CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION
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The day to day administration and management of the school is the sole responsibility of the principals together with the subordinates who may or may not have much influence on his decision making process but are affected from time to time by such decisions. (Adeyemi, 2009) No two individuals are likely to behave in the same manner in a particular work situation. Managers under whom an individual is working should be able to explain, predict, evaluate and modify human behavior that will largely depend upon knowledge, skill and experience of the manager in handling large group of people in diverse situations.

Conflict in schools takes different forms, for example teachers seem reluctant to obey the principals, they do not seem to follow rules or accept extra work and they do not easily get along with their principals. Principals too adopt an authoritative approach, for example they pressurize teachers for an uninterrupted working of the school activities. It therefore become common that conflict between teachers and the school principal occur frequently at any time in the school. (Gebretensay, 2002)

When two or more persons work together or live together, there is every possibility of the generation of conflict owing to difference of opinion, clash of interest or even misunderstanding. But the existence of conflict should not cause alarm; it is the sign, more often, of close relationship between the persons working in the institution. Zero conflict is indicative of absence of relationship among people comprising institutions.

No institution is free of conflicts. Nor should they be. In fact, it is hard to conceive of any vital, responsive institution in a dynamic society which is conflict less. Conflict is after all, as natural as harmony and it is difficult to envision the attainment of positive social goals and even many personal ones without it.

When conflict arises within the institutions, it affects the work efficiency of the principals and of the staff, because they are different psychologically, which comes in the way of fulfilling their range of responsibility. It has to be understood as an indispensable component of behavior, one should not, be afraid of it. Normal conflicts exist at every level in the institution. When this level of conflicts starts moving up, efforts are made to contain at least it reaches the highest level.
1.1-CONFLICT

Conflict is defined as an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement or dissonance between social entities and individuals or groups. (Pondy, 1967) Conflict in organizations occurs when organizational members engage in activities or hold attitudes that are incompatible with those of colleagues or outsiders who utilize the services or products of the organization. (Rahim, 2001) Conflict influences relationships between organizational functions and organizational effectiveness. (Ruekert & Walker, 1987; Shani & James, 2000; Dawis & Graham, 2005; 2006)

Conflict in the organizational environment is inevitable and ongoing. Conflict management is a basic dimension of team effectiveness. Managers spend at least 20% of their working time in managing conflicts (Thomas & Schmidt, 1976). When a team feels that its interests are threatened, communication difficulties arise that lead to high intensity conflicts. If conflict is not dealt with effectively the consequences for organizations are negative (Barclay, 1991; Jarowski & Kohli, 1997). In particular, unmanaged conflict has adverse effects on the problem-solving process in organizations (Nicotera, 1995; Jehn, 1995; 1997). Further more, unmanaged organizational conflict is related to job dissatisfaction among the organizational members involved. (Menon et. al, 1997)

Conflict in organizations can be classified as intra-organizational conflict (i.e., conflict within the boundaries of the organization) and inter-organizational conflict (i.e., conflict between two or more organizations). Intra-organizational conflict may also be classified on the basis of the level (i.e., individual or group) at which it occurs. Hence, intra-organizational conflict may be classified as inter-personal, intra-group and inter-group. (Rahim et. al, 2000)

Conflicts do not have unique sources in a single specified area. As a result, definitions are given according to the contents of the conflict as well as to the various shapes and forms that they take. The research on conflicts should take into consideration the whole width of the conflict, including the types, dimensions and aspects of the conflict. (Wall & Callister, 1995; Nauta & Sanders, 2000; Polychronious, 2005)
Coser (1956) identifies the basis and outcomes of conflict as a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals.

According to Dutch (1973) conflict exists when incompatible activities occur. When one-activity blocks, interferes with, injures or in same way makes a second activity less likely or effective.

Hanson (1991) conflict as a concept never remains positive or negative but it has always been seen as a basic and result oriented part of school life.

According to Encyclopedic Dictionary of Psychology (1992) “conflict is the result of opposed motives applying simultaneously. Most conflicts, for example, between the desire to stay or finish an essay versus the duty of going out with friends, are easy to resolve. Some are much more difficult and result in ability to act and the abandoning of both objectives. Different conflicts of various kinds have been studied experimentally, often with rats. Approach– avoidance conflicts in which a goal is both desired and feared are the most common, and readily result in action. Avoidance-avoidance conflicts can easily occur and are very stressful if a choice has to be made. Usually of less concern are approach-approach conflicts when going towards one desired goal means leaving another.”

According to Newstorm and Kevin (1998) conflict is any situation in which two or more parties feel themselves in opposition. Conflict is an interpersonal process that arises from disagreements over the goals to attain or the methods to be use to accomplish those goals.

The new Encyclopedic Britannica (2003) defines conflict, as the arousal of two or more strong motives that cannot be solved together. Psychologically, a conflict exists when the reduction of one motivating stimulus involves an increase in another, so that a new adjustment is demanded.

**Ingredients of conflict**

According to Dudley (1992) followings are the ingredients of conflict

- Needs: Needs are things that are essential to our well being. Conflicts arise when we ignore other’s needs, our own needs or the group’s needs. Be careful not to confuse needs with desires (things we would like but are not essentials).
Perceptions: - People interpret reality differently. They perceive differences in the severity, causes and consequences of problems. Misperceptions or differing perceptions may come from self-perceptions, other’s perceptions, differing perceptions of situations and perceptions of threat.

Power: - How people define and use power is an important influence on the number and types of conflicts that occur. This also influences how conflict is managed. Conflicts can arise when people try to make others change their actions or to gain an unfair advantage.

Values: - Values are beliefs or principles that we consider to be very important. Serious conflict arise are not clear. Conflicts also arise when one party refuses to accept the fact that the other party holds something as a value rather than a preference.

Feelings and emotions: - Many people let their feelings and emotions become a major influence over how they deal with conflict. Conflict can also occur because people ignore their own or others feelings and emotions. Other conflicts occur when feelings and emotions differ over a particular issue.

Nature of conflict

Conflict is inevitable. It develops because of our dealings with people’s lives, jobs, prides, self-concept ego and a sense of mission or purpose. Is conflict good or bad? Conflict is found to be functional on some occasions and dysfunctional on other occasions. Functional conflicts are very practical in the promotion of efficiency and development of cohesiveness in the organization. While dysfunctional conflicts may have negative impact on the functioning of the organization. (Newstorm and Kevin 1998)

Conflict is Destructive when it

- Destroys morals
- Diverts person’s energy form original task
- Separates individuals and groups
- Deepens the differences
- Obstructs cooperative actions
• Produces irresponsible behaviors
• Creates suspicion and distrust
• Reduces productivity

Destructive conflict exists when
• There is threat to the whole group
• The goals of the group are being threatened by the conflict
• A member cannot be protected if he/she is attacked persistently
• Conflict continues too for a long time there by consuming too much energy

Conflict is Constructive when it
• Opens an issue in a confronting manner
• Develops clarification of an issue
• Improves quality of problem solving
• Increases involvement
• Develops spontaneity in communication
• Initiates growth
• Increases productivity

If managed effectively, conflicts are proved to be healthy. Healthy conflict can help a person to.
• Grow and innovate
• Develop new ways of thinking
• Provide additional management options
• Develop positive changes

Conflict can benefit to the organization by
• Redefining a group’s organization’s mission
• Reviewing the group norms and
• Testing the limits and boundaries of policy or rules

(Coser 1956)
Causes of conflict

A conflict arises under two situations. One, it occurs when there is an urge to fulfill the two equally important objectives, drives, value tendencies and impulses. Second, conflict arises when two different goals are set to fulfill a single need. Conflict can occur anytime and anywhere may be at home, at work, or when you as socializing eg. Two students in a classroom may fight as they want to play same role in a play for the school day celebration. The other causes of conflicts are. (Heidi Cardenas 2009)

- Lack of proper communication
- Personality difference
- Poor quality in performance
- Lack of cooperation
- Differences regarding authority
- Differences regarding responsibility

Sources of Conflict

The possible sources of conflict are poor communication, competition for common but scarce resources, incompatible goals and the like. Fisher (1997) notes, “both individuals and groups have undeniable needs for identity, dignity, security, equity, participation in decisions that affect them. Frustration of these basic needs becomes a source of social conflict”. According to Plunkett and Attner (1989), the sources of conflict include; shared resources, differences in goals, difference in perceptions and values, disagreements in the role requirements, nature of work activities, individual approaches and the stage of organizational development.

Gray and Stark (1984) suggested that there are six sources of conflict. These are: 1) Limited resources, 2) Interdependent work activities, 3) Differentiation of activities, 4) Communication problems, 5) Differences in perceptions and 6) Environment of the organization. According to these writers, conflict can also arise from a number of other sources, such as: 1) Individual differences (some people enjoy conflict while others don't), 2) Unclear authority structures (people don't know how far their authority extends), 3) Differences in attitudes, 4) Task symmetries (one group is more powerful than another and the weaker group tries to change the situation) and...
5) Difference in time horizons. (some departments have a long-run view and others have a short-run view)

Campbell, et.al (1983) identified a list of sources of conflict. These are; control over resources, preferences and nuisances, values, beliefs and the nature of relationships between the parties.

Process of conflict

Psychologists have attempted to identify the process of conflict in an organization on the course of its development. Robbins (1989) sees the conflict process as comprising four stages:-

a) Potential opposition: conflict may start from any three major sources such as (1) Lack of proper communication, (2) Role of ambiguity, (3) Personality and volume differences.

b) Cognition and personalization: here one or more parties become aware of the developing conflict and feel the tension.

c) Behavior: conflict becomes overt involving interference and even direct aggression, violent and intense struggle.

d) Outcomes: conflict may have functional outcomes like improvement and innovation in the group performance or it may have dysfunctional outcomes such as reduction in the group effectiveness.

1.2- CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

Conflict resolution in an organization, does not necessarily refer to strategies that avoid, diminish or erase conflict. On the contrary it involves designing effective strategies aiming at minimizing the dysfunctional elements of conflict and the parallel enforcement of the functional elements of conflict. (Menon et. al, 1997)

Blake & Mouton (1964) were the first authors to develop a conceptual scheme for classifying the styles for handling intra-organizational conflict. The pivotal notion in their model was the extent to which the manager is concerned for production or for people. Their idea was further developed by Thomas (1976) who placed emphasis on the intentions of the party, namely cooperativeness (i.e., attempting to satisfy the other party's concerns) and assertiveness (i.e., attempting to satisfy one's own concerns)
Blake and Mouton (1964) have outlined five possible mechanisms of resolving conflicts: (a) withdrawal (b) smoothing (c) forcing (d) win-lose, power struggle and (e) confrontation. They favor confrontation, made for promoting conducing and healthy interpersonal relations in the organization.

Thomas and Schmidt (1977) discovered that out of the five conflict management styles, collaborating (high on both dimensions) involved the most cognitive ability in order to formulate superordinate goals and derive creative solutions. The traits associated with collaborating are very similar to those possessed by persons with higher emotional intelligence.

Mohur and Sayeed (1980) found dominance of toning down or smoothing strategies over others. In their finding, confrontation strategy occupied second place, followed by compromise, observing rules, accommodating, forcing and avoiding.

Rahim (1983) built on that earlier seminal work and considered conflict-handling styles on two dimensions, which represent motivational orientations of individuals in conflict situations: concern for self and concern for others. The former dimension refers to the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns in conflict resolution. The latter dimension refers to the degree (high or low) to which a person desires to satisfy the concerns of others. Empirical research has yielded general support for these dimensions. (Ruble & Thomas, 1976; Van de Vijver & Kabanoff, 1990)

Conflict resolution strategies refer to understanding and dealing with conflict in such a manner that it serves a function rather than a dysfunctional purpose. It is essential from the point of view of organizational health and effectiveness. Conflict are by and large (not essentially) dysfunctional. It is also known, that ineffective management of conflict such as “hard nosed” policy of punishments worsens the situations in most cases. On the other hand as revealed by many management specialists, effective management of conflict leads to outcomes that are productive and can enhance the health of the organization. Hence finding solution to them is the only path to follow.

Chanin and Schnee (1984) identified a key component of conflict management as the ability to effectively assess the situation and translate the most optimal solution to the opposing party.
Hocker and Wilmot (1985) initially discuss conflict management styles in terms of assumptions. Their assumptions are:

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

Sharma (1988) thinks that conflicts can be best managed when the members either collaborate or adopt the problem solving approach, instead of controlling conflicts forcing or denying them altogether.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) showed that the skills involved in effective conflict management are innate for someone with a higher emotional intelligence. Such persons are better able to regulate feelings of frustration or helplessness when a challenging task was encountered so that those feelings do not interfere with their performance, enabling them to more effectively ward off the detrimental emotional effects of the difficulties and persist at the task.

According to Wheeler (1995) “In every situation we are responsible for our actions. Conflict situation offer each of us an opportunity to choose a style for responding to conflict. The key to effective conflict prevention and management is to choose the conflict management style appropriately for the conflict. Most of us have a favorite style that we use in conflict situations. But we are all capable of choosing a different style when it is appropriate.”

Johnson and Johnson (1996) hold that Conflict resolution and peer mediation programs are often promoted as a way to reduce violence (and destructively managed conflicts) in schools.

Sweeney and Caruthers (1996) define conflict resolution in a most general and concise way, “the process used by parties in conflict to reach a settlement”.

Moran (2001) sees conflict management as “a philosophy and a set of skills that assist individuals and groups in better understanding and dealing with conflict as it arises in all aspects of their lives”.

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According to Rahim (2002) management of organizational conflict involves diagnosis and intervention. Proper diagnosis should measure the amount of conflict styles of handling interpersonal conflicts, sources of conflicts, organizational learning and effectiveness. Intervention is needed if there is too much affective conflict or too much substantive conflict for routine tasks or too much or too little substantive conflict for non routine tasks.

According to Falikowski (2002) the conflict management styles includes the competing shark who are highly goal-oriented, who take relationship on a lower priority and can be autocratic, uncooperative, threatening and intimidating; the avoiding turtle who adopt an avoiding or withdrawing conflict management style, who would rather hide and ignore conflicts than resolve it, leading them uncooperative and unassertive; accommodating teddy bear who use a smoothing or accommodating conflict management style with emphasis on human relationships, ignore their own goals and resolve conflicts by giving into others; the compromising fox who use a compromising conflict management style, are willing to sacrifice some of their goals while persuading others to give up part of theirs; the collaborating owl who use a collaborating or problem confronting conflict management style, valuing their goals and relationships.

According to Thomas and Kilmann (2002) assertiveness and cooperativeness are the most basic dimensions for describing the choices in a conflict situation. They form the two-dimensional space in which we can locate conflict handling behavior. Assertiveness and cooperativeness are separate, independent dimensions. They are not opposites of each other. Assertiveness is the degree to which a person tries to satisfy his own concerns. Assertiveness might mean trying to meet one’s needs or get support for his ideas. Cooperativeness is the degree to which a person tries to satisfy other person’s concerns. It might mean helping the other person meet his or her needs or being receptive to the other person’s ideas. The conflict handling modes from the four corners and the centre of the two dimensional space of assertiveness and cooperativeness. They represent the five major combinations of assertiveness and cooperativeness that are possible in a conflict situation.
(Fig. 1.1) Two dimensional model of five conflicts management styles. (Thomas & Kilmann 1976)

Competing is assertive and uncooperative. A person with competing style of conflict management tries to satisfy his own concerns at the other person’s expense.

Collaborating is both assertive and cooperative, whereby a person tries to find a win-win solution that completely satisfies both people’s concerns.

Compromising is intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness. A person with this style of conflict management tries to find an acceptable settlement that only partially satisfies both people’s concerns.

Avoiding is both unassertive and uncooperative and a person who uses this conflict management style sidesteps the conflict without trying to satisfy either person’s concern.

Accommodating is unassertive and cooperative and such a person attempts to satisfy the other person’s concerns at the expense of his own.
In the 1970s Kenneth Thomas and Ralph Kilmann identified five main styles of dealing with conflict that vary in their degrees of cooperativeness and assertiveness. They argued that people typically have a preferred conflict resolution style. However they also noted that different styles were most useful in different situations. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) helps you to identify which style you tend towards when conflict arises. Thomas and Kilmann's (1970) styles are:

**Competitive:** People who tend towards a competitive style take a firm stand, and know what they want. They usually operate from a position of power, drawn from things like position, rank, expertise or persuasive ability. This style can be useful when there is an emergency and a decision needs to be make fast; when the decision is unpopular or when defending against someone who is trying to exploit the situation selfishly. However it can leave people feeling bruised, unsatisfied and resentful when used in less urgent situations.

**Collaborative:** People tending towards a collaborative style try to meet the needs of all people involved. These people can be highly assertive but unlike the competitor, they cooperate effectively and acknowledge that everyone is important. This style is useful when you need to bring together a variety of viewpoints to get the best solution; when there have been previous conflicts in the group or when the situation is too important for a simple trade-off.

**Compromising:** People who prefer a compromising style try to find a solution that will at least partially satisfy everyone. Everyone is expected to give up something and the compromiser himself or herself also expects to relinquish something. Compromise is useful when the cost of conflict is higher than the cost of losing ground, when equal strength opponents are at a standstill and when there is a deadline looming.

**Accommodating:** This style indicates a willingness to meet the needs of others at the expense of the person’s own needs. The accommodator often knows when to give in to others, but can be persuaded to surrender a position even when it is not warranted. This person is not assertive but is highly cooperative. Accommodation is appropriate when the issues matter more to the other party, when peace is more valuable than winning, or when you want to be in a position to collect on this “favor”
you gave. However people may not return favors and overall this approach is unlikely to give the best outcomes.

Avoiding: People tending towards this style seek to evade the conflict entirely. This style is typified by delegating controversial decisions, accepting default decisions and not wanting to hurt anyone’s feelings. It can be appropriate when victory is impossible, when the controversy is trivial or when someone else is in a better position to solve the problem. However in many situations this is a weak and ineffective approach to take.

Harper (2004) management of conflict is a human relations concept long recognized in business and industry as a necessary component of the developmental process.

Salami (2009) recommended that counselors and psychologists should develop programs to foster conflict resolution for both subordinates and superiors in order to improve performance in organizations.

Many writers have suggested different strategies to reduce the conflict within and among groups and there is considerable similarity in their formulations. Further they have emphasized that the approaches are not mutually exclusive and when considered over time. More than one approach may be employed for given conflict episode.

**Rules for effective conflict resolution**

It is a tedious task to resolve conflicts. Literature on conflict management has provides the following ground rules for the conflict resolution.

1. Keeping interactions respectful, even when feeling frustrated or hurt. Avoiding put downs name calling interceptions etc. helps prevent conflict escalation.

2. Maintaining emotional control, even when feeling angry vent or redirect emotions to avoid yelling or other intimidating behavior. This helps provide a safe environment for resolving differences.

3. Keeping interactions on “hot topics” within a structured process. Avoiding or minimizing spontaneous discussions on such issues helps prevent unintended “blowups.” Using a planned negotiation, mediation or other formalized
process helps focus and balance communications about especially delicate issues.

4. Showing a willingness to understand. If others feel understood and acknowledged, they are more likely to collaborate when problem solving. This requires focusing on and empathizing with what is being communicated by others rather just waiting for a turn to respond.

5. Communicating honestly and openly. Holding back on what the real concerns are only delay or complicate the resolution of differences.

6. Being as objective as possible. Avoid speculation, rumors and assumptions. Rely on personal observations and experiences or what can be independently verified through a credible witness or available documentation.

7. Expressing concerns is a constructive manner. Each party describing which of his/her needs are not being met is typically better received by others than accusations or demands for change.

8. Focusing on future solutions rather than past blame. Emphasizing what needs to be changed rather than who is at fault takes less time and energy and increases the chances of successful change.

9. Looking for solutions that meet everyone’s needs. Using an approach that tries to find common ground or shared interests is the most effective way for each persons to get his/her own needs met. An approach that disregards a person’s needs is likely to cause resentment in that individual, which can lead to future resistance or retaliation.

Eisayed-Ekhouly (1996) in his work provided the various characteristics of each of the conflict resolution styles which are as follows:

1- Avoiding. In this strategy there is low concern for self and low concern for others that means unassertive and uncooperative personality. In this strategy main concern is to withdraw from the conflict or we can say that conflict remains unresolved. It deals with lose-lose outcome, because both parties refrain from communicating their needs, so neither has any needs met.

2- Competing. In this strategy there is high concern for self and low concern for others, that means assertive and uncooperative personality. It deals with win-lose
outcome. It’s a power-oriented mode, in which one uses whatever powers seem appropriate to win one’s position, including the ability to argue, one’s rank, one’s economic sanctions or forcing behavior if necessary. In this style a desire to satisfy one’s interests, regardless of the impact on the other party to the conflict.

3- Accommodating. In accommodating there is low concern for self and high concern for others that means unassertive and cooperative personality. Its self—sacrifice style, we can say sacrifice of self-interests to satisfy the needs of others. In accommodating style, individuals seek consent and approval and are eager to be helpful and supportive of others. It deals with lose-win outcome.

4- Compromising. In this strategy there is moderate concern for both self and others. It is a midpoint between cooperativeness and assertiveness. In this style both parties give up something to reach a mutually acceptable solution which prevents them from meeting all of their needs. It deals with no-win/no-lose outcome. It is associated with give-and-take or sharing the search for a middle-ground solution.

5- Collaborating. In this strategy there is high concern for self and high concern for others, it means assertive and cooperative personality. In this strategy individuals show openness to each other and exchange information. It deals with win-win outcome.

Fisher and William (1981) proposed a model for conflict management that can work for any conflict whether between faculty and student, faculty and faculty, faculty and administrator or even faculty and partner. The three parts of the model are: -

(1) Identification of the conflict
(2) Identification of solutions
(3) Implementation of solutions

All these steps are necessary in order to manage the conflict well.

(1) Identification of the conflict:- Its a six step phase, in which it is important to identify the parties involved as well as all who are not, that means, who is involved? Secondly at this phase identify that what is conflict? And then when did it happen? Try to identify its genesis and also determine whether it is an ongoing or cyclical conflict. At the forth phase it is important to know, where did it happen? And after
that resolution Attempts, whether resolution has already been attempted and if so, the outcomes. And at last consequences of the Conflict? What will happen if the conflict is not resolved and what will happen if it is?

2. Identification of solutions:- It starts work when information about the conflict has been gathered. Firstly it is very necessary to develop a positive attitude and establish ground rules, means place of meeting, in communication every one will use “I” Statement and the membership of the group. Which should not change and next step is to identify the interests of the both parties. There is never only one answer to a problem, so develop alternatives. It is also helpful to identify ways that similar issues have been managed by other, what have other faculty done? After these steps then identify criteria. It is necessary to identify appropriate criteria and use them to determine the best solution. It is important to determine whether that solutions are, in fact felt to be the best by all parties.

(3) The implementation phase: - Develop a plan of action, as specific as possible, must include the following. In extreme cases, it may be appropriate to write up the plan of action and have it signed by the parties. In this plan there are some questions arises, who is going to be involved in the implementation of the solutions? What exactly is to be done? When will the parties act? Who is responsible for mediating any differences between the parties? So lastly determine how to handle conflict in the future. So it should be necessary to knows how to identify, diagnose and manage the conflict.

Darling and Fogliasso (1999) presented a model of conflict management that encompasses three basic steps- preliminary, resolution and maintenance. Preliminary steps begin with powerbase development, relational acceptance and meaningful communication. Resolution steps include assumption analysis, objective identification and alternative selection. Maintenance steps deal with action agreement, feedback review and continuing oversight. Effective use of this model allows managers to deal with conflict in organizations in a constructive and creative way.

To manage conflicts properly, behavior style model can also be the answer (Darling and Walker 2001). According to this model, the most productive interpersonal relationships and communications occur when two styles become complementary - each individual’s strengths compensating for the weaknesses of the
other. Hence, in addition to understand one’s own behavior and the behavior of others in the organization one must try to adopt the skills of ‘Style Flex’ that enable people to function in comfort zone fitting with the situation.

There are many other modes of conflict resolution suggested by different researchers and authors. Some of them have been stated as under:

The 1974 Annual Hand Book of group facilitators classified the following strategies:

1. Avoidance
2. Diffusion
3. Confrontation
4. Initiation

Robbins (1974) Managing organizational conflict gave the following conflict resolution methods: 

1. Bringing in outsiders
2. Restricting the organization
3. Encouraging competition
4. Selecting appropriate managers
5. Compromise

Hence it can be summed that for conflict management to be employed, the modes can be:

1. Forestalling sidestepping
2. Generating conflict
3. Use of court means
4. Emergent agreement
5. Direct negotiations
6. Indirect or procedural means
7. Exercise of authority/power
Awareness about conflict resolution strategies is essential in order to utilize them for handling conflict in the schools. There is still, however, a long way to go before conflict resolution is managed constructively in every classroom and school. Conflict free atmosphere is conducive to constructive and creative work. Sincere efforts should be made by school managements to resolve tensions and cultivate an atmosphere of mutual acceptance, tolerance, accommodation and understanding.

1.3- EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Numerous studies have identified emotional intelligence as critical psychological factors in the behavior of individual workers in organization. Although the construction of emotional intelligence is relatively new; it has enjoyed unprecedented attention from scholars. One of the rapid growing areas of interest with regard to emotional intelligence is its role in the workplace. Traditionally the workplace has been considered to be a cold and rational environment, a place where there is no room for the experience or expression of emotions and in fact researchers fostered the belief that emotion is the antithesis of rationality (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Ashkanasy, Zerbe and Hartel, 2002). However, this view has begun to be challenged, with the recognition that individual bring their affective states, traits and emotions to the workplace. Emotions are an integral and inseparable part of everyday organizational life. The experience of work is saturated with emotions, from moments of fear, joy, frustration or grief to an enduring sense of commitment or dissatisfaction (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995). Emotions and the study of emotional intelligence have been studied and researched primarily in the business sector; while school climate research has primarily been in the area of student achievement. The study of emotions and the extent to which leaders’ are aware of their own emotional intelligence, has caused some researchers to believe that one’s EI is more important in determining job success than one’s IQ.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a type of intelligence that differs from Intelligence Quotient (IQ). While IQ tests are important in the areas of mathematical, verbal and comprehension abilities, EI skills are those related to empathy, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation and social skills (Weymes, 2003). Intelligence represents the abilities to carry out abstract thought, to solve problems and to adapt to the environment. This ability to adapt is represented by a commonality referred to as a g. A g is the abbreviation for the general intelligence factor and is a widely used
construct in psychology. It helps quantify scores of intelligence tests. Spearman
(1927) theorized that two factors can help to explain intelligence tests. The first is the
factor specific to an individual mental task making a person more skilled at one task
than another. The second factor is a general factor that governs performance on all
cognitive tasks.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a term that was first conceptualized by
Thorndike (1920) when he used the term social intelligence. Law, Wong and Song
(2004) describe EI as studied primarily in the social sciences. They also point out that
Thorndike (1920) used the definition of social intelligence to describe a person who
has the ability to “understand and manage men and women, boys and girls and to act
wisely in human relations” Mayer et al. (2004) confirm the history of EI as being
seated in the social/psychological sciences. They describe the term emotional
intelligence as being used in the 1960’s and again in a dissertation by Payne (1986).
Gardner (1983) states that there are multiple specific intelligences, called “hot
intelligences” that are characterized as social, practical, personal and emotional. He
proposed that there are seven areas of intelligence one of which is interpersonal
intelligence. It was in 1990 that EI was further developed into a theory, definition and
(2004) describe the “political turmoil” of the 1960’s as being a cultural influence for
the interest and research of EI from a social context. Gardner (1993) also used EI
theory to describe one area of his theory of multiple intelligence. He states that
interpersonal intelligence is the ability to “notice and make distinctions among other
individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and
intentions”. This definition can be applied to the inter and intra- personal intelligence
of people “EI operates on emotional information”. (Law et al., 2004; Mayer et al.,
2004)

Definitions of emotional intelligence have been chronologically presented in
the following section.

Goleman (1988) has outlined the distinctions between emotional intelligence
and emotional Competence. Emotional competence refers to the personal and social
skills that lead to superior performance in the world of work; the emotional
competencies are based on Emotional intelligence. A certain level of Emotional
Intelligence is necessary to learn the emotional competencies.
Salovey and Mayer (1990) coined the term emotional intelligence and described it as a form of social intelligence that involves the capacity for recognizing our own feeling and those of others, for motivating ourselves and in our relationship.

According to Goleman, (1990) IQ accounts for only about 20% of a person’s success in life, balance can be attributed to emotional intelligence or EQ.

![Fig. 1.2 Components of Success](image)

Cooper (1993) thinks "Without Emotional intelligence in medium to long term, you will be less balanced in personal life and make lots of enemies.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) developed a scientific measure for knowing the differences in people's ability in areas of emotion. They later specified group of competencies, which are:

1. The ability to perceive and express emotion accurately.
2. The ability to access and evoke emotion.
3. The ability to comprehend emotional information.
4. The ability to regulate one's own emotion.

According to Goleman (1995) "Emotional Intelligence is the ability which includes self-control, zeal, persistence and the ability to motivate oneself."

Mayer and Salovey (1997) explored the two components, "Emotional" and "Intelligence" for understanding the concept of emotional intelligence. In the
eighteenth century, psychologist recognized an influential three-part division of mind into cognition (thought), affect (emotion) and conation (motivation). Intelligence is characterized by how well the cognitive sphere functions. Emotions belong the affective sphere of mental functioning. Definition of EI connects emotions with intelligence, as emotions make thinking more intelligent and that one thinks intelligently emotions.

Bar-on (1997) “Emotional intelligence reflects one’s ability to deal with daily environment challenges and helps predict one’s success in life, including professional and personal pursuits”.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) state that Emotional intelligence is a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.

Goleman (1998) Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

According to Bar-on (1999) Emotional intelligence is defined as the “ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions”.

Caudron (1999) Emotional intelligence is a person’s ability to manage and monitor his/her emotions, to correctly gauge the emotional state of others and to influence opinions.

Cooper (2000) Emotional intelligence is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, creativity, connection and influence.

Stein and Book (2001) defined emotional intelligence as set of skills that enables us to make our ways in complex world—the personal, social and survival aspect of overall intelligence, elusive common sense and sensitivity that are essential to affective daily functioning.

In the words of Bar-on (2002) "Emotional Intelligence is an array of non-cognitive, capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures."
Kapadia (2003) has attempted to describe Emotional Intelligence from Vedic Psychology point of view, according to her it can be described as transformation of mind, body and spirit to realize one’s true potential and is a pre-requisite of the well being of the universe. EI is the science that connects us on one side to our own higher self and on the other the larger consciousness. It illuminates the unused potential of our brain and releases creativity. EI begins with self knowledge leading to self realization to self actualization. EI awakens the inner knowledge, wisdom of the heart thus enabling us to become better and emotionally mature human beings.

According to Dunn (2003) components of emotional intelligence, which can be regarded as a key to successful life, are self-awareness and self-honesty, knowledge about causes of emotions, empathy, motivation and good decision-making, ability to analyze and understand relationships, intuitiveness, creative and flexible thinking, integrated self and balanced life.

Singh (2003) has proposed an operational definition of Emotional Intelligence in the Indian Context. According to him, emotional intelligence is the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions- Emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity, which motivate individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behavior.

![Figure 1.3 Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence](image_url)
David (2004) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to accurately identify emotions, use emotions to help, what you think, understand, which causes emotion and manage to stay open to these emotions in order to capture the wisdom of our feelings.

According to the National level Interactive workshop organized by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry in New Delhi in 2002 to discuss the “Emotional Intelligence at work.”

1. Emotional Competency constitute the capacity to tactfully respond to emotional stimuli elicited by various situations, having high self-esteem and optimism, communication, tackling emotional upsets such as frustration, conflicts and inferiority complexes, enjoying emotions, doing what succeeds, ability to relate to others, emotional self control, capacity to avoid emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout, leading to avoidance of negativity of emotions, handling egoism.

2. Emotional Maturity constitutes evaluating emotions of oneself and others, identifying and expression feelings, balancing state of heart and mind, adaptability and flexibility, appreciating others, delaying gratification of immediate psychological satisfaction.

3. Emotional Sensitivity constitutes understanding threshold of emotional arousal, managing the immediate environment, maintaining rapport, harmony and comfort with others, letting others feel comfortable in your company. It also involves being honest in inter-personal dealings, interpreting emotional clues truthfully, realizing communicability to emotions, moods and feelings and having insight into how others evaluate and relate it to you.

Dann (2003) had put fourth the historical perspective of emotional intelligence and it provides a summary view of development of EI movement. Table presents the diverse perspectives of various psychologists on emotional intelligence.
Table – 1.1 Historical perspective of EI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Originator</th>
<th>EI Related Concept</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Thorndike</td>
<td>Social Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Doll</td>
<td>Social competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>Wechsler</td>
<td>Non intellective Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>Leeper</td>
<td>Emotional thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>Leuner</td>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>Sifneos</td>
<td>Alexithymia’ (Cognitive affective deficits)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>Gardner</td>
<td>Multiple intelligence, Intra &amp; Inter personal intelligence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Bar-on</td>
<td>Emotional quotient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Saarni</td>
<td>Emotional competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Salovey&amp;Mayer</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Bogby&amp; Taylor</td>
<td>TAS (Toronto alexithymia scale)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Goleman</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Dulewicz &amp; Higgs</td>
<td>IQ, EQ, &amp; MQ,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Dann</td>
<td>Emotional fitness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Components of emotional intelligence

Emotional Intelligence comprises components like self awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relationships. Salovey and Mayer (1990)

1. Self Awareness: Observing own self and recognizing of feelings as it happens.
2. Managing emotions: Handling feelings, so that they are appropriate to realize what is behind a feeling, finding way to handle fears and anxieties, anger and sadness.
3. Motivating oneself: Channeling emotions in the service of a goal, emotional self controls, delaying gratification and stifling impulses.
4. Empathy: Sensitivity to others feelings and concerns and taking their perspective, appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.

5. Handling Relationship: Managing emotion in others, social competence and social skills.

Thus, it can be says, that emotionally intelligent persons are better able to distinguish between their emotional states and express their emotions effectively. They are also to cope up with set backs and difficulties effectively as compared to others who have limited repertoire for emotional responses.

Influence of Emotional intelligence:

“For star performance in all jobs, in every field, emotional competence is twice as important as purely cognitive abilities. For success at the highest levels, in leadership positions, emotional competence accounts for virtually the entire advantage.”

Goleman (1998)

Druker (2004) the management guru, feels that to succeed in the today’s (stressful) environment, one has to learn how to manage oneself, which is one of the essential ingredient for success. This calls for the ability to unlearn the old behavior and learn the new behavior according to the changed circumstances.

According to Goleman (1995) “Cognitive skill gets you in the door of a company, but emotional skill helps you thrive once you’re hired.” In the corporate world, IQ gets you hired but EQ gets you promoted. He emphasized that emotional intelligence is twice as important as IQ and technical skills. Higher up the organization you go, more important the emotional intelligence becomes. This shows that EI matters more for professional and personal success than IQ.

Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000) suggested that mastery of a “critical mass” of competencies is necessary for superior performance. Me lelland pointed out that critical mass of competencies above the “tipping point” i.e. the point at which strength in a competence makes a significant impact on performance, distinguishes top from average performers.

Hay/McBer (1999) has demonstrated that emotionally intelligent people can more effectively imbibe new cultures, its values and implement changes part that
lead to better results. EI with its emphasis on social awareness, emotions and social skills can greatly enhance an individual ability to work in group. The research findings and practical experience has proved that managers with high EI are more productive, generate more revenue, produce superior results and contribute towards wealth maximization. Besides this, emotional intelligence is the most crucial factor in selection, retention and motivation of the talented people.

**Nurturing emotional intelligence leverages success:**

“Emotional intelligence affects just about everything you do at work. Even when you work in a solitary setting, how well you work has a lot to do with how will you discipline and motivate yourself.”

Goleman (1998)

- Developing emotional intelligence enables to achieve better outcomes in leadership, management and supervision.
- EI improves productivity, communication, organizational climate, team work and health.
- The acquired proficiency in selected emotional intelligence competencies helps to achieve measurably improved performance.
- Developing EI raises individual strengths and areas for improvement.
- EI enables to align actions with personal and organizational core values.
- EI facilitates improving communication by using tools for more effective listening and speaking especially in difficult situations.
- EI enhances effectiveness in working with others and improves efficiency in decision making. It creates healthy climate and builds up the morale. EI encourages using one’s intuitive intelligence.

**Signs of High and Low EQ:**

Hein (1990) outlined the general characteristics of people with high and low EQ. A person with high Emotional Quotient expresses his feelings clearly and directly, he do not afraid to express his feelings, is not dominated by negative emotions such as fear, worry, guilt, shame, embarrassment, obligation, disappointment, hopelessness, powerlessness, dependency, victimization and
discouragement, is able to read non-verbal communication; lets his feelings guide him through life; balances feelings with reason, logic and reality; acts out of desire, not because of duty, guilt, force or obligation is intrinsically motivated; is not motivated by power, wealth, status, fame or approval; is emotionally resilient; is optimistic and does not internalize failure; is comfortable talking about his feelings and is able to identify multiple concurrent feelings.

A person with low emotional quotient doesn’t take responsibilities for his feelings, but blames you or others for them; attacks, blames, commands, criticizes; withholds information about or lies about his feelings (emotional dishonesty); exaggerates or minimizes his feelings; lets things build up or blow up or react strongly to something; lacks integrity and carries grudges; is unforgiving; acts out his feelings, rather than talking them out; has no empathy, no compassion; is rigid, inflexible, needs rules and structure to feel inadequate, disappointed, resentful, bitter or victimized; uses his intellect to judge and criticize others without realizing he is feeling superior, judge, mental critical and without awareness of how his actions impact others feelings; is a poor listener and misses the emotions being communicated and focuses on “facts” rather than feelings.

**Emotional intelligence can be learned**

“Like all learning, the development of emotional intelligence comes from building new patterns in the brain. These new patterns develop when we have experiences that we can link to background knowledge. The learning is integrated by experiencing cause and effect and through practice.”

Friedman (2004)

“IQ is relatively stable throughout life but much of emotional skill is learned.” Said Goleman. IQ is largely genetic. It is primarily fixed early in life and changes little from childhood. But the skills of emotional intelligence can be learned at any age. EI consists of a set of abilities that people can develop and improve upon with practice and commitment and increases with age.

According to Caruso and Wolfe (2004) EI refers to reading peoples’ emotions, a skill which can be improved. Behavioral theories suggest that modification of any behavior can be made. Operant conditioning theory proposes that a schedule of intervention is an effective way to achieve behavioral modification, individuals
emotional intelligence vulnerabilities can be improve by a systematic self regulated schedule of behavior modification with proper support and diligence.

**Emotional intelligence (EQ) increases with age:**

“This age-related confirms the common wisdom that ‘emotional maturity’ comes with age and experience.

Stein (2001)

The Bar-on test results from multi-health systems revealed that older you get, the more emotionally intelligent you become. A study of emotional intelligence was carried out throughout the United States and Canada by MHS on 3831 individuals. All participants were given the Bar-on Emotional Quotient inventory Tm. The normative results were analyzed and comparisons were made of people between the ages of 16-19, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50 and above. (Based on comparison to general population norms. 100 is average.)

Stein (2001) found that “There was a consistent and significant age effect. The total EQ score increased significantly with age, peaking in the late forties or early fifties. This finding is dramatic considering that cognitive intelligence (IQ) has been found to peak in the late teens, and level off until the late fifties. further, IQ scores tend to mildly decline later in life.”

The Bar-on EQ-1 finding can have important implications in the work place. The large pool of Bar-on EQ-1 data shows that people with high EQ scores enjoy success at work, regardless of gender.

Hence it can be said that emotional intelligence includes ability such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations to control impulse and delay gratification to regulate morals and keep distress from swamping the ability to think and to emphasize and hope. Keeping in view all these things, there is a great need of emotional literacy program in schools in the field of education. The administrators, the teachers and students are obliged to take the responsibility together in developing the emotional intelligence at a personal, group and organizational level.
1.4-ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

The term organizational climate was used for the first time by Cornell (1955) he defined organizational climates as “a delicate blending of interpretation or perception by persons in the organization of their jobs or roles in relationship to others and their interpretation of the roles of other in the organizations”.

The concept of organizational climate was formally introduced by the human relationists in the late 1940s. How it has become a very useful metaphor for thinking about describing the social system. Organizational climate is also referred to as the situational developments or environmental determinants which affect the human behavior. Some persons have used organizational culture and organizational climate interchangeably. But there are some basic differences between these two terms.

Climate of an organization is some what likes the personality of a person. Just as every individual has a personality that makes him unique and different from other persons, each organization has an organizational climate that clearly distinguishes it from other organization.

Basically, the organizational climate reflects a person’s perception of the organization to which he belongs. It is a set of unique characteristics and features that are perceived by the employees about their organizations which serves as a major force influencing their behavior. Thus, organizational climate in a broad sense can be understood as the social setting of the organization.

Concept of climate- “Climate in natural sense is referred to as the average course or condition of the weather at a place over a period of years as exhibited by temperature, wind, velocity and precipitation”.

Low (1997) coined the term climate to describe the attitudes, feelings and social process of organizations. According to him, climate in this view falls into three major and well-known categories: autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire.

People have defined organizational climate on the basis of its potential properties. A few important definitions are as given below.

Halpin and Croft (1963) explained that the organizational climate can be construed as the organizational personality of the school. Analogously, personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization.
According to Forehand and Gilmer (1964) “Climate consists of a set of characteristics that (a) describe the organization and distinguish it from other organization (b) are relatively enduring over time and influence the behavior of people in the organization.”

Halpin and Croft (1966) defined climate as the “Personality” of organization. Through in their research, they classified school climate into six climates on the continuum of “Openness to closeness” the six climates identified were (a) Open climate, (b) autonomous climate, (c) familiar climate, (d) controlled climate, (e) paternal climate and (f) closed climate.

Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) defines organizational climate as a relatively enduring quality of internal environment of an organization.

   a) Experienced by its members
   b) Influence their behavior
   c) Can be described in terms of values of a particular set of characteristics or attributes of an organization

Brinkmeyer (1968) reported that sex of the teacher was significantly related to organizational climate.

According to Campbell (1970) organizational climate was defined as a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from organization, deals with its members and its environment. For the individual members within the organization, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectancies which describes the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behavior out come and outcome contingencies”.

Sinclair (1970) used educational environment as synonymous to organizational climate. He stated that the term educational environment refers to the conditions, forces and external stimuli that faster the development of individual characteristics.

Taylor and Bowers (1970) defined organizational climate as the perceived traits of organizational stimuli which become group property through interpersonal interaction and which modify overall behavior within the organization.
Julius and Lloyd (1971) perceived that organizational climate is the product of interaction between one’s personality variables and different aspects of the organization.

Koehler et al. (1976) felt that individual’s can respond to the organizational climate only in terms of their perception of it, whether or not the perception is accurate.

Kaczka and Kirk (1978) defined organizational climate as a set of attributes, which can be perceived within a particular organization, department or unit.

Chattopadhy and Aggarwal (1979) tried to understand the concept of organizational climate by examining the various available models. They explained organizational climate as a psychological environment prevailing in the organization, which is an outcome of a number of variables in the social system, organization and also of the individual members.

According to Chung and Megginson (1981) organizational climate refers to the psychological make up of a group or an organization and is composed of members’ perception of various group dimensions.

Varshneya (1981) and Yesoda (1990) on the basis of their separate research studies inferred that both men and women teacher had the same perception of the organizational climate of their schools.

Seth and Gupta (1983) considered organizational climate as employee’s subjective impression or perceptions of their organization.

Massie (1985) organizational climate is the degree and quality of the environmental factors essentially reflected by members’ perceptions.

Poole (1985) explained that the construct implied by the term ‘organizational climate’ is important for organizational theory, because it represents the linkage between the organizational situation and members cognitions, feelings and behaviors.

Prakasam (1986) defined organizational climate as the shared perception of the employees’ who work and live together in the organization. It is the sum total of individual perceptions regarding organizational procedures, policies, practices and it represents the psychological environment in the organization consisting of individual
perceptions and opinions framed upon the micro events that happen to them as well as to others over a period of time.

Sharma and Gaba (1989) viewed organizational climate as the interpersonal relationship within a group, between a group and its leader.

Sundaraswamy (1991) defined organizational climate as the human environment within which organization’s employees do their work.

Xaba (1996) defined organizational climate as consciously perceived environmental factors subject to organizational control.

Monika (1997) in her study found that the organizational climate of government schools is better than of private schools.

According to Chattopadhy and Aggarwal (1998) “organizational climate is an outcome of interplay between a number of variables of the social system, the organizational and the individual members”.

**Types of organizational climate**

Halpin (1969) identified six types of climate. The six profiles that are found in the organizations can be regarded as six distinctive organizational climates, namely Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed.

1-Open Climate: An open climate is used to describe the openness and authenticity of interaction that exists among the principal, teachers, students and parents. Hoy and Sabo (1998) state that “an open climate reflects the principal and teachers’ cooperative, supportive and receptive attitudes to each other’s ideas and their commitment to work.” The principal, according to these researchers, shows genuine concern for teachers; he/she motivates and encourages staff members (high supportiveness). He/she gives the staff freedom to carry out their duties in the best way they know (low directiveness). He/she does not allow routine duties to disrupt teachers’ instructional responsibilities (low hindrance). Also, in a school/college characterized with open climate, teachers are portrayed as tolerant, helpful and respectful professionals (low disengagement). They are caring and willing to assist students when need be. Teachers work hard so that students succeed (high commitment). They care, respect and help one another as colleagues and even at personal level (high collegial relations). As a team they work for the success of
students. Both the principal and teachers are accessible and approachable they maintain close relationships with students and parents. (Halpin, 1966)

2- Autonomous Climate: This type of climate portrays an atmosphere where teachers are given a good measure of freedom to operate in the institution. The principal arouses enthusiasm and diligence. Both teachers and students work with devotion. There is no external threat or influence. Teachers have great desire to work and students are highly motivated to learn. The close relationship among the principal, teachers, students and parents creates an autonomous climate in the institution. (Halpin, 1966)

3- Controlled Climate: The major characteristic of controlled climate is the diligence and hard work. Even though the principal does not present model commitment, hard work is overemphasized to the extent that little or no time is given to social life. Nonetheless, teachers are committed to their work and spend considerable time on paper work. Thus, in most cases, there is little time to interact with one another. Students are also hardworking, but are given little time for participation in extra curricular activities. The principal often employs a direct approach, keeps his/her distance from teachers, students and parents in order to avoid familiarity. Parents are not encouraged to visit schools with their children's problems as the time on such matters could be used on something worthwhile. (Silver, 1983; Halpin, 1966)

4- Familiar Climate: Familiar climate depicts a laissez-faire atmosphere. The principal is concerned about maintaining friendly atmosphere at the expense of task accomplishment. Thus, a considerable percentage of teachers are not committed to their primary assignment. Some who are committed resent the way the principal runs the college: they do not share same views with the principal and their colleagues. As a result, those who are not committed, form a clique because they are of the same attitude, they become friends.

5- Paternal Climate: This type of climate depicts an atmosphere where the principal is very hardworking, but has no effect on the staff; to them hard work is not a popular term. There is a degree of closeness between the principal and teachers, but the principal’s expectation from teachers is rather impractical. All the same, he/she is considerate and energetic, but his/her leadership approach is benevolently autocratic. As a result, most teachers, students and parents prefer to maintain distance from the
principal. Often, students cannot express their difficulties or problems with boldness and parents visit the college only when it is absolutely necessary. (Costley and Todd, 1987)

6-Closed Climate: The closed climate represents the ‘antithesis of the open climate’. The main characteristic of this type of climate identified by Halpin (1966) is lack of commitment or unproductive disengagement. There is no commitment, especially on the part of the principal and teachers. There is no emphasis on task accomplishment; rather the principal stresses on routine, trivial and unnecessary paper work to which teachers minimally respond. The principal is strict and rigid in behavior. He/she is inconsiderate, unsupportive and unresponsive. Consequently, most of the teachers feel frustrated and dissatisfied. This makes the atmosphere tense. There is lack of respect among the teachers and principal (Hoy and Sabo, 1998). Hoy and Miskel (2001) assert that each school has its own unique climate. This is because schools operate in different ways. The type of climate that prevails in a school is the blend of the behavior of the principal, teachers, students and parents in that school. Therefore, climate differs from school to school. Freiberg (1999) opines that climate is an ever-changing factor in colleges. This is because the principal may choose on specific occasions to adopt a different leadership style, which may have great impact on the climate that will lead to a change. Again, a new principal may bring some unfamiliar ideas that may change the existing climate. New teachers in a college may equally have a noticeable effect on the prevailing climate of a college. Another possibility is that new students may bring to a college a different atmosphere. Finally, the involvement of parents of new students may influence the prevailing climate of a college.

Characteristics of organizational climate

The nature of organizational climate has the following characteristics:

1. General perception: Organizational climate is a general expression of what the organization is, it is the summary perception which people have about the organization. It conveys the impressions, people have of the organizational internal environment within which they work.
2. Abstract and intangible concept: Organizational climate is a qualitative concept. It is very difficult to explain the components of organizational climate in quantitative or measurable units.

3. Unique and distinct identity: Organizational climate gives a distinct identity to the organization. It explains how one organization is different from other organizations.

4. Enduring quality: Organizational climate builds up over a period of time. It represents a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment that is experienced by the organizational members.

5. Multi-dimensional concept: Organizational climate is a multi-dimensional concept. The various dimensions of the organizational climate are individual autonomy, authority structure, leadership style, pattern of communication, degree of conflicts and cooperation etc.

Tagiuri (1968) described the organizational climate as composed of four dimensions:

1 Ecology: Ecology refers to physical and material factors in the organization, for example, size, age, design, facilities and conditions of the building. It also refers to the technology used by people in the organization, desks and chairs, chalkboards, elevators, everything used to carry out organizational activities.

2 Milieu: Milieu is the social dimension in the organization. This includes virtually everything relating to the people in the organization. For example, how many there are and what they are like. This would include race and ethnicity, salary level of teachers, socioeconomic level of students, education levels attained by the teachers, the morale and motivation of adults and students who inhabit the school, level of job satisfaction, and a host of other characteristics of the people in the organization.

3 Social System: Social system refers to the organizational and administrative structure of the organization. It includes how the school is organized, the ways in which decisions are made and who is involved in making them, the communication patterns among people (who talks to whom about what), what work groups there are, and so on.
Culture: Culture refers to the values, belief system, norms, and ways of thinking that are characteristics of people in the organization. It is “the way we do things around here.” Much of the organizational dimension of climate arises from factors that administrators control directly or strongly influence. It is important that administrators understand the close connections between the choices they make about the way they organize and the climate manifested in the organization.

Educators and parents have multiple options to enhance school climate and students’ overall educational experience. The possible interventions to improve school climate are:

- Increased parent and community involvement
- Implementation of character education or the promotion of fundamental moral values in children
- Use of violence-prevention and conflict-resolution-curricula
- Peer mediation
- Prevention of acts of bullying (Peterson & Skiba, 2001)
- Teachers and principals treat students fairly, equally and with respect
- Provide a safe environment for staff and students (Harris & Lowery, 2002)
- Personalization through adopt-a-kid programs, honoring most-improved students, and block scheduling (Shore, 1995)

Factors influencing organizational climate

Organizational climate is a manifestation of the attitudes of organizational members towards the organization. Researchers have used the data relating to individual perception of organizational properties in identifying organizational climate. Even in this context, there is a great amount of diversity.

Litwin and stringer (1968) have included six factors which affect organizational climate. These factors are:

1. Organizational Structure: Perceptions of the extent of organizational constraints, rules, regulations, red tape.
2. Industrial Responsibility: Feeling of autonomy of being one’s own boss.
3. Rewards: Feelings related to being confident of adequate and appropriate rewards.
4. Risk and Risk taking: Perceptions of the degree of challenge and risk in the work situation.
5. Warmth and Support: Feeling of general good fellowship and helpfulness prevailing in the work setting.
6. Tolerance and conflict: Degree of confidence that the climate can tolerate, differing opinions.

Schneider and Bartlett (1968) give a broader and systematic study of climate dimensions. They include the following factors:

1. Management support
2. Management structure
3. Concern for new employees
4. Inter-agency conflict
5. Agent dependence and
6. General satisfaction

Tagiuri (1968) has identified five factors influencing the organizational climate on the basis of information provided by managers, these are:

1. Practices relating to providing a sense of direction or purpose to their jobs - setting of objectives, planning and feedback.
2. Opportunities for exercising individual initiative.
3. Working with a superior who is highly competitive and competent.
4. Working with cooperative and pleasant people.
5. Being with a profit oriented and sales oriented company.

Katz (1978) has identified five factors which affect individual performance in organization:

1. Rules orientation
2. The nurturance of subordinates
3. Closeness of supervision
4. Universalism
5. Promotion-Achievement orientation
James and Jones (1974) have classified the following factors that influence organizational climate:

1. Organizational Context: Mission, Goals and objectives function etc.
2. Organizational structure: Size, degree of centralization and operating procedures.
3. Leadership process: Leadership styles, communication, decision making and related processes.
4. Physical Environment: Employee, safety, environmental stresses and physical space characteristics.
5. Organizational values and norms: Conformity, loyalty, impersonality and reciprocity.

Hodgetts (1991) has classified organizational climate into two major categories. He has given an analogy with an iceberg where there is a part of the iceberg that can be seen from the surface and another part that is under the water and cannot be seen. The factors in the visible part that can be observed and measured are called overt factors and the factors that are not visible and quantifiable are called covert factors both these factors are shown in the figure 1.4. Organizational climate in the form of an iceberg.
Therefore we can say that organizational climate plays an important role in setting the atmosphere conducive for a particular organization. It is achieved through the interaction between the principal and teachers, between teachers and students and between the principal and students. The social interaction compels the principal, teachers and students to discuss mutually in area of planning, decision-making, problem solving and control.

It can be concluded that the environment of the organization is most significant force in achieving the maximum educational results and in running of the institution. Organizational climate plays a significant role in promoting and achieving organizational objective including role of principal, teacher and students.

1.5-SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In any educational institution, the way of the principal deals with various conflicting situations has a direct influence on the functioning of an institution. Conflict tends to arise constantly and affect the functioning of the institution. The principals in educational institutions have to face a number of problems while interacting with their management, staff and students. Some times these conflicts are the roots of all the problems and some times these encourage healthy competition. Still conflict in an organization is viewed as a must for its development. A serious scanning of the researches conducted in the area of education reveals that very few studies have been conducted to study conflict resolution in educational institutions. Educational management today is becoming more complex due to multiple funding, diversity of stake holders, privatization of education, fast evolution of management trends. Hence it becomes significant to study conflict resolution strategies of principals, who are major steering force in efficient running of an organization. The reviews of researches on conflict management have provided the basis of selecting organizational climate and emotional intelligence as two significant variables in relation to which of conflict resolution strategy can be meaningfully studied.

1.6-STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A STUDY OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES ADOPTED BY PRINCIPALS IN RELATION TO THEIR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
1.7-DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The study has been confined to a sample of 250 senior secondary schools principals.

2. The study has been delimited to private unaided schools located in the five districts (Moga, Ludhiana, Jalandhar, Patiala and Ferozepure) of Punjab state only.

3. The study has been delimited to the study of conflict resolution strategies, emotional intelligence and organizational climate only.

1.8-OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present investigation has been undertaken with the view to fulfill the following objectives:

1. To study the conflict resolution strategies adopted by school principals.
2. To find the level of emotional intelligence among school principals.
3. To study the perception of organizational climate of the institution among school principals.
4. To study the relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence and tendency to adopt conflict resolution strategies among school principals.
5. To study the relationship between dimensions of organizational climate and tendency to adopt conflict resolution strategies among school principals.
6. To find out the difference in the tendency to adopt conflict resolution strategies preferred by principals with respect to gender.
7. To analyze the difference in the tendency to adopt conflict resolution strategies in principals with high and low emotional intelligence.
8. To find out the difference in the tendency to adopt conflict resolution strategies in principals perceiving favorable and unfavorable organizational climate.
9. To find out predictors of conflict resolution strategies of principals from among the independent variables of emotional intelligence and organizational climate.
1.9-HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The present study has been carried out with the following hypotheses.

1. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence and conflict resolution strategies of male principals.

2. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence and conflict resolution strategies of female principals.

3. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of organizational climate and conflict resolution strategies of male principals.

4. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of organizational climate and conflict resolution strategies of female principals.

5. There will be no significant difference in conflict resolution strategies preferred by principals with respect to gender.

6. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt competition (ST$_1$) as conflict resolution strategy in principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

7. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt collaboration (ST$_2$) as conflict resolution strategy in principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

8. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt compromise (ST$_3$) as conflict resolution strategy in principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

9. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt avoidance (ST$_4$) as conflict resolution strategy in principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

10. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt accommodation (ST$_5$) as conflict resolution strategy in principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

11. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt competition (ST$_1$) as conflict resolution strategy in principals perceiving favorable and unfavorable organizational climate.
12. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt collaboration (ST2) as conflict resolution strategy in principals perceiving favorable and unfavorable organizational climate.

13. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt compromise (ST3) as conflict resolution strategy in principals perceiving favorable and unfavorable organizational climate.

14. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt avoidance (ST4) as conflict resolution strategy in principals perceiving favorable and unfavorable organizational climate.

15. There will be no significant difference in the tendency to adopt accommodation (ST5) as conflict resolution strategy in principals perceiving favorable and unfavorable organizational climate.

16. The independent variables of emotional intelligence and organizational climate differentially predict conflict resolution strategies among principals.