

Conflict and Disagreement for a Successful Change

Başarılı Bir Değişim İçin Fikir Çatışmalarının Gerekliliği

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes first, what the definitions of change and successful change are (including some barriers for change), and then what the management is. It also points out that why conflict is necessary for a successful change. Accordingly, it will be looked at useful and destructive conflict and what should we do to avoid the destructive conflict? Two examples will be given about changing an education system based on useful and destructive conflict.

Key words: conflict, change in educational institutions.

ÖZET

Bu makale ilk olarak, değişim ve başarılı değişimin tanımını (değişim için oluşabilecek engelleri içererek) sonar da yönetimin ne demek olduğunu açıklar. Ayrıca başarılı bir değişim için çatışmanın niye gerekli olduğunu da vurgular. Buna bağlı olarak, yararlı ve yıkıcı çatışmalara ve yıkıcı çatışmalardan kaçınmak için neler yapılması gerektiğine de değinir. Bir eğitim sisteminin değişikliği üzerine yararlı ve yıkıcı çatışmaya iki örnek verilmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: çatışma, eğitim kurumlarında değişim.

1. WHAT IS CHANGE?

Change is a planned or unplanned process of transformation, a flow from one state to another, either initiated by internal factors or external forces, involving individuals, groups or institutions, leading them to a re-alignment of existing values, practices and outcomes. One definition of change is from Hargreaves (1991). According to him change is just another word for growth. This statement is true that we learn so many innovations if we accept change or try to manage change. Fullan (1993) supports this idea by saying 'productive (educational) change, like productive life itself, is a journey that does not end until we do' (p.24), and you should be into the journey if you want to know what is

going on, so that you can grow yourself and you can follow the growth or change. It must be really difficult to stop growing or changing especially in educational institutions, because educational change is inevitably non-linear and unending (Fullan, 1993).

Another explanation of change was made by Fullan (1991). He emphasised that change is not a predictable process. The answer is found by struggling to understand and modify events and processes rather by seeking ready-made guidelines. It is a complex, political, ideological, social, organisational, and personal process, especially in schools (Dalin, 1993). It is not something extra or unusual, it has become a

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natural part of school management (Hargreaves, 1991).

2. SUCCESSFUL CHANGE

Change should be successful, as Dalin (1993) believes that without successful change the school will not survive the future. Fullan (1991) identifies ten assumptions as basic to a successful approach to educational change. His theory stresses the importance of conflict:

1. Assume that one of the main purposes of the process of implementation is to *exchange your reality* of what should be through interaction with others
2. Assume that any significant innovation, if it is to result in change, requires individuals to work out their own meaning. Significant change involves a certain amount of ambiguity, ambivalence, and uncertainty for the individuals about the meaning of change. Thus effective implementation is a process of clarification.
3. Assume that conflict and disagreement are not only inevitable but fundamental to successful change. Since any group of people possess multiple realities, any collective change attempt will necessarily involve conflict.
4. Assume that people need pressure to change, but it will be only effective under conditions that allow them to react, to form their own position to interact with others, to obtain technical assistance.
5. Assume that effective change takes time. It is a process of 'development in use'. Persistence is a critical attribute of successful change.
6. Assume that there are a number of possible reasons for lack of implementation: value rejection, inadequate resources to support implementation, insufficient time elapsed, and people have different perceptions.
7. Do not expect all or even most people or groups to change. The complexity of change is such that it is impossible to bring about wide-spread reform in any large social system. Progress occurs when we take the steps that increase the number of people affected. Instead of being discouraged by all that remains to be done, be encouraged by what has been accomplished by way of improvement resulting from your actions.
8. Assume that you will need a plan that is based on the above assumptions and which addresses the factors known to affect implementation. It is necessary for successful change.
9. Assume that there is no amount of knowledge, political considerations, on the spot decisions, and intuition. Better knowledge of the change process will improve the mix of resources on which we draw, but it will never and should never represent the sole basis for decision.
10. Assume that changing the culture of institutions is the real agenda, not implementing single innovations. Put another way, when implementing particular innovations, we should always pay attention to whether the institution is developing or not (pp. 105-7).

Additionally, it is worth mentioning some barriers to change since the process of change can break down because of these barriers. These are the problems which arise and give birth to conflict, which can be positive or negative. Later on it will be examined the kinds of conflict which arise out of these barriers and how to control them. According to Dalin's (1993) view these following are the four barriers to change in schools:

1. *Value barriers*: Education deals with very basic human values. Some innovators are often more interested in the technical aspects of change than implied values. People do not accept innovation if they are affected by some values. Another element of values is conflicts in values (Hodgkinson, cited in Hillary, 1992). He explores the idea of a hierarchy of values which range from the good to the right. He believes that when conflict between values arises, the conflict may be intrahierarchical, where the conflicting values are of equal value, or it may be interhierarchical where the principles in conflict are of different valuations. On the other hand Hillary (1992) believes that the conflict can allow institutions to review their values and this will enable schools to consider the priorities.
2. *Power barriers*: It is a reluctance to engage in the change process because it may alter the power balance in a negative way. People may accept an innovation if it gives them greater power and may reject innovation if it upsets their power base.
3. *Practical barriers*: (Uneasiness about getting involved in the change process) Because of scepticism about the management of the process, practical barriers are wide-spread. The change process is often

haphazard, decision-making, unclear, resources limited, staff development insufficient, and often the process demands more time than envisaged.

4. *Psychological barriers*: They are the reactions when a person is unwilling to engage in the change process, even if that person agrees with the values and norms, and cannot identify practical problems.

If we want to be successful while implementing any change, we should be aware of these assumptions and barriers. Mayon-White (1986, pp. 164-8) argues some methods for dealing with the barriers to change:

- Education and communication: This is used where there is a lack of information or inaccurate information and analysis. People will help each other.
- Participation and involvement: This is helpful where the initiators need to design the change.
- Facilitation and support: This is used where people are resisting because of adjustment problems.
- Negotiation and agreement: This is used where someone or some group will clearly lose out in a change, and where that group has considerable power to resist.
- Manipulation and co-optation: This method is used where other tactics will not work, or are too expensive.
- Explicit and implicit coercion: This is used where speed is essential and the change initiators possess considerable power.

Successful collaboration and management are needed to overcome the barriers which arise from subjectivity and individuality. Successful collaboration needs very good team. Belbin (1981, pp. 93-111) argues that a successful team has some points:

- The person in the chair: The successful chairman generates trust and looks for and knows how to use ability. He/she knows when to pull matters together if a critical decision has to be reached or a meeting has to close.
- The existence of one strong plant in the group: Creativity in a plant is more important than cleverness.
- A fair spread in mental abilities: A spread of personal ideas and intelligence.
- A spread in personal attributes offering wide team-role coverage: The roles and personalities in the team members.

- A good match between the attributes of members and their responsibilities in the team.
- An adjustment to the realisation of imbalance.

A successful team needs successful management. Management is mainly about people, as Hargreaves (1991) indicates. In his opinion, in an educational institution, heads and deputies have specific management functions but also teachers and others have management functions. All contribute to the culture of the school; it means all should contribute to the management arrangements in order to empower each other. He emphasises that empowerment is the purpose of management. Collaboration and co-operation are necessary. Fullan (1993) pointed out that collaboration is not automatically a good thing; it does not mean consensus, it does not mean that major disagreements are forbidden; it does not mean that the individual should go along with the crowd. According to Hargreaves (1991), on the contrary, collaboration improves communication and reduces misunderstanding, fosters creativity in finding solutions when problems are discussed, enhances motivation, supports teamwork, generates a sense of collective achievement, and prevents individuals from becoming isolated. Campbell and Southworth (1992, cited in Hayes, 1996) insisted that success could only be achieved by 'staff working together' in a school where the culture is cohesive and educational, and social beliefs are shared. Another comment on collaboration is from Schrage (1990, cited in Fullan, 1993), who stated that collaboration does not require consensus, collaborators bicker and argue. These arguments are depersonalised and focus on genuine areas of disagreement. These are some characteristics of collegiality:

1. Participatory approaches to decision making.
2. Democratic and consensual decision making.
3. Shared values, beliefs and goals.
4. Equal rights of participation in discussion.
5. Equal voting rights for decision making.
6. Sub-groups answerable to whole group.
7. Shared responsibilities.
8. Equal rights to determine policy.
9. Open accountability.
10. Extended view of expertise.
11. Power of the argument rather than positional power of advocate.
12. Shared ownership of the curriculum (Bush, 1993 cited in Morrison, 1996b).

Also Bush (1993, cited in Morrison, 1996a, pp.5-6) suggests that:

- advocacy of collegiality is based on prescription rather than description;
- for groups to be effective they need to be small enough for every voice to be heard;
- group cohesion develops slowly so collegiality takes time to become operations;
- the senior manager's role is crucial in determining the extent, nature and boundaries of collegiality;
- collegiality involves a whole-institution approach; the relationship between whole-institution and individual autonomy is complex but the two are not mutually exclusive;
- collegiality may require sub-groups to be arranged before the whole institution meets;
- careful staff selection is important;
- both independent and interdependent modes of working are included;
- collegiality raises the profile of the micro-politics of an institution.

The negative aspects of collegial models include the view that:

- they are cumbersome and time-consuming;
- they generate excessive paper work;
- they enable factions and interest groups to exert disproportionate influence;
- they fail to account for, or to address and seek resolution of, real conflict and justifiable differences of opinion;
- they sit uncomfortably with the promotional ladder and hierarchical model of accountability in many institutions;
- they depend on the senior manager's (e.g. head teachers') willingness and ability to devolve power;
- they operate best in small rather than large institutions;
- they involve whole-institution levels of an organisation.

3. HEALTHY ORGANISATIONS

Collaboration and collegiality are a kind of team work which can be successful with good organisation and collaboration causes healthy organisation. According to Hoy et al. (1991, pp.20-2) healthy organisations have some properties (goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalisation, resource utilisation, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, problem solving adequacy).

Goal focus; participants understand the goals of the organisation so that they can decide if the goal is appropriate or not.

Communication adequacy; is necessary in healthy organisations. They stress that, in such organisational systems, communication system enables the organisation to sense internal strain and conflict and then deal with them.

Optimal power equalisation; which means the distribution of power and influence is equitable. It seems to me that collaboration and collegiality require this. Collaboration imbues the healthy organisation.

Resource utilisation; which means healthy organisations use their resources, especially their personal. There is minimal internal strain so people like their job in healthy organisations and they have a positive sense in terms of learning and growing.

Cohesiveness; healthy organisations have members who are influenced by the organisation and exert their influence in a collaborative fashion and who are proud of the organisation.

Morale; is a group concept. Healthy organisations display a general sense of well-being and group satisfaction.

Innovativeness; is the organisation's ability to invent new procedures, move to new goals and objectives, and become more differentiated over time.

Autonomy; describes the organisation's relationship with its environment. Healthy organisations demonstrate an ability to remain somewhat independent from negative forces in the environment; they use the environment constructively.

Adaptation; healthy organisations have effective contact with their surroundings and they have the ability to bring about corrective changes in itself to grow and develop.

Problem solving adequacy; describes the way organisations handle their difficulties. They are solved with minimal energy, and problem solving mechanism are not weakened, but maintained.

4. CONFLICT

Conflict and disagreement are part and parcel of all productive change processes. When does the conflict occur? We can answer this question with Zaltman's (1972) explanation. According to him a conflict exists whenever incompatible and problematic activities occur and a conflict may arise from differences in belief, personal perception and information. It may occur as a result of some resource such as money, time, space, position, knowledge. Or it may reflect a rivalry in which one person tries to outdo or undo the other. This probability must be very high because every person has different kinds of ideas. And also conflict can occur in a

co-operative or competitive context and the process of conflict resolution which are likely to be displayed will be strongly influenced by the context within which conflict occurs.

There is nothing wrong with pursuing promising ideas provisionally. Especially at the early stages of a change initiative, conflict is healthy (Fullan, 1993). Fullan (1993, p. 36) insists that 'conflict is essential for productive change, because problems are our friends, the group that perceives conflict as an opportunity to learn something, instead of as something to be avoided or as an occasion to entrench one's position, is the group that will prosper....you can not have learning in groups without processing conflict'. In team learning, discussion is the necessary counterpart of dialogue, because in a discussion, different views are presented and defended, decisions are made, as said by Senge (1990), and he added, great teams are not characterised by an absence of conflict which becomes productive in great teams. Chris Argyris and his colleagues (cited in Senge, 1990) argued the dilemma of why bright, capable managers often fail to learn effectively in management teams. They suggest that the difference between great teams and mediocre teams lies in how they face conflict and deal with the defensiveness that invariably surrounds conflict. Generally, it is supposed that when people are in a team, they should share the same idea. But it is not always like this. 'Colleagueship does not mean that you need to agree or share the same views' (Senge, 1990, p. 245). On the contrary, they should not. He continued that 'it is easy to feel collegial when everyone agrees. When there are significant disagreements, it is more difficult, but the payoff is also much greater. Choosing to view *adversaries* as *colleagues with different views* (p. 245) has the greatest benefits. Although the greater the payoff and the greatest benefits we always have problems. They are inevitable because of disagreements. However, Fullan (1993) indicates that 'the good news is that you can not learn or be successful without them. They are necessary for learning, the route of deeper change and deeper satisfaction. In this sense effective organisations embrace problems rather than avoid them' (p. 25). He concluded that 'problems are our friends is another way of saying that *conflict is essential* to any successful change effort' (p. 27). He showed Stacey's statement (1992, cited in Fullan, 1993) as a support to his further statement: 'People do not provoke new insights when their discussions are characterised by order, equilibrium, conformity,

and dependence. Neither do they do so when their discussions enter the explosively unstable equilibrium of all-out conflict or complete avoidance of issues. People spark new ideas off each other when they argue and disagree-when they are conflicting, confused, and searching for new meaning - yet remain willing to discuss and listen to each other' (Stacey, 1992, p. 120). As mentioned earlier conflict is necessary and inevitable if there is a change and we wish to be successful. Conflict is a key factor in managerial success and whenever we need to change, there is a potential for conflict (Everard and Morris, 1996). Everard and Morris (1996) explain conflict below:

'Conflict in the sense of an honest difference of opinion resulting from the availability of two or more alternative courses of action is not only unavoidable but also a valuable part of life. It helps to ensure that different possibilities are properly considered and further possible courses of action may be generated from the discussion of the already recognised alternatives. Also, conflict often means that the chosen course of action is tested at an early stage, thereby reducing the risk of missing an important flaw which may emerge later'(p. 88). When discussing the components of conflict Everard and Morris (1996) advise various ways of making them as positive as possible. According to them most conflicts have both rational and emotional components and they lie somewhere along a spectrum between, on the one hand, genuine conflict of interest and on the other hand personality clash. He explains this statement with an example: Where the vendor of a house seeks the highest price, but on the other hand the purchaser wishes to pay as little as possible. Here there is genuine conflict of interest between employer and employee about the dilemma of the salary. In this case the vendor of a house and the purchaser need to resolve the conflict. However they should also know that 'excessive conflict is not conducive to change' (Whitaker, 1993) or can solve the problems. In such situations the conflict may be destructive. Zaltman (1972) suggests that a conflict clearly has destructive consequences if the parties in it are dissatisfied with the outcomes and all feel that they have lost as a result of the conflict. Similarly, a conflict has productive consequences if the parties all are satisfied with their pay-off and feel that they have gained as a result of the conflict. For Zaltman destructive conflict is characterised by a tendency to expand and to escalate. As a consequence such conflict often becomes

independent of its initiating causes and continues after these have become irrelevant or have been forgotten. Everard and Morris (1996) suggest that in order to negotiate a solution it is necessary to:

1. listen to and understand the point of view and needs of each other (now it is not necessary to insist and reiterate your own point of view. This is just wasting time). Try to be fair.
2. look for trade-offs., i.e. is there something that I can leave or concede to the other party and it means more to them than just for one. And
3. focus on issues and facts rather than your interest, and avoid personalising the conflict (p. 89).

These principles provide positive negotiation which should produce a 'win-win' situation. 'Personality clashes' have an element of conflict of interest and he added that they are because of the role, system or culture problems as much as individual cussedness. And also some conflicts incur an account of contestants' personalities; for example one of the twins may be jealous of his/her twin's success and in a team two groups with different ideas may find it difficult to work together. But if they are aware of the necessity and importance of conflict, in my view, they can solve the existing problem. It has so many positive functions; it prevents stagnation, it stimulates interest and curiosity, it is the medium through which problems can be aired and solutions arrived at; it is the root of personal and social change. Conflict is often part of the process of testing and assessing oneself and demarcates groups from one another and therefore helps to establish group and personal identities (Zaltman, 1972).

4.1. Example 1: Yok/World Bank, National Education Development Project

This example shows us how the education system tried to overcome the problem of teacher education through a form of position conflict. Teachers face so many problems, such as lack of professional skill and knowledge to cope with the educational goals of today's society, low salary, heavy demands made upon time, less than sophisticated physical facilities and a lack of opportunity to improve professional knowledge and performance. It is inevitable that these problems negatively affect the quality of education in the elementary and secondary schools. The teacher training system faces/faced many problems:

1. Although academic qualifications of the teaching staff have improved, there have not been any dependable data to show that the quality of teachers has changed. It is assumed that a lack of qualified teaching staff in teacher training institutions negatively affects the quality of education.
2. University Entrance Examination, which places students in programs based on their achievements, is not a reliable tool.
3. High ability students do not choose the teaching profession as their future job. Consequently, there is a lack of incentive to enter the teaching profession. Such factors as work environment and salary, affect the prestige of the profession.
4. Because of the great interest among high school graduates to attend universities there has been a tremendous increase in the number of students admitted. This increase has been in the teacher training institutions as well. As a result, more students graduated from faculties of education than there were available teaching posts. So, so many teachers could not find a job, this decreased the quality of teachers.
5. The faculties of arts and sciences train high quality personnel for specialised fields, such as natural and social sciences, art and literature. The main aim of these institutions is to educate the field of study and provide students with the knowledge and research abilities of the specialist. Generally, students of these schools do not aim to be teachers and the curriculum does not include efficient pedagogical courses. Students of these faculties perceive themselves as specialists in a certain field rather than potential secondary school teachers. Although this is the case, there are number of unemployed graduates of the faculties of arts and sciences who apply for jobs in secondary schools because they are not able to find jobs in their specialised field. There should be a difference between students who graduate from faculties of education and faculties of arts and sciences. This dilemma was under discussion among educators. It was not clear whether the system would be continued or whether there would be a search for a new model in order to train future teachers.

Perceiving the importance of teachers and teacher training programmes, the Ministry of Education and Council of Higher Education (YOK) had collaborated to put into effect a series of reforms in teacher training activities.

One of the activities was the YOK/World Bank National Education Development Project (NEDP). The World Bank loan was designed to improve the quality of teacher education through revising and improving pre-service teacher training curricula, text books and instructional materials, and to up-grade teaching and research staff of the colleges. The Pre-service Teacher Education component of the NEDP was a three year nation-wide project which began in December 1994. It included the 34 Faculties of Education which prepare student teachers for teaching in elementary and high schools. It was the British Council's largest education project.

4.1.1. The scope of the project*

The objective of the project was to improve the quality of teacher education at primary and secondary levels. Project institutions included all university faculties of education which provide four-year undergraduate courses leading to the production of primary and secondary school teachers.

4.1.1.1. Aims and constituent parts of the project

There were three major parts (aims) of the project which work together to support the development of teacher education.

1. To establish objectives and prepare a curriculum for the methodology courses in a number of subject areas, and to link these courses with the professional preparation of teachers in schools. Over the academic year 1995-96 teams of consultants from Turkey, the UK, and the USA worked together arranging subject panels consisting of participating universities to produce new curricula in the methodology of teaching each subject area. In addition, considerable work was done to improve the teaching practice of the teacher education course, and the relationships between faculties of education and the schools in which they place their students.
2. To provide fellowships for Faculties of Education. About ninety fellowships have been awarded, mostly for masters and doctoral degrees. The fellows studied in the UK, in the USA, and in Germany, at twenty-five different universities. On completing of their degree, they would return to their own faculty with experience of a different system, and would be ready to

contribute to the further development of teacher education.

3. To upgrade the facilities of the Faculties of Education. Equipment for the new curricula, for educational resource centres in each faculty, for micro-teaching, for computer laboratories together with a nation-wide network, and books, would be supplied to all thirty-four faculties.

It is understood that the NEDP was a very big, comprehensive project in which participants are supposed to make changes in an organisation. The organisation is so big: all the deans of faculties of education, all the heads of departments, the members of project co-ordination unit, and authorised people from YOK. As Davis and Canter (1995, cited in Burnes, 1996) argued, it is necessary to recognise that work organisations are social inventions put together to suit the specific needs and reflect the culture and ideology of an organisation. While the NEDP participants were trying to solve the problem (which is changing the structure of faculties of education), they needed to recognise the above statement. There was a question: Should we transfer arts and sciences departments from the school of education to faculties of arts and sciences so that only pedagogical courses can be given in the school of education?

Then the conflict existed among the participants. In the view of conflict of interest some deans did not want the transformation maybe because they were afraid of losing their status as dean or maybe some other reasons. However a kind of positive change should have been done. They should have listened to and understood each other, they should not have wasted their time repeating their point of views and they should have focused on issues and facts avoiding personalising the conflict, as Everard and Morris (1996) suggested. While the participants were discussing with each other, they also should have respected their ideas, they knew to talk to each on time instead of doing nothing. Again, according to Everard and Morris (1996), 'it may be necessary to choose your time well and to spend some time in making it clear that you really do want to solve the conflict. Some friends of both parties may be needed to act as a catalyst, to reassure both parties that intentions are sincere and to act as mediator or process consultant (pp. 93-94).

* Source: The British Council

About the project (NEDP) the participants decided to accept the change for being better in terms of teacher education. So that, it could be said that it was an initiation for a successful change for the Turkish education system.

4.2. Negative Conflict

'Conflict becomes a dangerous and disruptive force whenever personal glory is staked on the outcome' (Everard and Morris, 1996, p. 89). Everard and Morris explain some dangers of conflict by continuing like that: 'The further the conflict develops, the more 'glory' is staked, the more bitter the conflict becomes and the less easy it is to achieve a solution'. Decision-taking (which consists of five phases: problem finding, problem formulation, development of alternatives, alternative selection, implementation and follow up; Simon, 1995) is paralysed because neither party dares to make any concessions for fear (probably justified) that these will be seized upon by the other party as a victory and a bridge-head for further advances. At such a point, we speak of a 'win-lose' situation since this is how the parties approach each issue. In reality the situation is often 'lose-lose' since the parties both do things which are against their own real advantage (as well as wasting their own time on the conflict)... more dangerously it is covert, and the parties do not actually talk to each other about the real issues but canvass support from those whom they believe to be influential' (p. 89). If we want to give an example of destructive conflict, it can be a good example of Everard's and Morris's statement (1996). The example concerns intergroup competition. If a competition becomes a conflict, it can be very useful and great value to an organisation. However, it can easily be destructive. When intergroup competition develops into a 'win-lose' situation it is even more difficult to handle than between individuals. If any one member of a group departs from the 'party line' or does not share the same idea he or she may be perceived as a traitor and outcast.

In an organisation, because of the conflict, different kinds of outcomes occur, depending on the participants' attitudes to conflict which are specified into groups by Everard and Morris (1996). These are based on alterations of whether or not participants believe that they can avoid confrontation, and whether or not they believe that they will be able to reach the agreement. In some attitudes to conflict, communication problems occur; at the root is a conflict of view which is not brought into the

open. Instead, the parties each 'do their own thing' in order to get away with it. 'They may also devote a great deal of time to building up support for their point of view and talking about the person with whom they are in conflict rather than talking to him or her' (Everard and Morris, 1996, pp. 90-91). Sometimes behaviour will depend on how high or low are the personal stakes; they may not be greatly important but they are measured in terms of the ego of the parties. If the personal stakes are high the party will risk losing, if they are low the decision may be left to 'fate', or the conflict may easily state a different situation.

4.2.1. Example 2: Subject Promotion or Promotion?

Secondary education encompasses general, vocational and technical education institutions, where a minimum of three years of schooling is required after primary education. The aims of secondary education are to provide students with the knowledge of general culture, and to prepare them, in line with their interests and talents, for institutions of higher education. This is an important and crucial point, although secondary education aims to prepare students for universities with their field of interest, it means for their future. Ministry of Education had suddenly changed the promotion system into subject promotion. Actually subject promotion is a very good system, but deputies, head of deputies, teachers and students did not understand anything. They had difficulties with adaptation. Especially for teachers, the more detailed works were found difficult. So change without organisation, without any plan, without existing any conflict in terms of discussion and sharing ideas with each other was destined to be unsuccessful, although they know that the change was certainly necessary. Then the Ministry of Education changed the system again into the previous one. These were all wasting time. They should have created the conflict environment for managing successful change. However, the conflict should not be destructive, it needs to be solved. In Everard's and Morris' (1996) views the following principles should guide to solve the conflict:

1. The parties will talk to each other as openly as possible about the real issues that concern them.
2. They will state their aims, views and feelings openly but calmly, and try to avoid reiteration.

3. They will try to put the conflict into the context of super-ordinate goals and of the interest of the total organisation. They will look for common goals.
4. They will focus on future action rather than on the events of the past.
5. They will listen carefully to each other's point of view and seek to understand it. To ensure that their understanding of it is correct they may rephrase the other's point of view. However, this must be a genuine attempt at restatement and not a parody of what was said.
6. They will try to avoid moving on to the attack or defence.
7. They will try to build on each other's ideas.
8. They will trust each other's good faith and try to act in good faith.
9. They will plan some clear actions to follow the discussion specifying who will do what by when.
10. They will set a date and time to review progress and will keep this at all costs (p. 94).

From the two examples given in the above section, it is apparent that conflict is one of the most important and fundamental for successful change or solving the problems very effectively. In summarising the argument here, what needs to be emphasised is that conflict is a key factor in managerial success and whenever we need to change, there should be potential for conflict. Conflict and disagreement are part of all productive and successful change processes. There is no need to think that everybody shares the same idea in a group. If it is not so many sparkling ideas occur, therefore good alternatives may take place. Since education is a continuous process day after day lots of changes will need to be happen so we need to and we should become used to living with conflict and disagreement together for success.

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