11.5 Drastic and Obnoxious Rules and Regulations

Like all other human beings, students like to have freedom. They therefore will protest any attempts that infringe their freedom. For example, students from the University College of Ibadan, Nigeria were cited to have staged the first ever protest in 1957 over barbed-wire barricade that was allegedly set up to control the unlawful movement of students out of halls

of residence (Adebayo, 2009). It is important that in formulating rules and regulation that are binding on students, care be taken to avoid extremes or they result in students protests. Thus, Kreitner (2001) posited that setting unreasonable standards, rules, policies, or procedures are triggers that generally lead to dysfunctional conflict between managers and the people they manage and that the best solution is for the manager to tune into perceptions of fair play and to correct extremely unpopular situations before they mushroom. Alabi (2002:3) observed that the older members of the university- "academic and administrators often impose rules and regulations". In return, "the young may answer back by demanding for, and claiming, their democratic rights, culminating in minor conflicts or even ghastly skirmishes between the students and the university authority".

2.11.6 Frustration and Uncertainty in the University Environment

Adeyemi et al (2010) for instance cited frustration and uncertainty from the larger society as a cause of students-management conflicts. The same can be true when the internal environment of the university is clouded. Clouded university environment, often orchestrate by bad management leadership posture breeds uncertainty, frustration and turbulence among students. As indicated by Gurr (2004), frustration evokes aggression, which results in violent conflicts. According to DuBrin (2010:211), like students, "when people operate in an unstable and unpredictable environment, they tend to behave politically". Students in unstable environment rely on organizational politics to survive since the uncertainty makes it difficult to determine what they should really be accomplishing. Communication breakdowns, insecurity and unethical maneuvering tend to dominate in such environment leading to clashes. Uncertainty, insecurity and the frustration heightens when management

in dealing with student-management conflict, invite students to appear before disciplinary committees and or arrest and detain students' union leaders in a manner that is questionable (Adebayo, 2009).

2.11.7 Students' Non-Involvement in Decision that Concern their Welfare

Adepoju and Sofowora (2012) in a study found agitation for students' involvement in management as a source of student management conflicts. One of the compelling fundamental human needs identified by Azar (1983) as a source of protracted social conflicts is the denial of effective participation in determining development requirements. For example, students would like to participate in decision making on matters that affect their lives. If the students are prevented from participating in these issues, conflict could develop. The opportunity to effectively participate in decision making could exemplify Maslow's self-actualization needs. When given the opportunity to participate in deciding on issues that concern them, they tend to uphold the outcomes of such decisions even if the outcomes do not reflect their influence. Unfortunately, as happens in most instances, university management retains most of the authority. Management makes decisions confidently, assume that students will comply, and are not overly concerned with students' attitudes toward the decisions (DuBrin, 2010). These decisions often appear not only as foreign imposition on the students but also, alien creations which evoke students protest; resulting in student management conflicts. Students' non-involvement in decisions that concern their welfare thus had 82.0% of Adeyemi et al' (2010) respondents agreeing as being a cause of student management conflicts.

2.11.8 Students being forced to pay a Special Fee and Arbitrary Increases in Students' Fees

One issue that has often caused students-management conflicts is not only about increases in fees but when students are been compelled to pay a special fee, especially when management cannot adequately justify reasons for the payment. In this regard, a whopping 90% of Adeyemi, Ekundayo and Alonge, (2010) study respondents agreed that students crisis in tertiary institutions are caused by students been forced to pay special fee. Adebayo (2009) cited an example where in 1971 a second year undergraduate of the University of Ibadan lost his life in the protest that originated from issues that included increase in tuition fees. Adebayo therefore concluded that, when school fees and registration fees are too high for students to pay, they might protest resulting in conflict between them and management. In this regard, Ige and Olowolabi (2010) in Ige (2014:132), concerted that the issue of "fee increase has even been a major factor causing incessant student unrest and closure of tertiary institutions".

2.11.9 The Activities of Campus Secret Cults

Secret cults, popularly called occultism is referred to as witchcraft, satanism, neo-paganism, or any of the various forms of psychic discernment such as astrology and palm reading among others as practiced in the universities by students (Lawson, 2009). The activities of secrete cults are said to be on the increase on university campuses and also posing as threat to lives and campus security generally. Though the situation may not be widely pronounced in Ghana as the case of Nigeria, it remains an issue of concern on campuses of Ghanaian Universities (UDS, 2010; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009). The membership aggressiveness also

poses a challenge to the management of tertiary institutions (Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009). Ogunbameru (2004), Adegbite (2007 and Smah (2007) observed that the activities of the secret cults are fast escalating and pose danger to the development of educational institutions. For these researchers, the existence of the secret cults does not guarantee the smooth running of academic programmes and activities and that their existence lead to frequent disturbances and disruption of university activities as well as the creation of the feeling of fear and campus insecurity and campus killings and deaths (both physical and ritual). Students in these cults often develop the culture of not only terrorizing their colleague students but also resisting authority in most cases through militant student unions which result in students-management conflicts. Unfortunately it is noted that cultists usually prove difficult to be arrested by administrators of the institutions and that even when captured are often handled as 'sacred cows' (Ige, 2014).

2.11.10 Differences in the Perception of Group and Organizational Objectives

Bennett (1994) identified differences in the perception of group and organizational objectives as another cause of conflicts in the organizations. Whereas in Bennett's presentation, the attention was on employee-employer conflict, it could also apply in student management conflict. On the face of differences in the perception of students and management objectives, will often prevail students' behaviours that run counter to management's objectives resulting in conflicts between the two.

2.11.11 Poor Institutional Leadership

Faniran and Akintayo (2012) have indicated that leadership integrity among others is needed in attempts to address conflicts in educational institutions. This shows how important effective university leadership is in efforts towards the management of conflicts that arise between students and university management. On the other hand, ineffective university leadership could spell disaster. Leadership ineffectiveness in the management of the university contributes to growing levels of conflicts between students and management (Adepoju and Sofowora, 2012).

Agreeably, Ivancevich and Matteson (1987) posited that the importance of effective leadership for obtaining individual, group, and organizational performance is so critical. In effect, when leadership is ineffective, conflicts abound. In the university organization, management response to students concerns largely depends on the quality of leadership exhibited by management. The incompatibilities of views, interest, and objectives among others between students and management will always prevail as a natural part of their coexistence. However, whether such differences would be managed constructively or destructively depend on the leadership exhibited by management. For instance, whereas as good leader in management will persuade and inspire students for behavoural changes, a bad one in a similar situation may threaten, punish or disagree arrogantly and demeaningly thereby producing negative reactive consequences. Baron (1984) opined that disagreement expressed in an arrogant and demeaning manner produce significantly more negative effects than the same sort of disagreement expressed in a reasonable manner. Youngs (1986) in support of Baron's (1984) assertion said that threats and punishment by one party in a

disagreement tended to produce intensifying threats and punishment from the other party. Mutual intolerance by students and management is a recipe for chaos. Misconceptions held by management as having the right as leaders to threaten students and the feeling of students that their interests are suppressed often nurture grievance and the spirit of vindictiveness between students and university authority (Adebayo, 2009).

DuBrin (2010) identified five ethical behavours of successful leaders to include: Being honest and trustworthy and having the integrity in dealing with others, paying attention to all stakeholders, building a community, respecting the individual, accomplishing silent victories. As DuBrin rightly postulated, leaders who are ethical and moral will treat all their stakeholders fairly in whatever decisions they make. By so doing, they are able to attract and maintain good interested parties (stakeholders), more importantly, customers. Also, an ethical and moral leader will be courteous, showing respects to all and thus building a responsible community that eventually creates peaceful work environment for all to work, thereby reducing conflicts.

On the contrary, leaders who are unable to live to the tenets of ethics and morality tend to hurt stakeholder interest that often results in conflicts. Such Leaders tend to be self-centered, addictive to power and use such power abusively and are usually autocratic. They mostly create hostile environment at the work place that serve as breeding grounds for conflicts. DuBrin (2010) said that such leaders could be guilty of many ethical blunders including overcharging customers, which though may be standard, all violate the rights of stakeholders.

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In the analysis of leadership in the university situation as in many school leadership, it is needless to emphasize this situation as predominant. For instance, Alabi (2002) attributed the student-management conflict in the University of Benin, Nigeria (UNIBEN) to the non-processing of graduating students for Law School in the year 2000. This, the researcher believes was a leadership lapse. This is also the case when students are dissatisfied with academic programmes and leadership fails to provide meaningful guidance resulting in conflicts between them and management of the university (Adeyemi and Ekundayo, 2012).

2.11.12 Increasing Awareness of Students' Rights and their Power to Influence

       Management Decisions

Students are increasingly becoming aware of their rights than ever before. Thus, it is becoming a common phenomenon to have students publicly expressing their feelings as to what they think are their rights being infringed upon and either seeking legal redress or protesting for such rights. Faniran and Akintayo (2012) aptly intimated that we are in an era when interest groups, students inclusive are increasingly becoming aware of their rights as part of the dividends of globalization. The awareness of these rights heightens the crave to enjoy them. The violation of these rights is therefore a recipe for agitation. For instance, Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) in their discussion of causes of conflicts in the university cited the suspension or dismissal of staff and students found guilty as a potential source of conflict. This is particularly true, when the processes by which the affected person(s) was/were found guilty fall short of laid down procedures. Also added to their argument, is when there is show of discriminatory application of university rules and regulations. In the words of Adebayo (2009:490)

it was observed that there were growing awareness among students that they have a measure of power and that they can wield some influence in social and political matters in general and in school matters in particular. The discovery of this latent power finds expression in various ways that could be constructive or destructive. Even though, students have attempted to and succeeded in correcting some social and political ills, there is still an apparent rise in students-authority conflicts.

2.11.13 The Influence of Complex Students' Social Background and Youthful Exuberance

Students who often come from several different complex social backgrounds exhibit equally different levels of tolerance to situations. In addition, students have often been influenced by the socio-psychological mentality of being youths with the exuberance of causing the immediacy of social change. These conditions cause students to react violently to some issues within the university system which leads to students-management conflict (Onyenoru, 1996; Adebayo, 2009; Adepoju and Sofowora, 2012). In the same vein, Bua et al (2015:61) have remarked that the "values of tertiary students … are generationally at variance with those of the adults who are in charge of administration of the campuses" and that these differences cause students-management conflicts in the university.

2.11.14 Role Overload

Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) observed that when there is role overload, conflicts become imminent. The vice chancellor, as an academic staff member, may lecture in one or two courses, may supervise student projects, may function as the chairman of several committees, and watch keenly over the realization of the objectives of the organization such that the various roles conflict with one another thereby creating other problems for the organization. Beyond this observation however, it is also possible for the role overload to divert his attention from the core mandate of providing institutional leadership which includes conflict management; leading to their degeneration into violence. The university administrator when overloaded with roles will often not have time to pay attention to undercurrents of conflicts until they explode.

2.11.15 Widespread Corruption Allegations on Campus

Adebayo (2009) revealed that students-management conflicts could be caused by strong and widespread allegation of corruption in higher places in and out of campus. Although, Adebayo did not go into any detail in discussing how widespread allegation of corruption could be a recipe for students-management conflict, nonetheless, this could particularly be possible when the allegations become so strong beyond reasonable doubts in the face of management's inability to meet basic welfare needs of students. Often times, in such situations, it is common to find other members of the university community, even including some disgruntled members of management inciting students uprising against management and hiding behind students to satisfy their interest which they otherwise could not have executed without the students-management impasse.

Experience shows that when corruption is entrenched in high places in the university, management often shows interest and indeed, endeavours to influence the choice of leadership of unions in the community, including student leaders who they believe would condone their corrupt practices. These attempts usually face resistance; the result of which is conflict. Thus, Adebayo (2009) identified management middling over students' choice of leadership as another cause of students-management conflicts.

2.12 THE CONSEQUENCES OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN THE UNIVERSITY

The effects of conflicts in general and students-management conflicts in particular are far-reaching; often being severer on students and parents as well as the universities organizations (Ajibade, 2013). These range from economic through social to political effects in nature. Jude-Iwuoha et al (2014) have noted that many of the students-management conflicts lead to truncated academic calendar, anarchy on campuses, loss of lives and properties, and in most cases render the school environment totally insecure for serious academic activities. In many known students-management conflicts, there is usually a haunt to overthrow authority including the readiness to kill. In such cases, therefore, administrators will often not find the atmosphere to be secured for their lives and thus abandoning their duties until the environment returns to normalcy. Also, there are instances students are chased out of campuses by military and police force to avoid continued conflict and further damage to property and live there until peace returns to the campuses; resulting in loss of productive teaching and learning contact hours. Adepoju (2003a) thus, asserted that a hostile environment in institutions of higher learning will result in low productivity, inefficiency,

underutilization and hostility. Adepoju added that where there are suspicions, aggressions, insecurity and restrictions, tension and apprehension abound and that where these entire variables exist, productivity tends to be low or even absolutely zero. For him, there is the need to minimize the rate at which conflict and aggressive behaviour occurs in institutions of higher learning so as to stabilize academic activities and improve on the quality and academic productivity. Akomolafe and Ibijola (2011) have also noted that conflicts in the university lead to the production of half-baked and unemployable graduates.

Closure of schools, loss of lives and properties, elongation of period of study, punishment to the erring students and penalty to all students such as payment of caution fees are further identified as some of the effects of students' crises. Fatile and Adejuwon (2011) on their part intimated that students-management conflicts in tertiary institutions have often led to breakdown of law and order, disturbance of public peace and loss of lives and properties.

Closure of schools, uncontrolled roaming of students and increased anti-social vices manifested in the form of examination malpractices, cultism, indecent dressing, among others are also asserted to be the effects of students-management conflicts in universities (Bua et al, 2015). It is noted further that, a number of students-management conflicts have led to protracted disharmony in students-management relationship, increased indiscipline among students, disarmed school authorities, obstructed channel of progressive communication and rendered institutions of learning ungovernable (Fatile and Adejuwon 2011; Alabi 2002; Oguntuase, 1999).

More so, in some situations, students-management conflicts in the university have led to the dismissal and restructuring of management. For example, in their search of literature, Fatile and Adejuwon (2011) revealed that incidence of students-management conflicts in Nigeria in 1981 in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria led to the death of students and the dismissal of the Vice-Chancellor of the University.

It is worth emphasizing that conflicts do not produce only negative consequences as is often thought of. Conflicts are said to help build, define and balance people's needs as individuals with their needs as participants in larger systems, and help them to face and address issues in a clear and conscious way. It is observed that conflicts when effectively managed can help to increase teaching time, foster self-control, enhance interpersonal communication skills, reduce detentions and suspensions, improve the school climate, prevent violence, and improve the capacity to respect and appreciate different perspectives in the university (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013).

Additionally, Ross (1993:77) believed that "for disadvantaged groups and individuals, the ability to threaten, initiate, and maintain a conflict with those who are more powerful can be critical in achieving a redistribution of resources or change in the organizations of a community". Likened to the disadvantaged student community in any university against management, students uprising often have the ability to stop management from taking harsh decisions that affect student welfare. Adebayo (2009) in his view indicated that students have attempted to and succeeded in correcting some social and political ills and management lapses through constructive conflicts. Adebayo's study revealed that students-management

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conflicts result in new challenges for better functioning and growth of universities and that conflict stimulate creativity and spur invention that lead to improvements in university management.

The prevailing discussion may suggest the absence of conflicts could mean that, people are simply avoiding trouble and not that they are pleased with the status quo. Cloke and Goldsmith, 2000) believed that conflict is helpful in not only making known what is wrong of a situation, but most importantly, how to fix it. That is without conflict, organizations could be deluded into thinking that nothing is wrong, when in reality, so much is wrong and impeding creativity and growth. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:487) are therefore of the view that "work groups, departments, or organizations experiencing too little conflict tend to be plagued by apathy, lack of creativity, indecision, and missed deadlines". These arguments augment the debate that conflict is not always a negative phenomenon that should be avoided at all cost. It thus, should be emphasized that a certain minimum level of conflict is necessary in every organization, including the university community to ensure sanity in its management. Fatile and Adejuwon (2011:275) may be right in their submission that "while conflict can be negative and can cause deep rifts in the framework of the institution, it can also be used as a tool to take the institution and the people in it from stagnation to a new level of effectiveness". It could be concluded that what makes the difference in the outcome of conflict—positive or negative is about how the conflict is managed. Thus, the way people define conflict, act and/or react will determine whether the conflict will be productive or destructive. This makes conflict a symmetrical social phenomenon.

2.13 MANAGEMENT

A review of management in this study is important in the light of Ross's (1993:1) claim that "the problem is not conflict per se, but how we handle or manage it". It is noted that management evolved during the industrial revolution of the first half of the nineteenth century when people exhaustively exploited their fellows (Tyson and York, 1996). Since its evolution, management is said to have gone through many phases of transformation perhaps due largely to its wide applications.

Turban and Meredith (1991:4) defined management as "a process used to achieve certain goals through the utilization of resources (people, money, energy, materials, and space, time)". In a similar vein, Bennett (1994:1) has said "management is concerned with the deployment of material, human and financial resources, with the design of organizations, their structure, and development, their specification of objectives and choice of criteria for evaluating organizational efficiency". Inferring from these definitions, management also involves dealing with conflicts arising from the utilization of the resources, especially the 'people' in the pursuit of given organizational goals. This is particularly so, since people, unlike the other resources cited in the definitions are prone to conflicts that have to be managed simultaneously whilst been deployed and utilized to achieve organizational goals. That is, by all functional bases—planning and forecasting, organization, command, coordination and control as postulated by Fayol (1949), management as applies to conflicts is vastly discussed but limited in its application to customer related conflicts in organizations. This may be because customer related conflicts are rare in many forms of organizations studied by scholars, except in the school setting.

Of great concern in the analysis of management in this research is how management approaches apply to conflicts handling in the organizational environment.

Bennett (1994:1) argued that "all types of organizations—public or private, profit or non-profit, government agencies, theatres, opera houses, educational institutions, sports and social clubs, etc—need to be managed; else they collapse". Valid as it may be to claim that all organizations need to be managed; Green and Matthias (1997) have observed that the approach to management differs from organization to organization mainly because of the dissimilarities that exist among the organizations in how they perceive management. Accordingly, Akparep (2014) noted that the differences in approach to managing the different organizations might be the reason behind why management has been understood and presented varyingly by scholars in the field depending on their scholarly orientation and their approach to it. In the analysis of conflicts as in the university situation between students and management, it is important to take a look at how some management approaches apply.

2.13.1 The Management Approach

Describing an approach to management as how management is perceived and practiced, Akparep (2014) asserted that knowing the approaches to management by managers is fundamentally necessary in assisting them to provide functional leadership towards the attainment of organizational goals. Of the many known management approaches, the scientific approach to management, the bureaucratic management approach, the administrative management approach, the systems management approach and the

contingency approach to management have much bearing on the management of conflicts in organizations and are therefore examined.

2.13.1.1 The Scientific Approach to Management

The scientific approach to management was developed by Frederick Taylor. The approach holds that, the art of managing should be based on scientific principles and not merely on opinions. It is founded on the establishment of standards and principles grounded on truths and facts that are based on systematic observation, enquiry or reasoning with which organizations are governed. The theory of scientific management is based on rational approach to organizational governance (Taylor, 1947). Based on systematic observation, truths and facts, the scientific approach to management has the strength to justify behavior of individuals and groups in organizations as in the university. Conflict management strategies that rely on the approach therefore have the potential of getting to the roots of issues and addressing them desirously. For example, the integrating/problem solving conflict management strategy is styled along the scientific management approach in attempting solutions to conflicts only after carefully examining the causes and approaching it from win-win perspective.

2.13.1.2 The Bureaucratic Management Approach

This approach draws on the principles of bureaucracy. Bureaucracy refers to the hierarchical arrangement of institutions/organizations, differentiated by qualifications and competencies and governed by a consistent system of abstract rules, regulations and procedures where by the behavior of the officials is subject to systematic discipline and control (Sharma et al,

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2012). On this score, the bureaucratic management approach which remains the brain child of Max Weber refers to management approach that relies on rigid formal organizational structures with established rules and regulations put in place to expunge arbitrariness/inconsistencies and ineffectiveness. This approach gives meaning to logic and legitimate authority in organizations that ensures orderliness (Weber, 1947). It should be noted however that, the over application of rules and regulations by managers often amounts to controlling subordinates which when resisted leads to conflicts. This approach to management aptly reflects the university situation which often plunges students and management into conflicts as management tries to control students and students resisting such controls. In applying authority inherent in the approach to the management of conflicts, managers often rely on such assertive conflict management strategies as forcing/dominating which only worsen the situation. Weber (1947) argued that although adherence to rules and regulations as underlined by the approach could promote smooth and peaceful operations of the organization when over applied, could be a deviation from the real meaning of management.

2.13.1.3 The Administrative Management Approach

The administrative management approach is also known as the functional or process approach to management. The approach is born out of Hennery Fayol's conviction in the universality of management. Fayol had the conviction that managers who obtain general managerial functions and principles are able to manage all types of organizations as he believed that all organizations have similar managerial responsibilities including technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting and managerial responsibilities (Fayol, 1930). It

is corroborated that there is no much difference between the management of all category of organizations and that although organizations may vary in purpose; they require the same managerial processes (Green and Matthias, 1997; Kreitner, 2001). Opposed to the forgoing arguments, however, are the assertions that the university as an organization is more complex and bureaucratically structured than other categories of organizations and so requires appropriate leadership and management capabilities; the lack of which results in conflict (Faniran and Akintayo, 2012; Onokerhoraye, 2000; Capozzoli, 1995; Adeyemi, 2006 in Adeyemi and Ekundayo, 2012; Animba et al, 2003). Sharing in the latter arguments, the researcher believes that, to think that all organizations are the same and can be managed with general managerial skills is not correct, especially when it comes to the management of conflicts in the university setting. This is particularly valid given the greater diversity that exists in the university environment with students, employees and management alike; coming from widely varied backgrounds as compared to other organizations.

Reliance on the administrative management approach to handling conflicts could lead to arbitrariness/inconsistencies and ineffectiveness in efforts which the bureaucratic management approach seeks to avoid. The effective management of conflicts in the university therefore requires that university managers develop appropriate management skills to enable them interact effectively with students and other actors in the organizational environment for peaceful coexistence.

2.13.1.4 The Systems Management Approach

The far reaching consequences of conflicts can best be described with the systems management approach which according to Wright and Noe (1996) perceives organizations as systems with interrelated parts that form a whole and function in relation to the environment such that whatever affects one part, affects the other. The approach is founded on the thinking that an organization as a system "takes inputs from the environment and transforms them into outputs which it offers to the environment" (Wright and Noe, 1996:15). As such organization's management affects and is affected by the environment within which it functions. This fits well into Ige's (2014) observation that students are formidable inputs in tertiary institutions, apart from the infrastructural facilities and staff and thus, as inputs, they are turned out as products of the institutions. Noteworthy in this discourse is that, when management as in the university situation sees the university as a unified purposeful entity as Stoner et al (1995) put it, its approach to management of conflicts that plague it would rely on cooperative win-win strategies knowing that whatever the outcome, it affects all stakeholders. Therefore, as the approach suggests, with the availability of many varied strategies to dealing with the problem, the best and most optimum option would be considered.

2.13.1.5 The Contingency Approach to Management

As the name implies, the contingency approach to management is not premised on established rules and standards but on the belief that there is no single best strategy to managing organizations. It postulates that managerial decisions are successful when taken on the basis of situations on the ground. For this reason, it is also called the situational

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management approach. When management is based on this approach, it requires that, assessment be made of issues as may be the case of conflicts and decisions taken on the basis of the circumstances at work. On the basis of managerial decisions taken based on the situation on the ground at a given time, proponents of this approach, disagree with the contention that organizations are similar and could be managed using general administrative management principles (Stoner et al, 1995; Kreitner, 2001; Cole, 1996). Machingambi and Wadesango (2012) have noted that the contingency approach to management is non-prescriptive. In other words, it is not based on any existing blueprint. For instance in the management of conflicts, the writers postulated that no one specific strategy is appropriate to all types of conflict at all times.

Perhaps the reliance on military and police intervention to scatter rioting students often happening in students-management conflict as asserted Anifowoshe (2004) is informed by the contingency approach to management. The approach is situation-specific to dealing with managerial problems.

Supporters of the contingency approach have intimated that the managerial decisions of an organization depend on such factors as: the predominant external environment and complexity of the organization, strengths and weaknesses of the organization, prevailing technological factors and the human skills and motivation (Cole, 1996; Kreitner, 2001). Therefore, once these factors are not the same across all organizations, the application of a universal approach to the management of all organizations may not be feasible.

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2.13.2 Conflicts Management

Managing conflicts is matter of necessity and not an option (Afful-Broni, 2012). Olajide (2011) defined conflict management as the 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. On their part, Faniran and Akintayo (2012) viewed conflict management as the process of defusing antagonism and reaching agreement between parties involved in the conflict. Referring to the principle of conflict management, Aseka (2001:22) asserted that the only true solution to conflict is one that attempts to satisfy the inherent needs of all the parties involved. Corroboratingly, Havenga and Visagie (2011) noted that organizational conflicts can be resolved if the causes of such conflicts can be found and solutions be identified that satisfy all the parties involved. Havenga and Visagie added that, it is only by effectively managing the origin (causes) of the conflict or handling it in a manner that is beneficial to the disputing parties and the organization that will ensure that it does not develop again. On their part, Nelson and Quick (2001:424) giving cognizance to the pervasiveness of conflict in an organization remarked that managers need to understand the many sources of conflict to be able to manage it effectively.

Mayer (2008) concluded that if one can develop a useable framework for understanding the causes of conflict, a map of conflict can be created that can guide one through the conflict process. These scholars discussed this far seem to point to one thing—been able to identify the cause of a conflict is key to managing it effectively. It is therefore required of managers of organizations not only to be concerned with dealing with conflict but also to pay much

more attention to discovering and understanding the origin (cause) of a conflict if a solution that is lasting is expected after all.

More so, the processes involved in managing the conflict are as important as the outcomes. It is for this reason that Ross (1993) in attempting an explanation of conflict management indicated his interest in not only the solution to the conflict but also on how the solution is arrived at. To him the extent to which a solution to conflict is seen as being supreme depends on how it is achieved. Put in his own words, Ross (1993: x) remarked appropriately that "the viability of any conflict outcome is directly related to how it is achieved. Success and failure, from this perspective, are related to the process of conflict management as much as to any specific formulas the parties devise to work out their differences". For example, participatory processes to conflict management produce sense of ownership of outcome which could enhance the degree of satisfaction among disputants, even though the solution might not be as exact as expected beforehand. On the contrary, imposed solutions to conflict no matter how good they might seem, could simply be viewed as alien creations and foreign impositions and as such rejected by disputants. Even when such solutions are accepted because disputants do not have the power to resist, they often do not last. Therefore there is the need to focus both the process and outcome of conflict management if success is expected.

2.13.3 Conflicts Management Strategies

Argysis and Schon (1996) have noted that conflicts management refers to the art of designing effective macro-level strategies to minimize the dysfunctions of conflict and enhance the constructive functions of conflict in order to improve learning and effectiveness in an organization. Indeed, when people rise against the existing orders, conflicts emerge and so are lessons to learn which are good for the growth of organizations. Although some scholars use conflict management interchangeably with conflict resolution, Robbins (1978) argued that the difference between the two terms is more than semantics. Conflict resolution refers to reduction, elimination, or termination of conflict (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013). In this study the use of conflict management encompasses both management and resolution as applied by other scholars like (Adeyemi et al, 2010). Thus, conflict management as used here refers to not only minimizing the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing constructive function of conflicts but also, efforts at reduction, elimination or termination of conflicts. Attempts are made to explore extensively, available strategies used in handling conflicts in organizations that could also apply to dealing with students-management conflicts. Strategies used specifically in handling students –management conflict are also explored.

Robbins (1974) identified some conflict management techniques to include: problem solving, the focus on supper ordinate goals, avoidance, smoothing, compromise, authoritative command, altering the human variable and altering structural variables. Some other scholars have noted that, conflict can be handled using such strategies as: problem solving, super ordinate goals, compromise, forcing and smoothing (Farmer and Roth, 1998;

Cropanzano, et al, 1999). On his part, Rahim (1985) in Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) illustrated the styles of handling conflict as in Figure 2.2

Figure 2.2 Five Conflict Handling Styles/Strategies

Concern for others

	INTEGRATION		OBLIGING
High		COMPROMISING	
	DOMINATING		AVOIDING
Low			

Concern for Self   High   Low
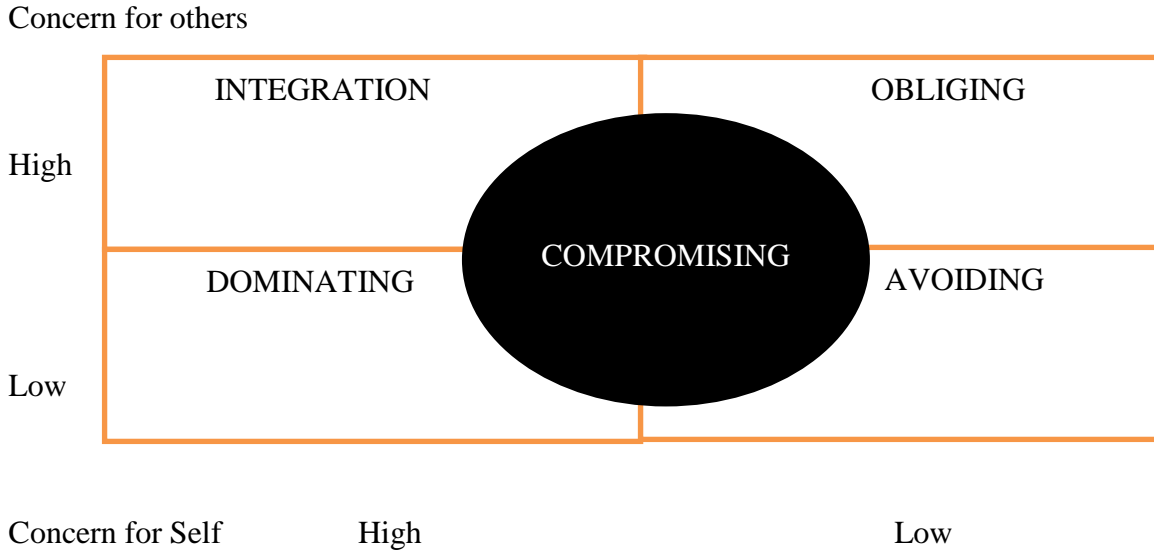
Source: Rahim (1985) in Kreitner and Kinicki (2004)

Farmer and Roth (1998), Cropanzano et al (1999) and Rahim (1985) agree in their presentation of conflict handling styles except that whilst Farmer and Roth (1998) and Cropanzano et al (1999) talked about the use of super ordinate goals in dealing with conflict, Rahim (1985) is silent about it. Robbins (1974) however, presented conflict handling styles that envelop those of Farmer and Roth (1998) and Cropanzano et al (1999) and Rahim (1985) on a broader note.

Whilst corroborating forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving as styles for handling conflicts, Blake and Mouton (1964) examined them according to the attitudes of managers who utilize them in terms of concern for production and for people. In similar vein, Rahim (1985) in his illustration of the styles of handling conflict as in Figure 2.2 differentiated them on the basis of: concern for self and concern for others. From his illustration, the first high or low categorization explains the extent to which a person (manager) tries to satisfy his or her own concerns. The second categorization of high or low explains the extent to which a person (manager) endeavours to satisfy the concern of others. The choice of putting self or others first underpins the choice of a conflict management style and will often depend largely on the person's motivation during conflict and the conflict situation itself (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013).

Indeed, any strategy adopted in a more specific form to handling conflict of a specific nature falls within one or more of these styles. A discussion of these styles is thus a matter of necessity in putting the study in appropriate perspective.

2.13.3.1 Problem Solving

Problem solving is also referred to as integrating. Problem solving takes place when conflicting parties take time to cooperatively identify and correct the source of their conflict. The parties identify and weigh alternative solutions and select a solution that is best. Calling it collaborating style of dealing with conflict, Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) see it as a strategy that demonstrates high level of cooperative and assertive behavours towards conflict management. The approach is based on the assumption that conflict is natural, satisfactory

solutions can be arrived at and that causes must be rooted out and attacked if anything is really to change. Problem solving when utilized well brings about longer lasting impact since it addresses the core issues rather than just with symptoms. Problem solving is however time consuming since it takes time to generate factual information on issues of conflict and to devise alternative solutions (Kreitner, 2001; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). Observed by Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) as good in dealing with conflicts that are complex and plagued by misunderstanding, problem solving would have been the best option in dealing with a myriad of students-management conflicts. It is focused on win-win outcomes; concern for self and others alike. Unfortunately, it is often the most ignored style for addressing conflicts between students and management. Instead, most students-management conflicts are handled by using dominating (forcing) style with focus on personalities and scapegoats.

2.13.3.2 Forcing (Dominating)

At the heart of the application of forcing as a strategy for handling conflict lies formal authority and power of superiority. It is a competitive conflict management style often used in the pursuance of one's own goals at the expense of the other party's. It is often based on win-lose power struggles (Thomas, 1976). Robbins (1974) aptly refers to forcing as authoritative command. Forcing is an assertive and uncooperative style of managing conflict used with the aim of one's goals without concern for others (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011). As observed by Kreitner (2001) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2004), forcing is appropriate when an unpopular solution must be implemented, the issue is minor, or a deadline is near but inappropriate in an open and participative environment. It is glaring when management

just steps into a conflict and orders the conflicting party(ies) to handle the situation in a particularly way usually in the favour of management. This is commonest strategy applied in the school situation, where management tries to demonstrate power and authority through the art of domination. Analyzed in the light of Rahim's (1985) high and low classifications of the styles of handling conflict, forcing has high concern for self and low concern for others. It largely focuses on win— lose tendencies and as such often demonstrates so much disregard for the interest of others in the conflict. Forcing when applied to conflict management often results in resentments as is often the case in most students- management conflicts. The use of forcing as a strategy to managing conflict is thus not encouraged as it hardly resolves the conflict. As a matter of fact, forcing potentially worsens conflicts when the weaker party in the conflict resents and hits back at the dominating party.

2.13.3.3 Compromising

Compromising is another desirable strategy for managing conflict; closest to problem solving in terms of providing mutually acceptable lasting outcomes in conflict if well negotiated. Compromising strategy for conflict management is moderately cooperative and assertive (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011). The success of compromising as a strategy for managing conflicts depends largely on appropriately negotiated outcomes. Thus, negotiation skills are important when using compromising as a style in managing conflicts. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) asserted that compromising is a give-and-take approach to dealing with conflict. They added that compromising has moderate concern for self and others and often has no losers as it focuses on win-win negotiated outcomes. This style of conflict management is what Thomas (1976) referred to as the sharing style. It is aimed at

compromising outcomes for mutual benefit of both parties in conflict. Unfortunately, compromising, like problem solving is often not considered by school management as an option in handling students-management conflict. Perhaps this is because of the unequal power relations between students and school management. Agreeably, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) opined that compromising is only appropriate when parties have opposite goals or possess equal power. Even where compromising is seemly used in handling students-management conflict, the issue of power play comes to bear on outcomes; making it more or less forcing such that the less powerful party usually, the students end up feeling cheated and disappointed. Such negative outcomes also emanate from poor negotiator skills who end up siding with management as in the Ghanaian culture of "the elderly is always right".

2.13.3.4 Smoothing (Obliging)

Smoothing is another important strategy used in handling organizational conflicts. In his low and high classifications of the strategies for managing conflict, Rahim (1985) argued that, in the application of smoothing in managing conflicts, there is high concern for others than self. Thus, Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) said it is cooperative and unassertive style. They refer to it as accommodating style of managing conflict. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) posited that smoothing, deals with playing down differences while emphasizing commonalties between parties in conflict. For them, it encourages cooperation and so may be appropriate to apply when it is feasible to eventually get something in return. It is observed that smoothing is not a permanent fix to conflicts since it fails to deal with the basic issues of problems and so Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) concluded that, as a style, it demonstrates concern about the emotional situation of conflict but little interest in working on its

substantive issues. It is not to be used when conflicts are complex or worsening but just as temporary approach to suppress a conflict for a while when there is no time for problem solving or compromise and forcing is not deemed suitable to managing a conflict (Joinson, 1998; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). Arguably, the application of smoothing to dealing with students-management conflict could only be appropriate at the early stage of the conflicts and not at the time of escalation. Unfortunately, at early stages of conflicts, management often tend not to be cooperative until when it escalates making it inappropriate for smoothing, hence the reliance on other strategies such as forcing as has mostly been the case.

2.13.3.5 Avoiding

Avoiding, according to Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:500), "may involve either passive withdrawal form the problem or active suppression of the issue". They noted that this approach to conflict management is suitable when dealing with issues that are negligible and worth more ignoring than confronting or attempting to resolve. Another angle to this is what Best (2006) called 'conflict suppression'. By suppression of conflict, he meant situations where more powerful parties in conflict or stronger interveners in conflict have the capability to manage the conflict for solutions but choose to use their power or force to push the issue aside and or impose unsustainable and unsatisfactory solution to the conflicting parties. Best rightly observed that conflict suppression is commonly seen in situations of unequal power relations; accusing governments as often been found in doing that. Avoiding is not suitable for complex and worsening problems. Avoidance does not fix a problem. It is simply a way of dodging the issue which most times remains unresolved and resurfaces. It is

further observed that, avoidance prevails when a conflicting party doesn't have sufficient information to effectively address the conflict at a given time or when the power of one party in the conflict situation is comparatively so low that its ability to effect changes is equally so little (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011). Given their relative low power and equally low ability to influence management decisions, students most times tend to give blind eyes to management decisions which though may not be favourable to them as students, may equally not have so much of any unfavourable consequences on their welfare.

2.13.3.6 Super Ordinate Goals

Citing the use of super ordinate goals as a strategy to managing conflicts, Robbins (1974) noted that super ordinate "goals are highly valued, unattainable by any one group [or individual] alone and commonly sought". For example, in a school situation, it takes the cooperation of both management and students to achieve the goal of good academic performance. To achieve this goal, especially at an impending examinations students and management can decide to bury or ignore their difference (which by extension is avoidance) in pursuance of this ultimate goal.

After the goal is achieved, the parties in conflict may go back to it. The use of super ordinate goals in managing conflicts therefore lends itself to working most times only in the short run without necessarily dealing with the fundamental issues of the conflict.

Scholars have observed that problem solving and compromising that are premised on skillful negotiation are the only conflict management strategies that deal with the underlying issues of conflict and settle matters in the long run. They are said to be more constructive and

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cooperative in nature and result in positive and favourable feeling by parties in conflict when used in addressing the conflict. The rest of the strategies, especially forcing and avoiding are short-run measures with short term impacts. They often have negative effects in the long run. They produce negative feelings and unfavorable outcomes in the long run. Particularly, the use of avoidance strategy simply implies running away from the problem.

However, given that problem solving and effectively negotiated compromising are time consuming, it often becomes the case that superordinate goals, forcing, or smoothing, as may seem most appropriate is used in the management of a number of conflicts, particularly in the case of students-management conflicts in the university (Rahim, 1983; Brockmann, 1996; Conlon and Sullivan, 1999; Kreitner, 2001; Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011).

The preceding arguments suggest that the nature of conflict and the environment in which conflicts take place as well as expected outcomes, both in the short-term and in the long-term will largely determine the style that a person will have to adopt. A combination of styles could be a plus.

2.13.3.7 Other Known Strategies for Managing Conflicts

Beyond, the broader strategies, students –management conflicts have often been handled in a much more specific and contingent ways. For example Ajibade (2013) in his search of literature revealed that many scholars have written on the management of students-management conflicts and that efforts at managing such conflicts by the concerned authorities often take the form of immediate closure of institutions with an ultimatum

instructing students to vacate their halls of residence and premises; suspension or dissolution of students' unions and their executives, rustication or outright expulsion of student leaders and the use of security forces like the police/army to maintain law and order in the affected institution and that when the crises have a national impact, the government often reacts by proscribing the Students' Union Organization at the national level. Albert (2011) in Ada, (2013:81) seemed to think along this line when he defined conflict management as the "coordinated and timely application of political, economic, *military and or security measures* taken in response to a situation threatening peace, with the aim of defusing the tensed situation, preventing escalation or achieving a peaceful settlement of a dispute"—italics supplied for emphasis. These measures are often taken to reduce the vibrancy of the student unions and hence their ability to undertake any further impactful actions against management and also to deter other students from joining in such actions seeing the punishments meted out to others. In situations like these, diplomacy ceases to work as power play takes over the conflict grounds.

2.13.4 Conflict Triangle and the Third-Party Intervention in Conflict Management

In many conflict situations, the intervention of a third party is required. This is particularly so when disputants are unable to handle conflicts directly by themselves often as a result of several factors including power differentials. In ideal situations, conflicts are best handled within the confines of disputants limiting the number of people who get to know of such conflicts. It is debated that the greater the intensity of conflict, the more difficult it is to manage. With the ideal rarely occurring however, many known conflicts have often required third party intervention to handle. It is this third party involvement that adds to the

disputants to make a conflict triangle. Thus, according to Ruzich (1999:129) a conflict triangle "occurs when two people are having a problem and, instead of addressing the problem directly with each other, one of them gets a third person involved". A third party in this case could be an individual, an organization or a committee as has often been the case in the management of students and management conflicts in school situation. Most forms of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) fit into conflict triangles. From many indications, third party involvement in conflict management has become an integral part in the management of many organizational conflicts.

2.13.5 Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR), Negotiation and Dialogue in Conflict Management

A less costly and more cooperative approach to conflict resolution known as alternative dispute resolution is gradually gaining ground in conflict management circles (Jacobs, 1999; Nugent, 2002; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). The emergence and growth of the alternative dispute resolution techniques is victory over the lengthy and costly court battles between and among members of organizations. It is for this reason that they are said to be faster and more user-friendly methods of dispute resolution (Morrow and Bernadi, 1999). It is usually an out of court, yet court modeled approach to conflict management (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). The alternative dispute resolution techniques are third party oriented in seeking solutions to conflicts. Best (2006:96) has noted that alternative dispute resolution connotes "the search for, and application of, "non-conventional" peaceful methods of settling disputes and resolving conflict situation using the least expensive methods, and ways that satisfy the parties". It derives its name from being an alternative to the formal conventional techniques

of handling disputes, usually through litigation and the courts procedures (Morrow and Bernadi, 1999; Best, 2006). Best (2006) categorized these techniques into two as voluntary (where parties to the dispute have some control over outcomes of the resolution process) and involuntary (where disputants have no control over resolution outcomes). Arranged in order from least costly and easiest to most expensive and most difficult to use, these techniques which relevantly apply in students management conflict handling are identified to include: facilitation, conciliation, ombudsman, mediation and brokerage which all fall with the voluntary category. Others which are more coercive and so are termed involuntary include arbitration, adjudication and law enforcement (Best, 2006; Morrow and Bernadi, 1999; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004; Ross, 1993).

ADR thrives on negotiation and dialogue in conflict management. Often used interchangeably with dialogue, negotiation, like conflict, is part of man's daily life. Negotiation is said to be a basic leadership role and that since conflicts management requires leadership, conflict thus also requires negotiation and bargaining to address a problem (DuBrin, 2010). Hellriegel and Slocum (2011: 395) defined negotiation as "a process in which two or more interdependent individuals or groups who perceive that they have both common and conflicting goals state and discuss proposals and preferences for specific terms of a possible agreement". By negotiation, the concerned parties in conflict have the opportunity to bargain on set terms as to what they can give out and what they can take in as a way of settling perceived differences between and or among them. Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) noted that negotiation usually encompass a combination of compromise, collaboration, and possibly some forcing conflict-handling styles. From this statement,

negotiation is not in itself categorized as a style of managing conflict but a tool applied by a style of conflict management. Kreitner made it clearer when in his analysis of conflict management strategies, cited compromise as founded on negotiation and that "successful compromise requires skillful negotiation" (Kreitner, 2001:509).

Two main types of negotiation are identifiable—two-party and third-party (Kreitner, 2001). Negotiation is two-party, when the concerned parties engage themselves in the bargaining process without an intervening party. On the other hand, negotiation as by its name becomes third-party when a third force is engaged in the bargaining process. Third-party negotiation is common in most conflict management situations in organizations. This is especially, necessary in bringing fairness when the parties in conflict have unequal power relations as in students-management conflicts in the university. Negotiation is so significant to the conflict management process that, Kreitner (2001) intimated it should be acquired from diligent study and frequent practice just like communication skills.

2.13.6 Success in Conflict Management

The question many people have often asked regarding conflicts management is whether conflicts can be managed successfully. To this question, they often expect a yes or no answer. This notion is perhaps influenced by the protracted nature of many conflicts around humanity. To say yes or no to a question of this nature sounds discouraging to the management of conflicts, since it would simply mean that a conflict is either resolved such that it ceases to exist anymore or it has failed to be resolved. To people who think this way, only two outcomes exist—success or failure in the management of conflict and so they will

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do only one thing in conflict situations. They will often go all length, including eliminating their opponents to have the conflict "uprooted" to mean success or simply take no action to mean conflict cannot be resolved and thus failure.

To deal with narrow view, Ross (1993) asserted that success in conflict management is not just about the absence of failure but should be judged from the point of view of whether a management effort has made things better, improved the conflict situation and more so has the potential of yielding positive changes in the future. In furtherance to his position, Ross stipulated that to examine the success of conflict management, there is the need to find out what would happen to the situation if there had been no intervention in trying to manage. If the situation would have been worse without the intervention, it means the intervention has been a success even if the conflict is not totally put to rest. On the basis of this view, Ross distinguished between relative and absolute success in the management of conflicts; noting that management efforts do not all have equal chances of success. On absolute terms, conflict management is said to be a success when the conflict so managed is put to rest; a situation that rarely occurs. On relative terms, however, a conflict management effort may not put the conflict to rest but would have transformed the issue to a better situation than before or at least point to a better situation in the future. Ross' argument may suggest that conflict resolution has levels or segments. It also points to the fact that conflict is basically not in the lineal progression. It may terminate or recede depending on how it is managed.

2.13.7 Effectiveness of Conflicts Management Strategies

Effective conflict management is desired by all organizations when they are hit by conflicts. This is required, not only to put the conflict to rest but also because of its importance to organizational learning. Tjosvold (1993) explained that effective conflict management is required in assisting organizations get abreast with new developments and generate solutions appropriate for new threats and opportunities. On their part, Cloke and Goldsmith (2000) indicated that when conflicts are well handled they bring about growth, increased awareness, and self-improvement. Accordingly, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) asserted that conflict when managed well could lead to equitable and fair agreements and that, such agreements would help disputants to build bridges of goodwill and trust amongst them as they go into the future. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) also believed that effective conflict management induced learning as it enhances greater self-awareness and creative problem solving.

Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) in their literature search on organizational theory and organizational behaviour have suggested some criteria used in the measurement of the effectiveness of a conflict management strategy. For them, to say a strategy for conflict management is effective, it should satisfy certain criteria including: organizational learning and effectiveness, satisfaction of needs of stakeholders and the ethics factor.

2.13.7.1 Organizational Learning and Effectiveness

Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013), Luthans et al (1995) and Tompkins (1995) observed that an effective conflict management strategy should be designed to enhance organizational learning. Thus, for Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013), an effective conflict management

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strategy is expected to lead to improved critical and innovative thinking and to teach the process of diagnosis and intervention in the right problems. This is rightly so, since different conflicts have different solutions and strategies used must stimulate critical thinking that produce best solutions to such problems and which by extension can be replicated in similar situations. In effect, when good strategies are applied and best solutions generated, organizational learning is enhanced leading to lasting effectiveness. In this regard, Ross' (1993) concern is about how durable a solution produced by a conflict management strategy can be. He referred to duration of a conflict management outcome as the extent to which such an outcome is enduring or lasting. Conflict management strategies that produce both durable and mutually acceptable solutions to disputing parties and as well induce learning are effective and preferable.

2.13.7.2 Satisfaction of Needs of Stakeholders

Another criterion for assessing the effectiveness of conflict management strategies is whether it satisfies the needs of stakeholders, particularly, the parties involved in the conflict. Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) indicated that effective conflict management strategies should have the ability to satisfy the needs and expectations of the strategic constituencies (stakeholders) and also to ensure a balance among them. It is worth integrating the right stakeholders in the search for solutions to problems as the involvement itself could be a source of satisfaction. Mitroff (2001) demonstrated a good appreciation for involving the right stakeholders to solving problems. Re-enforcing their stance on organizational learning, Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) have argued and this is true, that involving the right stakeholders in a problem solving process will not only likely satisfy

them but also, leads to collective learning and organizational effectiveness. Satisfaction of needs of stakeholders as a measure of the effectiveness of a conflict management strategy is explained by Ross (1993) in his measure of the effectiveness and success of conflict management strategy as 'acceptance'. For him, acceptance should be seen as the extent to which a solution arrived at by a strategy is acknowledged by the disputing parties as been a fair process and that it should not be regarded as acceptance if it is simply taken because a party does not have the power to oppose it but to accept it as it is. And indeed, this may be true since it only amounts to imposition rather acceptance.

2.13.7.3 The Ethics Factor

Ethics are very important in management practice in general and particularly useful for conflict management. Managers are expected to be ethical, ready to accept realities, demonstrate honesty and be ready to change when the need be. The ethical positions of managers will often influence the strategies they apply in managing conflicts and which eventually affects the success of outcomes. Mitroff (2001) argued that "if we can't define a problem so that it leads to ethical actions that benefit humankind, then either we haven't defined or are currently unable to define the problem properly." By implication, a problem solved unethically, has the potential of resurfacing since it will often not satisfy all parties involved. Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) noted therefore that an effective leader behaves ethically—is open to new information and willing to change his or her mind. When leaders and subordinates as well as other stakeholders demonstrate commitment to manage conflicts ethically in organizations, there will be stakeholder satisfaction and collective learning and hence organizational effectiveness. Conflict when managed ethically and constructively will

lead to changed relationships which Ross (1993) refers to as the extent to which positive interaction are produced between the disputants due to a given intervention than before.

Adepoju and Sofowora (2012) in a study identified and arranged in order of most effective to least effective in managing students aggressive behaviours in tertiary institutions, a number of strategies as: dialogue, mediation and arbitration, compromise, problem-solving, divide and rule tactics, use of force and re-organization. This ranking of effectiveness of the strategies was done from respondents' assessment of which strategy was most effective in dealing with students conflicts. Not much reference was however made to any criteria as suggested by (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013). It is imperative to consider multiple criteria in the assessment of the effectiveness variable in social research for reliability.

Indeed, effective conflict management involves change at the macro-level of and organization so that substantive conflict is encouraged and affective conflict is minimized at the individual, group; inter-group, and organizational levels. It is argued that, effective conflict management often requires changes in leadership, organizational culture, and the design of an organization (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013). Rahim (2001) therefore queried the effectiveness of the traditional conflict management strategies. For him, they only resolve or reduce conflict between parties at the micro-level within the existing system. Accordingly, Ajibade (2013) has noted that the measures that are usually employed by the authorities of tertiary educational institutions in managing students-management conflicts are ineffective. Ajibade emphasized that the measures often adopted in managing student-

management conflicts are regulatory and repressive in nature and that rather than helping to address the problems, those strategies further worsen the situation.

The use of police and other forces in dealing with students-management conflicts was criticized. The argument was that they often lead to violence and that more often than not, the sight of the police by protesting students ignites campus disturbances rather than reducing the likelihood of violence (Anifowoshe, 2004; Ajibade, 2013). The police in exercising the right to use some reasonable level of force, if necessary, to make an arrest, to keep peace or maintain public order, sometimes do these in excess leading to clashes with students that turn to violence (Anifowoshe, 2004). Also, condemned by Anifowoshe (2004) is the imposition of ban on student unionism by the university administration which he said often sparks agitation resulting in confrontational behavior with the authorities. For Anifowoshe (2004), students' union organization is seen by the students as the only potent instrument of bargaining with the institution's authorities for meeting group demands and any form of action against the functioning of this union renders them voiceless. Anifowoshe concluded that when this avenue for engaging authorities in the demands for students fails to function, students often take the laws into their hands, including the use of violence as the only way to drum home their demand.

It is also observed that the intervention of the police and other law enforcement agents in conflict management often requires the use of extra-ordinary measure such as force, to restore law and order. Some personnel of the Military and Police Service in Africa often have the tendency to exhibit high-handedness, excesses and unprofessional conduct in

conflict management situation. The effect is that human rights violations are often witnessed (Best, 2006 in Ajibade, 2013). Ajibade (2013) concluded that the use of police to scuttle and disperses as a way of handling students conflicts against management has often led to the killing and maiming of many students.

In other studies, it was revealed that the closure of institutions as a strategy for managing students-management conflicts often result in a disruption of academic programme, leading to inadequate work, poor performance and outright failure (Taiwo, 2004). For their contribution to the discourse, Aluede and Imhanlahimi (2004) argued that the closure of schools during demonstrations has a negative effect on the scope and curriculum of programmes offered.

Commenting on the effectiveness of management strategies for resolving conflicts in the universities, Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) identified dialogue, prevention, mediation, avoidance, participatory decision making, emergency, use of ad-hoc committee and persuasion and described none as being highly effective. For Olaleye and Arogundade (2013), even the dialogue strategy that was found in their study to be most commonly used in managing conflict was found only to be moderately effective, followed by participatory decision making, mediation and prevention strategies. The rest— forcing and the emergency strategies were found ineffective in resolving conflict in an organizations.

2.14 CONTROLLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN THE UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

To control the incidences of students-management conflicts in the university situation, a number of measures have been recommended by scholars.

2.14.1 Enhancing Communication at all Levels

Effective communication is essential for an organization's survival. Such communication should be upward, downward, and lateral. When organizations involve members in communication, they will often support decisions made by the organization and share in the pride of participation. Wright and Noe (1996) asserted for college to become competitive, its officials must encourage lateral and upward communication with customers (students and alumni, along with other donors) and employees (faculty). When communication at all levels of the university, especially between students and management is improved, there will be efficient flow of information through the university system to deal with grapevines information which could be the cause of conflicts. It has been observed that "information is a key resource for conflict resolution, peace promotion and security" and that if relevant information is made available through effective communication, at all levels of the organization, it will support and establish the base for the effective functioning of a democratic system of the organization (Bhatti, 2010). Jude-Iwuoha et al (2014) asserted that when information resources are provided in the right format and promptly dissemination at all times to the various academic community and stakeholders for the purpose of educating, empowering and taking decisions, conflict management would be made easier. It is therefore important for university management to recognize the essence of effective communication

and to encourage it as it ensures transparency in the organization which in turn promotes trust and for that matter peaceful coexistence. Suggesting alternative and democratic style of managing conflicts between students and management, Ajibade (2013) noted that, bridging of the communication gap between students and institution's authorities is very important in forestalling conflicts between the two. Additionally, Anatsui and Ojunita (2015) contended that, since misunderstanding is basically the major cause of conflict, to resolve conflict, means to achieve an understanding and that work for a mutual interest, and the achievement of understanding is largely dependent on information, education and communication. Anatsui and Ojunita therefore asserted that communication is at the root of resolving conflict situation.

2.14.2 Involvement of Students in Decision Making

Involving students in decisions on issues that concern their welfare is another democratic way of controlling students-management conflicts (Ajibade, 2013; Ada, 2013). Involving students in decision making improves students and management relations. When the relations are good, issues of incompatibility are easily identified and discussed and that in turn controls the emergence and escalation of conflicts. Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) have noted that one way to reduce the extent of volatile and militant students' unionism on campus is by making sure that students are involved in decision-making, especially on issues that border on their welfare. The adoption and application of the conflict management strategies involving students' representatives are also necessary in helping to deal with students-management conflicts in the university (Chibuokwu and Nwosu, 2015). Accordingly, management is encouraged to involve students' representatives as members in

all statutory university committees, including the governing councils, increase their membership and integrate their contributions to decision-making (Akomolafe and Ibijola, 2011).

2.14.3 Students-Management Dialogues

Another measure encouraged by scholars in controlling students-management conflicts is the use of dialogue (Ajibade, 2013; Ada, 2013). By dialogue, students are engaged in the discussions of issues of potential incompatibilities. For instance, Ada (2013) observed that by dialogue, parties in conflict are brought together to expose and discuss the issues and problems involved in the conflict; aimed at gaining a clearer view of factors causing and promoting the conflict. He added that, dialogue gives those in conflict the opportunity to express their feelings, their grievances and views on the issue. This frees their mind of grudges and bitterness to bury the differences and deal with the conflict. Ada (2013) thus suggested that, to curb students- management conflicts, students should be called for dialogue from time to time by management.

2.14.4 Functional Welfare and Counseling Committee/Units

It is believed that the existence and effective functioning of these committees help to seek out student problems or challenges (Ajibade, 2013). Problems sought and discovered by such committees can easily be dealt with before they result into conflicts of any sort.

2.14.5 Provision of Adequate Infrastructure

To control students-management conflicts, there should be efforts at ensuring improved infrastructure provision. Enrolled student numbers should commensurate with available infrastructural base, both in quantity and quality. As rightly observed, there is the need to improve the infrastructural base of the universities through intensified efforts in providing more physical facilities in the universities to meet increasing student populations. The provision of facilities to aid effective teaching and learning and the seriousness placed on maintenance culture of existing infrastructure are encouraged (Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009).

2.14.6 Effective Institutional Leadership

Leadership is very important in dealing with students-management conflicts in the university. As Adeyemi et al (2010) have said, managing conflicts in schools requires appropriate leadership style of the school administrators. On his part, Ladipo (1997) intimated that effective leadership among school authorities is necessary in dealing with students-management conflicts. Alabi (2002:7) also pointed out that "A more participatory and supportive style of leadership and management behaviour is likely to assist in conflict management". When students are satisfied with the leadership provided by university management, there will be peace in the school environment for a sound academic work. In this regards, Ada (2013) noted that conflict management in tertiary institutions demands consideration to problem solving techniques along with proper use of authority. Mgbekem (2004) also noted that, to control students' conflicts in schools, university administrator should avoid being highhanded with students. Leaders who employ cooperative conflict management strategies tend to be more successful in managing conflicts than those who use

the competitive strategies. In the exercise of good leadership, not only are authorities of tertiary institutions required to be proactive in their efforts to handling conflict, but also, need to carefully examine the causes of such conflicts in order to apply suitable conflict management strategies to ensure effective and satisfactory outcomes (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011: 395; Ayodele and Adewumi, 2007).

2.14.7 Teaching of Courses on Conflict Management and Resolution

The teaching of courses on conflict management and resolution could help in controlling students-management conflicts. Enhanced students' knowledge in conflicts will not only help students to identify and avoid conflict triggering behaviours but will also help them to know how to behave when conflicts erupt. Corroborating this view, Mohamedbhai in Magagula (2007) noted that courses on conflict management and resolution among others when taught as General Study Courses could help minimize the incidences of conflicts in tertiary institutions. On their part, Fatile and Adejuwon (2011) recommended teaching Peace and Conflict Studies as a General Study Course in the university; aimed at making the universities a location for the promotion of dialogue, understanding and tolerance. Fatile and Adejuwon (2011:284) and suggested "all students must have a dose of peace and civic education as well as conflict prevention, management and resolution" that will make them gain the knowledge of how to confront conflict situations without the recourse to violence (Chibuokwu and Nwosu, 2015). The evidence as discussed suggests that the adoption and strengthening of conflict and conflict resolution education in the school curriculum is a must and should be given the needed attention. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and

Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was created among others for this reason to build the defenses of peace in the minds of men and women (Duedahl, 2016).

2.14.8 Stamping out Occultism in Schools

Students in occultism are mostly indoctrinated for violence and in several cases would be those to lead uprising against institutional authorities. Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) in recommending ways of controlling students-management conflicts, therefore, mentioned among other things, the need to stamp out cultism in universities as a joint effort of all the stakeholders—government, university authority, religious leaders, students and parents. Thus, it should be noted that no institution formally accepts cultic practices yet they exist and must be dealt with from all angles and with all efforts available.

2.15 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

Under this chapter, scholarly works on conflicts in the context of organizations with focus on the customer—student in the university situation were reviewed. It examined the nature of organizations and their classifications with emphasis on the university organization. Conflict in the organization was reviewed. The university is an organization with people from widely varied cultural backgrounds and expectations that make it prone to conflicts. Students' unionism has bearing on students-management conflicts and so was reviewed under literature. The student as a university customer, his/her participation and loyalty to the university organization, coupled with the maintenance of discipline, communication and organizational transparency are looked at as key to conflicts management in the university. Also, of relevance to the study on conflicts are issues of power, authority, organizational

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politics and their influence on conflicts management. All these were reviewed under literature to have strong connection with the analysis of students-management conflicts as was studied.

Literature was also reviewed on all objectives of the study. The review revealed that conflicts abound in the university organization and are in a myriad of forms including students-management conflicts. It was pointed out that students-management conflicts in the universities are characterized by boycotts of classes and sabotage as in undermining the public image of management of the institution, insubordination and physical attack, violent demonstration and in recent times, falsification and blackmailing through the media among others.

The causes of students-management conflicts in the university were reviewed to include: communication gap between students and the school authority, inadequate university facilities/infrastructure, delay in meeting students' demand by the school authority, students' non-involvement in decision that concern their welfare and students been forced to pay a special fee and arbitrary increases in students' fees and poor institutional leadership. The literature review showed both positive and negative consequences of students-management conflicts of varying degrees.

Also very important in the literature review was management and management of conflicts. Managing conflicts was revealed as a matter of necessity and not an option. Conflicts management strategies identified in literature were: problem solving, forcing (dominating),

compromising, smoothing (obliging), avoiding and the use of super ordinate goals. Other known strategies for managing conflicts included: immediate closure of institutions with an ultimatum instructing students to vacate their halls of residence and premises; suspension or dissolution of students' unions and their executives, rustication or outright expulsion of student leaders and the use of security forces like the police/army to maintain law and order in the affected institutions. Third-party intervention in conflict management and Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) were not left out in the review of literature.

At the heart of the study was the measure of the effectiveness of conflicts management strategies and for that matter the success in conflict management. This was therefore looked at in the light of organizational learning, satisfaction of needs of stakeholders and on the basis of ethics. It was noted that the strategies used in handling students-management conflicts in the university setting were mostly not effective. Measures to control students-management conflicts in the university were also reviewed.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section focused on the data gathering approach in the research process. Methodology is the focal point on which the research revolves. Put emphatically, Al-hassan (2015:30) argued that "the methodology constitutes the frame upon which the research is built". Here, emphasis is put on the specific methods of data collection and analysis. In the words of Sarantakos (2005:30), "methodology is a research strategy that translates ontological and epistemological principles into guidelines that show how research is to be conducted. In other words, methods are instruments employed in the collection and analysis of data". Research methods are defined by Crotty (1998:3) as "the techniques or procedures used to gather or analyze data related to some research questions or hypothesis". To ensure reliability and validity of research findings, the methodology was very crucial to the study. Thus, for Sarantakos (2005:30), methodology occupies a central position in the research process. Indeed, unlike in the physical sciences where findings are based on rigorous laboratory process, the social scientist faces the problem of precision in dealing with human beings who are most variable among variables. The choice of methodology therefore needed to be given the required attention in helping to check and detect inconsistencies and contradictions of findings as was done.

The selection and use of the appropriate approaches in social research help in collecting reliable and valid data that can favorably compare with those obtained from physical/biological research (Twumasi, 2001). For Ghosh (1992), selected methodology should be 'research purposed' dependable and appropriate in drawing research findings to a logical conclusion.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is defined by Jahoda et al (1962:30) as "the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure". Research design thus, functions as a guide with regard to how to go about the research work. Such a design is based more or less on some methodology providing guidelines as to the purpose of the study, the type of data required, sources of data, scope of the study, methodology of the study and data analysis amongst others (Ghosh, 1992). Flick (2002) stated that, the design of research could be quantitative, qualitative or a combination of both, which Johnson et al (2007:123) call the "mixed research design". Quantitative research design is inferentially statistical and so relies so much on figures and for that matter measurement. Qualitative design on the other hand, draws largely on description in its approach. The Mixed Research Design combines elements of both quantitative and qualitative research designs and is defined by Johnson, et al (2007:123) as:

> the type of research in which a researcher or a team of researchers combine
>
> the elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of
>
> qualitative and quantitative research viewpoints, data collection, analysis,

inference techniques) for both broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.

Creswell (2014:32) defined qualitative research design as "an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" and that by qualitative design, data is "typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data". As in this study, Flick (2002:13) pointed out that "qualitative research is oriented towards analyzing concrete cases in their temporal and local particularity and starting from people's expressions and activities in their local contexts". Thus, this study adopted the qualitative research design in the collection and analysis of data. For the data collection, the in-depth interview technique was used. This was augmented with surveys (questionnaire administration) which Marshall and Rossman (1995:86) refer to, among others as "supplemental data collection techniques" for qualitative studies. For the analysis, coding, summarizing, organizing and drawing of themes were done.

In the presentation and analysis, some data were put in graphic formats like: charts, graphs, tables and matrices to aid clarity and understanding. The decision to rely on the qualitative research design was influenced by the factors outlined in favour of qualitative methodology by (Sarantakos, 2005:134) that: it is an explorative study that is based on the inadequacy of knowledge on the subject. It studies reality from inside. That is, understanding it from the viewpoint of the subject. The study object is complex and has very much need for qualitative methods. It captures reality 'as it is', that is in an interaction.

Presentation of information gathered is not formulae inclined but are detailed in descriptive form. This study approached reality without preconceived ideas and assumptions.

3.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURES

3.3.1 Sampling Units

Osuala (2001) referred to sampling units as people or a group of people who by virtue of their knowledge of a problem area and who affect or are affected by the problem are selected from a population for a research study. A population in this case, according to Babbie (2005:196) is "the theoretically specified aggregation of the elements in a study". Burgess (2001) said population refers to all the members of the group that the researcher is concerned with. That is, a population is the entirety of the elements that are a relevant source of information to a study, Knowing the population, as a researcher is as important as knowing your sampling units. On the part of Babbie (2005), sampling units also referred to as elements is about those people or certain types of people from whom information is collected for analysis in research. Ghosh postulated that, clearly defining the sampling units is very important since it helps in determining the choice of sample size and that the units in target should be suitable to the problem. Ghosh added that, the units could be structural, social, geographical or individual (Ghosh, 1992).

The sampling units for the study included the past leadership of the Students Representative Council (SRC) and the University branch of the National Union of Ghana Students (NUGS) during whose tenure in office student-management conflicts were recorded. The others included: Senior Hall Tutors, Deans of Students, Vice Deans of Students, Deans-In- Charge

of Campuses, Faculty Officers of the Faculties-In-Charge, Registrars, Pro Vice Chancellors, Director of Works and Physical Development, the University Librarian and Campus Heads of Security. These sample units; (leaders/Officers during whose time in office the conflicts occurred) were considered for the study because they affected and were affected by the problem of the study and were thought to have adequate information required to address the research problem. Also, included as sampling unit for this study was a Retired Senior Police Officer and who was knowledgeable in students oriented conflicts and therefore provided neutral but useful information from security point of view to enrich findings of the study.

3.3.2 Sample Size

The selection of a sample size simply called the sample is very critical if the researcher indeed wants to ensure representativeness of the population under study. Parten (1950) argued that, for a sample size to be considered as optimum for a study, it should fulfill such requirements as: representativeness, efficiency, flexibility and reliability. According Baker (1994:148), "a sample is a selected set of elements or units drawn from a larger whole of all the elements; *the population"*. In a simpler form, Burgess (2001:3) explained that "a sample is a sub-set of the population that is usually chosen because to access all members of the population is prohibitive in time, money and other resources".

For this study, a pre-research investigation estimated that each of the campuses of the University that witnessed students-management conflicts during the study period had SRC executive committee of four members and Local NUGS of four members who represented all students. Thus, for the campuses in the six conflict situations, these leaders summed up to

48. Twelve of these 48 student leaders, representing 25% (two from each campus) who were in office as student leaders during the six noted students-management conflicts were considered for the study to generate a wider students' perspective on the issue. The rest of the respondents were as indicated in Table 3. 1

Table 3. 1 Non Student respondents that added up to the sample size for the study

Type of respondent	Description of respondent	Number of respondents
Senior Hall Tutors	One from each campus where the conflicts occurred	4
Deans of Students	As were in the University during the conflicts	2
Vice Deans of Students	As were on the campuses of the conflicts during the period considered for the study	1
Deans-In- Charge of Campuses,	As were on the campuses of the conflicts during the period considered for the study	6
Faculty Officers of the Faculties-In-Charge	As were on the campuses of the conflicts during the period considered for the study	4

Registrars	As living Registrars who were in the University during the conflicts	2
Pro Vice Chancellors	As were in the University during the conflicts	3
Director of Works and Physical Development	As was in the University during the conflicts	1
University Librarian.	As was in the University during the conflicts	1
Campus Head of Security	As were on the campuses of the conflicts during the period considered for the study	3
A Retired Senior Police Officer	Knowledgeable in students oriented conflicts	1
Grant total		28

Source: Author's construct, 2016

From Table 3.1, a total of 28 non student respondents were used which together with student respondents made up a total sample size of 40 respondents. Thus, in all, 40 respondents formed the sample size for this study.

The sample size estimation was guided by arguments made by Ghosh and other scholars. For Ghosh (1992:237), "the sample must be small enough to avoid unnecessary expenditure

and large enough to avoid sample-error" (sample-error—"the degree of error to be expected for a given sample design" (Babbie, 2005:202). Therefore, Twumasi (2001:26) was emphatic that in using nonprobability sampling techniques for a study, the selection of a sample does not call for systematic sampling procedures. For Twumasi, "the researcher decides to take what he/she thinks is the representative unit of the group" been studied based on his/her knowledge of the study objectives and the extent of error he/she is able to deal with. Twumasi however, added that, it is difficult for the researcher to calculate the error scientifically in such studies for the purposes of generalization. Corroborating the argument by Ghosh, Sarantakos (2005: 170-171) said that the wise qualitative rule in deciding the sample size is to make sure it is as large as necessary and as small as possible noting that large samples do not always guarantee a higher degree of precision and validity. Simply put, a sample for qualitative research should not be overly large to make it hard for the researcher to glean. However, it should be thick, rich and useful data and should not also be too small to attain data saturation (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007; Flick, 1998; Morse, 1995).

3.3.3 Sampling Techniques

In social research, sampling is very important. Sampling guides the researcher in deciding the coverage of the study regarding the type and number of people who would have to be considered in the study to make it acceptable (Twumasi, 2001; Sarantakos, 2005). Sampling in research is necessary because in several instances, it is difficult to study exhaustively all situations, events or people and in which case, a researcher will have to choose a situation, event or population of interest and of concern out of many for a study (Marshall and

Rossman, 1995). And so Babbie (2005:185) referred to sampling simply as "the process of selecting observations". Al-hassan (2015) saw sampling to mean the art of selecting some units of a population for a study from which relevant conclusions are drawn to the population in its entirety. Marshall and Rossman (1995) are of the view that the wellness of a study essentially depends on sampling decisions made. For Baker (1994:142), "sampling refers to systematic methods of selection".

Two types of sampling are identifiable: probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The use of any of these depends on the study focus even though researchers have often combined the use of the two. Baker (1994:154) defined probability sampling as "the procedure in which the choice of respondents is guided by the probability principle in which every unit of the target population has an equal, calculable and non-zero probability of being included in the sample".

The systematic sampling and the simple random sampling are the most commonly used types of probability sampling (Baker, 1994). The non-probability sampling techniques are said to be the application of subjective methods in deciding which units should be part of a sample for a study. Non-probability sampling does not randomize the choice of study elements (Battanglia, 2008). Wretman (2008) noted that non-probability sampling refers to "any sampling procedure where the final sample *s'* is not obtained by means of "real life probability sampling""; adding that in such situations there are often no defined inclusion probabilities and precisely defined population. Lynch (2008) pointed out that researchers rely on non-probability sampling techniques when they want to focus their research on an

in-depth study on a smaller number of cases or elements to enable them to gain more complex insights into an issue of interest. This study employed the non-probability sampling techniques.

Simply put, the non-probability sampling techniques apply non-random procedures in the choice of research elements for study. Some frequently used non-probability sampling techniques in social research include: purposive sampling (judgmental sampling/expert sampling), snowball sampling, quota sampling and reliance on available subjects which is also referred to as accidental sampling technique (Babbie, 2005; Battanglia, 2008; Twumasi, 2001). For this study, the purposive sampling (judgmental sampling) and the snowball sampling techniques were relied on. The purposive sampling was used based on knowledge of the units and their ability to answer the research questions. The snowball sampling technique was also used in this study to enable the researcher reach respondents who were not easy to locate for data. In this situation, data was collected from the few known and located elements of the study population who in turn suggested and provided information about other members of the population they knew; helping the researcher to locate them for data.

3.3.3.1 Purposive Sampling

Insinuating, that it is suitable in choosing a sample premised on knowledge of a population, its unit and the intent of the study, Babbie (2005:189) defined purposive sampling also called judgment sampling as ''a type of non-probability sampling in which you select the units to be observed based on the basis of your own judgment about which ones will be the

most useful or representative". Battanglia (2008) contended that the motive for using purpose sampling technique is to get a sample which can be upheld as ''representative'' of the population; arguing that representativeness in this sense does not have any agreed-upon statistical meaning, but defined along a given demographic features by which the researcher applying his/her expert skill chooses non randomly the units that best represent the population. On his part, Twumasi (2001) pointed out that in applying purposive sampling the researcher guided by his study objectives picks respondents who are able to answer his research questions. Twumasi however, advocated the use of good judgment and appropriate research strategy in selecting respondents who typify the group been studied. In this study, the purposive sampling technique was used with the snowball technique in the selection of the Deans of Students, Vice Dean of Students, Deans-In- Charge of Campuses, Faculty Officers of the Faculties-In-Charge, Registrars, Pro Vice Chancellors, Director of Works and Physical Development, the University Librarian and the heads of campus security personnel (Officers during whose time in office the conflicts occurred) as well as the Retired Senior Police Officer who was knowledgeable in students' oriented conflicts for the study.

3.3.3.2 Snowball Sampling

The snowball sampling technique as was used in this study is said to be applicable when the elements for observation are not easy to be located. In this situation, the researcher collects data from the few known and located elements of the study population who in turn suggest and provide information about other members of the population they know; helping the researcher to locate such other members from whom he/she can collect data. That is to say, it depends on referrals, once the initial sample respondent is established, as he/she nominates

successive respondents. Snowball sampling is accumulative in nature as it adds to the sample, once it starts with the known members and they help in locating other elements. Snowball sampling is good for explorative studies like this one (Babbie, 2005; Battaglia, 2008). The snowball sampling technique was particularly applied in the selection of the 12 past student leaders during whose tenure in office the students-management conflicts occurred. It was also used to select the four Senior Hall Tutors who were in office during the conflicts on the campuses.

3.4 PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

Data collection techniques refer to the precise ways by which data is generated in the research process. Several methods of data collection exist for qualitative research. They include interviews, observation, participation in the setting, questionnaire and surveys, narrative, life histories, kinesics, and historical analysis among others (Marshall and Rossman 1995; Twumasi, 2001; Ghosh, 1992; Sarantakos, 2005). Using more than one of these techniques in research works, according to Twumasi (2001), is necessary if the researcher wants to evaluate his data sources to detect inconsistent answers. The use of multiple techniques also helps in validating findings. Like many other qualitative studies as Marshall and Rossman (1995) stipulated, this study combined methods for the collection of data in addressing the research problem. In-depth Interviews were used as the primary data collection method. Thus, Mason (2002) postulated that interview is the most dominantly known and used qualitative data collection method. Survey was used as supplementary method to the in-depth interviews in the collection of data for for study. The use of multiple sources of data collection refers to triangulation.

3.4.1 In-depth Interviews

Interviews are research techniques commonly used for the study of human behavours. Through interviews, a researcher is able to imaginatively enter into the life of comparative stranger (Ghosh, 1992). "An interview is a method of field investigation whereby the researcher meets respondents and through the interaction asks specific questions to find answers to his/her research problem" (Twumasi, 2001:35). An interview is a social interaction in which one person asks questions for another to provide answers. Although interviews assume the form of questionnaires, they are administered verbally and are very useful in generating specific and in-depth qualitative data on the problem of study (Baker, 1994; Twumasi, 2001; Sarantakos, 2005).

To generate primary data for this study, in-depth interviews were used to solicit respondents' views on the research problem. Marshal and Rossman (1995) asserted that qualitative researchers have often depended largely on in-depth interviews in their research endeavours and that even in some instances it is the only technique the researchers depend on. The adoption and use of interviews was also motived by Gray' (2004:214) assertion that interviews help in among other things in attaining more personalized data and ensuring good return rate.

In-depth interviews are generally likened to conversation without already assumed and catalogued responses. They are used to assist the researcher discover the experiences and views of the interviewees. Kahn and Cannel (1957:149) accordingly, referred to in-depth interviews as "conversation with a purpose". This is so in the sense that as the researcher

interacts with the interviewee in the form of conversation, data is generated to address the research problem. Marshall and Rossman (1995) cited Patton (1990) as categorizing interviews into the informal conversational interview, the general interview guide approach and the standardized open-ended interview. This study was modeled along the general interview guide approach. Interview guide takes the form of guide rather than rules and interviewees are expected to answer freely (Flick, 2002; Sarantakos, 2005). The guide gives the researcher the opportunity to evaluate and adjust given research points to make results more valid and reliable.

Although, Marshal and Rossman (1995) noted that interviews have weaknesses, including the unwillingness and difficulty in sharing all the information the researcher may be looking for and in its true state by interviewees, interviews are relevant in the quick generation of huge amount of data both in detail and specific and helping to explore further on issues that might not have been thought of ahead of time but found relevant to addressing the problem of the study. It also allows for immediate follow up and feedback for clarification of issues. In doing interviews, it might also be necessary to sample respondents when the population is large and cannot all be interviewed. For this study, in-depth interviews were conducted from November, 2016 to January, 2017 on 12 past student leaders and 28 management members of the University. Thus, a total of 40 in-depth interviewees were used for the study.

3.4.2 Survey

Survey, though used largely in quantitative research, could also be used as a supplemental qualitative data collection technique (Marshall and Rossman, 1995). Corroborating the assertion by Marshall and Rossman (1995), Babbie (2005) said, survey research is suitably fit for descriptive studies of large population but could also be used for explanatory studies as in qualitative research. Survey is a useful data collection technique to use when collecting data that is more general than specific and thus, can be generalized to reflect trends in whole populations. Survey is "a method of collecting data in which a specifically defined group of individuals are asked to answer a number of identical questions" (Baker, 1994:172). Baker further indicated that, it is the answers to these questions that form the data set of a study. It relies on the use of questionnaire in the generation of data and most often is useful when the data required is more general than specific (Baker, 1994; Twumasi, 2001; Sarantakos, 2005). For this study, what Babbie (2005) referred to as interview surveys was used in the collection of data. According to Babbie (2005) interview surveys rely on questionnaires that are administered by an interviewer rather than the respondent. Such questionnaires, usually semi-structured, make room for both closed and open ended questions to be asked. Personal interview survey, one of the three types of Marshall and Rossman' (1995) survey—mail, telephone and personal interviews was done for the survey. This stage of data collection for the study was referred to as tier one of the data collection stage. Whilst collecting data at this stage, efforts were made to identify respondents; particularly, the student leader respondents with deeper knowledge on the study for the data collection tier two stage to whom the in-depth interviews were applied. Specifically, the door to door interview survey approach (reaching respondents from their location), that prioritizes respondents' convenience and

comfort was used for this study, though not easy to use as it required both time and much resources to do. Babbie (2005) noted that, this approach to data collection yields higher response rates than the others such as the mail and the telephone approaches. Babbie observed that this is so since respondents would often find it difficult to refuse to attend to an interviewer standing by him/her for data than to push a mailed questionnaire under the carpet. The approach also helped in minimizing errors in questionnaire administration and reduced the tendency for respondents to dodge some questions.

The survey helped the researcher gather general views/information on the nature of students-management conflicts in the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009, the causes of these conflicts, the consequences of the conflicts in the University during the period, the strategies that were used by the University in handling these conflicts and the effectiveness of the strategies used in handling the conflicts in the University during the period as well as on important theoretical and conceptual conflict issues that related to this study. Regarding the use of surveys, it is believed that they are very useful in uncovering beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations and behavours of people from which implications are drawn (Osuala, 2001:254-255). Surveys were therefore useful in this study since the issue of students-management conflicts bothered so much on beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations and behavours of people.

For this study, semi-structured survey questionnaires were administered to 40 respondents drawn from the University and made up of: 12 leaders of SRC/NUGS - Local (during whose tenure in office the conflicts occurred), four Senior Hall Tutors, two Deans of Students, one

Vice Dean of Students, six Deans-In- Charge of Campuses, four Faculty Officers of the Faculties-In-Charge, two Registrars, three Pro Vice Chancellors, one Director of Works and Physical Development, one University Librarian and three Campus Heads of Security as were on the campuses of the conflicts; all of who were in office at the time of the conflicts. It also included a Retired Senior Police Officer who was knowledgeable in students' oriented conflicts.

3.5 REVIEW OF SECONDARY DATA

The two main sources of data for social research are the primary and secondary data sources; both of which are necessary and worth using to complement each other (Pannerselvam, 2007; Ghosh, 1992; Twumasi, 2001). According to Sarantakos (2005), the use of secondary data sources helps to identify and fill existing research data gaps during the collection of primary data; much as it also provides relevant previously collected data/information on the problem being studied. Secondary sources of data for this study included: articles, published and unpublished books, internet, and newspaper publications on students-management conflicts and their related issues. This is what Marshal and Rossman (1995) calls "historical analysis".

Marshal and Rossman (1995:89) noted that historical analysis is "a method of discovering, from records and accounts what happened in the past". Marshal and Rossman asserted that the method is essentially useful in qualitative studies usually in uncovering baseline information before the use of other methods of data collection. Whereas historical analysis could form secondary data sources such as reports of individuals who recount events as

eyewitnesses and summaries as in encyclopedias and history books, they could also be primary data sources as relics, records, documents and oral testimonies of eyewitnesses (Marshal and Rossman, 1995). In this study, the researcher took a critical account of letters, memos, personal notes and minutes of meetings on the conflicts as well as oral testimonies of people whose involvement in the conflicts spanned over time beyond two of the conflict situations.

The study took cognizance of research validity and reliability. Validity measures the relevance, precision and accuracy of a research instrument (Sarantakos, 2005). Equivalent to consistency, reliability looks at the ability of a research method to produce consistent or same results in repeated use. In this case, results would be replicated in repeated circumstances (Sarantakos, 2005; Flick, 2002). Validity and reliability determine the credibility of research findings and were therefore of great significance in this research.

Triangulation is one way of ensuring research validity and reliability. Triangulation enables a researcher to view a problem from several different angles. Triangulation means the use of or the combination of several research instruments for the study of a problem (Sarantakos, 2005; Flick, 2002; Osuala, 2001).

To arrive at valid and reliable research results, this study used not only more than one method of investigation such as survey and interviews, but also, resorted to the consultation of more than one source of data such as primary and secondary sources which Denzin (1989b) in Flick (2002:226) referred to as data triangulation.

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3.6 TECHNIQUES OF DATA ANALYSIS

Research is not complete until data collected is analyzed and interpreted. In social research, the analysis of data and interpretation of results are therefore very necessary. The analysis of data and interpretation of results are mostly done immediately after the data collection even though in some situations, the analysis can be done alongside the data collection process (Ghosh, 1992; Sarantakos, 2005; Marshal and Rossman, 1995). According to Yin (2003), data analysis refers to the art of summarizing data and organizing same in a particular manner to addressing a research problem under study. Twumasi (2001:86) referred to data analysis "as a critical examination of materials in order to understand the parts and its relationships and to discover its trends". On their part Marshal and Rossman (1995:111) "defined data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data". That is data collection simply refers to the art of making meaning from available data.

This research adopted qualitative approach to the analysis of data and followed the outline of: organizing the data, generating categories, themes and patterns, explaining data and compiling a report (Twumasi 2001; Ghosh 1992; Marshal and Rossman, 1995). In a more elaborate form, Miles and Huberman (1994:44) and Weitzman, (2000:806) in Flick, (2002:251) gave this outline as: transcribing field notes and interview recordings, editing, coding, data linking, memoing, content analysis, data display, conclusion drawing and verification, theory building, graphic mapping and report writing. The analysis of data in this study as observed by Marshal and Rossman (1995) was mainly narrative. Graphic formats like: charts, graphs, tables and matrices produced from excel to aid appropriate

presentation, description and interpretation were also used. This was in line with the arguments of Miles and Huberman (1984) and Marshal and Rossman (1995) in support of qualitative data analysis. The authors believed that using the graphic formats help the researcher to summarize results of analysis.

Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) three tier measure of the effectiveness of a conflict management strategy—organizational learning and effectiveness, stakeholder satisfaction and ethical factors and Ross' (1993) success measures of conflict management strategies—acceptance, durability and changed relationships, together with likert scales were given attention in the analysis of data. Conflict management strategies were reviewed against such parameters as: how acceptable and satisfactory they were to stakeholders, how they ensured lasting solutions to the conflicts and induced organizational learning, how ethical they were and how they transformed relationships in a positive direction in the conflict situations as a measure of their effectiveness.

A likert scale according to the Business Dictionary is "a method of ascribing quantitative value to qualitative data, to make it amenable to statistical analysis. A numerical value is assigned to each potential choice and a mean figure for all the responses is computed at the end of the evaluation or survey" (BusinessDictionary.Com, 2016). Used mainly for evaluative purposes in qualitative studies, likert scales normally contain five potential option such strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree and highly effective, effective, moderately effective, not effective, not sure among others. The ranking could however, go up to 10 and beyond. It is usually the eventual average score that is interpreted

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to show the level of success or view/opinion towards the issue under study as for example, the measure of effectiveness in this study. Babbie (2005) therefore conceded that Rensis Likert's scales are composite measures which are useful in measuring the relative intensity of different items in social research. See in Figure 3.1 the flow chart of the study.

Figure 3.1 Flow chart of the study
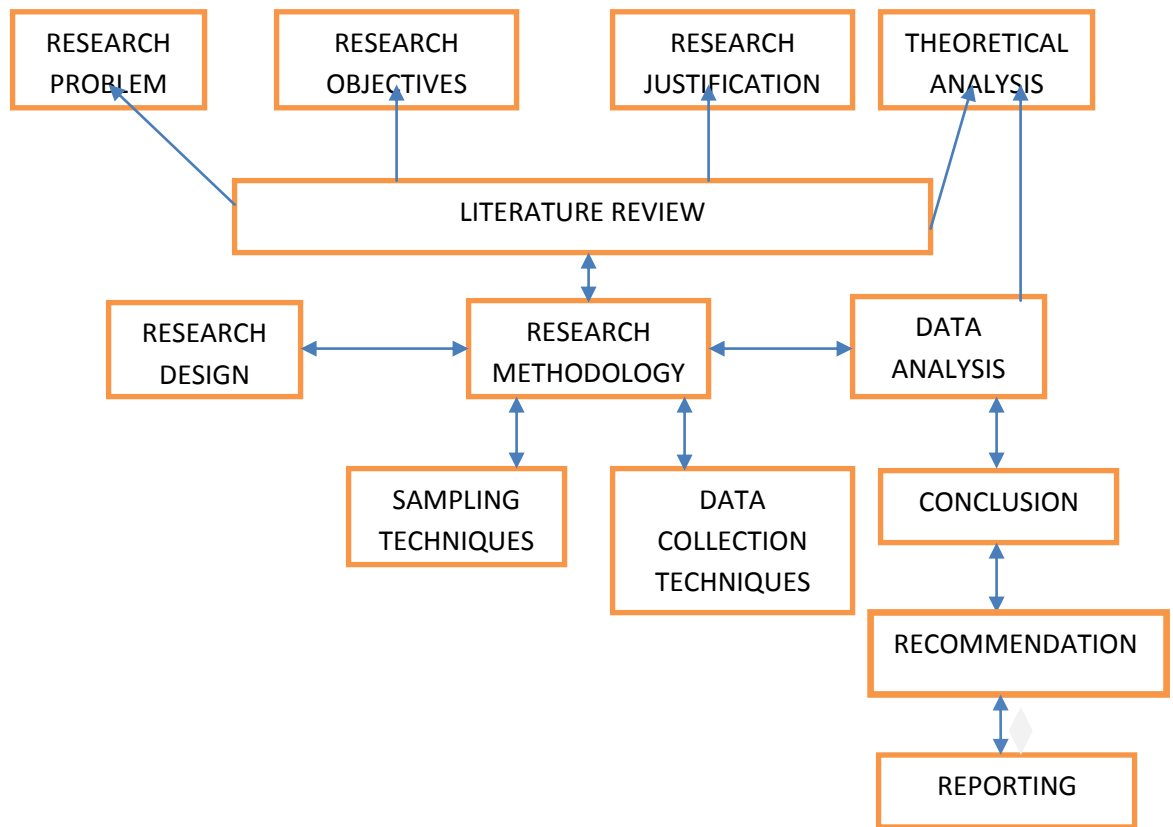
Source: Author's construct, May 2016

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3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Paying attention to ethical issues in the conduct of research is of great significance. Babbie (2005) wrote that, in doing social research, it is important for the researcher to have knowledge about the agreements generally held by researchers conforming to right (proper) and wrong (improper)—research ethics. Marshall and Rossman (1995) believed that ethical considerations are generic and situation-specific. According to Chilisa (2005), ethical issues in social inquiry have to do with codes of conduct that shield the study respondents from physical, mental, and/or psychological harm. That is, in undertaking research, researchers are expected to adhere to acceptable moral and legal standard that both protect the researched and the credibility of the research. Examples of the important ethical issues that researchers have to adhere to are ensuring: informed consent, anonymity, confidentiality, the right to privacy and utilization of appropriate methodological and reporting formats. Also, the researcher should avoid plagiarism, deception, and falsification of authorship, evidence, data, findings and conclusions and as well enhance beneficence (Babbie, 2005; Marshall and Rossman, 1995; Creswell, 2014).

This study adhered to these important ethical requirements. Respondents' participation in the study were purely based on their informed consent which Babbie (2005) said encompasses both voluntary participation and no harm to the participant. That is, inclusion in the study was based on participants' willingness to provide the needed information to address the problem and be protected from any form of injury. The research adhered to the ethics of anonymity and confidentiality. In reporting findings of the research, efforts were made not to identify response with respondents though that was not possible during the data

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collection stage as Babbie (2005) asserted. By extension, the research ensured confidentiality in not making public, participants response by associating such responses with them. For confidentiality, the researcher was able to identify the responses of participants but did not have that done in public (Babbie, 2005). By adhering to anonymity and confidentiality as Creswell (2014) explained, this study gave respect to the privacy of participants by not intruding beyond the limits required and making public their private affairs.

The researcher admits that plagiarism is unethical in academic writing. Creswell (2014) referred to plagiarism as the art of copying other authors write ups extensively without giving them credit for their work and or presenting same as yours. This study was conscious of this ethical issue and so acknowledged the works of all authors and sources of data gathered to address the problem been researched. It did not also falsify authorship by crediting the works of an author to another or self which Creswell (2014) noted is unethical. Additionally, this study conformed to such important research ethics as the use of appropriate methodological and reporting standards without falsification of evidence, data, findings and conclusions which according to Creswell (2014) are necessary ethics to pay attention to in social research. To avoid deception, the researcher as Sarantakos, (2005) pointed out made known to participants the purpose of the study. With participants being stakeholders of the study organization, the study potentially benefits all as captured by its significance.

3.8 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

This chapter looked at the design of the research, sampling procedures and data collection and presentation approaches of the study. It examined the methodology as the cardinal points on which the credibility of the study largely depends. From extensive review of literature, the study was appropriately aligned to qualitative studies. As a qualitative study, this research applied non-probability sampling techniques such as the purposive and snowball techniques in the selection of samples; largely from student leaders and administrators of the University during whose time in office the conflicts occurred for data collection. In all, 40 respondents formed the sample size for the study. Interviews and surveys were the primary data collection tools used for the study.

Review of relevant secondary data was also given prominence in the study in identifying gaps to put it in appropriate perspective. The analysis of data was mainly narrative as is the case in the analysis of qualitative research data. Graphic formats like: charts, graphs, tables and matrices produced with excel were used to aid appropriate presentation, description and interpretation, and to summarize results of the analysis. Evaluative measures used to assess the effectiveness of the strategies for managing the conflicts included Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) three tier measure of the effectiveness of a conflict management strategy—organizational learning and effectiveness, stakeholder satisfaction and ethical factors and Ross' (1993) success measures of conflict management strategies—acceptance, durability and changed relationships, together with likert scales. The chapter also gave prominence to ethical considerations in presenting credible findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is on the analysis and presentation of data collected. As noted by Marshal and Rossman (1995) and Goodwin and Goodwin (1996), qualitative research results are presented largely in the narratives. Presentation of results of the study is largely in the narrative form. Also in line with the arguments of Miles and Huberman (1984) and Marshal and Rossman (1995) in support of qualitative data analysis, I used graphic formats like: charts, graphs, tables and matrices to aid appropriate presentation, description and interpretation of data collected and to help summarize results of analysis. Likert scales were also used for the analysis. Data for the study were collected with questionnaires and interviews, organized and presented in response to the research questions the study set out to answer and in line with other important themes to the study.

4.2 BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS TO THE STUDY

Relevant demographic data of respondents to the study were collected and analyzed. Respondents were primarily past student leaders and teaching/non-teaching staff in leadership positions in the University from 1999 to 2009 and whose positions bordered much on the research problem. The study respondents also included a Retired Senior Police Officer who was a Senior Member in the University during the period considered for the study. He joined the University as a Deputy Chief Security Officer and a Senior Member and had relevant information to share with the study. For easy reference to respondents in

the analysis, researcher refers to the past student leader respondents as student respondents and the non-student respondents as in Table 3.1 (See Chapter Three) as management respondents.

Data collected and analyzed on respondents included their membership status and positions they held in the University from 1999 to 2009, their sex, level of formal education, area of academic specialty and training in the handling of conflicts and their ages as well as their length of stay with the University. The analysis of respondent's background was done in relation to the research problem.

4.2.1 Membership Status and Positions of Respondents in the University

The study sought to know the size of each category of the respondents and the positions they held in the University from 1999 to 2009 to make judgment of the level of representation. Data gathered showed that 12 (30%) of the respondents were past student leaders, 27 (67.5%) had been part of University Management (both teaching and non-teaching and occupied positions of responsibility) and one (2.5%) being a Retired Senior Police Officer; also categorized under management. Thus, management respondents totaled 28 (70%). Though the percentage of management respondents was more than double the student respondents, data gathered showed more homogeneity among them than the student respondents. The situation even became more obvious in the interviews since respondents spoke from different stand points despite the convergence of views. The 2.5% respondent representation was to get views from a neutral point and was deemed enough for that purpose. Being in key positions of great responsibility at their levels of engagement as

student leaders and members of management in their fields of expertise, the researcher had the conviction that the choice of respondents for this research was apt and that the data they provided better addressed the problem of the study.

4.2.2 Sex Analysis of Respondents of the Study

There were many more male respondents to the study than females. Male respondents were 37; representing 92.5% with only three respondents; representing 7.5% being females as shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Sex Analysis of Respondents for the Study
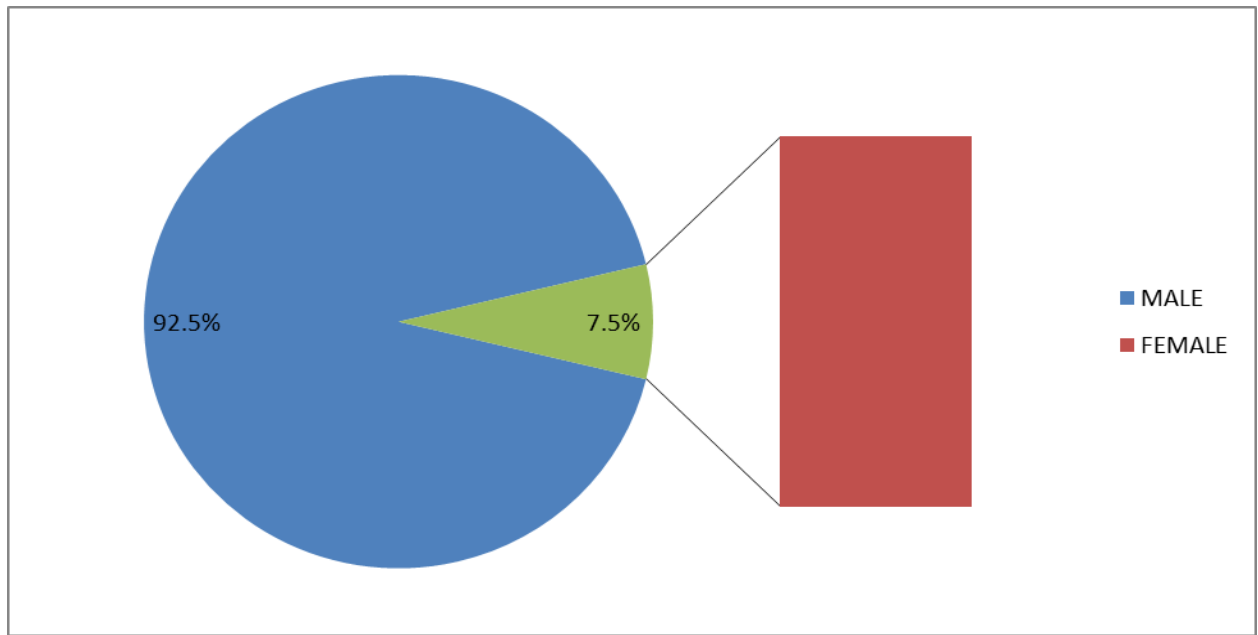
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

The great imbalance in the sex ratio of respondents was a reflection of the limited numbers of females in leadership positions at the time, both among student leadership and management of the University. Even more worrying of their positions was that, two were

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Senior Hall Tutors and one was a Women's Commissioner; positions they held to represent women. The imbalance notwithstanding, data collected were representative of both sexes since the study did not bother on gender views. Moreover, Chusmir and Mills (1989) in a laboratory studies conducted among college students as subjects established that in the handling of conflicts, both males and females did not show different efforts and that there was no gender effect in the handling of conflicts at managerial level by men and women.

4.2.3 Respondents' Level of Formal Education and Specialty

APA (1992) believed that competence built from relevant scientific and professional knowledge is a necessary condition to successful management of conflicts. According to Hulme and Edwards (1996), the extent to which an organization succeeds depends among other things, on the levels of tertiary education of its workforce. No doubt, this condition would as well influence the management of conflicts in the organization. With the conviction that an individual's level of formal education affected his/her level of understanding of conflicts and their management, efforts were made to find out the level of formal education attained by respondents to the study and also to find out if they had had any training in the field of conflict management which could equally affect their handling of conflicts. It was found that except the three Campus Head of Security respondents who formed 7.5% of the total number of respondents, the rest had attained a minimum of first degree. Specifically, 10% had first degree with the remaining 82.5% possessing post graduate degrees in various fields across the Physical Sciences and Humanities.

Of the 40 respondents, 35 representing 87.5% had gotten training in relation to the handling of conflicts. Also, despite their low level of formal education, the three Campus Head of Security respondents demonstrated a high level of experience in the handing of conflicts in organizations through hands on the job practice. These discoveries about their background convinced the researcher that, the respondents without any doubt were well informed in matters of conflicts and conflicts management and therefore provided the needed data that concretely addressed the research problem.

4.2.4 Respondents' Age and Length of Stay with the University

Both the age range and the length of stay of respondents with the University were enough to indicate that they had the experience and knowledge needed to help the researcher address the research problem.

Figure 4.2 The Age and Length of Stay of Study Respondents with the University.

Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

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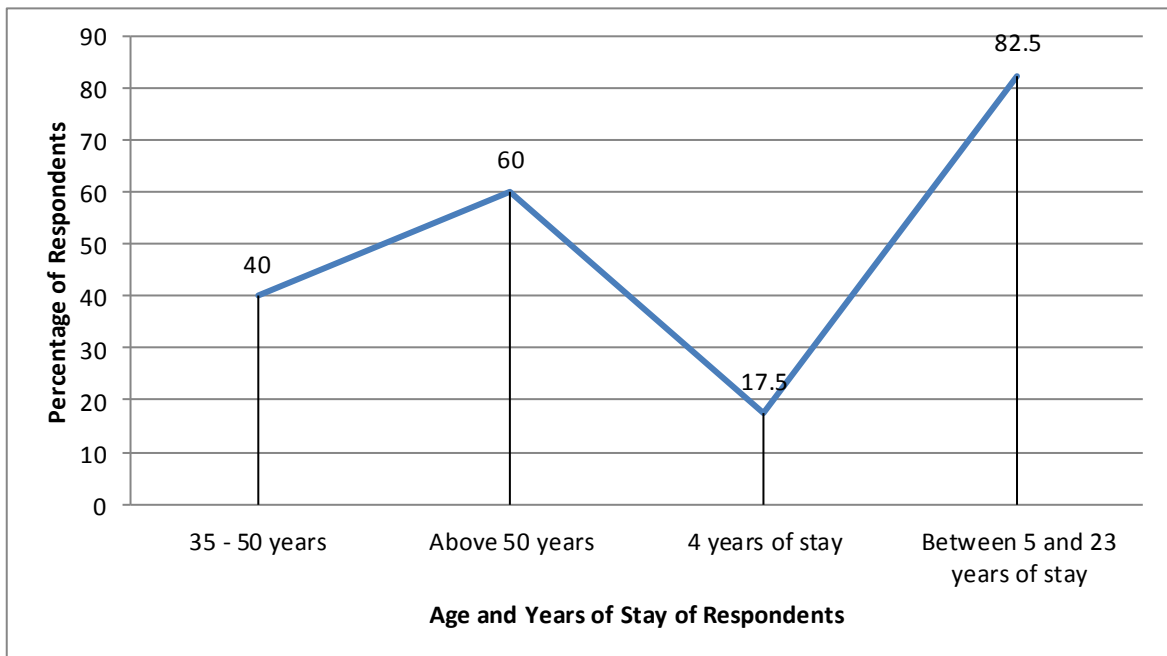
On the basis of age as shown in Figure 4.2, all respondents were above 35 years with over 60% of them aging above 50 years. Although, age may not always reflect knowledge, the caliber of respondents was observed to have adequately gathered so much knowledge and experience over their life time. One could therefore agree that in their case, age was not just a number but that had a strong link to how knowledgeable they could be in dealing with such human behaviour as conflict and for that matter, students-management conflicts in their areas of responsibility as was the case.

Aside the age factor, the least in terms of length of stay with the University by respondents was four years. Of the 40 respondents, just 7 (17.5%) had been with the University for only 4 years as students. The remaining 33 (82.5%) had been with University for between 5 and 23 years. Einstein (1954) believed that experience is the source of knowledge. Thus, with this length of stay with the University, respondents were very much acquainted with the University and what happened in it during the period studied and so had the requisite knowledge and experience on the problem studied.

4.3 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES IN THE STUDY

Data on some important theoretical and conceptual issues that helped in addressing the research problem were collected and analyzed. They included: students and management relations in the University from 1999 to 2009, the class structure between students and management along power and authority lines, the disciplinary situation between students and management alike in the University and the behavioural leadership style(s) of the

University Management during the period. These were examined to form the foundation on which the objectives of the study were analyzed.

4.3.1 Students and Management Relations in the University

As embedded in the structural theory of conflicts with regards to power and authority, analysis of the relationship between students and management in the University from 1999 to 2009 was a reflection of what Dahrendorf (1959) referred to as authoritative social relations called Imperatively Coordinated Associations (ICAs). From the student respondents' perspective across the campuses, the relationship that existed between students and management of the University during the period under review was not cordial and could be likened to a relationship of antagonism. Over 75% of the respondents favoured this view. The views of Management respondents on the same issue were not very different as 51% of them sided with the former; describing the relationship as antagonistic. There was a show of relationship imbalance.

In an interview with a student, it was stated:

> From my experience, students had always been on the lower side of the divide in their relationship with management. Not only did management disrespect the views of students but as well tried to impose their views on students and expecting obedience in return. This was what often led to students' clashes with management (Interviews, January, 2017).

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A management member corroborated this statement:

> Students and management can never be on the same platform since they structurally belong to different classes. Students may occasionally be contacted for their opinions on issues of concern to them but even then, final decisions about such matters are taken by management. If you give students the opportunity to influence such decisions, they will lead you astray (Interviews, January, 2017).

Another management interviewee added by citing his colleague as saying it was the dog that wagged the tail and not the tail that wagged the dog. Philosophically said in simple terms but with a broad meaning that implied that management being the dog needed to be in charge, otherwise they would lose control of the affairs of the University. He explained the statement further to mean that management was to be viewed as relevant but that students were not relevant in decision making in the University.

These views confirmed the claim of (Bua et al, 2015:59) that Administrators, teachers, students, and parents hardly agree on issues concerning rules governing the school and that "these parties, particularly administrators and students, perceive one another as adversaries, not as those working toward a common goal, as is generally the case in other organizations". This relationship as the findings revealed had implications for conflict since students and management did not see each other as pursuing a common course. Bua et al (2015:59) added in their claim that conflict thus abounds in decisions administrators make about students. The findings also confirmed Scarborough (1998) in Faleti's (2006) assertion that where the

existing structures are tilted in favour of one group while putting the other(s) at a disadvantaged position, and where holders of certain powers or privileges are unwilling to acknowledge the rights of others to be different, there would be various levels of conflict. On the contrary, however, on the lower side, 16.7% and 30% of students and management respondents respectively maintained that the relationship that existed between the two groups was a reflection of collaborators.

4.3.2 The Class Structure between Students and Management of UDS

The study sought to find out if indeed, there was a big class structural gap created between students and management with inherent inequalities between them, particularly on power and authority lines as some studies seemed to suggest. The responses were in the affirmative from both categories of respondents. On a likert scale of: strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree and strongly disagree, no respondent of any category disagreed, strongly disagreed nor was uncertain. Seventy five percent of student respondents strongly agreed, while 25% agreed. On the part of management, 42.9% strongly agreed with 57.1% agreeing. Despite the divergence in the views of these two groups of respondents, one thing was still clear. They had some level of agreement to the existence of big class structural gap between students and management with inherent inequalities between them, particularly in relation to power and authority. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) emphasized this superior-subordinate relations in their analysis of conflicts from the bureaucratic conflict model perspective with management attempts to control behaviour and subordinate reaction to such controls that often result in conflicts.

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There was a big gap between students and management. Sometimes you could not even greet a lecturer at a close range. This was what a student respondents said. There was distance between students and management in their relations despite that their leadership was often engaged by management (Interviews, January, 2017).

This was said by a management respondent.

4.3.3 The Disciplinary Situation in the University at the Time

The study showed that the general disciplinary situation between students and management alike in the University during the period examined was of a moderate account. This was the overall assessment by both categories of respondents to the study. On respondent category specific bases however, there were divergent views between student respondents and management respondents on this issue. Whereas 50.1% of student respondents pointed to the fact that the situation was bad, 52% of management respondents felt it was good. On a collective note however, student and management respondents rated the moderate situation of discipline at the time at 49% and 47.9% respectively. Only 15% student respondents believed the disciplinary situation of the time was good. None said it was very bad as none also said it was very good. On their part, none of the management respondents also believed the situation was bad or very bad nor very good. With Fayol's (1930) recognition of discipline as key to the functioning of organizations and organizational stability, it could be argued that the moderate nature of discipline in the University made it fragile and exposed it to the conflicts of the time.

4.3.4 The Behavioural Leadership Style(s) of University Management during the

    Period

An effort was made to find out the typical behavioural leadership style(s) of University Management during the time of the conflicts and the outcome was as in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3 The Typical Behavioural Leadership Style(s) of University Management

    During the Time of the Conflicts
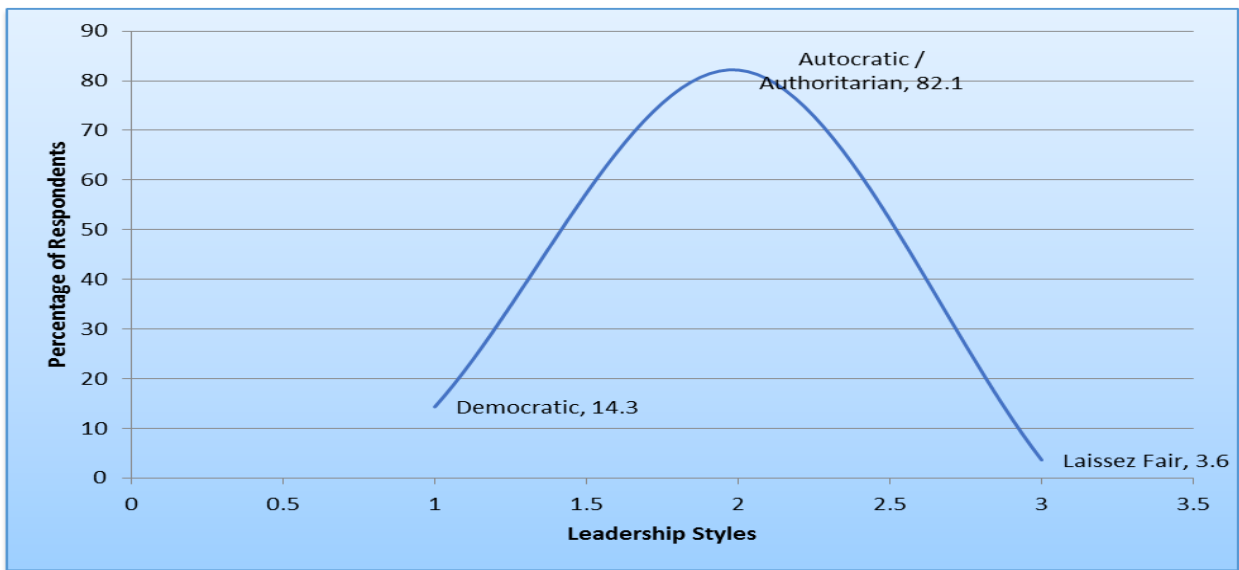
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

Findings of the study as in Figure 4.3 confirmed Ajibade's (2013:67) assertion that most of the heads of tertiary institutions adopt authoritarian/autocratic leadership style by not listening to the yearning and aspiration of the students and are lackadaisical in terms of provision of amenities such as water, health facilities. From the responses of both students and management, the typical behavioural leadership style(s) of University Management

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during the period studied was autocratic / authoritarian in nature as represent by 91.9% and 82.1% respectively. It was obvious therefore that, students had little say if any on some decisions that affected their wellbeing and this according to respondents, contributed significantly to the impasses between them and management. This was in line with Ajibade's (2013:67) believe that "acts as strain on the students' actualizing of their dreams or goals invariably result in crises situation in most of the tertiary institutions". A management member remarked:

> The foundation Vice Chancellor, before the time of the conflicts was friendly, open and fair to students and so despite the limited resources, there was calm in the University. The second Vice Chancellor from 2001 to 2006 and the Ag, Vice Chancellor from 2006 to 2009 were repressive, dictatorial, confrontational and intimidating to students. These sparked student revolts in the University (Interviews, January, 2017).

Student respondents shared in this view. One student added that management was arrogant in their interaction with students.

4.4 CONFLICTS IN UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT FROM 1999 TO 2009

This section addressed objective one of the study. Forms of conflicts that occurred in the University, the nature of students-management conflicts as well as the intensity and visibility of these conflicts by campus and by programme were looked at.

4.4.1 Forms of Conflicts in UDS

This section addressed objective one of the study. It revealed that the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009 witnessed a number of different forms of conflict with both internal and external dimensions. These conflicts included: conflicts between academic and professional administrators, conflicts between academic staff and government, conflicts between non-teaching staff and the professional administrators, conflicts between students and university management, conflicts between non-teaching staff and government, conflicts between students and government, inter-personal conflicts among staff, inter-personal conflicts among students, conflicts between academic staff and students, conflicts between students and the host communities, conflicts between academic staff union and non-academic staff unions. Of these forms of conflicts, respondents of the study, both students and management indicated that conflicts between students and university management most frequently occurred in the University from 1999 to 2009 as indicated by 100% of both respondent categories. This was followed by conflicts between academic staff and government; ranked by 75% student and 89.3% management respondents. Inter-personal conflicts among students came next. This was ranked as such by 66.7% and 82.1% student respond nets respectively. The inter-personal conflicts among students were closely followed by conflicts between academic staff and students; rated accordingly by 58.3% and 57.1% of students and management respondents respectively. The rest of the forms of conflict were ranked low by respondents. Findings of the study fell in line with that of Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) in their study of "Conflict Management Strategies of University Administrators in South-West Nigeria" in terms of the types of conflict in the University. However, the findings contradicted their findings in terms of their frequency of

occurrence. For instance, whereas the study found conflicts between students and the university management as the most frequently occurring conflict and for that matter ranked first out of 11, it was ranked 10th by Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) out of 11 types of conflicts found in their study. Also, Olaleye and Arogundade (2013) found conflicts between academic staff and students as the most frequently occurring conflicts in their study but this only took the 4th placed in this study. And for the rest of the conflict types found to have occurred in the University for Development Studies during the period studied, there was no correspondence in their frequency of occurrence in relation to the outcomes of Olaleye and Arogundade's (2013) study.

This implies that the forms of conflicts that occur in Universities are not tailor-made but that could vary in their frequency of occurrence as in this case, depending on the peculiarity of given university environment. In a similar study, Awosusi (2005) identified conflicts in the university as taking the form of staff-management conflicts, students-management conflicts, staff-government conflicts, students-students conflict and staff-staff conflicts which were found to be limited in scope compared to the study. Worse still (and this is what makes the study relevant) is the fact that researchers, including Jude-Iwuoha et al (2014) addressing a similar problem observed that most tertiary institutions in developing countries experience conflict either between the school administration and government, staff and school administration, among staff themselves or among staff and students. They failed to mention conflicts that occur between students and school management. Importantly however, Ada (2013:78) highlighted the significance of conflicts between student and school management and the community and the school as was established by the study.

The findings established that conflicts between students and management in the University from 1999 to 2009 were high and more worrying than any other form of conflict. Of the 12 student respondents and 28 management respondents, it came up that 83.3% and 67.7% respectively were convinced of the conflicts being high and worrying in the University during the period. A management respondent had this to say:

> There is nothing like small conflict. Every form of conflict is a source of worry so long as it is a distraction to the attainment of organizational goals. And so for me, I would say the conflicts between students and management in the University were frequent and worrying. For a number of times, the conflicts interrupted the smooth running of Universities activities and brought the image of the University into disrepute in the public domain. This especially was the case with the 2008/2009 conflicts. Also, efforts made in resolving them could have been channeled into doing other things that would have been beneficial to the University. All these were sources of worry (Interviews, January, 2017).

It is worth mentioning also, that, whereas 16.7% of the student respondents thought the conflicts were very high and worrying, 32.1% of the management respondents believed the conflicts were moderate and normal part of life in the University. None of the respondent from both categories however, agreed to the fact the conflicts were low and so of little concern or were they very low, negligible and of no concern. These findings corroborated the statements made by UDS (2009; 2011) that the recurrence of the students-management

conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 remained a serious concern to the University Management.

4.4.2 The Nature of Students-Management Conflicts in UDS

On the nature of conflicts that occurred between students and management of the University from 1999 to 2009, the outcome for both student and management respondents showed similar trends as presented in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4 Respondents Views on the Nature of Students-Management Conflicts in UDS
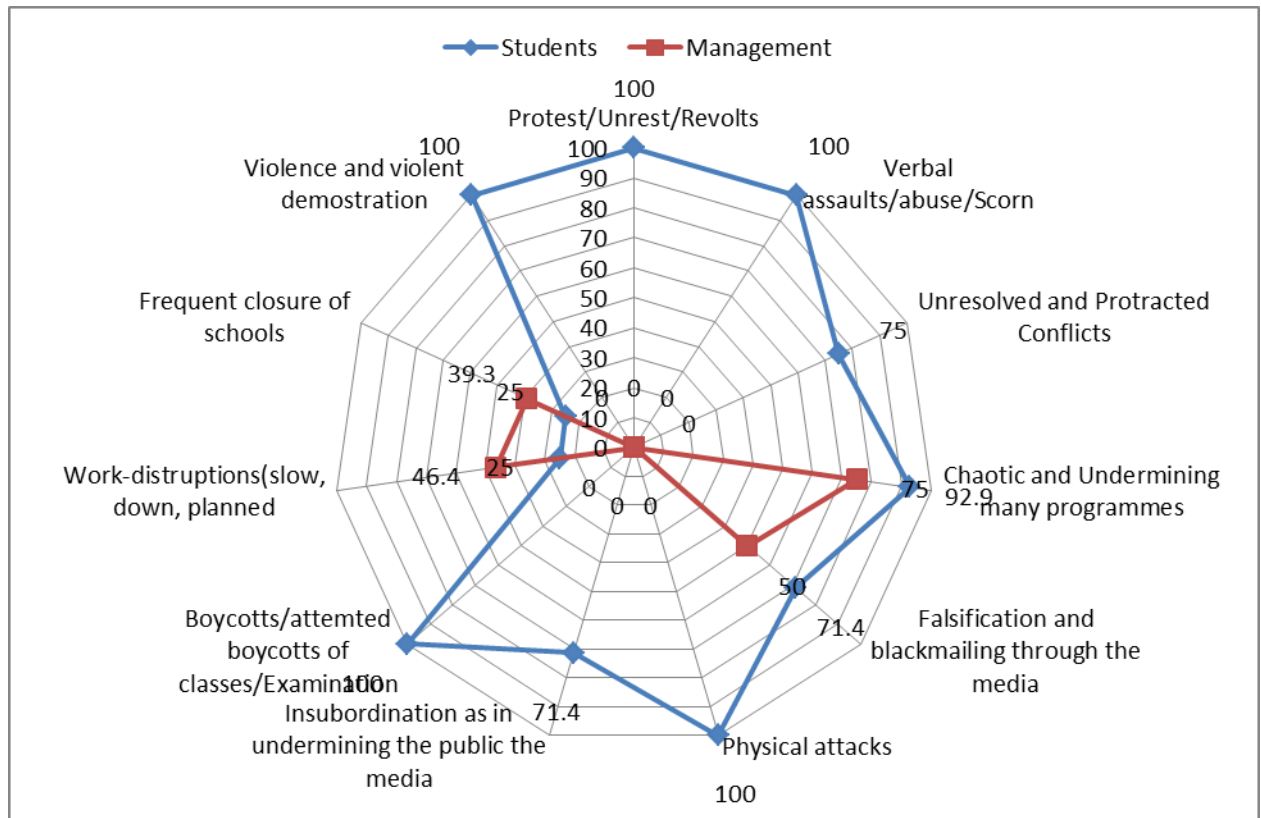
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

Figure 4.4 showed the nature of conflicts that occurred between students and management of the University during the period studied. Except for frequent closure of the University and the work–disruptions (slow-downs, planned absenteeism and sabotage), that were rated below 50%, the rest were rated 50% and above by both student and management respondents as being the nature of the students-management conflicts examined. The most pronounced of these included: protests/unrests/revolts, violence and violent demonstration, boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination, verbal assaults/abuse/scorn, insubordination and physical attacks as pointed out by all respondents to the study. These findings were in consonance with the scholarly works of (Adeyemi et al, 2010; Alabi, 2002; Ada, 2013; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011).

Findings of this study showed how severe the events were. An interviewee said:

> For the conflicts that I witnessed, there were serious student protests as students often demonstrated to press home their demands. Students assaulted and physically attacked authority in some instances. In one instance, students in support of a student who failed to do the TTFPP and was restrained from taking the proceeding trimester exams were refusing to write the exam also. Students hooted at a Dean, locked him up and later ousted him. Students heckled a pro-vice chancellor and even brought a cutlass after him. But for a timely intervention in whisking him away, he could have been lynched by the students. Again, students often disrupted classes and university activities during the conflicts (Interviews, January, 2017).

4.4.3 Intensity and Visibility of the Conflicts by Campus and by Programme

This study tried to find out if there was any link between programmes studied by students and incidences of conflict in terms of the intensity and visibility of the nature of the conflicts that occurred between students and management. The outcome, representing the collective views of both students and management was as in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Intensity and Visibility of the Conflicts by Campus and by Programme in Percentages (Student and Management Respondents)

Campus	Dominant Programme on campus	Not intensive and visible at all	Not so intensive and visible	moderately intensive and visible	Intensive and visible	Highly intensive and visible	Total
		%					
Nyankpala Campus	Agricultural Sciences	2.5	22.5	75	0	0	100
Navrongo Campus (before 2006)	Humanities	0	0	5	95	0	100
Navrongo	Applied and						

Campus (after 2006)	Mathematical Sciences	22.5	50	27.5	0	0	100
Wa Campus	Humanities	0	0	0	95	5	100
Tamale Campus	Medical Sciences	0	27.5	72.5	0	0	100

Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

The study established that, of the six conflicts studied, only two occurred involving students in the Physical Sciences. The rest occurred between students in the Humanities. Thus, Table 4.1 showed that students-management conflicts were common among students in the Humanities than they were among those in the Sciences. For instance, 95% of the respondents felt the conflicts were intensive and visible among students of Humanities on Navrongo campus (before 2006) and Wa Campus. An additional 5% even believed the conflicts were highly intensive and visible in Wa among the Humanities students. The reverse was found to be the situation among students of the Physical Sciences on Nyankpala Campus, Tamale Campus and Navrongo Campus (after 2006). The campuses had 75%, 72.5% and 50% response rates as recording conflicts being moderately intensive and visible, not so intensive and visible and not intensive and visible at all respectively.

Respondents of the study attributed this situation to the fact that students in the Humanities got easily exposed to human behavioural lessons, actions and reactions that made them prone to conflicts as opposed to those in the Physical Sciences who related mostly with laboratory instruments that had little recourse to conflicts. It was further established that enrolment figures of students in the Physical Sciences had often been smaller than those in the Humanities. Therefore, the challenges faced by Physical Science students tend to be minimal and making them less prone to conflicts than those in the Humanities.

4.5 CAUSES OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS FROM 1999 TO 2009

The causes of conflicts between students and management of the University during the period studied were identified as in Tables 4.2 and 4.3. The responses were grouped to reflect the views of students on one side and the views of management on the other side. The causes were classified according to the rate at which they were perceived to be responsible for the conflicts. Except for peculiar dimensions and a few more or less as discussed in this study, the causes of the conflicts found were not very different from those identified by Adeyemi et al (2010) as the causes of students' crisis in tertiary institutions in Ondo State, Nigeria. Other writers such as Havenga and Visagie (2011), Hellriegel and Slocum (2011) and Ajibade (2013) shared similar views on the causes of the conflicts between students and university management.

Table 4.2 Students' rating of the Causes of Students-Management Conflicts in UDS

from 1999 to 2009

S/N	Factors responsible for conflicts between students and management of the University from 1999 to 2009	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low	Total
		%					
1	Wide communication gap between students and school management.	25	66.7	8.3	0	0	100
2	Delay in meeting students' demand by school management.	16.7	58.3	25	0	0	100
3	Failure by school management to guarantee security of lives and properties	0	16.7	25	41.6	16.7	100
4	Inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms, laboratories and equipment	25	58.3	16.7	0	0	100
5	Drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations.	0	16.7	16.7	50	16.7	100
6	Frustration and uncertainty from the larger society	0	0	16.7	66.7	16.7	100
7	Students' non-involvement in decision that concern their welfare	8.3	25	58.3	8.3	0	100
8	Students being forced to pay special fees/hikes in students' fees	16.7	33.3	25	16.7	8.3	100
9	The activities of campus secret cults	0	0	0	25	75	100

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10	Differences in the perception of group and organizational objectives	0	16.7	16.7	58.3	8.3	100
11	Poor institutional leadership	8.3	41.7	25	16.7	8.3	100
12	Increasing awareness of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions	8.3	50	41.7	0	0	100
13	Influence of complex students' social background and youthful exuberance	16.7	50	33.3	0	0	100
14	Management role overload	0	0	58.3	25	16.7	100
15	Widespread corruption allegations on campus	0	25	50	16.7	8.3	100

Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

Table 4.3 Management's rating of the Causes of Students-Management Conflicts in

UDS from 1999 to 2009

S/N	**Factors responsible for conflicts between students and management of the University from 1999 to 2009**	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low	**Total**
		%					
1	Wide communication gap between students and school management.	17.9	57.1	17.9	7.1	0	100

2	Delay in meeting students' demand by school management.	0.7	39.3	35.7	17.9	0	100
3	Failure by school management to guarantee security of lives and properties	0	7.1	14.3	35.7	42.9	100
4	Inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms, laboratories and equipment	0	53.6	46.4	0	0	100
5	Drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations.	0	0	14.3	42.9	42.9	100
6	Frustration and uncertainty from the larger society	0	0	7.1	50	42.9	100
7	Students' non-involvement in decision that concern their welfare	0	21.4	39.3	21.4	17.9	100
8	Students being forced to pay special fees/hikes in students' fees	0	21.4	32.1	28.6	17.9	100
9	The activities of campus secret cults	0	0	14.3	21.4	64.3	100
10	Differences in the perception of group and organizational objectives	0	7.1	35.7	42.9	14.3	100
11	Poor institutional leadership	14.3	21.4	35.7	21.4	7.1	100
12	Increasing awareness of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions	14.3	21.4	35.7	25	3.6	100
13	Influence of complex students' social	17.9	35.7	32.1	14.3	0	100

	background and youthful exuberance						
14	Management role overload	0	0	35.7	53.6	10.7	100
15	Widespread corruption allegations on campus	0	7.1	21.4	42.9	28.6	100

Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

4. 5.1 The Nature of Communications in UDS between Students and Management from 1999 to 2009

This study established that there was a wide communication gap between students and school management during the period used for the study. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 above both affirm this. It was ranked highest as the cause of students-management conflicts in the University by both student and management respondents. Up to 66.7% of the student respondents believed the communication gap between students and school management at the time was high with even an additional 25% of them rating it as being very high. Only 8.3% rated the situation as being moderate with none of them indicating it was low or very low. In a similar vein, 57.1% of management respondents were of the view that there was a high communication gap between students and school management. Further 17.9% of the management respondents admitted that communication gap between students and school management at the time was not just high but very high. However, 17.9% and 7.1% of the management respondents were of the view that communication gap between students and school management was only moderate and low respectively; with none indicating it was very low. The findings in this regard were similar to that of Adeyemi et al (2010) where up

to 82.9% of their respondents to a study "Managing Students' Crisis in Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria", identified wide communication gap between students and the school authority as the cause of students' crisis in tertiary institutions in Ondo State, Nigeria. In an interview, a respondent indicated that the communication gap between the students and school management was so wide that there were times when students and management were not even ready to engage in any form of discourse. For the respondents, the other causes of conflict could even be discussed and consensus built to avoid conflicts if communication between the two groups in the University were effective.

Probing further, the study found that communication in the University between students and management was largely top-down with information flowing from management to students in the form of decisions taken by management. Accordingly, Kreitner (2001) noted that communication is a complex process beset by many barriers which often provoke conflict and that it is easy to misunderstand another person or group of people if two-way communication is hampered in some way. Majority of the respondents (82.5%), both students and management had this view. The remaining 17.5% of the respondents however, believed that there was a two-way communication in the University between students and management of the University. There was no indication of bottom-up communication in the University. Majority of the respondents of both categories described the state of communication between students and management of the University at the time of the conflicts as ineffective. See Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5 The State of Communication between Students and Management of the

University at the Time of the Conflicts
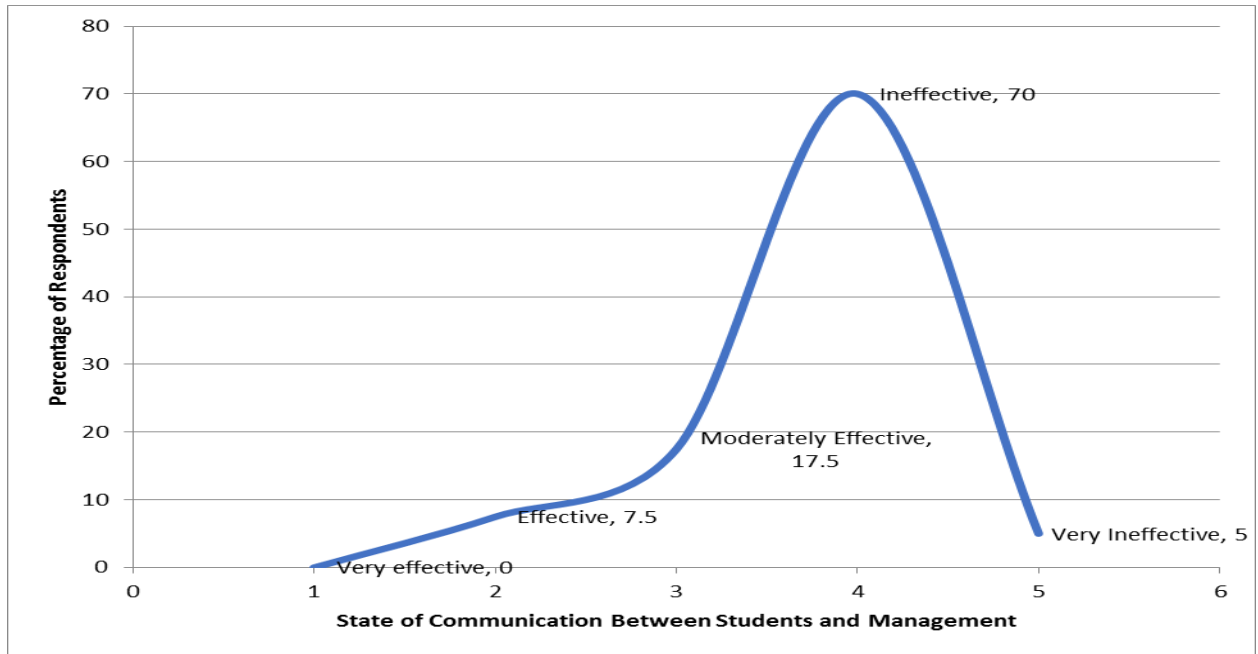
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

From Figure 4.5, 70% of the respondents indicated that the state of communication between students and management of the University at the time of the conflicts was ineffective. Respondents believed that the existing state of communication in the University between students and management influenced the conflicts in a number of ways. It prevented students from being heard and their grievances addressed, increased grapevines information, bred misconceptions and led to misunderstandings that largely resulted in the conflicts. Thus, the findings were in consonance with Ajibade (2013) and Olaleye and Arogundade's (2013) argument that poor communication between institutions' authorities and students was

a major cause of students-management conflicts. This was found to be the case in the 2008/2009 conflicts on the Wa Campus of the University.

4. 5.2 The State of Infrastructure in the University for Students' Academic Activities

The state of infrastructure in the University for students' academic activities, compared to student numbers from 1999 to 2009 as established by the study was not so good. On the scale of highly adequate, adequate, moderately adequate, inadequate and highly inadequate, it was discovered that 80% of the respondents of both categories selected the inadequacy of infrastructure in the University for Students' Academic Activities. Whereas only 5% of the respondents felt that infrastructure in the University for students' academic activities was moderately adequate, an additional 15% believed the situation was even worse than the response of the 80% of the respondents and that infrastructure in the University for Students' Academic Activities was highly inadequate. None of the respondents either believed infrastructure in the University for students' academic activities was highly adequate or even adequate. A student respondent had this to say:

On countless occasions, lecturers came to class and angrily left because the lecture halls were overcrowded with students and very noisy with no microphones to deliver lectures to the hearing of all students. Access to water was often a big problem to grapple with. In Navrongo, lecturers had to hunt for water with gallons and students had to queue with natives to fetch water from a stand pump in an arrangement that allowed one student to fetch only after three natives had fetched. There were no toilet and urinal facilities for students use. Sanitation was so poor. We used the campus with animals. They

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defecated and urinated to make the campus dirty and stinky. Cleaners were lazy and left the campus mostly untidy. Students paid for the use of computers but had no computer laboratories. They paid for health insurance but got not insured and had to pay cash to access health care. They were levied for a clinic that was not existing. Students had no adequate furniture for use in the lecture halls. We paid for, yet lacked sporting facilities (Interviews, January, 2017).

Another respondent from management added:

The state of infrastructure was bad. In Navrongo, our library looked like a hen coup. In Wa, student numbers were so overwhelming that some of them had to write examinations with broken slaps. There were no hostels until 2007. And even when there were hostels, they were not adequate and so students lived among natives and had so many problems, especially, the female students who had to quarrel with wives of landlords over alleged attempts to snatch their husbands. All these caused stress to students and no doubt contributed to conflicts between students and management (Interviews, January, 2017).

The findings of this study as discussed above corroborated Ajibade's (2013) identification of the lack of university amenities as a source of students-management conflicts. Ajibade's (2013) indicated that many tertiary educational institutions lacked basic amenities like functional laboratory, well equipped library, sports equipment and adequate hostel with

functional facilities like water and light among others, necessary for successful academic enterprises. Findings of the study were also in harmony with Adebayo's (2009) that when educational facilities are inadequate, it could be enough to upset the peace between the students and the universities authorities. The findings were not different from the World Bank (1994) in Chinyere and Goodluck's (2015) view on how bad and insufficient facilities in Universities in Nigeria were and how they contributed to students-management conflict.

The deplorable nature of the infrastructural situation was often not given swift response and attention by management whenever concerns were raised as was discovered by this study. Although 53.6% of management respondents to the study believed that management tried to respond to students demands largely on infrastructure as swiftly as possible, the remaining 46.4% together with 66.7% of the student respondents had a contrary view. For these percentages of respondents, management lagged in their attempts to respond to students concerns which centered largely on infrastructural requirements for students' academic activities in the University. Much more so, the remaining 33.3% of the student respondents believed that management response to students' demands was even done very laginly. A student interviewee said "I do not even want to say management showed concern to our complaints regarding infrastructure. Management had no concern for our infrastructural needs. This was a matter of fact" (Interviews, January, 2017).

Generally, it was discovered by the study that management was never swift in responding to students' concerns until the situations culminated into open demonstrations by students. A student remarked that "the only language management understood was demonstration. Even

though students did not always see demonstrations as the best options to dealing with their grievance, they were sometimes compelled to get sympathy through expressing their concerns in demonstrations" (Interviews, January, 2017).

The study made efforts to find out the state of stability of the academic environment of the University for academic activities at the time of the conflicts and whether it had anything to do with the conflicts. On this, whereas 41.7% of the student respondents were of the opinion that the academic environment of the University was moderately stable and less frustrating, majority of them (58.3%) believed that academic environment of the University was unstable and frustrating. There was however, a split management respondents' opinion regarding the situation. That is, whereas, 50% of them thought that academic environment of the University was stable and less frustrating, the other 50% believed it was unstable and frustrating.

4.5.3 Students' Representation and Participation in Decision Making Processes

This study tried to find out the various levels of management at which students were represented and participated in decision-making. It was found that students were represented and involved in decision making of the University at such levels as in the University Governing Council, Campus Management and at the Hall Management level. Probing further if students were involved in the process of fee fixing/increases in the University, unanimously, all respondents to the study (both students and management) responded in the affirmative. This was contrary to the assertion of Mennon (2003) and Bergan (2003) that students generally lacked participation in institutional governance and that they were the

least of all reference groups within the school involved in major educational decision-making and often completely excluded. The study discovery suggested that there were students' representation and participation in decision-making at strategic levels of the University and so could influence strategic decisions in their favour, particularly in the fixing/increases of fees, given that fees accounted for a substantial proportion of University's Internally Generated Funds.

However, it was found that students' representation and participation in decision-making at these management levels did not have much influence on management's decisions about student issues. The combined results of all respondents to this study showed largely that students' representation and participation in decision-making at these management levels was just to fulfill legal/formal requirements of the University Statutes and so had little influence over management decisions. Up to 82.5% of the respondents had this view.

> Some of the conflicts could have been avoided if management listened to and took steps to address concerns of students. After all, students had represented and participated in some key levels of management including the University Governing Council and needed to be listened to. But it appears to me that their representation was always a mere formality with little influence, if at all on management decisions (Interviews, January, 2017).

This was the remark of a management member.

Additional 10% even believed that students' representation and participation in the decision making processes of the University had no influence over management decisions. Two and

half per cent of the respondents believed the students' representation and participation in the decision making processes of the University made them (the students) become fulfilled and upheld outcomes of such decisions. Another 5% however, were of the view that students significantly influenced management decisions through representation and participation. Respondents believed that management could have taken advantage of the students' representation and participation in the decision making processes to ensure that students demands were quickly brought to their notice and addressed to reduce the occurrence of conflicts.

Regarding the level of fee fixing/increases, it was revealed that students' involvement had only a moderate influence. Except 5% student respondents who said they had significant influence over fee fixing/increases as they witnessed in 2005/2006, the remaining 95% of student respondents and all (100%) management respondents to the study believed students' involvement only moderately influenced the level of fee fixing/increase in the University. Asked as to why the students' representation and participation had little influence on management decisions, a management member in an interview responded "management was cunning. It would fix the fees, meet students and push them to accept and make it look like they took the decision together; causing conflicts between it and the students" (Interviews, January, 2017).

Other causes of the conflicts between students and management of the University as in Tables 4 and 5 included: the existences of drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations, the activities of campus secret cults, differences in the perception of group and organizational

objectives, poor institutional leadership, increased awareness of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions, influence of complex students' social background and youthful exuberance, management role overload and widespread corruption allegations on campus. These causes were however, indicated by respondents as not significantly causing the conflicts compared to those discussed earlier in detail.

Drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations were mentioned as part of the causes of the conflicts. Some respondents cited the prevention of students from writing examination for owing Academic Facility User Fees (AFUF) and not allowing a student to write a trimester examination for not taking part in preceding third trimester field practical programmes as was the precursor to the 2001 conflict as examples of drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations.

Also, students of the Medical School saw management's imposition of the Problem Based Learning (PBL) on them as obnoxious. Even though students claimed they had concerns with the non-accreditation of the Medical Schools programmes among other concerns and so had to express their disappointments by attacking management, the issue of the PBL was said to be the main cause of the 1999 conflict between students and management in Tamale. In this conflict, a management official was physically assaulted by students leading to the rustication of some student leaders. This was in line with the observation of Alabi (2002:3) that older members of the university- "academic and administrators often impose rules and regulations". In return, "the young may answer back by demanding for, and claiming, their democratic rights, culminating in minor conflicts or even ghastly skirmishes between the students and the university authority".

Whereas majority of all the study respondents (87.5%) were uncertain, 12.5% of them believed that the activities of secret cults were on the increase on the University campuses and posing as threat to lives and campus security generally. This corroborated the arguments by UDS (2010) and Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) that the situation on occultism remained an issue of concern on university campuses.

With the exception of 5%, 95% of all the respondents to the study agreed that poor/ineffective leadership was the cause of many of the conflicts between students and management of the University during the period. A management member believed the conflicts occurred because of leadership failures; including the dictatorial and repressive leadership behavours of management. This confirmed Adepoju and Sofowora's (2012) assertion that leadership ineffectiveness in the management of the university contributed to growing levels of conflicts between students and management.

The nature of students (nonchalant youthful exuberance) and varied complex social background as opposed to the matured nature of management was also identified by 50% student and 35.7% management respondents as high; contributing to incompatibilities and to student-management conflicts in the University. This was a view shared by researchers such as Onyenoru (1996), Adebayo (2009), Adepoju and Sofowora, (2012) and Bua et al (2015) in similar works. Also, part of the causes of the conflicts found was the activities of students' unionisms in the University; referred to as militant student unionism by Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009). Respondents believed some of the conflicts resulted from the militant and demagogic behaviour of student leaders. For example, a management respondent in an

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interview referred to a student leader as a "demagogue, who during the 2008/2009 took advantage of ailing infrastructural and other conditions of the time to incite students to enhance his popularity. This was what such a leader was noted for in his previous institution of studies before coming to study in UDS" (Interviews, January, 2017). Thus, Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) argued that militant student unions reacting aggressively to problems in the university often lead to student management conflicts as was the situation in the 2008/2009 on Wa Campus of the University. On the issue of widespread corruption allegations on campus, respondents referred to three instances in 2001, 2004 and 2006 where alleged students and management complicity in corrupt practices led to students-management conflicts. A respondent remarked:

> One other reason for the students-management conflicts was the activities of certain university officials who were often accused of complicity in the nefarious and corrupt activities of some student leaders and who therefore would do everything possible to conceal the truth of such activities. Some management officials also showed they were irresponsible in the handling of resources needed to provide the required facilities for students to conveniently study (Interviews, January, 2017).

Consequentially, Adebayo (2009) revealed that students-management conflicts could be caused by strong and widespread allegation of corruption in higher places in and out of campus.

Respondents to this study were also of the view that management's approach to student's behavioural issues in the University was another cause to the conflicts. It was established that management often failed to persuade and inspire students for behavioural changes in times of disagreement and would not even express the disagreements in a reasonable manner as would have been desirable in building consensus and avoiding conflict. Instead, management of the University mostly threatened and punished students for potential behavioural changes. Management expressed disagreement in arrogant and demeaning manner and also suppressed students' interest with their power and authority. These in turn produced negative reactions from students. Thus, Baron (1984) opined that disagreement expressed in an arrogant and demeaning manner produce significantly more negative effects than the same sort of disagreement expressed in a reasonable manner. Youngs (1986) adding to this argument said that threats and punishment by one party in a disagreement tended to produce intensifying threats and punishment from the other party. This is what happened in 2008/2009 in Wa. A respondent remarked:

> I believe that what seemed a disagreement would not travel far if management listened to our concerns. We did not mean harm but management just would not listen to us. We tried our best to let management realize that we were out for the good of students, management and the entire university but management had no patience and the humility to listen to us. I saw this as a leadership weakness. The leader of management was a bully, a dictator and lacked leadership. This is why we had to hit the ground rolling to press home our demands and I can tell you that he did not take it easy when

The Chronicle newspaper published our concerns— a student leader said (Interviews, January, 2017).

4.6 CONSEQUENCES OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS FROM 1999 TO 2009

Objective three of the study was handled in this section. The effects of conflicts generally can be positive or negative. As revealed in this thesis, the consequences of students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 were both functional (positive) and dysfunctional (negative).

4.6.1 The Negative Consequences of Students-Management Conflicts in UDS

The negative effects of the students-management conflicts witnessed by the University from 1999 to 2009 were found to be far reaching as indicated by both student and management respondents. These consequences included: truncation of academic calendar, rendering the school environment totally insecure for serious academic activities, the haunted to overthrow authority including the readiness to kill, and students been chased out of campuses by police force. Other negative consequences found were: loss of productive teaching and learning contact hours, low productivity, inefficiency, underutilization of resources and hostility, the prevalence of suspicions, aggressions, insecurity and restrictions, tension and apprehension, production of half-baked, closure of the school, punishment to the erring students. The rest were: breakdown of law and order, disturbance of public peace and widespread campus anarchy, uncontrolled roaming of students and increased anti-social vices manifested in the form of examination malpractices, indecent dressing, disharmony in

students-management relationship, increased indiscipline among students, disarmed school authorities, obstructed channel of progressive communication, rendered the University ungovernable and tarnished the reputation of the University. These findings were found to fall in line with those identified by (Jude-Iwuoha et al, 2014; Adepoju, 2003a; Akomolafe and Ibijola, 2011; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011; Bua et al, 2015; Alabi, 2002; Oguntuase, 1999).

Contrary to the findings of these scholars, however, the outcome of the study showed the conflicts did not: lead to loss of lives and property, attract military intervention, lead to the elongation of the period of study, attract any penalty to students such as payment of caution fees and fees for damages, breed cultism, cause the dismissal and restructuring of management and also, did not lead to protracted disharmony in students-management relationships, even though it brought about disharmony in students-management relationships.

Of all these consequences, the commonest and widespread were found to be: loss of productive teaching and learning contact hours, suspicions, aggression, insecurity and restrictions, high tension and apprehension, uncontrolled roaming of students and increased anti-social vices manifested in the form of examination malpractices, indecent dressing and increased indiscipline among students. This was based on unanimous (100%) response rate of both student and management respondents as being the commonest of the negative consequences. The response rates of the rest of the consequences identified ranged from

50% to 91.7% and from 46.4% to 92.9% by student and management respondents respectively in the choice of multiple options.

This study established that, of the conflicts witnessed, the stakeholders who suffered the most from the negative consequences were students; rated as such by 41.7% student and 35.7% management respondents. These were followed by management; 25% students and 21.4% management respondent ratings, parents; 16.7% student and 17.9% management respondent ratings, the university as an organization and its community; 8.3% student and 14.3% management respondent ratings and vendors in the University; 8.3% student and 10.7% management respondent ratings: in that order. This confirmed Adeyemi and Ekundayo's (2012) remarks that students-management conflicts in the University have often had undesirable consequences on all stakeholders of education and being severe on students, parents, the university and government. The conflicts not only affected students but also, student unionism in the University Community. It was revealed that the actions of management often weakened and made student unionism less functional. Whilst acknowledging the role of strengthened and more functional student unions in effective representation of students in management decisions, respondents bemoaned how management's hard handedness on student leaders including rustication of some leaders deterred others from demanding their rights from management.

4.6.2 The Positive Consequences of Students-Management Conflicts in UDS

The study attempted to find out if the conflicts had any positive effects of any kind. At multiple choice rating, it was revealed by 91.7% student and 92.9% management respondents that the conflicts proved to be necessary part of the growth and development of individuals and the University. For 83.3% student and 78.6% management respondents, the conflicts helped to build, define and balance students' needs with management and helped them to face and address issues in a clear and conscious way. Also, 75% of each category of the study respondents believed the conflicts, though to a small extent, helped foster self-control, enhanced interpersonal communication skills, reduced tensions and suspensions, improved the school climate, prevented violence, and improved the capacity to respect and appreciate different perspectives. These findings confirmed the views of (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013).

In line with the arguments of Ross (1993:77), 75% student and 53.6% management respondents of the study believed that students as disadvantaged groups, their ability to threaten, initiate, and maintain conflicts with management who were more powerful was critical in achieving a redistribution of resources and change in the organization of the University which to them was a positive effect of the conflicts. Respondents; 83.3% student and 64.3% management believed that the conflicts stopped management from taking harsh decisions that affected students' welfare and that they constructively attempted to and succeeded in correcting some management ills and lapses as Adebayo (2009) contended. A student remarked:

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In 2008, when management failed to listen to us, we came out with a petition that was later published in The Chronicle Newspaper and in three days health insurance cards were been printed for students even on weekends. This had not been done for three years. In five days, public address systems were fixed in lecture halls. In two weeks, 1000 pieces of furniture were provided in the lecture halls for use. If they knew they could provide these facilities in such a short time, what prevented them to act until we demonstrated against them? (Interviews, January, 2017).

On her part, a management member had this to say:

Through the hard experiences from these conflicts, good structures have now been put in place. At the time, there was only a Dean of students without support staff like a registrar and counselors to attend to student needs that could give prior knowledge about student concerns before they erupted as they did. Thus, the conflicts produced positive results. Now things have been streamlined and well-structured for peaceful co-existence of students and management (Interviews, January, 2017).

As debated by Faleti (2006), results of this study showed that, the conflicts resulted in new challenges for better functioning and growth of the University and much so, stimulated creativity and spurred invention that led to improvements in the University management. Moreover, the conflicts were used constructively to explore different solutions to problems and stimulated creativity by recognizing and sensitively exposing conflicts as a way of

bringing emotive and non-rational arguments into open. Thus, conflict deconstructed long-standing tension and were helpful in not only making known what was wrong in the University system, but also importantly, how to fix it. They were said to have been used as tools to take the University and the people in it from stagnation to new levels of effectiveness.

4.7 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES THAT WERE USED IN HANDLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS FROM 1999 TO 2009

This section examined the strategies which management used in handling conflicts with students during the period under review and how often each strategy was used as in line with objective four of the study.

4.7.1 Management Conflict Handling Efforts

The study found that University Management showed indifferent attitude to students concerns and early conflict warning signs. On a scale of: very proactive, proactive, indifferent, less proactive and not proactive at all, respondents were asked to rate how proactive management was to students concerns and early conflict warning signs. In response, 82.5% of all respondents to the study believed management showed indifferent attitude to students' concerns and early conflict warning signs. An additional 12.5% even believed that management was less proactive to such situations. Only 5% of the respondents felt management was proactive to students' concerns and early conflict warning signs. What this finding suggested was that student-management conflicts that could be prevented early

and easily escalated to levels of great concern. For example, a hall tutor said: "the lack of proactive initiatives to quell potential conflicts is often an issue. The tendency for students and management to act on hearsay without verification is a strong source of conflicts" (Interviews, January, 2017).

It was established that efforts to deal with the conflicts attempted at analyzing the causes and the appropriate strategy options to deal with them. Up to 75 % and 89.3% of student and management respondents respectively believed conflict analysis was done. It was said that at the instance of the conflicts, committees had often been set to go into them, submit findings and recommendations on them. However, these committees were said not to be fairly represented as they were without students' representation. Consequently and contrary to Best's (2006) argument that satisfactory conflict management outcomes are attainable through proper conflict analysis, the outcomes were never satisfactory to all stakeholders but just an imposition of management's stance on students.

Thus, the study found that, though efforts to deal with the conflicts attempted at analyzing them, the efforts still produced less satisfactory outcomes, particularly to students. Figure 4.6 is a grouped percentage bar chart that showed the results of the study in this regard.

Figure 4.6 Outcomes of Conflict Analysis
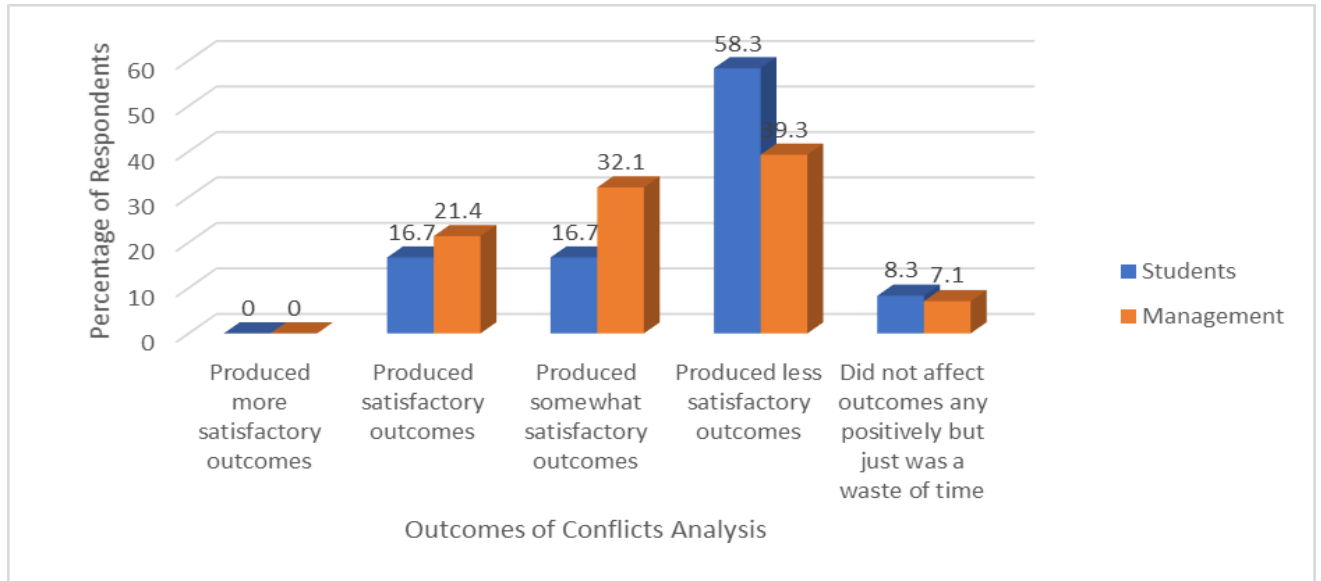
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

From, Figure 4.6, up to 39.3% of management respondents shared in the views of the 58.3% of student respondents who believed the conflict outcomes were less satisfactory, despite being analyzed.

The approaches to management based on which students-management conflicts in the University were handled were listed as: the scientific approach to management, the bureaucratic management approach, the administrative management approach, the systems management approach and the contingency approach to management but at varying degrees. Predominantly, respondents believed the conflicts were handled on bureaucratic principles; based mainly on rigid formal organizational structures, rules, regulations and procedures and subjecting behavours to systematic discipline and control as an expression of logic and

legitimate authority as noted by (Sharma et al, 2012; De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). The contingency approach to management was also discovered to be in great use in the conflicts. By this, actions on the conflicts were often based on circumstances on the ground at a given time and not based on any existing blueprint or laid down principles, such as employing police intervention to scatter rioting students. These two approaches, often adopted, led to the use of arbitrary and autocratic measures by management towards handling the conflicts and which most times led to their escalation.

4.7.2 Strategies used by UDS in Handling Conflicts between Students and Management

As observed by Blake and Monton (1964) and Liket (1961) and emphasized by Ajibade (2013) in their analysis of strategies often used at handling students-management conflicts, the study revealed that even though a number of strategies were used by the University in handling conflicts between students and management, they largely relied on forcing/domination. This was what Robbins (1974) aptly referred to as authoritative command. All student respondents believed management authoritatively forced its will on the students in conflict situations and commanded obedience to orders. This was also the view of up to 67.9% of management respondents. A student respondent corroborating the above, said "when we had the disagreements in the 2008/2009 conflict, management refused to listen to us and wrote to me, suspending me from the position as SRC president. Management tried forcing her will on us students but failed. Management is noted for bullying" (Interviews, January, 2017). Forcing/domination was found to have been applied in varying degrees in the handling of all the conflicts that occurred in the University between

students and management, particularly, in the 1999/2000, 2004/2005 and 2008/2009 cases in Nyankpala, Navrongo and Wa respectively.

Also cited as frequently used strategies in the handling of students-management conflicts were: ignoring in which management often ignored the issues of conflict through passive withdrawal from the problem or active suppression of the issues as happened in the 2001/2002 Navrongo and the 2005/2006 Wa cases, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication of student leaders (as happened in the 1999/2000 Nyankpala and the 2008/2009 Wa cases). More than 50% of each category of the study respondents believed these strategies were used. Respondents attributed the use of the strategies by management to the fact that management mostly took issues of students lightly until they escalated and also, the fact that management saw herself as being more powerful than student and so often would ignore attempts to engage students in finding solutions to their problems. This view of the respondents was in harmony with that of Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) who noted that ignoring as an approach to conflict management was suitable when dealing with issues that were negligible and worth more ignoring than confronting or attempting to resolve. It also consolidated what Best (2006) called 'conflict suppression' where more powerful parties in conflict or stronger interveners in conflict had the capability to manage the conflict for solutions but chose to use their power or force to push the issue aside and or impose unsustainable and unsatisfactory solution to the conflicting parties.

Another strategy that was identified by respondents of this study to have been used by management in handling the conflicts included: integration, as in taking time to cooperatively identify and correct the sources of their conflicts by identifying and weighing alternative solutions and selecting a solution that was best as in line with the view of Hellriegel and Slocum (2011). But this received only 5% and 17.9% choices from student and management respondents respectively.

Other strategies used but less frequently were: compromises encouraged and undertaken through skillful negotiation of outcomes between the two for mutual benefit. On this, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) asserted that compromising is a give-and-take approach to dealing with conflict. There was also a brief closure of the University in the 2008/2009 conflict on Wa Campus. The study found that integration and compromising were eventually used in the 2008/2009 Wa conflict when forcing/domination failed. The use of security forces, particularly, the police to maintain law and order was also mentioned as another strategy used in the handling of student-management conflicts in the University as was used in 2008/2009 Wa case, though minimally. The use of police and other forces was however, criticized by Anifowoshe (2004) and Ajibade (2013) as they often led to violence and more often than not, at the sight of the police, protesting students ignite campus disturbances rather than reducing the likelihood of violence.

Contrary to some studies however, government never had reacted in proscribing Students' Union Organizations in the University. There were also no efforts at highlighting goals that were highly valued and only attainable by disputing parties and the need to burry differences and commonly seek those goals as the writers had intimated.

4.7.3 Third Party Intervention in Handling Conflicts between Students and Management

The study revealed that the handling of conflicts between students and management in the University was often a one-sided affair with minimal two-party and third-party engagements. The 2005/2006 situation was two-party affair. There was a third-party engagement in the 2008/2009 conflict. The rest of the conflicts were one-sided; handled with management forcing herself on the conflicts and demanding compliance from students. In the 2008/2009 students-management conflict on the Wa Campus, it took a third-party intervention to deal with the situation. Thus, according to Ruzich (1999:129) a conflict triangle (third-party intervention) "occurs when two people are having a problem and, instead of addressing the problem directly with each other, one of them gets a third person involved". This becomes necessary when the two are unable to deal with the issue. The study established that a government delegation, represented by the Ministry of Education and the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) intervened in the case of the 2008/2009 conflict. The study further established that prior to the government delegation, other stakeholders, including The Upper West Regional Coordinating Council, The Wa Municipal Assembly, Member of Parliament of the Wa Central Constituency and the

Traditional Authority of Wa had intervened but failed to deal with the conflict that ended up in the Law Court.

The research findings revealed that the stakeholders, particularly, the government delegation intervened because management failed to handle the conflict with the students and that the conflict had become protracted with the students proving to be more powerful to deal with even as they gained more support and sympathy from the general public with media hype. One account maintained that, the head of management at the time was repressive and autocratic and also operated outside the Laws and Statues of the University; disregarding internal process. This as alluded to by respondents made it necessary for external intervention. It was indicated during the interviews that some important management members from the office of the Dean of Students and Pro-Vice Chancellor were left out of the conflict management processes until it got worse. A student respondent remarked that:

> A problem which could have been easily resolved degenerated because management failed to handle it as was supposed to. Eventually it was let in the hands of a management member who was not involved in the conflict situation earlier, especially when it was required and this could have been done easily (Interviews, January, 2017).

From the study, it was revealed that third party intervention in the conflict took the form of mediation. I discovered that third parties in the conflict tried to be objective and neutral in their approach to handling the conflict. This intervention reduced antagonism between the disputants and produced somewhat satisfactory results.

4.8 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE STRATEGIES USED IN HANDLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS FROM 1999 TO 2009

This section focused on objective five of the study. It examined the effectiveness of the strategies used in handling students-management conflicts during the period under review. In all conflict situations, the application of given strategies to the management process differ in their effectiveness, hence, the attempt by the research to investigate the effectiveness of the strategies that were used.

4.8.1 Analysis of Efforts at Achieving Effective Conflicts Management

Up to 75% of student and 78.6% management respondents strongly agreed with Omemu and Oladunjoye's (2013) view that conflict is said to have been effectively managed when the process and outcome do ensure: organizational learning and effectiveness, satisfaction of needs of stakeholders and meet the ethics factors of honesty and acceptable realities. The rest however, only agreed or were uncertain. No respondent disagreed or strongly disagreed to this view. This revelation made the choice of the measure of the effectiveness of the strategies for the management of conflicts apt and showed that the respondents were better placed to assist in addressing the research problem.

Premium placed on effectively handling students-management conflicts and efforts made by the University at achieving this were rated largely as being only moderate. Figure 4.7 showed the distribution of respondents' views.

Figure 4.7 Analysis of Efforts at Achieving Effective Conflicts Management
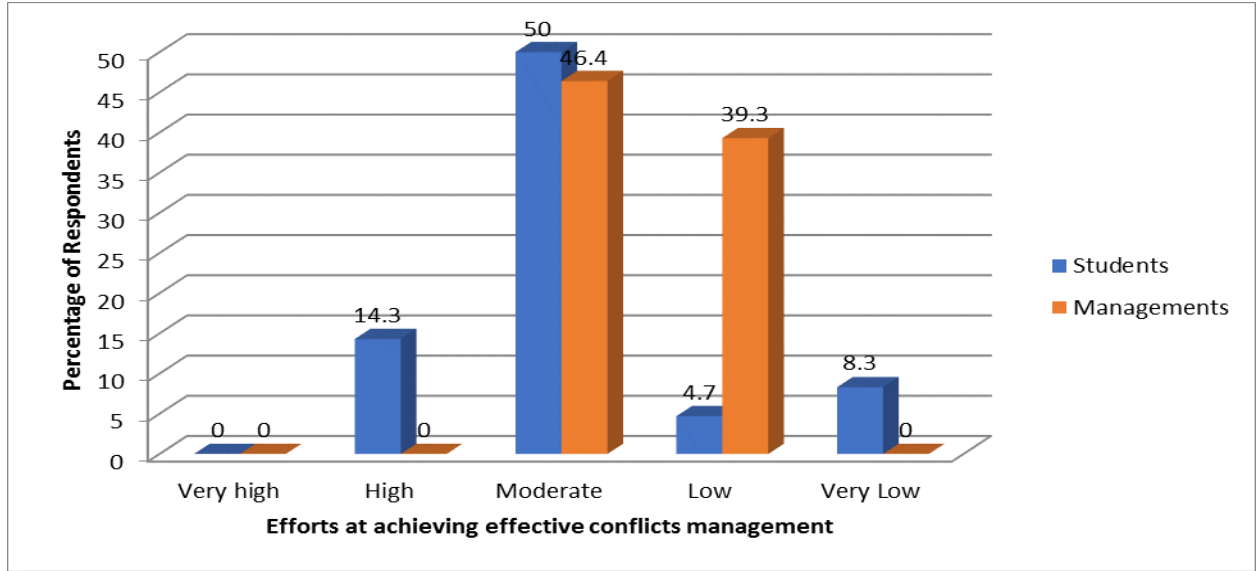
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

From Figure 4.7, majority of the study respondents; that is 50% and 46.6% of student and management respondents respectively believed that premium placed on effectively handling students-management conflicts and efforts made by the University at achieving this were always only moderate. Additional 41.7% and 39.3% even believed such commitments and efforts made were always low. The student respondents had 8.3% saying both the commitment and efforts were very low, with none believing they were high or very high. Management respondents on the other hand, had no belief in their being very low or very high but had 14.3% respondents who believed there were high commitment and effort at effectively handling the conflicts.

The commitment to conflict resolution no doubt influenced the choice of strategies used and how they are used (Ross, 1993; Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004). Thus, it was clear from Figure 4.7 that, the moderate and near low premium placed on effectively handling students-management conflicts and efforts made by the University at achieving this would have contributed to not effectively dealing with the conflicts.

4.8.2 Effectiveness of Conflicts Management Strategies Used in UDS

Of the strategies used by the University in handling students-management conflict, as presented under sub-heading 4.7.2 respondents rated their effectiveness on the scale of: highly effective, effective, moderately effective, less effective and not effective. The rating was guided by the views of Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) and Ross (1993) on such parameters as: how acceptable and satisfactory they were to stakeholders, how they ensured lasting solutions to the conflicts and induced organizational learning, how ethical they were and how they transformed relationships in a positive direction in the conflict situations as a measure of their effectiveness. This study showed that the most frequently used strategy was forcing/domination (authoritative command) which according to the respondents was not effective in managing the conflicts. Hundred percent of student respondents and 89.3% of management respondents shared this view. Respondents believed the use of this strategy even worsened the conflicts instead.

Other frequently used strategies but, also rated by respondents as ineffective in the handling of the students-management conflicts were: ignoring, in which management often ignored the issues of conflict through passive withdrawal from the problem or active suppression of

the issues, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication or outright expulsion of student leaders. Majority of the respondents (above 50% in each category) supported the view that these strategies used in managing the conflicts were not effective. "I was surprised that when I persuaded with the Dean to go with me to talk to students on issues of concern to calm them down, he ignored it and dammed the consequences which he lived to see and regret any way" (Interviews, January, 2017). A student respondent intimated.

Integration, also called problem solving which took time to cooperatively identify and correct the sources of conflicts by identifying and weighing alternative solutions and selecting the best was seen by respondents (100% of student respondents and 67.9% of management respondents) as being the effective strategy ever used by the University but very rarely so. One strategy used which respondents (91.7% student respondents and 82.1% management respondents) felt was moderately effective was compromises encouraged and undertaken through skillful negotiation of outcomes between the two for mutual benefit. Yet, it was also rarely used. A respondent argued:

> For me, the best way to ever deal with students-management conflicts is to
> see both students and management as having relevant and equal stake in the
> University and getting both together to find out what their concerns are and
> how to dialogue for mutual benefit. This hardly happens. And this is where I
> have problem since in most cases it is about exertion of power and authority
> by management over students and the reaction to this is that students rebel,

forcing themselves to get heard and the problem escalates as has been the case of the conflicts in the University (Interviews, January, 2017).

The closure of the University and the use of security forces, particularly, the police to maintain law and order were also identified by respondents as less effective strategies used in the handling of student-management conflicts in the University. Over 50% of each category of the respondents shared this view.

Thus, none of the strategies identified to have been used by the University in the handling of the conflicts was believed to have been very effective. Only one strategy was identified to be effective yet rarely used. Also, only one strategy was identified as being moderately effective but rarely applied too. The rest were identified to be either less effective or not effective and yet they were those used. Worse off was the commonly used domination strategy which was noted as ineffective in the handling of the conflicts.

Up to 100% of student and 78.6% of management respondents agreed that the strategies used in managing the conflicts at the time were largely regulatory and repressive and focused mainly on forcing and other assertive mechanisms with much emphasis on the use of power and authority. This, the respondents believed often worsened the conflicts than solve them. About 21.4% of management respondents however, disagreed.

Respondents made their overall assessment of the strategies that were used by the University in handling students-management conflicts as being less effective as in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4. 8 Respondents' Overall Assessment of the Strategies that were used by the University in Handling Students-Management Conflicts
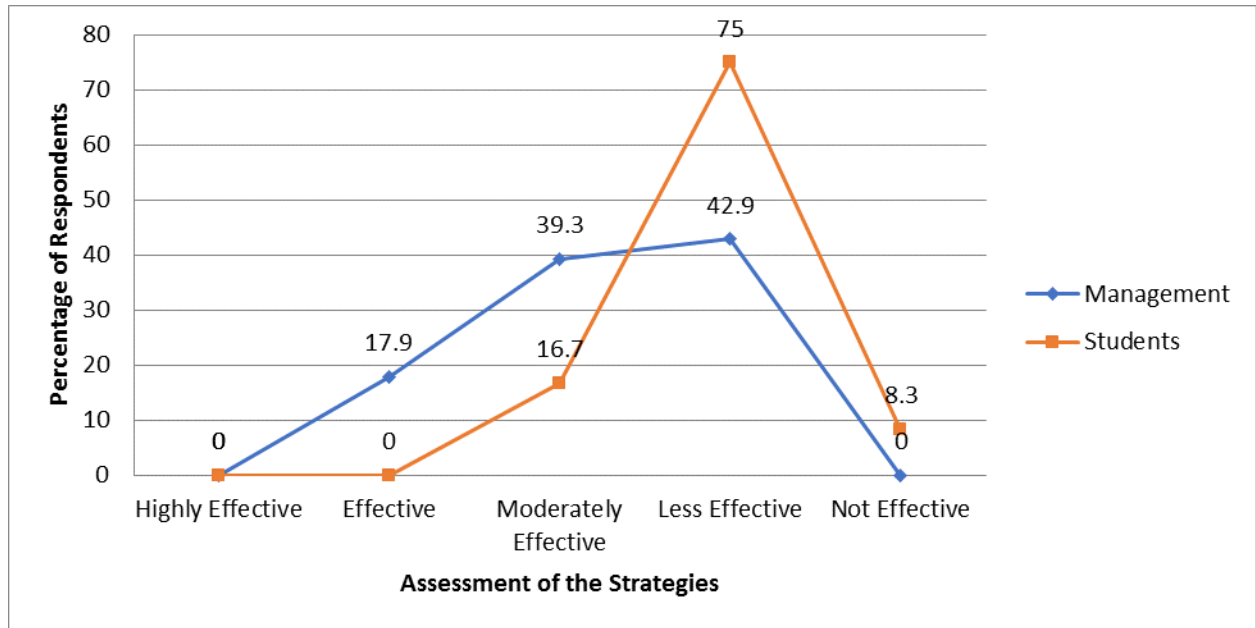
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

From Figure 4.8, both categories of the respondents agreed that the strategies that were used by the University in handling students-management conflicts were less effective. This was the view of 75% and 42.9% of student and management respondents respectively. About 39.3% of management respondents however, believed the strategies used were moderately effective. Another 17.9% of them even believed the strategies were effective. From the student respondents' view, no one believed the strategies were effective. Even 8.3% believed the strategies were not effective. Both categories of respondents, on another note,

also agreed that the strategies were not highly effective. In effect, respondents agreed that the strategies used in handling the conflicts were less effective.

Findings of the study as established above confirmed Ajibade's (2013) assertion that the measures that are usually employed by the authorities of tertiary educational institutions in managing students-management conflicts are ineffective and that such measures are often regulatory and repressive in nature; to the extent that rather than helping to address the problems, those strategies further worsen the situation.

Following up on respondents' overall assessment of the strategies that were used by the University in handling students-management conflicts, the study sought respondents' view on how the University effectively managed the conflicts using such strategies. The results were as in Figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9 Respondents' Views on How the University Effectively Handled Conflicts

between Students and Management from 1999 to 2009

Views on How the University Effectively Handled the Conflicts	Very well	Well	Somehow	Poorly	Very Poorly
Management	0	16.7	50	33.3	0
Student Leaders	0	14.3	75	10.7	0
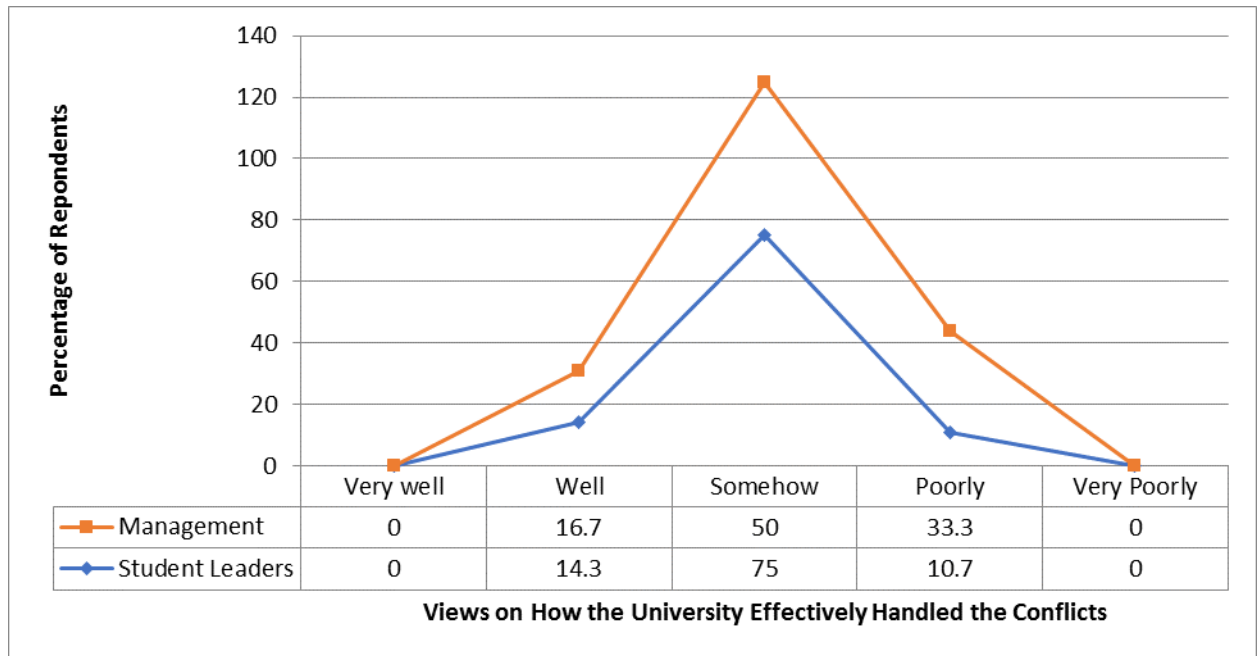
Source: Field Survey, January, 2017

Results of Figure 4.9 cemented the findings of Figure 4. 8. Majority of the respondents believed that with the less effective strategies used, the University succeeded in only managing the conflicts somehow and not as effectively as desired. This view was supported by 50% of student respondents and 75% of management respondents. Only 16.7% and 14.3% of student and management respondents respectively believed the conflict were well handled. However, 33.3% of student respondents and 10.7% of management respondents held the view that, the conflicts were poorly handled. A respondent commented:

> The conflicts were not at all nice for the University and its reputation,
> especially when people from other universities had to be brought from
> outside to form a committee to solve problems that they did not create and

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that portrayed management as incompetent in dealing with the conflicts internally. With this, I cannot say the University effectively managed the conflicts. The University failed and the strategies used were ineffective (Interviews, January, 2017).

On changes to leadership, organizational culture, and design of the University, majority of the respondents; 58.3% student respondents and 75% management respondents had the view that, the handling of the conflicts only produced moderately positive changes such as the fact that management began to open up somehow to listen to students' views. This level of change was therefore less of a reflection of effectiveness of conflict management in the University organization which should have been appreciable if not significant as argued by (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013).

When asked as to which extent police and other forces should be approved in dealing with students-management conflicts, the results from both student and management respondents were largely that; to a very small extent. Respondents believed that the use of such forces only compounded the conflict situation. They were of the view that such forces should only be used if calm could not be restored and if the conflicts were becoming rowdy and needed to be contained to protect life and property. Respondents further argued that students and management could cooperatively and collaboratively deal with conflicts proactively and internally without the interference of these forces. On this score, Anifowoshe (2004) and Ajibade (2013) criticized the use of police and other forces in dealing with students-management conflicts as they often led to violence than solve the problems.

4.9 CONTROLLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN THE UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

The study explored the views of respondents as regards how students-management conflicts in the University could be controlled. The following strategies were suggested: enhancing communication at all levels of the University especially between students and management, involving students in decision making, improving students-management dialogues and setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committee/units. Other strategies identified were: the provision of adequate infrastructure, the provision of effective institutional leadership, intensified teaching of courses on peace, conflict management and resolution in all programmes and stamping out occultism in schools.

Enhancing communication at all levels of the University, especially between students and management was ranked by respondents as the number one strategy to adopt in controlling students-management conflicts in the University environment. Respondents believed that it could help in expressing issues of disagreement between students and management for clarifications and proactive redress that could help avoid conflicts from occurring. This buttressed the assertion of Jude-Iwuoha et al (2014) that when information resources are provided in the right format and promptly dissemination at all times to the various academic community and stakeholders for the purpose of educating, empowering and taking decisions, conflict management would be made easier.

Providing adequate infrastructure for academic work in the University was identified as key to controlling students-management conflict as the inadequacy of it was cited as one of the major causes of the conflicts that occurred between students and management of the University. Respondents recommended that enrollment into the University be reduced to match with existing infrastructure, even though some respondents bemoaned that this would deprive some students from getting university education. Thus, Ekundayo and Ajayi (2009) believed that the provision of facilities to aid effective teaching and learning and the seriousness placed on maintenance culture of existing infrastructure should be encouraged.

Involvement of students in decision making, particularly on matters that affected their welfare was another way to control students-management conflicts. Respondents noted that by involving students in decision making, their commitment could be gotten on decisions taken. This, they believed reduced students' opposition to such decisions, enhanced cooperation to the implementation of the decisions and hence, reduced conflicts. In line with this, Ajibade, (2013) and Ada (2013) intimated that involving students in decisions on issues that concern their welfare is another democratic way of controlling students-management conflicts.

Also, improving students-management dialogues was identified as another strategy to controlling student-management conflicts as Ada (2013) also argued. For respondents to this study, so long as communication between students and management was good and students were involved in decision making, it was easier to identify students concerns early and to dialogue with them for settlement before they got out of hands and led to conflicts.

Again, as in consonance with the views of Ajibade (2013), the respondents believed that setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committee/units could help control students-management conflicts in the University. Respondents believed that with these in place, students could seek assistance to deal with realities of life. These units could also provide counsel to students to produce positive behaviour in their relations with management which would all contribute to peaceful co-existence between the two.

Intensified teaching of courses on peace, conflicts management and resolution in all academic programmes was also cited as a possible way of controlling the conflicts. This was believed would inculcate in students how to handle disagreement to avert conflicts and also to handle conflicts when they arose. This was also the view of (Mohamedbhai in Magagula, 2007; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011; Chibuokwu and Nwosu, 2015).

Although majority of the respondents to the study believed it was not really possible to stamp out occultism in schools, they believed that controlling it could help control conflicts between students and management in the University. It was therefore suggested that efforts be made towards controlling occultism in the University as it possibly contributed to the conflicts that occurred. This was in harmony with Ekundayo and Ajayi's (2009) argument who in recommending ways of controlling students-management conflicts, mentioned among other things, the need to stamp out cultism in universities.

The provision of effective institutional leadership was identified to be the denominator to the other strategies for the control of the conflicts. As Adeyemi et al (2010) said, managing conflicts in schools requires appropriate leadership style of the school administrators. It was established that, it required effective institutional leadership to ensure that the other conflict control strategies were implemented appropriately to ensure peace between students and management of the University.

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This was the final chapter of the research report. The major findings of the study were summarized under this chapter. The chapter also revisited the problem, questions and objectives of the research. The chapter further discussed the research, drew a conclusion and made recommendations on it.

5.2 BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS TO THE STUDY

For this study, there were 12 (30%) past student leader respondents and 28 (70%) management respondents. These respondents were in positions of responsibility during the conflicts and so were deemed to have the data needed to address the research problem. Of these respondents, males were 37 (92.5%) with 3 (7.5%) being females. The unequal gender representation however, was not found to have effect on findings. As Chusmir and Mills (1989) noted, there is no gender effect in the handling of conflicts at managerial level by men and women.

Regarding the level of respondents' formal education, it was found that only 7.5% had qualifications below first degree. Ten percent had first degree and 82.5% had post graduate degrees in the Physical Sciences and Humanities. Aside the educational qualifications, 87.5% of the respondents had had training in the handling of conflicts. Also, those with the low level of formal education had obtained a high level of experience in the handing of

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conflicts through hands on the job practice. This was in line with APA's (1992) belief that competence built from relevant scientific and professional knowledge is a necessary condition to successful management of conflicts. All these showed that the respondents were well informed in matters of conflicts and their management and so gave the relevant data to address the research problem.

All respondents to this study were over 35 years old in age. More than 60% of them were even above 50 years. On the basis of length of stay with the University, only 17.5% of the respondents had being with the University for 4 years as students. The rest (82.5%) had being with University for between 5 and 23 years. With Einstein's (1954) argument that experience is the source of knowledge, the study found that both the age range and the length of stay of the respondents with the University equipped them with the experiences and knowledge required to address the research problem.

5.3 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES IN THE STUDY

Over 75% of the student and 51% of management respondents believed that there were no good relations between students and management of the University during the period of the conflicts. The relationship was as exemplified by Dahrendorf's (1959) ICAs — authoritative social relations. Students were found to have always been on the lower side of the divide in their relationship with management. Scarborough (1998) in Faleti's (2006) would say that where the existing structures were tilted in favour of one group while putting the other(s) at a disadvantaged position, and where holders of certain powers or privileges were unwilling to acknowledge the rights of others to be different, there would be conflict.

Respondents to this study; (75%) students and (42.9%) management strongly agreed that there was a big class structural gap created between students and management with inherent inequalities between them, particularly on power and authority lines as some studies such as by De Dreu and Weingart (2003) suggested. Additional 25% and 57.1% of students and management respectively agreed to the existence of the gap.

The general disciplinary situation between students and management in the University during the conflicts period was found to be moderate. Given the importance of discipline to the functioning of organizations and organizational stability Fayol's (1930), it was debated that the University was made fragile and prone to the conflicts because of the moderate nature of disciple during the period.

Ajibade (2013:67) asserted that most heads of tertiary institutions adopt authoritarian/autocratic leadership style by not listening to the yearnings and aspirations of the students and are lackadaisical in terms of provision of amenities such as water and health facilities. In consonance with Ajibade's (2013:67) assertion, this study found that the typical behavioural leadership style of University Management during the time of the conflicts was autocratic / authoritarian in nature. Up to 91.9% and 82.1% of students and management respondents respectively believed this was the situation. I found that students had little say about matters that concerned them and so reacted some times which contributed significantly to the conflicts between them and management.

5.4 THE NATURE OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS

Conflicts that were witnessed by the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009 included: conflicts between academic and professional administrators, conflicts between academic staff and government, conflicts between non-teaching staff and the professional administrators, conflicts between students and university management, conflicts between non-teaching staff and government, conflicts between students and government, inter-personal conflicts among staff, inter-personal conflicts among students, conflicts between academic staff and students, conflicts between students and the host communities and conflicts between academic staff unions and non-academic staff unions. These were in line with the works of (Olaleye and Arogundade, 2013; Awosusi, 2005; Jude-Iwuohaet al, 2014; Ada, 2013). The most frequently occurring among these were conflicts between students and university management. Contrarily, this ranked 10th out of 11 with conflicts between academic staff and students being the most frequently occurring conflicts in the studies of (Olaleye and Arogundade, 2013). This meant that conflicts that occurred in universities varied in their rate of occurrence based on the peculiarity of given university environments. Up to 83.3% and 67.7% of students and management respondents to this study respectively believed the conflicts between students and university management during the period were high and worrying than any other form of conflict. In line with this, the UDS (2009; 2011) believed the situation remained a serious concern to University Management.

As regards the nature of conflicts that occurred between students and management of the University from 1999 to 2009, the following were revealed: protests/unrests/revolts, violence and violent demonstration, frequent closure of schools and work–disruptions (slow-

downs, planned absenteeism and sabotage). Others were boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination, sabotage as in undermining the public image of management of the University, insubordination and physical attacks. The rest were falsification and blackmailing through the media, chaotic and undermining many programmes, unresolved and protracted conflicts and verbal assaults/abuse/scorn. The commonest of these were: protests/unrests/revolts, violence and violent demonstrations, boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination, verbal assaults/abuse/scorn, insubordination and physical attacks. These confirmed the scholarly works of (Adeyemi et al, 2010; Alabi, 2002; Ada, 2013; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011).

The study revealed that the conflicts were more pronounced among students in the Humanities than those in the Physical Sciences. They were therefore more intensive and visible among students of Humanities on Navrongo campus (before 2006) and Wa Campus than they were among students of the Physical Sciences on Nyankpala Campus, Tamale Campus and Navrongo Campus (after 2006). This situation was said to be so because students in the Humanities got easily exposed to human behavioural lessons, actions and reactions that made them more prone to conflicts than those in the Physical Sciences who interacted most times with laboratory apparatus with little recourse to conflicts. It was also argued that enrolment figures of students in the Physical Sciences had often been smaller than those in the Humanities with little stress and hence minimized incidences of conflict.

5.5 CAUSES OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS FROM 1999

TO 2009

Except for a few situations, the causes of conflicts between students and management of the University during the period studied were identified to be similar to those identified by (Adeyemi et al, 2010; Havenga and Visagie, 2011; Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011; Ajibade, 2013; Alabi, 2002; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009; Onyenoru, 1996; Adebayo, 2009; Adepoju and Sofowora, 2012; Bua et al, 2015). They included: wide communication gap between students and school management, delay in meeting students' demands by school management, failure by school management to guarantee security of lives and properties, inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms and laboratories and drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations. Others were frustration and uncertainty from the larger society, students' non-involvement in decisions that concerned their welfare, students being forced to pay special fees/hikes in students' fees, the activities of campus secret cults and differences in the perception of group and organizational objectives. The rest were poor institutional leadership, increasing awareness of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions, influence of complex students' social background and youthful exuberance, management role overload and widespread corruption allegations on campus.

The study revealed that there was a wide communication gap between students and university management during the period used for the study which ranked highest as the cause of students-management conflicts in the University. Communication in the University between students and management was largely found to be largely top-down and a little of two-way communication with no bottom-up form of communication. Communication in the

University was thus found to be ineffective by 70% of the respondents. This corroborated arguments that it was easy to misunderstand another person or group of people if two-way communication was hampered in some way and that poor communication between institutions' authorities and students was a cause of students-management conflicts (Kreitner, 2001; Ajibade, 2013; Olaleye and Arogundade, 2013).

Up to 80% of the study respondents indicated that infrastructure in the University for Students' Academic Activities were inadequate. Lecture halls were found to be inadequate, there were no microphones to deliver lectures to the hearing of all students. Other problems included lack of potable water, lack of toilet and urinal facilities for students to use, poor sanitation, lack of computer laboratories, difficulty in accessing health care, inadequate furniture for use in the lecture halls and the lack of sporting facilities. Some more of these were under resourced libraries and the absence of hostels. In this regard, Adebayo (2009) and others believed that when educational facilities are inadequate, it could be enough to upset the peace between the students and the universities authorities and cause conflicts.

The study established that students' representation and involvement in decision making of the University took place at such levels as: in the University Governing Council and at the hall management levels and also in the process of fee fixing/increases in the University. This was contrary to the assertion of Mennon (2003) and Bergan (2003) that students generally lacked participation in institutional governance and that they were the least of all reference groups within the school involved in major educational decision-making and often completely excluded.. However, up to 82.5% of the respondents believed that students'

representation and participation in decision-making at these management levels did not have much influence on management's decisions about student issues but just to fulfill legal/formal requirements of the University Statutes.

It was again found that management of the University often threatened and punished students for potential behavioural changes. Thus, as Youngs (1986) said, threats and punishment by one party in a disagreement tended to produce intensifying threats and punishment from the other party. Management expressing disagreement in arrogant and demeaning manner and also suppressing students' interest with their power and authority was therefore another cause of the conflicts.

5.6 CONSEQUENCES OF STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS

The consequences of students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 were both negative and positive. The negative consequences of the conflicts that occurred in the University included: truncation of academic calendar, rendering the school environment totally insecure for serious academic activities, the haunted to overthrow authority including the readiness to kill and students being chased out of campuses by police force. Other negative consequences found were: loss of productive teaching and learning contact hours, low productivity, inefficiency, underutilization of resources and hostility, the prevalence of suspicions, aggressions, insecurity and restrictions, tension and apprehension, production of half-baked graduates, closure of the schools and punishment to the erring students. The rest were: breakdown of law and order, disturbance of public peace and widespread campus anarchy, uncontrolled roaming of students and increased anti-social vices manifested in the

form of examination malpractices, indecent dressing, disharmony in students-management relationship, increased indiscipline among students, disarmed school authorities, obstructed channel of progressive communication, rendered the University ungovernable and tarnished the reputation of the University. These findings were in consonance with the works of (Jude-Iwuoha et al, 2014; Adepoju, 2003a; Akomolafe and Ibijola, 2011; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011; Bua et al, 2015; Alabi 2002; Oguntuase, 1999).

Contrarily, the conflicts did not: lead to loss of lives and property, attract military intervention, lead to the elongation of the period of study, attract any penalty to students such as payment of caution fees and fees for damages, breed cultism, cause the dismissal and restructuring of management and also, did not lead to protracted disharmony in students-management relationships, even though it brought about disharmony in students-management relationships.

This study found the positive effects of the conflicts to include: being a necessary part of the growth and development of individuals and the University, helping build, define and balance students' needs with management and helping them to face and address issues in a clear and conscious way, helping foster self-control, enhanced interpersonal communication skills, reduced tensions and suspicions, improved the University climate, prevented violence, and improved the capacity to respect and appreciate different perspectives, stopped management from taking harsh decisions that affected students' welfare, helped in the redistribution of resources, constructively attempted to and succeeded in correcting some management ills

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and lapses as in line with the views of (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013; Ross, 1993; Adebayo, 2009).

5.7 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES THAT WERE USED IN HANDLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS

Up to 82.5% of all respondents to the study believed University Management was indifferent to students' concerns and mostly down played students' power in conflicts until they occurred. Conflicts that could be prevented were left to escalate before actions were taken. It was discovered that conflict analysis was done in attempts at resolving students-management conflicts but such analysis was often not fairly done. It often lacked students' representation. Therefore as opposed to Best's (2006) argument that satisfactory conflict management outcomes were attainable through proper conflict analysis, the outcomes were never satisfactory to all stakeholders but just an imposition of management's will on students. Respondents therefore believed that efforts made at resolving the conflicts produced less satisfactory outcomes. Management of the conflicts was influenced largely by bureaucratic and contingency principles to management as noted by (Sharma et al, 2012; De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). The approaches influenced the use of arbitrary and autocratic measures by management in managing the conflicts leading to their escalation.

In line with the arguments of Blake and Monton (1964) and Liket (1961) and as emphasized by Ajibade (2013) in their works on strategies often used at handling students-management conflicts, the study discovered that the University in handling conflicts between students and management relied mainly on forcing/domination. Other frequently used strategies in the

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handling of students-management conflicts were: ignoring, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication of student leaders, integration and negotiated compromises. These views were in harmony with that of (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004; Best, 2006; Hellriegel and Slocum, 2011). Closure of the University and the use of security forces (police) to maintain law and order were also identified as other strategies used in the handling of student-management conflicts in the University.

5.8 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE STRATEGIES USED IN HANDLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN UDS

Seventy-five percent of student and 78.6% management respondents strongly agreed with Omemu and Oladunjoye's (2013) view that conflict is said to have been effectively managed when the process and outcome do ensure: organizational learning and effectiveness, satisfaction of needs of stakeholders and meet the ethics factors of honesty and acceptable realities. The respondents, 50% and 46.6% of student and management respondents respectively rated the premium placed on effectively handling students-management conflicts and efforts made by the University at achieving this largely as being only moderate. This level of commitment and effort at resolving the conflicts no doubt influenced the choice of strategies used and how they were used as argued by (Ross, 1993; Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004).

This study rated the effectiveness of the strategies used by the University in handling students-management conflict. The rating was guided by the views of Omemu and Oladunjoye (2013) and Ross (1993) on such parameters as: how acceptable and satisfactory they were to stakeholders, how they ensured lasting solutions to the conflicts and induced organizational learning, how ethical they were and how they transformed relationships in a positive direction in the conflict situations. The results revealed that the most frequently used strategy— forcing/domination (authoritative command) was not effective in managing the conflicts but rather worsened them. Hundred percent of the student respondents and 89.3% of the management respondents had this view.

Other frequently used strategies such as: ignoring, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication or outright expulsion of student leaders were rated as ineffective in the handling of the students-management conflicts Integration/problem solving was rated by 100% of student respondents and 67.9% of management respondents as being the effective strategy ever used by the University but very rarely so. Skillfully negotiated compromises as a strategy, was rated to be moderately effective but also rarely used. Closure of the University and the use of security forces (police) to maintain law and order were also rated as less effective strategies used in the handling of student-management conflicts in the University. Therefore, none of the strategies mentioned to have been applied by the University in managing the conflicts was believed to have been very effective. Just one was noted to be effective yet rarely used. Also, only one was identified as being moderately effective but rarely used too. Respondents agreed that the strategies used were more regulatory and repressive and based

largely on forcing and other assertive mechanisms with much emphasis on the use of power and authority which usually worsened the conflicts situations. Therefore, the overall assessment of the strategies that were used by the University in handling students-management conflicts was that they were less effective in dealing with the conflicts as rated by 75% and 42.9% of student and management respondents respectively. Ajibade's (2013) argument that the measures that are usually employed by the authorities of tertiary educational institutions in managing students-management conflicts are ineffective and that such measures are often regulatory and repressive in nature; to the extent that rather than helping to address the problems, those strategies further worsen the situation was confirmed by the outcome of this study.

Subsequent to assessing the strategies that were used by the University in handling students-management conflicts as generally ineffective, majority of the respondents—50% of student and 75% of management respondents believed that the University only succeeded in managing the conflicts somehow and not as effectively as desired. Also, 58.3% student respondents and 75% management respondents believed the handling of the conflicts only produced moderately positive changes to leadership, organizational culture, and design of the University and therefore was less of a reflection of effectiveness of conflict management as argued by (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013).

5.9 CONTROLLING STUDENTS-MANAGEMENT CONFLICTS IN THE

   UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

Respondents to the study suggested strategies to control students-management conflicts. These strategies included: enhancing communication at all levels of the University especially between students and management, involving students in decision making, improving students-management dialogues and setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committee/units. Other strategies identified were: the provision of adequate infrastructure, the provision of effective institutional leadership, intensified teaching of courses on peace, conflict management and resolution in all programmes and stamping out occultism in schools. These strategies were in tandem with those of (Jude-Iwuoha et al, 2014; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009; Ajibade, 2013; Ada, 2013; Mohamedbhai in Magagula, 2007; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011; Chibuokwu and Nwosu, 2015; Adeyemi et al, 2010).

5.10 RESEARCH PROBLEM, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

   REVISITED

The main objective of this study was to ascertain the strategies used in the handling of students-management conflicts by the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009. The study showed that there were no good relations between students and management of the University. In line with the studies of De Dreu and Weingart (2003), the respondents, (75%) students and (42.9%) management strongly agreed that there was a big class structural gap with inequalities between students and management, particularly on power and authority relations— Students always on the lower side of the divide. Up to

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91.9% student and 82.1% management respondents believed that the behavioural leadership style of University Management during the time was autocratic / authoritarian in nature as Ajibade (2013) asserted; as usually the case with most heads in tertiary institutions. As a result, respondents indicated that students had little say, if any, about issues that had to do with them. Therefore students' reactions to some of these issues that concerned them but to which they had no say contributed significantly to the conflicts between them and management.

In addressing the research problem, there was a critical look at the objectives/research questions. The study found that there were 11 types of conflicts that hit the University. Among these, conflicts between students and university management most frequently occurred; contrary to the studies of (Olaleye and Arogundade, 2013). These conflicts were high and worrying. The conflicts took on different characteristics, the commonest being: protests/unrests/revolts, violence and violent demonstrations, boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination, verbal assaults/abuse/scorn, insubordination and physical attacks. These confirmed the scholarly works of (Adeyemi et al, 2010; Alabi, 2002; Ada, 2013; Fatile and Adejuwon, 2011).

The main causes of the conflicts included: wide communication gap between students and school management, delay in meeting students' demands by school management, inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms and laboratories, drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations, students' non-involvement in decisions that concerned their welfare, students being forced to pay special fees/hikes in students' fees, poor institutional leadership, increasing awareness

of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions, influence of complex students' social background and youthful exuberance and widespread corruption allegations on campus. Largely, these fell in line with studies of scholars as (Adeyemi et al, 2010; Ajibade, 2013; Alabi, 2002; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009; Bua et al, 2015).

Consequences of students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 were both negative and positive. Key among the negative consequences were: truncation of academic calendar, rendering the school environment totally insecure for serious academic activities, the haunted to overthrow authority including the readiness to kill, loss of productive teaching and learning contact hours, low productivity, closure of the schools and punishment to the erring students and rendered the University ungovernable and tarnished the reputation of the University. On a positive note, among others, the conflicts helped build, define and balance students' needs with management's and helped them to face and address issues in a clear and conscious way, helped foster self-control, enhanced interpersonal communication skills, reduced tensions and suspicions, improved the University climate and improved the capacity to respect and appreciate different perspectives, stopped management from taking harsh decisions that affected students' welfare and helped in the redistribution of resources as in line with the views of (Omemu and Oladunjoye, 2013; Ross, 1993; Adebayo, 2009).

Conflict analysis was often done but not fairly and so outcomes were less satisfactory. As argued by Ajibade (2013), the University in handling conflicts between students and management relied mainly on forcing/domination. Other frequently used strategies were:

ignoring, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication of student leaders. Integration and negotiated compromises, closure of the University and the use of security forces (police) to maintain law and order were also identified but rarely used.

The University made only moderate efforts at effectively handling students-management conflicts. None of the strategies used by University in managing the conflicts was said to be very effective. Just one was noted to be effective yet rarely used. Also, only one was identified as being moderately effective but rarely used too. The strategies used were more regulatory and repressive. Therefore, as Ajibade's (2013) argued, the overall assessment of the strategies used by the University in handling students-management conflicts was that they were less effective in dealing with the conflicts as rated by 75% and 42.9% of student and management respondents respectively. In effect, 50% of student and 75% of management respondents believed that the University only succeeded in managing the conflicts somehow and not as effectively as desired.

Suggested strategies to control students-management conflicts: enhancing communication at all levels of the University especially between students and management, involving students in decision making, improving students-management dialogues and setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committees/units, providing adequate infrastructure, providing effective institutional leadership, intensified teaching of courses on peace, conflict management and resolution in all programmes and stamping out occultism in schools.

5.11 DISUSSIONS

This study was carried out to assess the strategies used in the handling of students-management conflicts by the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009. Seventy-five percent of the student and 42.9% of management respondents strongly agreed that there was a big class structural gap with inherent inequalities between students and management, showing largely on power and authority relations in which case the students were always on the lower side of the class structure. This is what happens when management practices autocratic / authoritarian leadership and in which case subordinates (in the case of students) are unable to have healthy interactions with them. It was therefore not surprising that the relations between the two—students and management of the University were said not to be good. In relations like this, action and reaction ignite conflicts as was the case in the University from 1999 to 2009, between students and university management.

To rank first and be rated as the most frequently occurring among 11 types of conflicts, students-management conflicts in the University were indeed high and worrying. Even if it ranked last and were the least frequently occurring, it would be a source of worry. The intensity and visibility of these conflicts found expression in the very nature they took; best described as largely dysfunctional to include: protests/unrests/revolts, and violent demonstrations, boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination, verbal assaults/abuse/scorn, insubordination and physical attacks. These had implications for the efficient functioning of the University at the time since time needed to get the University efficiently running was used in trying to resolve conflicts.

The main causes of the conflicts: wide communication gap between students and school management, delay in meeting students' demands by school management, inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms and laboratories, drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations, students' non-involvement in decisions that concerned their welfare, students being forced to pay special fees/hikes in students' fees, poor institutional leadership, increasing awareness of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions, influence of complex students' social background and youthful exuberance and widespread corruption allegations on campus; re-stated for emphasis, could easily be handled with proactive and management efforts. Unfortunately, management in most of the conflicts cases was more reactive than being proactive. Therefore, 46.4% student and 66.7% management respondents believed that management lagged in their attempts to respond to students' concerns and that they (management) failed to be proactive), hence, the conflicts.

The study showed that conflicts do not always connote negativity and that a minimal degree of conflict could be good in some situations. That is, though it is needless to repeat them here, the students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009 produced both negative and positive consequences; except to say the former outweighed the latter. This was probably due to the nature of the conflicts themselves, what caused them and much more so how they were handled. Whichever way they were viewed however, the conflicts had positive implications for the growth of the University.

The study showed that outcomes of students-management conflicts handling efforts were less satisfactory, despite that analysis was often done. This was obviously so because the analysis was often done but not fairly, since it always lacked students' representation. With such one-sided starter efforts to handling the conflicts, it was not debatable to find that the University relied mainly on forcing/domination and other repressive and regulatory strategies as ignoring, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication of student leaders, closure of the University and the use of security forces (police) to maintain law and order but rarely used integration and negotiated compromises; known to be effective in managing the conflicts. Handling the conflicts this way found its roots in management's adoption and use of bureaucratic and contingency principles which influenced the use of arbitrary and autocratic measures in handling conflicts which often led to their escalation rather than resolve them.

Findings of this study indicated that the University's efforts at effectively handling students-management conflicts were only moderate. No doubt this influenced the choice and use of strategies in managing the conflicts. The results were that, of the strategies used by the University in managing the conflicts, none was said to be very effective. Only one was said to be effective yet scarcely applied. Also, just one was noted as being moderately effective but scarcely used too. In effect, the overall assessment of the strategies used by the University in handling students-management conflicts was rated by 75% students and 42.9% management respondents as being less effective in dealing with the conflicts. Undoubtedly, 50% of student and 75% of management respondents concluded that the University only managed the conflicts somehow and not effectively.

As the sages say, knowing your problem is part of the solution. From scrutinizing the causes of the conflicts, respondents to the study suggested strategies to control them. These included: enhancing communication at all levels of the University especially between students and management, involving students in decision making, improving students-management dialogues and setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committees/units, providing adequate infrastructure, providing effective institutional leadership, intensified teaching of courses on peace, conflict management and resolution and stamping out occultism in schools. These could be proactive measures that prevent the conflicts than resolve them.

The ensuing discussions conform to the domains and tenets of the structural theory on which this study largely leaned as it clearly delineates the gap between students and management into two different classes in the university community. The nature of the conflicts, their causes, consequences and their management strategies were a reflection of relations between a weak and a strong communities of people—students and management as the structural theorist believe in. Particularly, the causes of the conflicts and their consequences were found to fall within the remits of the supporting theories adopted for this study — the frustration aggression and the human needs theories. These were re-enforced by the created gaps orchestrated under the structural conflict theory with the inherent ICAs.

Also worth giving a flashback in the ensuing discussions is the conceptual framework mapped for the study. The conflicts as witnessed came from a wide range of sources which could be summarized into perceived ineffective university management and the non-

appropriate students' behaviour and the reactions of students and management to these perceptions. Contrary to the propositions of the intervening variables of expecting effective conflict handling strategies, the study found that the strategies adopted were not effective in managing the conflicts. The results were that of intensified conflict rather than the expected good students and management relations, minimized conflicts and good will towards the University.

5.12 CONCLUSIONS

Conflicts are pervasive in organizations and when they assume violent tone, it becomes necessary for them to be managed through the application of appropriate strategies. Using empirical data, this thesis revealed that there were no good relations between students and management of the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009. There was a big class structural gap between students and management; re-enforced by the behavioural leadership style of the University Management during the time which was autocratic / authoritarian in nature. Conflicts were high and worrying in the University from 1999 to 2009. Among the conflicts witnessed, conflicts between students and university management most frequently occurred. The conflicts mostly took the nature of revolts, violent demonstrations, boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination, verbal assaults and physical attacks. Wide communication gap between students and university management, infrastructural deficiencies and leadership crises were the major drivers of the conflicts. Negatively, the conflicts led to low productivity and tarnished the reputation of the University. Positively, the conflicts transformed governance of the University.

The University in handling conflicts between students and management relied mainly on forcing/domination. Other frequently used strategies were: ignoring, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication of student leaders. Integration and negotiated compromises, closure of the University and the use of security forces (police) to maintain law and order were also used but rarely so. None of the strategies used by the University in managing the conflicts was very effective. Just one was effective yet rarely used. Also, one was moderately effective but rarely used too.

The strategies used were more regulatory and repressive. Therefore, the overall assessment of the strategies used by the University in handling the students-management conflicts was that they were less effective.

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5.13 RECOMMENDATIONS

A number of recommendations were made to this study. The study recommended that efforts be made to build good relations between students and management of the University and bridge the structural gap between them, improve interactions and ensure peaceful co-existence between them. Also, the practice of democratic leadership style by management of the University was strongly recommended to enable students actively participate in university governance. Management should refrain from using threats and punishment to solicit potential behavioural changes from students and also avoid expressing disagreement in demeaning manner and/or suppressing students' interest with their power and authority.

The worrying nature of the conflicts should be recognized and efforts and commitment strongly made to resolve them. More so, efforts should be made to improve the general disciplinary situation between students and management in the University. Management should avoid being indifferent to students' concerns and for that matter conflicts and should not down play students' power in conflicts. Early conflict warning signs, often noticeable in their very nature should not be treated laggingly and reactively but proactively to lessen the nature they take in the end.

Other recommendations included: enhancing communication at all levels of the University especially between students and management, involving students in decision making, improving students-management dialogues and setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committees/units, providing adequate infrastructure, providing effective institutional leadership and stamping out occultism.

Intensifying teaching of courses on peace, conflicts management and resolution in the University across all programmes was also recommended. Students should be taught to know the consequences of the conflicts, especially, the negatives and how they (the students) suffer the most during such conflicts and therefore the need to do everything possible to prevent them from occurring. Management should also be taken through refresher courses in conflicts and their management to enable them appreciate and deal with them timely and effectively.

Students should be fairly represented in conflict analysis to ensure that outcomes are satisfactory to all. The University in handling students-management conflicts should rely more on cooperative (effective strategies) such as integration and negotiated compromises and very less if at all, on regulatory and repressive (ineffective) strategies as: forcing/domination, ignoring, the suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives and rustication or threat of rustication of student leaders, closure of the University and the use of security forces.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for All Respondents (Past Student Leaders and Teaching/Non-Teaching Staff in Leadership Positions during the Study Period)

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data to address the research topic **"An Assessment of the Strategies used in Handling Students-Management Conflicts in Tertiary Institutions in Ghana: A Case Study of the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009".** The research is in partial fulfillment of academic work leading to the award of a **Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Social Administration**. Data collected with this questionnaire will be objectively analyzed and handled with maximum confidentiality. For ethical reasons, would you be happy to answer my questions? Yes [   ] No [   ]. Please, note that you can choose to change you stance in answering my questions at any point in time.

NOTE: (1) Please, Complete Where Applicable (2) Where There Are Many Options, Please, Choose As Many As Address The Question.

A. Respondent's Background Information

1. I am/was: **(A)** a member of university management [   ] **(B)** a student leader [   ] other, please specify …………………………………………………………………………………

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2. Sex: Male   [   ]   Female   [   ]

3. Age ………………………

4. Highest Qualification

A. Diploma [   ] B. 1st Degree [   ] C. 2nd Degree [   ] D. PhD. [   ] E. Other (Please, specify)

…...

5.   Area   of   Academic   Specialty   (e.g.   Management,   Economics,

etc.)…………………………...

6. Do you have any training in the handling of conflicts? Yes [   ] No [   ]

7.   How   many   years   have   you   been/were   you   with   the   University? .... Year of

entry……… and year of exit ………….../up to date

8. Position(s) held in the University

Position(s) held	Duration in year(s)/Month(s)	From……….to………

B. General Theoretical and Conceptual Questions

1. Which of these best describe(s) students and management relations in the University from 1999 to 2009? Partners [   ] competitors [   ] collaborators [   ] students were recognized as customers and treated as such with care [   ] antagonists [   ] other, please specify……………..

2. There was a big class structural gap created between students and management with inherent inequalities between them, particularly on power and authority lines. Strongly agree [   ]

agree [   ] uncertain [   ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

3. How was the general disciplinary situation between students and management alike in the University? Very good [   ] good [   ] moderate [   ] bad [   ] very bad [   ]

4. What was/were the typical behavioural leadership style(s) of University administrators/management? Democratic [   ] Autocratic/Authoritarian [   ] Laissez-Faire [   ]

C. The Nature of Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. Which of the following forms of conflicts did the University witness? Please rank these in terms of frequency of occurrence using: 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 to mean: very frequently, frequently, moderately, less frequently and rarely respectively

S/N	Form of conflict	✓ hose Witnessed	1	2	3	4	5
1	Conflict between Academic and professional administrators						
2	Conflict between Academic Staff and Government						
3	Conflict between non-teaching staff and the professional administrators						
4	Conflict between students and University management						
5	Conflict between non-teaching staff and Government						
6	Conflict between students and Government						
7	Inter-personal conflict among staff						
8	Inter-personal conflict among students						
9	Conflict between academic staff and students						
10	Conflict between students and the						

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	host communities							
11	Conflict between Academic staff union and non-academic staff unions							

Other, please specify…………………………………………………………………..

2. In your opinion, conflicts between students and management in the university, especially from 1999 to 2009 were: very high and worrying [   ] high and worrying [   ] moderate and normal part of life in the University [   ] low and so of little concern [   ] very low, negligible and of no concern [   ]

3. Which of the following was/were often the nature of conflicts occurring between students and management of the University? **Tick as many as are applicable**

S/N	Nature of students-management conflict in the university	✓ Those applicable
1	Protests/unrests	
2	Revolts	
3	Violence and violent demonstration	
4	Frequent closure of schools	
5	Work–disruptions (slow-downs, planned absenteeism and sabotage)	
6	Boycotts/attempted boycotts of classes/examination	
7	Sabotage as in undermining the public image of management of the	

	University.	
8	Insubordination	
9	Physical attacks	
10	Falsification and blackmailing through the media	
12	Chaotic and undermining many programmes	
13	Unresolved and protracted conflicts.	
14	Verbal assaults/abuse/scorn	

4. On each of the campuses, please indicate the intensity and visibility of the nature of the conflicts that occurred between students and management by writing 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1, to mean highly intensive and visible, intensive and visible, moderately intensive and visible, not so intensive and visible and not intensive and visible at all respectively.

Campus	Dominant Programme on campus	Intensity and visibility of the conflicts by campus and by programme
Nyankpala Campus	Agricultural Sciences	
Navrongo Campus (before 2006)	Humanities	
Navrongo Campus (after 2006)	Applied and Mathematical Sciences	
Wa Campus	Humanities	
Tamale Campus	Medical Sciences	

D. Causes of Students-Management Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. Which of the following was/were among the factors responsible for conflicts between students and management of the University? **Please, tick as many as are applicable** and rank them as very high, high, moderate, low and very low using 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively

S/N	Cause(s) of students-management conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009	✓ (Tick) those applicable and indicate as 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1
1.	Wide communication gap between students and school management.	
2.	Delay in meeting students' demand by school management.	
3.	Failure by school management to guarantee security of lives and properties	
4.	Inadequate facilities such as lecture rooms, laboratories and equipment	
5.	Drastic and obnoxious rules and regulations.	
6.	Frustration and uncertainty from the larger society	
7	Students' non-involvement in decision that concern their welfare	
8.	Students being forced to pay special fees/hikes in students' fees	
9.	The activities of campus secret cults	
10	Differences in the perception of group and organizational objectives	
11	Poor institutional leadership	
12	Increasing awareness of students' rights and their power to influence management decisions	
13	Influence of complex students' social background and youthful exuberance	

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14	Management role overload	
15	Widespread corruption allegations on campus	

2. Communication in the university between students and management was largely: top-down

[   ] bottom-up [   ] two-way [   ]

3. How would you describe the state of communication between students and management of the university at the time? Very effective [   ] effective [   ] moderately effective [   ] ineffective [   ] very ineffective [   ]

4. How did the existing state of communication influence the conflicts? Reduced the intensity of the conflicts [   ] led to misunderstandings [ ] prevented students from being heard and their grievances addressed [   ] bred misconceptions [   ] increased in grapevines information [   ] Other, please specify……………………………………………………….

5. Generally, what would you say was the state of infrastructure in the University for Students' academic activities as compared to student numbers? Highly adequate [   ] adequate [ ] moderately Adequate [   ] inadequate [   ] highly inadequate [   ]

6. At what pace did management of the university respond to student's demands? Very swiftly

[   ] swiftly [   ] somehow swiftly [   ] lagingly [   ] very lagingly [   ]

7. Do you consider rules and regulations that governed the conduct of students in the university to be drastic and obnoxious? Yes [   ] No [   ]

8. If yes, please give examples of such rules and regulations…………..………………….

9. How would you describe the academic environment of the university for students at the time? Highly stable, secured and non-frustrating [   ] stable and least frustrating [   ] moderately stable and less frustrating [   ] unstable and frustrating [   ] highly unstable and more frustrating [   ]

10. What management level(s) were students represented and involved in decision making of the University? In the governing council [   ] at the executive management level [   ] at campus management level [   ] at the hall management level [   ] other, please specify………

11. What was/were the results of students' representation and participation in the decision making processes of management? Students became fulfilled and upheld outcomes of such decisions [   ] students significantly influenced management decisions [   ] was just to fulfill legal requirements of university statutes and so had little influence over management decisions [   ] had no influence over management decisions [   ] ensured that students demands were quickly brought to the notice of management and addressed and so reduced conflicts [   ]

12. Were students involved in the fee fixing/increases? Yes [   ] No [   ]

13. If yes, how did their involvement influence the level of fee increases? Very significantly [   ] significantly [   ] moderately [   ] uncertain [   ] very little [   ] no influence at all [   ]

14. The activities of secret cults were on the increase on the University campuses and posing as threat to lives and campus security generally. Strongly agree [   ] agree [   ] uncertain [   ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

15. Management of the University mostly: persuaded and inspired students for behavioural changes [   ] threatened and punished students for behavioural changes [   ] expressed disagreement in a reasonable manner [   ] expressed disagreement in arrogant and demeaning manner [   ] suppressed students interest with their power and authority [   ]

16. Poor/ineffective leadership was the cause of many of the conflicts between students and management of the University during the period. Strongly agree [   ] agree [   ] uncertain [ ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

17. The nature of students (nonchalant youthful exuberance) and varied complex social background as opposed to the matured nature of management contributed significantly to incompatibilities and to student-management conflicts in the University? Strongly agree [   ] agree [   ] uncertain [   ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

18. Students' unionism contributed largely to the conflicts. Strongly agree [   ] agree [   ] uncertain [   ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

E. Consequences of Students-Management Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. The negative effects of students-management conflicts as witnessed by the university during the period include: Please, tick as many as apply and rank in order of degree of severity using: **5, 4, 3, 2, and 1** for: very severe, severe, moderately severe, less severe and not severe respectively.

S/N	Negative consequences of Students-Management Conflicts in the University during the Period	✓ Those applicable	Rank in terms of level of severity				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.	Truncated academic calendar						
2.	Loss of lives and properties,						
3.	Rendered the school environment totally insecure for serious academic activities.						
4.	Usually haunted to overthrow authority including the readiness to kill.						
5.	Administrators abandoned their duties until the environment returned to normalcy.						
6.	Students were chased out of campuses by military and or police force						
7.	Loss of productive teaching and learning contact hours						
8.	Low/zero productivity, inefficiency, underutilization of resources and hostility						

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9.	Suspicions, aggressions, insecurity and restrictions, tension and apprehension abound						
10.	Production of half-baked, academically poor quality and unemployable graduates.						
11	Closure of schools						
12	Elongation of period of study, punishment to the erring students and penalty to all students such as payment of caution fees and fees for damages						
13	Breakdown of law and order, disturbance of public peace and widespread campus anarchy						
14	Uncontrolled roaming of students and increased anti-social vices manifested in the form of examination malpractices, cultism, indecent dressing.						
15	Protracted disharmony in students-management relationship						
16	Increased indiscipline among students						
17	Disarmed school authorities						
18	Obstructed channel of progressive communication						
19	Rendered the university ungovernable						
20	Dismissal and restructuring of management						

2. Of the conflicts witnessed, who among the following stakeholders would you say suffered the most from the negative consequences thereof? Rate them from 1 to 5; implying least

suffered to most suffered: students [   ] management [   ] parents [   ] the university as an organization and its entire community [   ] vendors in the university [   ]

3. How did management actions affect student unionism in the university?   Strengthened and made them more functional [   ] weakened and made them less functional [   ]

4. The positive effects of students-management conflicts as witnessed by the university during the period include: Please, tick as many as apply and rank in order of degree of significance using: **5, 4 3, 2, and 1** for: very significant, significant, moderately significant, less significant and not significant respectively.

S/N	Positive outcomes of Students-Management Conflicts in the University during the Period	✔ Those applicable	✔ Rank in terms of level of severity				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.	They proved to be necessary part of the growth and development of individuals and the University community						
2.	They helped to build, define and balance students' needs with management and helped them to face and address issues in a clear and conscious way.						
3.	Were effectively managed and so helped to increase						

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	teaching time, foster self-control, enhance interpersonal communication skills, reduce tensions and suspensions, improve the school climate, prevent violence, and improve the capacity to respect and appreciate different perspectives						
4.	Students as disadvantaged groups, their ability to threaten, initiate, and maintain conflicts with management who were more powerful was critical in achieving a redistribution of resources and change in the organization of the University						
5.	They stopped management from taking harsh decisions that affected students' welfare.						
6.	They constructively attempted to and succeeded in correcting some management ills and lapses						
7.	Resulted in new challenges for better functioning and growth of the University						
8.	Stimulated creativity and spurred invention that led to improvements in university management.						
9.	Used constructively to explore different solutions to problems and stimulated creativity by recognizing and sensitively exposing conflicts as a way of bringing emotive and non-rational arguments into open while deconstructing long-standing tension						

10.	Were helpful in not only making known what was wrong in the University system, but also importantly, how to fix it.						
11	Were used as tools to take the University and the people in it from stagnation to new levels of effectiveness						

5. From the foregoing, do you agree with the statement that conflicts must be avoided at all cost? Yes [   ] no [   ]

6. Please, briefly explain your response …………………………………………………...

F. Handling of Students-Management Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. How proactive was management to students concerns and early conflict warning signs?

Very proactive [ ] proactive [ ] indifferent [ ] less proactive [ ] not proactive at all [ ]

2. Did efforts to deal with the conflicts attempt at analyzing the conflicts in knowing the causes and the appropriate strategy options to deal with them? Yes [ ] No [ ]

3. If yes, how did that affect the outcome? Produced more satisfactory outcomes [   ] produced satisfactory outcomes [   ] produced somewhat satisfactory outcomes [   ] produced less satisfactory outcomes [   ] did not affect outcomes any positively but just was a waste of time [   ]

4. If no, why? There was often no time [   ] it was known to be of no relevance [   ] the situations required immediate action than analysis [   ]

Note: vertical text on left margin reads "UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES"

5. On which of these bases/approach(es) to management were the students-management conflicts being handled? Please, **rank as apply** in order of frequency of applicability using: **5, 4, 3, 2, and 1** for: very frequent, frequent, somehow frequent, less frequent and not applicable respectively.

S/N	Approach(es) to management on which students-management conflicts were been handled	✓ Those applicable	Rank in terms of level of applicability
1	Based on standard scientific principles grounded on truths and facts that are based on systematic observation, enquiry or reasoning		
2	Based on rigid formal organizational structures, rules, regulations and procedures and subjecting behaviors to systematic discipline and control as an expression of logic and legitimate authority		
3	Based on general administrative assumption that all conflicts in all organizations are handled in similar manner and with similar expertise and so need no peculiar skill		
4	Based on the assumption that it is a collective responsibility and must be tackled from all angles involving all actors and stakeholders in a cooperative manner		
5	Based on circumstances on the ground at a given time and		

	not based on any existing blueprint or laid down principles, e.g. employing military and police intervention to scatter rioting students in students-management conflicts		

5. Which of the following strategies were used by the university in handling conflicts between students and management? **Please, tick as many as apply** and rank in order of frequency of usage, using: **5, 4, 3, 2, and 1** for: very frequently, frequently, somehow frequently, less frequently and not applicable respectively.

S/N	Strategies often used by the University in handling conflicts between students and management	✔ Those applicable	Rank in terms of frequency of usage of strategy				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.	They took time to cooperatively identify and correct the sources of their conflicts by identifying and weighing alternative solutions and selecting a solution that was best.						
2.	Management authoritatively forced its will on the situation and commanded obedience to orders issued						
3.	Compromises were encouraged and undertaken through skillful negotiation of outcomes between the two for mutual benefit						

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4.	Differences were played down while commonalties between the parties in conflict emphasized for a solution.						
5.	They often ignored the issue through passive withdrawal form the problem or active suppression of the issue						
6.	They highlighted goals that were highly valued and only attainable by both parties and hence the need to burry differences commonly seek these goals						
7.	Immediate closure of the university with an ultimatum instructing students to vacate their halls of residence and premises						
8.	Suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives						
9.	Rustication or outright expulsion of student leaders						
10.	The use of security forces like the police/army to maintain law and order						
11	Government often reacted by proscribing Students' Union Organizations.						

6. Handling conflict between students and management in the university was often a: one-sided affair [   ] two-party affair [   ] third-party affair [   ]

7. Why did the Ministry of Education and National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) intervene in the instance of the 2008/2009 academic year's students' conflicts with

Management on the Wa Campus? Management failed to handle the conflict [   ] students were more powerful to deal with [   ] the conflict became protracted [   ] Other, please specify ……………………….

8. Aside the Ministry of Education and National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE), mention other third parties that intervened in the conflicts..……………..………………

9. If third parties intervened, in which of the following forms of interventions did it take? Facilitation [   ] conciliation [   ] ombudsman [   ] mediation and brokerage [   ] arbitration [   ] adjudication and law enforcement [   ] commands [   ]. Other, please, specify…………........

10. How objective and neutral were the actions of third parties in handling the conflicts? Very objective and neutral [   ] objective and neutral [   ] somehow objective and neutral [   ] less objective and neutral [   ] not objective and neutral [   ]

11. How did their intervention affect the intensity and visibility of conflict(s)? Saved time in managing the conflict [   ] saved cost in managing the conflict [   ] reduced antagonism [   ] dealt with the conflict in a friendly manner [   ] produced satisfactory results [   ] Other, please specify……………………………………………………………………………....

G. Effectiveness of Conflicts Management Strategies

1. Conflict is said to have been effectively managed when the process and outcome do ensure: organizational learning and effectiveness, satisfaction of needs of stakeholders and meet the ethics factors of honesty and acceptable realities. Strongly agree [   ] agree [   ] uncertain [   ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

2. Premium placed on effectively handling students-management conflicts and efforts made by the University at achieving this were always: very high [   ] high [   ] moderate [   ] low [   ] very low [   ]

3. Of the strategies used by the University in handling students-management conflict, indicate those that were highly effective, effective, moderately effective, less effective and not effective using **5, 4, 3, 2 and 1** respectively

S/N	**Strategies often used by the University in handling conflicts between students and management**	✓ Rank in terms of effectiveness of strategy				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	They took time to cooperatively identify and correct the sources of their conflicts by identifying and weighing alternative solutions and selecting a solution that was best.					
2.	Management authoritatively forced its will on the situation and commanded obedience to orders issued					

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3.	Compromises were encouraged and undertaken through skillful negotiation of outcomes between the two for mutual benefit					
4.	Differences were played down while commonalties between the parties in conflict emphasized for a solution.					
5.	They often ignored the issue through passive withdrawal form the problem or active suppression of the issue					
6.	They highlighted goals that were highly valued and only attainable by both parties and hence the need to bury differences commonly seek these goals					
7.	Immediate closure of the university with an ultimatum instructing students to vacate their halls of residence and premises					
8.	Suspension and/or dissolution of students' unions and their executives					
9.	Rustication or outright expulsion of student leaders					
10.	The use of security forces like the police/army to maintain law and order					
11	Government often reacted by proscribing Students' Union Organizations.					

4. In your overall assessment, how would you rate the strategies that were used by the University in handling students-management conflicts? Highly effective [   ] effective [   ] moderately effective [   ] less effective [   ] not effective [   ]

5. Would you say the University effectively managed the conflicts? Very well [   ] well [   ] somehow [   ] poorly [   ] very poorly [   ]

6. How did the management of these conflicts bring about positive changes in leadership, organizational culture, and the design of the University? Significantly [   ] appreciably [   ] moderately [   ] less significantly [   ] no change anyway [   ]

7. Several of the strategies used in managing the conflicts were usually regulatory and repressive and focused largely on forcing and other assertive mechanisms with much emphasis on the use of power and authority which often worsened the conflicts than solve them. Strongly agree [   ] agree [   ] uncertain [   ] disagree [   ] strongly disagree [   ]

8. To what extent do you approve the use of police and other forces in dealing with students-management conflicts? To a very high extent [   ] to a high extent [   ] to some extent [   ] to a small extent [   ] to a very small extent [   ] to no extent [   ]

9. Please, give a reason for your response ………………………………………………….

H. Controlling Students-Management Conflicts in the University Organization

1. Which of the following in your conviction, could help to control conflicts between students and management of the University? Rank from highly effective, effective, moderately effective, less effective and not effective using **5, 4, 3, 2 and 1** respectively

S/N		✔ Those applicable	Rank in terms of effectiveness				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.	Enhancing communication at all levels of the University, especially between students and management						
2.	Involvement of students in decision making						
3.	Improving students-management dialogues						
4.	Setting and ensuring effective functioning welfare and counseling committee/units						
5.	Provision of adequate infrastructure						
6.	Providing effective institutional leadership						
7	Teaching of courses on peace, conflict management and resolution						
8.	Stamping out occultism in schools						

3. Enrollment into the University should be reduced to match with existing infrastructure.

Strongly recommended [   ] recommended [   ] somehow recommended [   ] not really recommended [   ] not recommended at all [   ]

4. Occultism in the University could be stamped out completely. Highly possible [   ] possible [   ] may be possible [   ] not really possible [   ] not possible at all [   ]

5. Please, do you have any additional comment(s) that would be useful to the research?..……

THANK YOU

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APPENDIX B

Interview Guide for All Respondents (Past Student Leaders and Teaching/Non-Teaching Staff in Leadership Positions during the Study Period with Knowledge in Specific Conflict Cases)

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this interview guide is to collect data to address the research topic **"An Assessment of the Strategies used in Handling Students-Management Conflicts in Tertiary Institutions in Ghana: A Case Study of the University for Development Studies from 1999 to 2009".** The research is in partial fulfillment of academic work leading to the award of **a Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Social Administration**. Data collected with this interview guide will be objectively analyzed and handled with maximum confidentiality. For ethical reasons, would you be happy to answer my questions? Yes [   ] No [   ]. Please, note that you can choose to change you stance in answering my questions at any point in time.

A. Respondent's Background Information

1. I am/was: **(A)** a member of university management [   ] **(B)** a student leader [   ] other, please specify …………………………………………………………………………………………

2. Sex: Male   [ ]   Female   [ ]

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3. Age ………………………

4. Highest Qualification

A. Diploma [　] B. 1st Degree [　] C. 2nd Degree [　] D. PhD. [　] E. Other (Please, specify)

…...

5. Area of Academic Specialty (e.g. Management, Economics, etc.)……………………

6. Do you have any training in the handling of conflicts? Yes [　] No [　]

7. How many years have you been/were you with the University? .... Year of entry……… and year of exit …………../up to date

8. Position(s) held in the University

Position(s) held	Duration in year(s)/Month(s)	From……….to………

B. General Theoretical and Conceptual Questions

1. How would you describe students and management relations in the university from 1999 to 2009?

2. Describe the general disciplinary situation among students and management in the university?

3. How would you describe managements' regard for and use of power and authority in the university in their relationship with students?

4. Would you say there was class structural gap created between students and management and for that matter some inherent inequalities between them, particularly on power and authority lines?

5. What was the leadership style of management and how did that influence the conflicts?

6. To what extend were students represented and involved in decision making of the university and how did that influence management decisions in favour of students?

7. Describe the behavior of students as you observed during the conflict(s) period

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C. The Nature of Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. In your opinion, would you say that the level of conflicts between students and management of the university from 1999 to 2009 was very high and very worrying? Please, specify the number of conflicts by year and nature,

2. Which year's conflict(s) did you witness?

3. How would you describe the nature of such conflict(s) occurring between students and management of the university as you witnessed?

4. Would you say the intensity and visibility of the conflict(s) were influenced by campus and programme specific conditions?

5. What was the scope of the conflict(s) and why?

D. Causes of Students-Management Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. What would you say was/were responsible for conflict(s) between student and management of the university that you witnessed?

2. Could this have been avoided?

3. If yes, how?

4. If no, why?

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5. How proactive was management to students concerns and early conflict warning signs and why?

6. At what pace did management of the university respond to student's demands?

E. Consequences of Students-Management Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. What would you say was/were the negative effects of the students-management conflicts you witnessed in the university?

2. Of the conflicts witnessed, who among the following stakeholders (students, management, parents, the university as an organization and its entire community and vendors in the university), would you say suffered the most from the negative consequences thereof and how?

3. What would you say was/were positive outcome(s) of the students-management conflicts you witnessed?

4. From the foregoing, would you say the conflicts must be avoided at all cost? Why?

F. Handling of Students-Management Conflicts in the University from 1999 to 2009

1. What is your understanding of conflict management?

2. What is your understanding of success in conflict management?

3. Was/were the conflicts you witnessed analyzed before solutions sought?

4. Describe the strategies that were used by the university in handling the conflicts between students and management that you witnessed

5. Why were such strategies were used?

6. Why did the Ministry of Education and National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) intervene in the instance of the 2008/2009 academic year's students' conflicts with Management on the Wa Campus?

7. Aside the Ministry of Education and National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE), mention other third parties who intervened in the conflicts you witnessed and why?

8. How objective and neutral were the actions of third parties and how did their intervention affect the conflict outcomes?

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G. Effectiveness of Conflicts Management Strategies

1. Explain what you understand by effective conflict management

2. Which of the strategies used by the university in handling students-management conflicts as you witnessed would you say were effective in dealing with the conflicts?

3. In your overall assessment, how would you rate the strategies that were used by the University in handling the conflict in terms of their effectiveness?

4. Would you say the university effectively managed the conflicts?

5. If yes, how?

6. If no, why?

7. What lesson(s) do you think the University leant from handling the conflict(s)?

8. How did management of these conflicts bring about positive changes in leadership, organizational culture, and the design of the University?

H. Controlling Students-Management Conflicts in the University Organization

1. In your opinion, what do you think could be done to control students-management conflicts in the University?

2. Please, do you have any additional comment(s) that would be useful to the research?