

**THE DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF A
CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMME: THE SCHOOL
AS CONTEXT.**

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ABSTRACT

The research entailed the development, implementation and evaluation of a conflict resolution programme. Using the ecological perspective as the theoretical framework, the study highlighted the school as an appropriate context within which to promote non-violent strategies for conflict resolution.

A conflict resolution programme for adolescents was developed by adapting specific modules of existing programmes. The researcher trained a group of social work students in the implementation of the programme. Using the groupwork method, the programme was subsequently implemented with standard five pupils at primary schools in Durban. The researcher supervised four pairs of students who implemented the programme with four groups of pupils at three schools. The thirty-nine pupils who collectively made up these groups, constituted the sample in the study. The pupils ranged in age from eleven to fifteen.

The programme was implemented over eight one-hourly sessions, held once weekly, over eight consecutive weeks. Several data collection instruments were developed. The programme was evaluated in terms of its content, methods of implementation and outcome. The incorporation of qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis enabled the researcher to validate information derived from different sources. The study discusses the processes used in programme development, the training of the facilitators, the selection of the sample, programme implementation and programme evaluation.

The study found that the conflict resolution programme was effective in creating awareness of the advantages of adopting non-violent strategies of conflict resolution and in contributing to the development of effective problem-solving skills. The research data and the literature reviewed, reflected the need for school-based conflict resolution programmes. Based on the outcome of the evaluation, recommendations were made with regard to the further adaptation of the programme, the inclusion of conflict resolution programmes into school curricula, appropriate training for programme implementation and the social work role in conflict resolution skills training. Policy recommendations regarding conflict resolution skills training and the need for further research in the area of conflict resolution and programme evaluation, were also provided.

Since wars begin in the minds of men (and women), it is in the minds of men (and women) that we have to erect the ramparts of peace.

Preamble to UNESCO Charter

Quoted in Quaker Peace Centre (1992)

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This dissertation, unless indicated to the contrary in the text, represents the original work of the candidate. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author.

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CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

This study takes place within the context of a society that is plagued by increasing levels of violence which has become inextricably linked to several areas of our lives. The terms political violence, violence in sport, violence against children, family violence, violence in schools, and community violence have become part of our everyday language. Violence has become so entrenched in our society that it is often used as a first line response to conflict, and has contributed to a mental outlook which positively reinforces or excuses the use of violence (McKendrick and Hoffman, 1990). In schools, in homes and in communities, children are often unwittingly taught violent responses to conflict situations. This attitude and approach can be carried into adult life, frequently with tragic results. The urgency to adopt strategies to reduce violence and to promote peace by encouraging tolerance and co-operation, is emphasised by authors such as Dawes (1994), Duncan and Rock (1994), Matthews (1996), McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) and Taylor (1992).

Social work has a responsibility to respond to the context within which it is practised. The transitional political process in South Africa, along with changing economic, social and environmental realities, has compelled social work educators and practitioners to develop skills, strategies and techniques to respond to the many challenges facing the profession (Ramphal and Moonilall, 1993). Social workers need to contribute to the process of reconstruction and development by engaging in processes to reduce/prevent violence and to facilitate the building of peaceful communities. Violence prevention, as an area for social work intervention, is identified by authors such as Duncan and Rock (1994), Ramphal and Moonilall (1993), Sacco (1995) and Tshiwula (1995).

In South Africa, the school environment is one that has become affected by and embroiled in the spiral of violence. This is illustrated in newspaper articles entitled "Terror rules in classroom" (Naidu, 1996, p. 10), "The classrooms of conflict" (Moodley, 1995, p. 15), "Warning of explosive situation at schools" (Power, 1995, p. 1) and "School violence crisis" (Jackman and Miller, 1994, p. 1). There is consensus in the literature on the need for conflict resolution programmes to be implemented within the school environment (Matthews, 1996; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, 1992; Weir, 1995).

In this chapter, the researcher describes the context of the study, followed by an outline of the theoretical framework guiding the study. The rationale for the study, the value of the study, the objectives of the study and the research questions relevant to the study are discussed. The research design is introduced and the chapter concludes with the definition of the major concepts used in the study.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

A vast body of literature confirms that violence is the result of a multiplicity of factors and interacting social systems (Alexander Jr. and Curtis, 1995; Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, 1992; Setiloane, 1991). As advocated by the ecological perspective, these systems exert multiple contextual influences which impact on the developing individual. To understand the problem of violence in terms of aetiology, consequences and prevention, it is essential to view the different levels of systems that influence each other and the developing individual. These levels as expounded by Alexander Jr. and Curtis (1995) and Whittaker, Schinke and Gilchrist (1986) are the micro, mezzo, exo and macrosystems. These systems formed the context within which this study developed and provides some understanding of the multi-dimensional nature of violence.

Literature is replete with discussion of the political, socio-economic and developmental factors in relation to violence (Chikane, 1986; Delva-Taui'i'ili, 1995; Duncan and Rock, 1994; Hoffman and Mckendrick, 1990; Killian, 1993). Although the researcher is cognizant of these factors and influences, it is beyond the scope of this study to detail the multifactorial etiology of violence. Only those systems that are of direct relevance to this study are highlighted and discussed.

The micro context

The influence of the family in shaping attitude and behaviour is discussed within the micro context. The family is seen as the primary institution for the socialization of the child. Using Skynner's definition, Sewpaul (1993) described the family as an institution which faced inward to the individual and outward toward society, preparing each member to take his/her place in the wider social group by helping him/her to internalize its values and traditions as part of him/herself. This implies then, that the family as a core group lies at the interface between the individual and society. It must be remembered that the family is only one system interacting with larger systems. Family members form part of a network of significant others or support systems that have a great bearing on individual behaviour (Cairns, 1996; Duncan and Rock, 1994; Kasiram, Keen and Naidoo, 1996; McKendrick and Hoffman, 1990; Whittaker et al, 1986; Sewpaul, 1993).

There is strong consensus in the literature that the family exerts a tremendous influence on the development of aggression and violent behaviour among adolescents (Alexander Jr. and Curtis, 1995; Holdstock, 1990; Kasiram et al, 1996; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991). For Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991, p. 152), "aggressive, anti-social adolescents are not born. They are slowly made over the years." The authors added that nearly all specialists who addressed the issue of violence agreed that families played a vital, but not an exclusive role in teaching children to use force to resolve conflicts. The correlation between child abuse and aggression is well documented. Children who are

abused and children who witness their mothers and siblings being abused are hurt by the experience. Seriously abused children are driven to repeat what happened to them, that is, to inflict pain on others who are helpless (Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991). The internalization of a total pattern of abusive relations contributes to adults and children feeling no empathy for those they hurt. Abuse is thus the ugliest and the most dramatic way in which families "teach" children to be abusive to others.

Alexander Jr. and Curtis (1995) cited a study by Loeber and Dishion who studied boys who fought at home and at school. The study revealed that boys who fought in both environments were more anti-social, had poorer parenting, witnessed more marital discord at home, had families with poorer problem-solving skills, and were more likely to experience parental rejection than three comparison groups of boys who were non-fighters, who fought at home only, and who fought at school only. According to Loeber and Dishion, these findings stressed the need for preventive intervention in early childhood involving parents and teachers. Behavioural models suggest that aggressive responses are primarily learned from parents, siblings and peers who reinforce and reward aggressive types of problem-solving (Delva-Taui'i'ili, 1995). Next to the family, the school is viewed as a system which impacts greatly on the behaviour and the development of children.

The mezzo context

On the mezzo level, the school is viewed as a significant context within which conflict resolution programmes can be taught. This is detailed in Chapter Two. The state of schools in South Africa and the need for primary prevention within the school context are briefly highlighted here. The general "culture of violence" which permeates all areas of South African society is influential in students' solving problems and conflict violently rather than through negotiation and discussion (The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, 1992, p. 42).

Killian (1993) viewed the school as one of the institutions that had been hardest hit by the violence in South Africa. As an example, the author cited schools in the Vulindela/Edendale area. In March 1992 schools in this area had to be closed and it was estimated that 60,000 children were out of school. A further 100,000 children were out of school in the Mpumalanga area. Teachers refused to teach because of the repeated incidents of attacks on the schools by vigilantes who disrupted the school with apparent impunity. There were frequent complaints that pupils controlled the schools and that the teachers and principals were too scared to challenge the youth. In some instances, in a desperate attempt to reassert their authority, teachers used corporal punishment on students. This only added to the problem of the increasing spiral of violence in schools (The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, 1992). The schools that were functional were immensely overcrowded as they accommodated large numbers of refugees, while other schools were damaged or virtually empty. Killian (1993, p. 37) described the chaos in schools as being "too vast to comprehend".

Against this background, one needs to consider the widely held assertion that the school plays an important role in the socialization of the child (Delva-Tauili'iili, 1995; Fraser, 1996; Holdstock, 1990; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991). The daily school routine prepares children for the outside world and the roles that they will play (Holdstock, 1990; Livingstone, 1990; O'Connell, 1994; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991). It is evident that many children have been subjected to negative socialization experiences at school. As aggressive behaviour is learnt, this behaviour can be unlearned and children can be taught that they do not have to rely on aggressive techniques to achieve their objectives (Holdstock, 1990). The importance of preventive programmes to restore a "culture of learning" at schools is highlighted by The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (1992, p. 42). This can be done by equipping pupils and teachers with conflict resolution skills as well as counselling skills to assist victims of violence.

The need for primary prevention programmes within the school setting has important implications for the practice of school social work. In emphasizing the

important preventive roles that social workers can play within schools, Sancho (1994) asserted that the ultimate objective of school social work was prevention. The potential of school social work and the school context needs to be recognized in endeavours to promote *schools for* non-violent means of conflict resolution. Livingstone (1990) stressed the need to view schools in the wider context of the society within which they operated.

The macro context

Since this study is a response to a need within the South African context, issues related to this context deserve attention at a macro level. South Africa has been marred by a history of human rights abuses, escalating conflict and increasing levels of violence. The high levels of violence which dominate South Africa are, to a large extent, the function of past political, social and economic policies. The apartheid policies of the Nationalist government (1948-1994) were based on discrimination and institutionalized racism. Socio-political discrimination and injustice and its associated problems of violence, crime, poverty, unemployment and homelessness have contributed to a sense of powerlessness (Sewpaul, 1993). The legitimized processes of violence inherent in the apartheid regime prescribed and sanctioned behaviours which violated the integrity and dignity of large groups of people within South African society. In fact, the country has earned the infamous rating of being one of the most violent countries in the world (Duncan and Rock, 1994; Dunn and Fritz, 1996; MacLennan, 1995). A survey conducted by the Mail and Guardian revealed that 132 people died in violent incidents during one weekend in February, 1996. On average, South Africa buries 80 unidentified murder victims every month, and the figure is increasing (Dunn and Fritz, 1996). These figures illustrated what McKendrick and Hoffman (1990, preface) described as a nation "polluted by violence so that no individual within the society remains untouched by its presence."

Children deserve special mention when one considers that the turning point in South African history was started by children demanding their rights to education

in 1976. Children are the greatest asset of any society if their creative potential is developed and harnessed. The political violence in South Africa has produced a situation in which literally millions of children have to live in high-risk environments where violence assumes a number of forms. This situation has contributed to an increasing number of street children, to a rise in juvenile crime and to an increasing number of children who are abandoned or neglected because of broken families. In their study into the effects of violence on families in Phola Park squatter camp on the East Rand, McKendrick and Senoamadi (1996) noted some of the consequences of violence for children. These included: children living under constant fear of being teargassed, inadequate care during periods of violence, school disruptions and school drop-out. Violence prevented families from fulfilling basic functions such as nurturing and socialising children in a healthy and satisfying manner. Killian (1993) pointed out that one of the effects of continued violence was that people became desensitized to it and accepted it as being legitimate and at times, saw it as the only solution to conflict.

It has become clear that training and education at various levels are required to enable South Africans to deal effectively with conflict and to develop a human rights culture. Social workers, as one group of human service professionals, are directly confronted with the effects of conflict and human rights abuses. There is an urgent need to train social workers at a macro level to handle community violence and the wide scale abuse of human rights. Training in peace education provides social workers with the theory and skills to effectively manage conflict at various levels. In addition these skills can be passed on to a network of service providers and clientele with whom social workers come into contact. Preventive initiatives at a macro level such as the formation of the Kwa-Zulu Natal Peace Commission in 1995 and The Forum: Educating for Peace in 1995 also call for social work input.

The global context

There are global commonalities in the pervasiveness of violence and despair.

This statement is reflected in press articles entitled "Blood is spilling all over the world" (Wilkinson, 1996, p. 18) and "Superpowers unite to fight global rise in terror" (Smith and Norton-Taylor, 1996, p. 18). The problem of violence being used as a response to conflict transcends national, socio-cultural and political boundaries. The devastating consequences of this line of response is illustrated in the report entitled "Hundreds of Tutsis die as Hutu rebels attack" (Daily News Reporter, 1996, July 22, p. 7). A further report reads "With half of its population either dead or in asylum, the people of war-torn Grosny are preparing themselves for more bloodshed" (Daily News Reporter, 1996, August 21, p. 5). The prevalence of violence and racism in the United States, "ethnic cleansing" in Bosnia, the socio-economic chaos in Russia, as well as the human tragedies in Somalia, Ethiopia and Sudan are viewed by Mohan (1993) as manifestations of dysfunctional ideologies that failed to liberate human beings.

Clarke (1996) pointed out the similarities of the religious war between the Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland and the battle lines drawn between the African National Congress and the Inkatha Freedom Party in Kwa-Zulu Natal. The Orangemen of Protestant Northern Ireland believe that home rule is the only solution, while the Inkatha Impis of rural Zululand believe that autonomy is their birthright. Both struggles have resulted in violence, death, destruction and confusion. Clashes with paramilitary groups, sudden death attacks by masked gunmen, unknown soldiers fighting for a confused ideology, have meant huge losses of life. More than 20 000 people died in Kwa-Zulu Natal while 3000 people died and 36 000 were injured in Northern Ireland (Clarke, 1996). This provides just one example of similarities in violent struggles within and across countries.

Hill and Madhere (1996) quoted statistics of the United States Department of Education which illustrated the high levels of violence among children in the United States of America. These statistics indicated that in 1990, some three million incidents of violence occurred on or near school property. The authors added that it was estimated that 135,000 children carried guns to school every day. These authors quoted further statistics of the United States Department of

Justice which indicated that in 1991, 55 percent of junior high school students sampled, indicated that they had missed time from school because of a fear of violence. Again, similarities can be drawn with violence within South African schools. Nzimande and Thusi (1991) reported on research conducted by the Educational Policy Unit of the University of Natal which revealed that one million children in Kwa-Zulu Natal were not attending school. One of the major reasons cited was that the education system was racked by violence. Reports from schools showed that relations between pupils and teachers had deteriorated to the extent that shootings took place in the classrooms. Teachers and pupils frequently armed themselves before entering the classrooms.

Dawes (1994) cautioned against generalizing the findings of studies conducted in one violent situation to that of another situation in which very different conditions might prevail. It is unlikely, for example, that the findings of studies on the moral orientations of Mozambican Renamo child soldiers who have spent years involved in brutal killings will be predictive of the orientations of children who have thrown stones at the security forces in South Africa. In addition, sites of conflict such as Northern Ireland, The Israeli Occupied Territories and South Africa differ in terms of their demography, politics, levels of economic development and education. These factors make a difference to the form that the violence takes, the number of people it affects and their responses to the violence. It has been shown that "what were once thought to be internally guided universal forms of psychological functioning can be powerfully influenced by the context within which the child is reared" (Dawes, 1994, p. 180). This has definite implications for the planning of services in relation to violence and violence prevention. Mohan (1993) concluded this discussion by noting that in a diverse, complex and problematic world, authenticity, diversity, peace and a commitment to social justice were the key elements of global development. These values must form an integral part of the various systems discussed. The extent to which these systems influence each other is discussed within the ecological framework which guided this study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The ecological perspective was viewed as an appropriate framework within which to contextualize this study. This approach emphasizes the multiple contextual influences on human behaviour and the concept of reciprocity between the individual and the environment (Hill and Madhere, 1996; Whittaker, Schinke and Gilchrist, 1986). McKendrick (1990) viewed the person-in-transaction-with-the-environment stance as being the most useful and relevant approach for the South African social worker. One of the distinguishing characteristics of social work is its focus on the "wholeness" and the totality of the person-in-situation gestalt (Thackeray, Farley and Skidmore, 1994). The holistic, dynamic view of the reciprocal exchanges between people and environments moves away from simplistic, linear cause-effect explanations (McKendrick, 1990). In fact, Brower (1988) maintained that the ecological model was one that grew directly out of the social work profession's dual commitment to the person and to the environment. The environment is defined as including "not only actual situations in which one finds oneself but also includes socio-cultural and socio-economic events that shape the psychosocial context within which one lives. These events include such things as the general political climate of the day, the socio-economic status of one's community, and one's demographic characteristics" (Brower, 1988, p. 424). The author stressed that the concepts "person" and "environment" were inseparable and that behaviours must be viewed within the person-environment interaction.

Similarly, Whittaker et al (1986, p. 488) viewed the environment as a set of "nested concentric structures", each influencing the other and ultimately the developing child. These structures may be viewed as contexts or systems that never function in isolation. Through the use of the ecological model, interventions may be targeted at micro, mezzo, exo and/or macrosystemic levels, depending on where deficits are experienced. Therefore, if deficits occur at a microsystemic level, intervention will accordingly aim at the school, family or child. Intervention at the mezzosystemic level will focus on strengthening partnerships between the

school and the family. Exosystemic interventions will target neighbours, social agencies, businesses and the community at large. Macrosystemic interventions will focus on identifying dysfunctional policies and work at the broader level of national values, legislations and policies (Kasiram, 1995). In referring to school violence, Alexander Jr. and Curtis (1995, p. 79) recognized the advantages of combining micro and macro intervention strategies and advocated the "active participation by the entire education community."

The ecological perspective thus accommodates a broad spectrum of problems/needs and provides a suitable framework for understanding the concepts of conflict and violence and the reciprocal processes between people and the environment. This all encompassing focus of the ecological perspective increases the chance of social work programmes within schools being valued as essential support services. Kasiram (1995) viewed the school as a real-life ecological unit which was an obvious venue for the practice of an ecological approach to building partnerships among subsystems with the aim of joint problem-prevention and problem-solving.

Whittaker et al (1986) outlined the value of this paradigm in designing service programmes for children, youth and families, namely:

- * building more supportive, nurturant environments for people through various forms of environmental helping that are designed to increase social support.
- * improving competence in dealing with proximate and distal environments through the teaching of specific life-skills such as social skills for adolescents, conflict resolution skills, and family living skills.

Social work services must be directed at releasing people's potential for growth and adaptive functioning, and increasing the responsiveness of environments to people's needs, capacities and aspirations (Germain, 1982). The ecological

perspective is closely linked to the primary prevention perspective as both these approaches focus on people and their interaction with the environment. The focus of the ecological perspective and primary prevention are on opportunities for positive social participation and skills to promote building successful relationships (Astor, 1995; Fraser, 1996). Approaches in primary prevention seek to reduce the sources of stress in individuals and in the social and physical environments, while simultaneously building up the services of growth-promoting experiences (Hoffman, 1990). If social workers can utilize professional knowledge and skills to prevent problems from arising, then many individuals will be spared destructive experiences (Thackeray et al, 1994). To anticipate problems that may arise, in advance of their occurrence, calls for a greater understanding of human behaviour, inter-relationships and social phenomena. Germain (1982) quoted Bloom who expressed social work commitment to prevention as a dual one, that is, primary prevention seeks not only to prevent needless misery, but also to promote well being.

In emphasizing the dual focus of prevention, Astor (1995) maintained that in addition to equipping children with social and life skills, having significant and caring adults who followed children through development might reduce some childrens' sense of alienation and their drift into violence. In a similar vein, multi-faceted preventive programmes are advocated by Alexander Jr. and Curtis (1995), Fraser (1996) and Kasiram et al (1996) to ensure harmony within the individual and a goodness of fit between the individual and his/her home and school environments.

The conflict resolution programme in the current study has a preventive focus in that it aims to prevent/reduce the use of violence as a first line response to conflict situations. McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) saw primary prevention as comprising measures that might promote or enhance non-violent means of conflict resolution, or prevent violence from occurring.

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Much concern has been expressed about the increasing levels of violence in South Africa and the serious negative consequences that this has for children and for society as a whole. In attempting to address the problem of violence, practitioners and researchers have focused primarily on curative methods and the treatment of survivors of violence. These approaches have proven to be costly and fail to prevent violence from occurring. This recognition has stimulated the research process as well as local and national initiatives aimed at violence prevention. These initiatives include the Peace Summit held in Kwa-Zulu Natal (1995), the drawing up of the Kwa-Zulu Natal Peace Bill (1995), and the national launch of The Forum: Educating for Peace (1995). These endeavours include the development and implementation of violence prevention programmes within communities, and more specifically, within schools. The linking of this study to the objectives of these peace initiatives makes this study timely and appropriate.

Discussions held with social workers in the field, school counsellors, teachers and principals led to an awareness that violence prevention programmes at schools were limited. Furthermore, the evaluation component was lacking in most instances. Because there was no evidence of the impact of programmes on the recipients, it was difficult to gauge whether the implementation of specific programmes created an awareness of the advantages of adopting non-violent strategies for conflict resolution. Farrell and Meyer (1996) stressed the need for rigorous evaluation efforts in order for the field of violence prevention to proceed. The need to develop indigenous programmes was also identified. All these factors contributed to the initiation of this study.

Further support for this study is found in the recommendations of The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (1992), Duncan and Rock (1994) and the White Paper for Social Welfare (1996). These reports stressed the urgency for effective programmes aimed at violence prevention and the need for further research in this area.

VALUE OF THE STUDY

The goal of developmental social welfare is a humane, peaceful, just and caring society which will uphold welfare rights, facilitate the meeting of basic human needs, release people's creative energies, help them achieve their aspirations, build human capacity and self reliance, and participate fully in all spheres of social, economic and political life (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1996, Preamble).

The value of this study lies in its potential to contribute toward the processes of building a peaceful, just and caring society as mentioned in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1996). *The study acknowledges the need to convert the present culture of violence that plagues South African society into a culture of peace and reconciliation. The programme in this study is aimed at promoting non-violent strategies of conflict-resolution and can be viewed as a significant component of broader peace initiatives.

Programme evaluation lends particular significance to the study to demonstrate the effectiveness and efficiency of the conflict resolution programme. Social programmes are responses to individual and community needs. Because these programmes are proposed, defined, enacted and funded through political processes, programme evaluation is integrally intertwined with political decision-making about societal priorities, resource allocation and power (Greene, 1994; Norris, 1990; Palumbo, 1987; Rubin and Babbie, 1993). Well conceived, well designed and thoughtfully analysed evaluation can provide valuable insights into how programmes are operating, their effectiveness, their value to programme participants, their strengths, their weaknesses and their cost-effectiveness (Feuerstein, 1986; Greene, 1994; Herman, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987; Hope and Timmel, 1988b). By seeking to facilitate programme improvement, programme evaluation can contribute to enlightened policy-making at different levels.

This link between programme evaluation and political decision-making is evident in the National Social Welfare and Development Plan of the African National Congress (1994). The democratically elected government is forced to confront the many unresolved social, economic, health and welfare problems that have been carried over from the apartheid era. Social welfare and development programmes are viewed as one of the key vehicles to facilitate social change and to remove structural inequalities within the social welfare system. Evaluation of these programmes "will assess the impact of social welfare programmes on the total need or extent of social problems, the process, results and the efficiency of methods used" (African National Congress, 1994, p. 42). This ongoing process will determine whether programmes are appropriate and economically viable, and will guide decision-making with regard to the development of more programmes and resources at various levels. In this way, "governmental demands/societal issues will be related to the internal functioning of the directorate of social welfare and development " (African National Congress, 1994, p. 51).

The value of the study for the social work profession is underlined by King, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1987) who stressed the ethical and professional obligations of social workers not simply to do their best for people, but to offer help that was most likely to be effective. This involves the constructive evaluation of methods and policies in the light of changing needs. Social work, like other professions, must develop credibility by demonstrating professional competency through agencies, as well as through well formulated and evaluated social work programmes (Hornick and Burrows, 1988). Pietrzak, Ramler, Renner, Ford and Gilbert (1990) asserted that if evidence on the impacts of services are available, the likelihood of funding for social welfare programmes is increased. Of particular relevance to social work, is Patton's (1986, p. 17) statement that "caring about evaluation findings and caring about helping people, can be, and ought to be, complementary."

The evaluation will assist in identifying the programme's strengths and weaknesses and in providing some direction for further adaptation of the

programme. In addition, programme evaluation in this study constituted intervention research. The service delivery component of the research might have been of intrinsic value to the participants.^o It is envisaged that the conflict resolution programme will meet an important need in the local context and can be implemented at all schools by social workers, teachers and guidance counsellors. The programme will not be restricted to use at schools only. It is designed to be flexible enough to be implemented in a wide range of settings such as childrens homes, street shelters and youth clubs. The programme may also be adapted by consumers for use with a diverse range of age and interest groups.

In a democratic developing country like South Africa, the thrust is on promoting national growth, development and well-being. Promotion and prevention are likely to be increasingly important functions allocated to social workers (McKendrick, 1990). As social workers have important roles to play in violence prevention, the study makes recommendations with regard to the training of social workers and other professionals in conflict resolution/peace education. An awareness of prevention programmes and ways in which they can be included in service delivery, can assist social workers in providing a more effective service.

Recommendations regarding the inclusion of conflict resolution programmes into school curricula are also made. This has important implications for teachers who require specific training, as well as the educational system which must accommodate conflict resolution programmes within the school curricula.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. Through a literature search, to review the content of existing conflict resolution programmes being implemented at national and international levels.

2. Adapt specific modules of conflict resolution programmes for implementation with pupils attending primary schools in Durban.
3. Evaluate the effectiveness of the programme by determining whether it:
 - a) creates an awareness of the advantages of adopting non-violent strategies of conflict resolution.
 - b) contributes to the development of more effective problem-solving skills.
4. Determine the strengths and weaknesses of the programme with a view to making recommendations toward the improvement of the programme.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Have existing conflict resolution programmes been evaluated to measure their effectiveness in equipping children with conflict resolution skills?
2. To what extent does the conflict resolution programme, implemented within small group contexts:
 - a) create an awareness of the advantages of adopting non-violent strategies of conflict resolution?
 - b) contribute to the development of more effective problem-solving skills?
3. How can the programme be further developed/adapted to increase its effectiveness?

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The value of a study is determined by the extent to which it is compatible with the research approach and the guiding theoretical framework (Patton, 1990). Programme evaluation was the primary research method used in this study. Under the general rubric of programme evaluation, the research incorporated elements of qualitative and quantitative methods of investigation and analysis. This section details and explores the use of programme evaluation as an appropriate research method in this study, followed by a discussion on the combined use of elements of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms.

Programme evaluation / the evaluation research approach

Patton (1986, p. 14) defined programme evaluation as "the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programmes for use by specific people to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions with regard to what those programmes are doing and affecting."

Rossi and Freeman (1989, p. 18) offered a similar definition by stating that "evaluation research is the systematic application of social research procedures for assessing the conceptualization, design, implementation, and utility of social intervention programmes." The authors explained that evaluations were systematic to the extent that they employed social research approaches to gathering valid, reliable evidence. They added that one of the distinguishing characteristics of programme evaluation was that its methods covered the gamut of prevailing research paradigms. These definitions clearly identify the purpose of evaluation research, that is, to assess and improve the ways in which human services programmes are conducted, from the earliest stages of defining and designing programmes through to their development and implementation.

Clarification regarding the terms "programme evaluation" and "evaluation research" is essential. While some authors such as Rossi and Freeman (1989)

and Rubin and Babbie (1993) used the terms "programme evaluation" and "evaluation research" interchangeably, others such as Lincoln and Guba (cited in Palumbo, 1987) and Patton (1986) highlighted differences between programme evaluation and evaluation research. Patton (1986) maintained that while programme evaluation used research methods to gather information, evaluation differed fundamentally from basic research in the purpose of data collection. Basic scientific research is undertaken to discover new knowledge, test theories, establish truth, and generalize across time and space. Programme evaluation, on the other hand, is undertaken to inform decisions, clarify options, reduce uncertainties, and provide information about programmes and policies within contextual boundaries of time, place, values and politics (Patton, 1986). In support of Patton (1986), Lincoln and Guba (cited in Palumbo, 1987) asserted that systematic differences in the purpose of the activities, signal differences in outcomes. These distinctions stressed the need to view research and evaluation as separate, discreet and mutually exclusive activities. A further difference mentioned by Cronbach and Suppes (cited in Patton, 1986) was that research was aimed at truth while evaluation was aimed at action. However, the researcher viewed both processes as being intricately linked as the establishment of truth is a vital pre-requisite to action. Norris (1990) quoted Glass and Worthen who pointed out that despite differences between research and evaluation methods, there were more similarities than differences with regard to techniques and procedures for judging validity. Patton (1990) concluded this debate by noting that programme evaluation and evaluation research bring an empirical perspective to questions of policy and programme effectiveness, and that both processes are concerned with data accuracy, validity and reliability. Having noted the above arguments, for the purpose of the current study, the researcher views programme evaluation as being synonymous with evaluation research.

The triangulation method

The choice of research method should depend on the research situation at hand (Reichardt and Cook, 1979). In the current study, evaluation research

incorporated what Cheetham, Fuller, McIvor and Petch (1992) and Patton (1987) described as the triangulation method. For Cheetham et al (1992), triangulation meant the use of different data collection methods. Patton (1987) described triangulation as a method of building checks and balances into a design through multiple data collection strategies. This method provides a "means of validating information derived from different sources and permits the weaknesses and strengths of different data collection methods to be balanced" (Cheetham et al, 1992, p. 4). According to Patton (1987), recent developments in evaluation have led to an increase in the use of multiple methods including combinations of qualitative and quantitative data. The phrases qualitative methods and quantitative methods mean far more than specific data-gathering techniques. Filstead (1979) conceptualized these methods as paradigms. Using Kuhn's definition, Filstead (1979, p. 34) saw a paradigm as a "set of inter-related assumptions about the social world which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organized study of that world."

The advantage of the quantitative approach is that it measures the reactions of many people to a limited set of questions, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of the data. This gives a broad, generalizable set of findings (Patton, 1987). By contrast qualitative methods typically produce a wealth of data about a much smaller number of people and cases. Bryman (1990) added that qualitative research entailed the researcher getting close to his or her subjects and being sensitive to the context. These attributes tend to breed greater confidence in the validity of qualitative data over the quantitative, which may appear by contrast rather superficial.

Various authors (Shapiro cited in Patton, 1987; Weinstein cited in Bryman, 1990; Newby cited in Bryman, 1990) cautioned that the use of the triangulation method could be problematic in that the different methods may produce contrasting findings within a single study. However, Bryman (1990), Harrison (1994) and Reichardt and Cook (1979) saw these as advantages. The use of multiple methods allows for cross-checks between the data gathered, and this serves to

enhance the validity of the findings. In supporting these authors, Patton (1987) maintained that because different kinds of data might capture different things, the analyst must attempt to understand the reasons for the differences. This could contribute significantly to the overall credibility of the findings.

Patton (1987) quoted Denzin who contended that because each method revealed different aspects of empirical reality, triangulation should be employed. He in fact suggested that multiple methods should be used in every investigation. Likewise, Bryman (1990), Harrison (1994) and Stufflebeam cited in Greene (1994) saw triangulation as a powerful solution to the problem of relying too much on any single data source or method and thereby undermining the validity of findings because of the weakness of any single method. The evaluator therefore needs to be open to more than one way of looking at a programme. While quantitative research allows the researcher to establish relationships among variables, a qualitative study can explore the reasons for these relationships. In conclusion, literature points to the fact that in programme evaluation, a combination of both types of data is desirable as it offers more depth and scope than is provided by any one method (Bryman, 1990; Harrison, 1994; Pietrzak et al, 1990; Rubin and Babbie, 1993).

DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

In this section, the key concepts used in this study are defined.

Conflict is defined as a "situation arising from the contradictory needs, values and/or interests of individuals and/or groups bringing about tension and stress in the parties concerned" (Terminology Committee for Social Work, 1995, p. 13). Hoffman and McKendrick (1990) cautioned against confusing conflict with violence. **Violence** ordinarily implies the use of force to harm, injure or abuse others (Lauer in Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990). **Conflict** denotes a difference of interest or of opinion, and is in itself not harmful. Creating a better society does not involve eliminating conflict, but eliminating violence.

In describing conflict resolution programmes, the terms **conflict resolution**, **violence prevention**, **training for non-violence** and **peace education** are used interchangeably in the literature. In the current study, the term "conflict resolution" is used unless reference is made to the writings of particular authors. Priilaid (1995, p. 12) viewed **conflict resolution** as aiming to "create modes of understanding that will encourage attitudes that facilitate co-operative rather than adversarial approaches to problem-solving, and non-violent rather than violent responses to conflict." Of relevance to this process is McLeod's (1992, p. 851) definition of **resolution** which is "the act of separating something into its constituent parts or elements."

Prevention is defined as the "process aimed at minimising and eliminating the impact of conditions that may lead to social malfunctioning" (Terminology Committee for Social Work, 1995, p. 46). The programme in the current study is a **preventive programme** which is described by Alexander Jr. and Curtis (1995) as the type of programme that promoted social and cognitive skills which aided children in learning alternatives to violent behaviour.

In this chapter, an introduction to the study has been provided. The chapter has outlined the contextual and theoretical frameworks guiding the study and has provided the rationale for and the value of the study. Programme evaluation as the research method used in this study, is also discussed. The remainder of this dissertation is divided into the following four chapters :

Chapter Two consists of a literature review.

Chapter Three details the research methodology of the study.

Chapter Four provides an analysis and discussion of the results of the study.

Chapter Five outlines the major conclusions and the recommendations drawn from the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

South African literature, by and large, tends to emphasize the remedial and curative approaches to violence, with the major focus being on post-traumatic stress disorder and the treatment of survivors of violence. The development and implementation of specific preventive strategies has received limited attention. Much of the literature from the United States of America, on the other hand, describes school based programmes that focus on conflict resolution and violence prevention. However, research regarding the effectiveness of these programmes is limited. A vast body of the literature reviewed acknowledged the need to focus on measures to promote or enhance non-violent means of conflict resolution. Cairns (1996), Hicks (1988), McKendrick and Hoffman (1990), Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) and Taylor (1992) have all contended that violence stemmed from an inability to resolve conflict effectively and stressed the need to create learning situations that were conducive to fostering peace. The area of peace education is still relatively new in South Africa. The literature review highlights the link between conflict and violence and the need to develop, implement and evaluate conflict resolution programmes. For the purpose of this study the literature review focuses on the school, as an appropriate system, within which to teach and promote education for peace.

This chapter provides the link between conflict and violence, discusses violence as a learned response and highlights the power of non-violence. Conflict resolution as a component of peace education is outlined. The importance of social work, as a discipline, and the importance of the school in violence prevention are highlighted. The components of conflict resolution programmes are described and the chapter concludes with a review of conflict resolution programmes that have been evaluated.

CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE

Violence is seen as one of the consequences of the inability to resolve conflict effectively. This section serves to highlight the link between conflict and violence. Manifestations of human violence reveal common features irrespective of the context in which violence occurs, the persons involved, and whether the violence is manifest physically or structurally (Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990). Recognition of these features deepens the understanding of conflict and violence and provides valuable directions for intervention.

It is postulated that all forms of violence share one characteristic, namely, conflict (Duncan and Rock, 1994; Gentry and Benenson, 1993; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; Setiloane, 1991). Van der Merwe (cited in Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990) confirmed that conflict was neutral, but pointed out that people were conditioned into regarding conflict as negative or destructive. Conflict generates energy, and if such energy is constructively channelled, violent action is improbable. However, if conflict is destructively managed, violence may result.

Violence is a form of communication. The message underlying unresolved conflict may be conveyed in a violent manner either directly to the person or group concerned, or via an innocent victim. Any act of violence violates the rights of the individual, whether adult or child (Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990). An inappropriate response to conflict may therefore result in a violation of human rights. In agreeing with these authors, Taylor (1992) contended that the fundamental aim of conflict resolution was to ensure justice for everybody and every group.

Idealizing conflict usually leads to its intensification (Van der Merwe cited in Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990). It follows then that should violence be advocated as a means of conflict resolution, violence would escalate. A clear understanding of the relationship between conflict and violence is vital to peace

educators who wish to illustrate the ripple effects of ineffective conflict resolution on the one hand and effective problem solving on the other.

VIOLENCE: THE CYCLIC PATTERN OF A LEARNED RESPONSE

Overt political violence in this country receives extensive coverage in local and international media and tends to obscure the interpersonal violence which pervades our society. It must be remembered that the visibility of political violence occurs against the backdrop of largely invisible, yet endemic interpersonal violence (Seedat, Terre Blanche, Butchart and Nell, 1992). Duncan and Rock (1994) contended that most media and academic reports failed to focus on the undeniable link between the more visible acts of violence and other types of violence such as domestic and criminal violence. A possible reason for this, according to Seedat et al (1992, p. 59), is that the origins of political violence are often understood to lie in political and socio-economic inequalities, whereas interpersonal violence is explained in psychological or narrow legalistic terms such as "criminality." This conceals the important point that each "type" of violence shades into and feeds upon the other. Hickson and Kriegler (quoted in Duncan and Rock, 1994, p. 24) strongly supported this view by stating that "abuse is always embedded in a series of interlinked contexts, ranging from the family and the community to larger social, economic and political contexts."

The influence of apartheid on the lives of all South Africans is well documented. Chikane (1986, p. 337) stated that "to be born into an apartheid society is to be born onto a battlefield. The fight is for human dignity and even survival." The author specifically referred to the violent conditions of Black children growing up in the townships. It is a world made up of teargas, bullets, whippings, detention, and death on the streets (Chikane, 1986). Apartheid's systematic destruction of Black family life has led to a growing number of children and adolescents losing respect for their parents, who in turn have lost confidence in their ability to be effective parents (Killian, 1993). The question raised by Duncan and Rock (1994) is whether children who have witnessed the systematic humiliation, subjugation,

and disempowerment of their parents can be expected to internalize the social norms and values such as the sanctity of human life which make communal life possible. Furthermore, can children whose parents were completely disempowered in their capacity as parents, one day be effective parents themselves ? ✓

As with other areas of service provision, the educational resources in South Africa followed a pattern of racial inequality that reinforced the relations of domination that characterised the apartheid order. The education of children was severely compromised. The education system was used as a means to create and entrench racial, class and ethnic inequalities rather than to ensure the optimal development of children (Duncan and Rock, 1994). Rather than equipping students with skills required to survive in a broader society, schools inculcated in students a negative sense of self and feelings of anger, powerlessness and alienation. Van Soest and Bryant (1995, p. 555) saw this "violence by alienation" as depriving people of rights such as the right to emotional, cultural and intellectual growth. This alienation gave rise to high levels of normlessness which, in turn, contributed to the transformation of many schools into veritable hellholes of physical violence and sexual abuse (Netshiombo cited in Duncan and Rock, 1994).

Literature strongly supports the claim that aggression and violence are learnt behaviours, based largely on the social learning theory of Albert Bandura and Robert Walters (Dawes, 1994; Delva-Taui'i'i, 1995; Duncan and Rock, 1994; Fraser, 1996; Hoffman and McKendrick, 1990; Setiloane, 1991). "The theory is based upon the role of observation and the mimicking or imitating of behaviours observed in others, usually referred to as models" (Reber, 1985, p. 708). Using this theory, it can be predicted that continued exposure to violent role models is likely to lead to imitation and acceptance of violent conduct. In keeping with the principle of generalization within the theory, the social learning theory further proposes that violent conduct learnt in one arena can generalize to other settings. Concern has been expressed about whether young South Africans who have

been exposed to political violence may have developed a tendency to generalize an acceptance of violent means of conflict resolution in other areas of social life.

Several studies have examined the influence of exposure to political violence on the production of violent fantasy and behaviour. Dawes (1994) cited a study by Lab of 52 African urban township children between the ages of 9 - 16. During a period of high political turmoil, the children were asked to complete several tasks which included a drawing about where they lived, an essay and a list of their worries. All the tasks reflected a concern about political violence and a preoccupation with violence. Lab concluded that children who lived in politically violent areas incorporated this violence into their play and fantasy life. This finding was congruent with observations made by Killian (1993, p. 37) that pre-school children in townships frequently played games with the sinister names of "Caspir-Caspir", "Funerals" and "AK'S." When asked to draw pictures, children frequently drew pictures of figures engaged in violence. Dawes (1994) cited a further South African study by Rabinowitz (1988) which showed that across different class, gender and race groups, children who had been exposed to certain forms of child-adult violence were more accepting of it than those who had not. In their inquiry into the effects of public violence on children, Duncan and Rock (1994) found that most of the studies highlighted the fact that the more frequently children were exposed to acts of violence, the more likely it became for them to begin perpetrating acts of violence. Bundy (cited in Duncan and Rock, 1994) maintained that a very thin line existed between being a victim of violence and beginning to commit violent acts oneself. The real tragedy of this situation is that South African children, like other children, are not born to be violent. They have systematically been socialised by society to perceive violence as the only viable means of asserting themselves or of resolving conflict (Duncan and Rock, 1994; Killian, 1993; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991). Garnham (1992) argued that if violence was learnt as a strategy for resolving conflict, then it was possible to learn other conflict management strategies, thus changing one's conflict management techniques from violent to non-violent strategies. However, such change can only occur if it is guided by a belief in non-violent social change.

THE POWER OF NON-VIOLENCE

The thinking on non-violence and education for peace has spun a web spanning hundreds of years across various cultures on different continents. This occurred through the actions of individuals and the teachings of various religions and philosophies. While most of the work on the practical applications of non-violence has occurred in the Western world, most of the philosophical and religious thinking about it began in the Eastern world. Holmes (1990) reflected on the teachings of the Jains in ancient India, on Lao Tzu in ancient China, and on the unknown author of the Bhagavad Gita in ancient India. These teachings have had a profound influence on the thinking of many people. The intellectual, spiritual and social realization of the power of non-violence has surfaced repeatedly in the history of humankind.

Holmes (1990) noted that the modern world also produced principal figures who were committed to the cause of non-violence and who were absorbed in the social and political injustices of their day. These included figures such as Leo Tolstoy in Russia (1828 - 1910), Mohandas K. Gandhi in India (1869 -1948), and Martin Luther King Jr. in the United States of America (1929 - 1968). The teachings of these advocates of human rights and of non-violence have also had a major impact on the lives of many. Gandhi's practice of non-violent resistance, based on the principle of "satyagraha" meaning "truth force" is well documented (Fischer, 1982, p. 102). A significant teaching of Gandhi was that "the opponent must be weaned from error by patience and sympathy, weaned, not crushed; converted, not annihilated. Satyagraha is the exact opposite of the policy of an-eye-for-an-eye-for-an-eye-for-an-eye which ends in making everybody blind" (Fischer, 1982, p. 102). The practical implementation of these teachings are relevant to building a peaceful and just society. In particular, the success of "non-violence in action" during Gandhi's stay in South Africa (1893 - 1914) is widely remembered and cherished.

In keeping with Gandhi's emphasis on truth, Edmunds (1990) agreed that truth is to be found on all sides of a conflict. If we are to practice non-violence and accept points of view different from our own, we need to adhere not only to the truth as we see it but also to remain open to the possibility that our position and goals may change as we listen to others. Acts of violence create bitterness in the survivors and brutality in the destroyers (Fischer, 1982). Similar to Gandhi's teachings on satyagraha, peaceful conflict resolution seeks to exalt both sides by creating win-win situations. The aim is not to destroy others but to find solutions to problems by exploring situations and encouraging acceptance of the truth.

In highlighting the need for peace education on an international level, Tyrrell (1995) pointed out that twenty years ago, the United States of America was recovering from a war in South East Asia, with peace activists wanting to bring up a nation of children non-violently. In Britain, ten years ago people became aware that there was something wrong with an education system that, on the one hand could bring about the best examination results in the United Kingdom, and on the other hand, the worst level of violence. At about this time, "Peace Studies" as an actual subject on the curriculum was introduced in Britain. Hicks (1988) noted that during the last decade, teachers in many countries have expressed concerns about the increasing levels of direct violence between people and the damaging structural violence which may be built into social, economic or political systems. As teachers became aware of the need for non-violent methods of conflict resolution, they began to consider how conflict resolution could fit into the school environment. Education for peace thus began as a grassroots concern among teachers in response to what they, and many others, saw as an increasingly violent world.

Holmes (1990) contended that training for non-violence had many dimensions and must be understood in relation to basic social, political and cultural values. In South Africa, the history of violence, oppression and tension makes peace education and non-violent choices more imperative. In fact, Farrell (1995) regarded peace education work as being crucial to a stable democracy,

particularly in societies which have historically pursued violent strategies for dealing with differences.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION AS A COMPONENT OF PEACE EDUCATION

Because the ultimate goal of peace education is to create and sustain peace, we need to ask the question: "What is peace?" McLeod (1992, p. 728) defined peace as "the state existing during the absence of war." However, the researcher supports the broader definition of peace offered by Jane Addams quoted in Sullivan (1993, p. 513):

I believed that peace was not merely an absence of war but the nurture of human life, and that in time this nurture would do away with war as a natural process.

The values of love, acceptance, trust and respect are essential for the nurture of human life and they form the basis of education for peace. The Quaker Peace Centre (1992) outlined the following ideas on peace which help to clarify the goals of peace education:

- * peace is not the absence of conflict but the ability to deal with it creatively and non-violently, without hurting or oppressing others.
- * peace is a state of harmony and exists at many different levels, namely, within the individual, groups, communities and nations.
- * working for peace requires patience with those with whom we disagree, without condoning ideas and deeds we consider unpeaceful.
- * sometimes peace is preceded by anger and grief at what is wrong. We must try and use this anger as fuel in working for peace.

Based on these definitions and ideas of what peace is, peace education can be defined as the process of promoting a non-violent and co-operative way of living (Quaker Peace Centre, 1992). According to Hicks (1988), the overall aim of peace education is to develop the skills, attitudes and knowledge needed to resolve conflict peacefully in order to work towards a more just and less violent world. In highlighting the relevance of peace education in diverse cultures, Tyrrell (1995, p. 26) stated that "in essence, peace education is about empowering people to become agents for non-violent social change." Training for non-violent social change provides people with a practical and effective concept of change which empowers them to take charge of learning processes in their environment.

According to the commission on peace education at the Peace Summit (1995), training in conflict resolution skills forms an important component of peace education. Other areas identified by the commission included: democracy and human rights, communication skills, developmental issues, discipline, *uBuntu*, values and attitudes, media awareness, and attitudes of reconciliation. Conflict resolution can in fact be seen as a broad umbrella encompassing the other areas identified. This is captured by Priilaid (1995) who identified commonalities between conflict and the broad concept of development. The author maintained that conflict was symptomatic of a dynamic, ever-changing society. Whenever there is conflict, there is the opportunity to develop and grow. Priilaid (1995) asserted that the conflict resolution principles of process, enablement and active rather than passive involvement by the parties concerned, were key ingredients in meaningful development. In supporting his statement, Priilaid (1995, p. 12) made reference to the notion that there could be "no peace without development and no development without peace."

The focus of conflict resolution skills training and the power of such training to contribute to the building of peace is now discussed. Training generally aims at:

- * exploring *concepts of peace* both as a state of being and as an active process (Hicks, 1988; Quaker Peace Centre, 1992).

- * enquiring into the *obstacles to peace* at individual, group, institutional and societal levels (Hicks, 1988).
- * providing skills to help people *resolve personal and group conflicts* as well as offering them skills in a variety of areas related to social change. This occurs by experiential learning on relevant topics (Cairns, 1996; Edmunds, 1990; Kasiram et al, 1996; Priilaid, 1995; Taylor, 1992).
- * helping people to *develop a vision* of what they would like their society to be. People are exposed to a broad view of social issues and their interrelationships. By examining the relationship between seemingly isolated social problems, a deeper and more complete understanding of the changes needed and occurring in society is developed (Dovey, 1995; Edmunds, 1990; Hicks, 1988).

Work for social change is more effective when theory balances practice. Uniting theory and practice is a time and energy consuming process, but long-term, positive change is more likely when thought and action are combined (Edmunds, 1990). The author maintained that peace education programmes should include the philosophy of peace, the theory of peacemaking and the facts behind particular conflict situations. Skills which must be developed through experience include co-operation, empathy, communication and conflict resolution.

Peace education has been taught in South African schools on a very limited and unstructured basis. A few universities and colleges are in the process of developing peace education courses for inclusion into their curricula. At the Social Work Departments of the University of Natal and the University of Durban-Westville, students are trained in conflict resolution and are required to implement the programmes learnt. The social work curriculum at the University of Cape Town also includes a course on education for peace.

Some organisations have responded to the need to address violence by taking the initiative to put across the ideas of peace education and to undertake training in this area. These include The Quaker Peace Centre (Cape Town), The Centre for Conflict Resolution (Cape Town), The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (Gauteng), Independent Projects Trust (Kwa-Zulu Natal), Vuleka Trust (Kwa-Zulu Natal), and the Independent Mediation Service of South Africa (national). This is a positive step in the peace-building process and attempts must be made to sustain these initiatives and to develop new initiatives to promote peace. Van Soest and Bryant (1995) maintained that for social workers to effectively contribute to the peace-building process, it was necessary to understand the concept of violence, the features of violence, and the link between conflict and violence.

VIOLENCE PREVENTION AND SOCIAL WORK

The potential contribution of social work to violence prevention is highlighted by authors such as Alexander Jr. and Curtis (1995); Astor (1995); Chetkow-Yanoov (1991); McKendrick and Hoffman (1990); Schmitz (1994) and Sullivan (1993). Prior to the democratic political dispensation in South Africa, the training and practice of social work was shaped by the apartheid ideology. This meant that the training and service delivery were divided on the basis of race. Social workers of different racial identities have thus been exposed to different experiences of social work practice. Letsebe (1995) identified the area of working with violence as being a case in point where experiences of social workers of different racial groups have been worlds apart. Some social workers have had to live with violence at the micro level in families, and at macro levels in their communities and in the larger society. Other social workers adopted the myopic view of social work held by some mainstream social work agencies which divorced themselves from macro societal issues, especially those that were regarded as having "political" connotations (Letsebe, 1995, p. 99). The context in which social work was practised, polarised many social workers mainly on the basis of racial and ideological interpretations of the role of social work.

While recognizing the differences mentioned by Letsebe (1995), Sacco (1995) highlighted the moral imperative for all social workers to contribute to the process of building peace and healing the wounds of oppression and discrimination. The author pointed out that the profession's historic commitment has been to fight injustice. Social justice remains one of the profession's cardinal values. Being involved at the grassroots level with the effects of conflict and human rights abuses, social workers are well placed to engage in violence prevention and the promotion of peace. A survey conducted by Ramphal and Moonilall (1993) revealed that the majority of social workers did not feel secure with their level of competence in handling the kinds of problems that were arising in a new South Africa. They expressed a need for retraining in skills such as mediation, conflict resolution, social policy development, advocacy, empowerment and community development. It has become clear that training and education at various levels are required to enable South Africans to deal effectively with conflict and to develop a human rights culture. Training in peace education addresses this need by providing social workers with the theory and skills pertaining to human rights, conflict resolution and peace initiatives.

Because social workers' strengths lie in their comprehensive view of human nature, they are in strategic positions to develop and implement multi-faceted violence prevention programmes (Delva-Taui'i'ili, 1995). In supporting Delva-Taui'i'ili (1995), Thackeray et al (1994) contended that the *social* in social work stressed the emphasis on social interaction and resultant social functioning. One of the basic aims of social work is to understand relationships of people and to help them to resolve their conflicts. This is done by focusing on the strengths of people in effecting desired changes. The social worker endeavours to help people to understand themselves and their relationships with others, and to tap their own and community resources in solving problems.

There is consensus in the literature that to improve rates of success in violence prevention, strategies must be developed to better address the full complexity of influences that lead to aggressive and violent behaviour in the social ecology of

childhood and early adolescence (Delva-Tauili'ili, 1995; Fraser, 1996; Hill and Madhere, 1996; Kasiram et al, 1996). While acknowledging that social workers need to target the different environments that an individual interacts with, for the purpose of the current study, attention is given to the social work role within the school setting.

Tshiwula (1995) pointed out that social workers, equipped with training, knowledge and experience in working with individuals, groups and communities, are in a position to provide meaningful direction for work in schools. The social worker serves as an important link between the school, the pupil, the family and the community. As part of preventive strategies, the social worker can contribute to designing the school curriculum to promote personal and social development of pupils. Sewpaul (1993) termed this an empowering approach to education which focused not only on academic achievement, but also on education for life and character development. Life skills training should include skills in developing self-awareness, communication and assertiveness skills, skills in interpersonal relationships and problem-solving (McKendrick and Hoffman, 1990; Sewpaul, 1993; Tshiwula, 1995). In a broader sense, Tshiwula (1995) recommended that schools should ask social workers to run context specific programmes that could contribute to preventing problems such as truancy, vandalism, substance abuse and juvenile delinquency. In addition, Delva-Tauili'ili (1995) stressed important social work roles in encouraging sensitivity to the individual's cultural and social experiences, and in preparing teachers and students to meet the needs of an ever increasing multicultural school population.

Astor (1995) suggested that school social workers could be instrumental in collecting and disseminating empirically based information and advocating the creation of violence prevention programmes at schools. They will need to promote a deeper awareness of the strong relationship between early violence and later adolescent violence. Educating significant adults about the outcome of longitudinal studies may encourage more concern about the frequent fist fights, bullying and minor forms of assault. Social workers should be active in developing

interventions that include the entire school system and empower school staff to respond to student experiences with peer violence. For Astor (1995), an additional challenge to social workers is the fact that many people do not believe in the effectiveness of prevention programmes. If social workers are able to demonstrate the effectiveness of early preventive programmes, society may be encouraged to examine its willingness to intervene in the area of violence prevention. The school may be viewed as one of the appropriate settings within which to begin this process.

VIOLENCE PREVENTION: THE ROLE OF SCHOOLS

In accordance with the eco-systems framework guiding this study, violence is viewed as a consequence of the interaction of a multiplicity of factors. Literature points to the roles played by various systems in contributing to violence. An effective approach to address this problem is that of collective action which recognizes the importance of the various systems, for example, the social, economic, educational, political and legal systems. While acknowledging that all these systems have a significant contribution to make in violence prevention in our society, this study highlights the role of the school, as a system, within which violence prevention efforts should be focused. Schools are viewed as important social institutions which impact significantly on the life of the communities within which they are located.

The role of schools in the prevention of violence is seen against the background of the role and purpose of education as well as the role of social work within the school setting. Livingstone (1990) highlighted the mutual goals of school social work and education. Both are deeply concerned with the maximum development of children. Both stress the fostering of the growth of each individual, so as to fulfil his or her potential. Both are concerned with the physical and emotional education and social conditions of the child. Social workers and educators should therefore mobilise their efforts to help children to attain the goals for which they are striving. Weir (1995) went a step further to point out the congruence between

working towards equipping pupils with effective conflict resolution skills and the goals of a school. The primary goal of a school is to educate students. Conflict, which ranges from unresolved disagreements to violent acts, interrupts the educational process and interferes with the students' ability to learn (Gentry and Benenson, 1993). An environment in which conflict is resolved effectively, however, facilitates the learning process, thus enabling the school to more effectively meet its primary goal. A secondary goal of the school is to socialize its students. Next to the family, the school has the greatest responsibility for teaching children the skills necessary to function successfully in society. In addition to the content knowledge set out in the formal curriculum, schools teach a whole range of attitudes, values and assumptions which prepare people for life within the wider society. Working to change students' attitudes about conflict and conflict resolution and to improve their means of problem-solving, are important parts of this socialization process (Holdstock, 1990; Livingstone, 1990; Weir, 1995).

Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) viewed learning itself as a vital form of violence prevention. The cognitive skills children develop during years of studying English, mathematics and science help them to reason their way through stressful and dangerous situations. Young children whose language skills and analytical abilities have been developed in the classroom are likely to think before striking, and to use words instead of force to persuade. Their capacity to think can help them see beyond the prevailing assumption that one has no choice but to fight. The authors maintained that children who had been taught to think decisions through clearly were less likely to resort to violence.

Gentry and Benenson (1993), Matthews (1996), McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) and Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) agreed that the home and school environments exerted a strong influence over attitudes and behaviour of young people and therefore provided the most appropriate settings to influence children with regard to strategies to handle conflict. They regarded the school as an important focal point within which conflict resolution skills might be taught.

O'Connell (1994, p. 2) asserted that "schooling is about social interaction, about developing shared meanings, about the acquisition of skills, about the creation and dissemination of knowledge.....and about preparation for full participation in society." Children should be taught to express their own needs and opinions without trampling on the rights of others, and to express angry feelings without losing control and hurting other people. The significance of these teachings were stressed by Gentry and Benenson (1993) who reported that parents, academicians and mental health professionals agreed that beliefs and behaviours learnt by children in one setting usually transferred to other settings. The authors went on to state that the advantage of school-based educational programmes were that they could be implemented with more efficiency and consistency as compared to home-based educational programmes which faced problems of inefficiency and limited accessibility.

McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) stressed that school systems and teachers must exemplify non-violent modes of resolving intrapersonal and interpersonal conflict. At the heart of this is the development of open communication, shared reasoning and responsibility, and positive reinforcement of non-violent behaviour. Drawing on the work of Hawkins, Catalano, Morrison et al and O'Donnell, Fraser (1996) reported that research increasingly showed that the school climate and teaching practices were strongly related to childrens' commitment to school, their academic achievement and to their behaviours in the community. Teachers need classroom management skills and must know how to resolve disagreements peacefully, how to break up a fight and how to deal with students who are aggressive or violent. In other words, crisis intervention skills for teachers are crucial if they are to act as appropriate role models for students (Alexander Jr. and Curtis, 1995).

Duncan and Rock (1994) also identified schools as important and convenient sites for the implementation of programmes aimed at teaching children tolerance and non-violent lifestyles. More specifically, the authors recommended that programmes be developed to educate children in non-violent problem-solving and

conflict management, as well as balancing of rights and responsibilities. The authors stressed that the elimination of public violence would be a long process, and this process is most likely to succeed if it starts with the inculcation of non-violent values and lifestyles amongst children. Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) confirmed that there was no better place than school, where diverse groups of children congregate, to learn and master important conflict resolution skills which enable them to enhance their lives and the lives of their communities. When planning learning situations to foster peace, it is essential to note different approaches that are applicable within the school setting. Drawing on the literature and personal contact with certain organizations and schools, these approaches are briefly discussed.

Specialists from outside the school environment could come into schools to implement peace education programmes. These could include social workers, psychologists, legal advisors, representatives of religious organisations, volunteers and community workers. Appropriate training of committed people helps to avoid excessive dependence on professionals (Duncan and Rock, 1994). Using this approach, schools have a choice as to whether the implementation of these programmes are accepted or not. However, the experiences of the Independent Projects Trust in Durban, Vuleka Trust in Botha's Hill, the Centre for Conflict Resolution in Cape Town as well as the researcher's experience with the conflict resolution programme in this study revealed that schools were generally very receptive to programmes of this nature. A disadvantage of this approach is that as these programmes do not form part of the academic curriculum and are not examinable, they may not be taken seriously (Duncan and Rock, 1994; Matthews, 1996). On the other hand, pupils may be particularly alert and receptive to programmes which provide a variation from routine classroom learning.

A method that can be combined with the above approach is that of trained teachers offering peace education using various approaches at school. Peace programmes can be accommodated in the school curriculum whereby courses

dealing specifically with peace can be taught. The advantage of this approach is that it provides a symbol of the legitimate commitment of schools to thinking about and working for peace (Taylor, 1992). Another approach is to introduce a peace focus into certain subjects of the school curriculum, for example, History, English Literature and Religious Education. Elements of both approaches can also be combined in the teaching of peace in schools. For maximum effect a peace curriculum needs a climate which is influenced by the spirit of peace education: relationships of dialogue between teachers and pupils, co-operative procedures, the manner in which conflict is resolved, assistance towards those in need of support and a respect for diversity (Astor, 1995; Gentry and Benenson, 1993; Holdstock, 1990; Schmitz, 1994; Taylor, 1992).

Peer mediation, referred to by Weir (1995) as student-facilitated conflict resolution is an approach to conflict resolution within schools that has received considerable support. The importance of linking conflict resolution and mediation programmes to an array of fields such as delinquency, violence, substance abuse, suicide and truancy is being given special attention by practitioners (Botha, 1992). School-based peer mediation programmes usually come into being as components of conflict resolution programmes, and form part of wider community violence prevention efforts. The essential features of peer mediation are found in the following definition by Dovey (1995, p. 9):

Peer mediation is an approach to pupil conflict resolution and peacemaking and a means of transforming pupil conflicts into constructive learning experiences and opportunities for growth. Pupil-to-pupil conflicts are handled by the disputants themselves with the assistance of specially trained peer mediators or conflict managers, rather than by principals and teachers.

As is evident from this definition, peer mediation is one way of preparing and empowering students to approach conflicts in constructive and creative ways. Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) viewed conflict resolution and peer mediation as going hand in hand with any violence prevention curriculum. A number of school-based peer mediation training models exist. Most training

agendas blend components on conflict, communication and problem-solving skills. In discussing their violence prevention programme, Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) explained that trained peer mediators wearing special T-shirts were assigned to patrol the playground during breaks. When they saw a situation of student conflict, they approached the scene and asked if their help was needed. The disputants could either agree or disagree to mediation. If there was agreement, the mediators proceeded to help students, using the prescribed problem solving process. An interesting observation was that the mediators themselves were changed by the job: they saw themselves as peace promoting leaders.

The potential benefits of peer mediation programmes are multi-faceted. Benefits for the staff and the school include: a more peaceful school climate, a reduction of tension between staff and students and a resolution of student-related problems by getting to the underlying causes which traditional measures may avoid or defer. Benefits for the student body include: the provision of a forum for the direct resolution of conflicts that do not require administrative attention, the active involvement of students in the problem-solving and decision-making processes, the enhancement of confidence in their ability to help themselves and a greater student commitment to make solutions work. Benefits for the peer mediator include: the development of leadership, communication, problem-solving and critical thinking skills, the enhancement of self-esteem, the opportunity to influence others in a positive way and an appreciation of diversity (Botha, 1992).

As highlighted by the findings of research conducted by Gentry and Benenson (1993) and Schmitz (1994), peer mediation training has implications for student conduct and relationships within the school setting as well as within their families and their communities. Botha (1992, p. 36) noted that it was significant that many school-based peer mediators went on to become involved in parent-child and other community-based mediation services. This is a clear indication of the long term benefits of peer mediation and the potential of this approach to lend itself to building harmonious families and communities.

Since the crux of this study is the development and evaluation of a conflict resolution programme, the following aspects are reviewed:

- * components of effective conflict resolution programmes
- * evaluation of conflict resolution programmes

COMPONENTS OF EFFECTIVE CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMMES

Conflict resolution skills training is grounded in a philosophical framework which forms the basis for problem solving and constructive conflict resolution. This framework embodies certain principles and values which must be understood and reflected in any conflict resolution programme. Conflict has a positive value and can only be resolved by approaching, confronting and grappling with what has generated the disagreement and by understanding the emotions associated with it. The Community Board Programme Incorporated (1990, Appendix A) viewed this information as the "gold" of the conflict. "Mining" this gold can provide a successful resolution and a reduction of tension and hostility between the disputants even if they continue to respectfully disagree.

* The voluntary resolution of conflict is positive in that people take responsibility for resolving a problem themselves, or using an impartial third person to assist them to do so. In this way they are able to retain full control over the dispute and are able to effect a result that works. This control is important, particularly for young people who often feel powerless. Empowering them by equipping them with skills to voluntarily express and resolve their conflicts contributes to the building of self esteem and promotes the positive social value of responsibility. Careful consideration of the content of conflict resolution programmes is essential to ensure that the goals of the programme are met.

Taylor (1992) described an exploratory study that was undertaken to ascertain the broad content or themes that should be included in a peace curriculum. Data

were collected in the United States of America and Europe by means of in-depth interviews with experts and the analysis of relevant case studies. Sources of data included relevant literature, organizations and people who had successfully implemented peace and human-relations programmes which focused on young people and teachers. From the data that were collected and analysed, and taking into account the present social reality in South Africa, the following conclusions were drawn regarding the content of a peace curriculum:

- * the content must be directly related to the promotion of peace and positive human relations.
- * the content must provide relevant knowledge and address feelings and behaviours that have a bearing on negative human relations.
- * the content should empower young people to understand the complexity of South African society and to handle confrontation and conflict in a positive way.

The above ideas which are applicable to peace education broadly, contributed to the development of the conflict resolution programme in this study. Literature pertaining to specific components of the programme in respect of diversity, communication, conflict resolution styles and problem-solving are now discussed.

DIVERSITY

South Africa is a highly diverse society encompassing differences in race, ethnicity, age, education and socio-economic backgrounds. Our diversity as humans is evident in our differences in perceptions, needs, values, power, desires, goals, opinions and many other components of human interaction. Although diversity is a healthy aspect of society, these differences may lead to conflict. In dealing with conflict, the point is not to remove differences, but to use these differences to clarify our understanding of one another and our

relationships. People often feel threatened by the mere existence of a different point of view, or they allow the differences to define the entire relationship (Weeks, 1994). Because diversity is an integral part of conflict, conflict resolution programmes must stress its positive value (Weeks, 1994; Malan, 1992; Quaker Peace Centre, 1992; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; The Community Board Programme Inc. 1990). Within families, friendships, communities and societies, diverse perspectives and suggestions allow for enrichment and enhancement. Therefore, people should celebrate and promote diversity rather than perceive it as a threat and stifle it (Tshiwula, 1995; Weeks, 1994).

A major obstacle to appreciating diversity is the practice of stereotyping which entails having a previously formed idea about a person or group. Such ideas may be learnt within the family, from friends, or through ideas which exist in society. Callaghan (1994) equated stereotyping with discrimination. The author pointed out that in South Africa, because apartheid succeeded in keeping people apart, people made assumptions about one another based on limited knowledge. These stereotypes were continuously reinforced by the media. A pre-requisite to reconciliation and relationship building is to deal with stereotypical ideas which may prevent us from appreciating the uniqueness of others. In supporting Callaghan (1994), Weeks (1994) contended that stereotyping stemmed from the tendency to define people we are in conflict with only on their most negative behaviour while overlooking their positive attributes. Stereotyping can sometimes make both parties prisoners to a process in which the false, stereotyped image becomes the misperceived reality that both parties use to deal with the conflict.

Peace educators must bear in mind that for children the process of learning about other groups involves the development of a prejudice first and the perfection of the techniques of differentiation later (Horowitz cited in Cairns, 1996). Amongst young people who can be easily influenced, this awareness is crucial to facilitating understanding, acceptance and an appreciation of the positive value of diversity. This process can be further aided if people are equipped with effective communication skills.

COMMUNICATION

Communication is the basis for all human interaction and all group functioning. Conflict resolution is concerned with human interaction. Because humans define their relationships by communication, this is identified as an important human relations skill (Dougan, Dembo, Lenahan, Makapela, Gama and Moutinho, 1986; Hope and Timmel, 1988b; Quaker Peace Centre, 1992; The Community Board Programme Inc., 1990; Weeks, 1994). All co-operative action is contingent upon effective communication. It follows then that effective communication is a prerequisite to every aspect of human functioning including the ability to resolve conflicts effectively (Johnson and Johnson, 1987).

As pointed out elsewhere in this chapter, unresolved conflict may lead to violence which is a form of communication. Fighting is likely to erupt between individuals or nations when they cease to communicate effectively with each other. The longer the "communication vacuum" exists, the greater the likelihood of misunderstanding, frustration and violence (Chetkow-Yanoov, 1991, p. 58). Communication facilitates the process of understanding. It is important to communicate feelings to other people and to understand theirs. Feelings reflect a state of subjective reality which is neither right nor wrong, but which needs to be expressed and accepted.

As communication skills training forms a broader part of social competency training, the inclusion of such skills in preventive interventions are justified (Sancho, 1994). The author summarized the basic aim of communication skills training as being to assist people to cope with the task of interacting with others in a more meaningful way. Several authors identified listening and talking clearly as important communication skills which should be developed and improved during conflict resolution skills training (Cairns, 1996; Hope and Timmel, 1988b; Rooth, 1995; The Community Board Programme Inc., 1990; Weeks, 1994). Of equal importance is the skill of sensing, which refers to our sensitivity to the nonverbal communications given by a conflict partner. We need to realize that not

all people feel comfortable expressing themselves verbally, and we should be aware of any nonverbal signals that might help us understand how the other party is reacting to our behaviour and to the conflict resolution process (Weeks, 1994). A further consideration is the extent to which different styles of conflict resolution impact on this process.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES

People adopt different styles of conflict resolution based on the reward or satisfaction gained through a particular behavioural style (Filley, 1975). An awareness of these styles helps people to assess the short term and long term benefits for all parties involved. In this regard, Dougan et al (1986) stressed the need to differentiate between aggressive, assertive and non-assertive behaviours in conflict situations. These authors described aggression as "standing up for personal rights, expressing thoughts, feelings, or beliefs in an inappropriate way which violates the rights of others. Aggression involves attack and blame and results in a win/lose situation" (Dougan et al, 1986, p. 109). Responsible assertive behaviour is seen as the direct, honest and appropriate expression of opinions, beliefs, needs or feelings in a way which respects the rights of others. On the other hand, non-assertion involves violating one's own rights by failing to express honest thoughts and feelings. This style, referred to by Filley (1975, p. 51) as the "yield-lose style" entails giving in to the desires of others and undervaluing the achievement of one's own goals.

Other responses to conflict discussed by Johnson and Johnson (1987) included avoidance and denial. Avoidance refers to the reluctance to confront conflict situations, with the hope that the problem will "go away." Denial involves a failure to acknowledge that there is a problem. These behaviours are viewed as obstacles to negotiation and effective conflict resolution. An awareness of factors which facilitate the understanding of the conflict and the manner in which it is resolved, is essential. The problem solving method of conflict resolution has received considerable support in the literature and is now discussed.

PROBLEM-SOLVING

The importance of learning problem-solving as a basic life skill is highlighted by Egan (1990), Filley (1975), Hogges (1994), Sancho (1994), Steinegger-Keyser (1994), The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990) and The Quaker Peace Centre (1992). Problem-solving forms the basis for effective conflict resolution. In fact, Steinegger-Keyser (1994, p. 1) asserted that "the goal of conflict handling is problem-solving. We need to discover ways of contributing to the resolution of conflict and solving the problems that cause it."

Problem-solving is a process which encourages people to be creative. The school and work environments often place our creativity at risk (Rooth, 1995). Egan (1990) expressed concern that despite talk about the importance of problem-solving, a review of school curricula revealed a lack in the teaching of problem-solving skills. It is sometimes contended that courses in problem-solving skills are not found in schools because such skills are picked up through experience. However, Egan (1990) questioned that if problem-solving skills were so important, should society leave the acquisition of these skills to chance. The author added that "the world may be a laboratory for problem solving, but the skills needed to optimize learning in this lab should be taught: they are too important to be left to chance" (Egan, 1990, p. 15). Similarly, Mitchell (1994) agreed that skills to resolve conflict and the ability to manage potentially explosive situations did not come naturally, but needed to be learned and developed.

During programme development the researcher drew on aspects of problem - solving models as discussed by Egan (1990), Hogges (1994), The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990), The Quaker Peace Centre (1992) and Weeks (1994). These authors identified common steps in the problem-solving/conflict resolution process, namely:

- * that parties agree to work towards resolving the conflict
- * that there is a clear identification of the problem

- * the brainstorming of various solutions
- * the selection and implementation of the most appropriate solution
- * monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of the approach used

The successful implementation of this process requires certain attitudes and perceptions. Conflict must be seen as natural, and if handled properly, can bridge gaps between people; the goals of conflicting parties must be accommodated; all parties are viewed as having an equal role to play in resolving the conflict; trust, candidness, and a respect for others' feelings are essential in decision-making. (Filley, 1975). An assessment of the effectiveness of conflict resolution programmes depends to a large extent on well structured evaluations. An overview of the evaluation of conflict resolution programmes is presented in the next section.

THE EVALUATION OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMMES

A review of conflict resolution programmes revealed that while programmes were well received and appeared to benefit recipients, structured programme evaluation was lacking in many instances. It was noted that with international programmes, structured evaluation formed an integral part of programme implementation. However, in the local context, programmes underwent informal, unstructured evaluations or the evaluation component was lacking. An outline of the programmes reviewed and the evaluation outcomes are presented in this section.

Gentry and Benenson (1993) conducted a study entitled *School to home transfer of conflict management skills among school-age children*. The study determined the extent to which elementary students in a school-based peer mediation programme transferred conflict management skills learned and practised at school to the home setting for use in resolving sibling conflict. Twenty-seven students and their parent/s participated in the study. One series of questions was developed for student mediators and another for parents. Data were gathered by means of structured interviews conducted with parents and student mediators.

A single-group pretest-posttest research design was used to investigate the following hypotheses: 1) The frequency, duration and intensity of sibling conflicts would decrease after children completed training and acquired experience in mediating playground disputes. 2) Posttest results would indicate an increase in the childrens' use of active listening, "straight" talking, co-operation and affirmation during sibling conflicts. 3) Parents would report less intervention in sibling conflicts when the study ended.

All teachers in the school were trained in the theory and application of conflict management in schools. Conflict awareness exercises were then incorporated into their curriculum over a four-week period. Thereafter, twenty-seven schoolyard student mediators were nominated and underwent a further six-hour training programme that included information about communication, conflict resolution strategies and opportunities to practice them. Instruction was provided through large group lectures and discussions, small group discussions and practice exercises including role-plays. The final phase consisted of a ten-week period during which student "conflict managers" mediated their peers' conflicts during school breaks. When disputes arose on the playground, an assigned pair of mediators would provide the first line of intervention. Teachers understood that they were not to intervene unless the mediators requested adult intervention. The student mediators met regularly with the faculty advisor to discuss difficulties experienced and to reinforce previous training. At the end of this phase, a posttest questionnaire guided the interviews with students and their parents. Additional questions which aimed at obtaining information about perceived benefits and problems of the programme were incorporated.

Findings revealed that after conflict management training and practice, student mediators involved perceived a significant decline in the frequency and intensity of conflicts with siblings. Their parents also perceived a similar decline in the frequency of such conflicts, as well as a significant improvement in their child's use of productive talk during conflicts. Parents also perceived a decline in the frequency of their interventions during conflicts between their child and his/her

sibling. In addition, the majority of parents reported that their child had improved self confidence/esteem and greater awareness of the need to acknowledge feelings during a conflict as a result of participation in the peer mediation programme at school. Gentry and Benenson (1993) concluded that when conflict management was learned and practised at school, the skills appeared to transfer to the home setting for use during conflicts with family members, particularly siblings.

A study conducted by Schmitz (1994) produced similar results. The author reported on the process and outcome of the implementation of a programme modelled on the Community Board Programme Inc. (1985) entitled *Conflict Resolution Programme for Schools and Youth*. The author who was the school social worker at an elementary school, trained several teachers on the staff in conflict management. Local presentations were also made to the teachers, school board and parents to share information and gain support. From the student body, volunteer conflict managers were nominated by their colleagues. The nominated students underwent conflict management skills training which included skills in communication, problem solving and teamwork. Students participated in exercises in areas such as active listening, non-verbal communication, interpreting "I-messages" and understanding feelings. Time was also devoted to learning and role-playing the conflict management process. The conflict managers were then assigned ground duty once or twice a week during the school breaks. The school social worker held meetings with the conflict managers, and was responsible for facilitating training and following up.

The programme was conducted over a two year period, and at the end of each school year, all students were surveyed to assess the effectiveness of the programme. The survey took the form of a questionnaire with students. Survey responses showed that the majority of students used the conflict manager programme, and most of the students thought that the conflict managers helped them. At the end of each conflict management session, the managers completed reports detailing the conflict and the resolution thereof. An analysis of these

reports indicated that of 172 management sessions, 89 percent of the conflicts were resolved, 11 percent were not resolved or were sent to a teacher.

Informal questionnaires completed by teachers and conflict managers indicated positive feedback about the programme. The teachers reported that the programme helped to resolve conflicts on the playground. A further observation made by the teachers was that the conflict managers displayed more effective communication skills and greater self confidence after having undergone the programme. Conflict managers reported that they found themselves using the skills learnt, not only during school breaks, but also in the classroom and at home when disagreements occurred. All the student mediators indicated that they would like to continue in their roles as conflict managers.

A similar initiative is described by Dovey (1996) at the Wynberg Girls' Junior School in Cape Town. A fairly recent development at the school is the racial and cultural integration of the pupil population. In 1995, the Cape Town based Centre for Conflict Resolution's Youth Project formally introduced a peer mediation programme at the school. This took the form of two conflict resolution training workshops, one for interested teachers, and the other for a group of parent and daughter volunteers. This was followed by thirty-four standard four pupils participating in a two-day peer mediation workshop presented by four teachers. The peer mediation programme was then implemented with the teachers concerned acting as co-ordinators. Informal evaluation took the form of verbal feedback from the peer mediators and the teachers who were involved. Similar to the findings of Gentry and Benenson (1993) and Schmitz (1994), the mediators felt that conflict resolution and mediation training and practice helped them solve their problems and that the lessons learnt could be used in their homes, with friends and in their communities. They added that in addition to finding solutions, the conflicting parties were able to approach conflict in constructive ways. There was unanimous agreement among the mediators that mediation was a step in the right direction towards teaching people to help one another. These eleven and twelve year olds became aware of challenges that adult mediators wrestled with

on a regular basis and underpinned the importance of specialized skills training for mediators of any age (Dovey, 1996).

Likewise, Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) reported positive outcomes from the implementation of a *Peacemaker* programme at Public School 321 in Brooklyn, New York. Teachers were given intensive training in conflict resolution techniques which were then taught to children as young as five and six years old. Children learnt "strong instead of mean" ways to respond, for example, "Don't bother me" instead of "Get your ugly face out of here" (Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991, p. 174). The lessons of assertion and civility were taught formally and then incorporated into the daily life of the classroom. The authors explained that the conflict resolution programmes shared certain ideas, namely:

- * that conflict is a normal part of human interaction.
- * that by exploring their prejudices, people learn how to relate to and enjoy people whose backgrounds are different.
- * that children and adults who learn how to assert themselves non-violently can avoid becoming bullies or victims.
- * that the self-esteem of children will be enhanced if they learn to build non-violent, non-hostile relationships with their peers.

Interestingly, the research showed that children who learnt to assert themselves without verbally or physically attacking others were not only less likely to become bullies, but were also less likely to become victims of bullies. Informal observations revealed that children who underwent the training displayed understanding, kindness and empathy towards their peers at school.

The importance of enhancing self-esteem and empowering children is illustrated in a study conducted by Cowie, Boulton and Smith (cited in Alexander Jr. and

Curtis,1995). A school system in Norway, spurred on by the suicides of two students who were victims of bullying, developed an intervention strategy which included skills training in problem-solving and assertiveness for students, a videotape for class viewing and discussion, and a booklet for teachers and parents. A three-year follow-up study on the effectiveness of the programme found that the intervention resulted in a significant decrease in the amount of bullying amongst pupils.

Kasiram et al (1996) described their experiences in implementing a multi-faceted violence prevention programme with adolescents at a school in Durban. The programme arose as a result of needs identified by the school management and a student social worker undertaking fieldwork at the school. Drawing on the *Peace Begins with Me* programme compiled by Whittington and Moran(1990), the programme was adapted and implemented in phases at the school. The programme focused on the promotion of peace by teaching fresh approaches to problem solving, thereby stimulating changes in behaviour. The holistic nature of the programme was evident in the inclusion of the students, the school teachers and parents in aspects of the programme. Although no formal evaluation had been undertaken, the school viewed the two social work students involved as having performed a unifying function at the school (Kasiram et al, 1996). The continued support of a team of dedicated teachers provided further evidence that the potential value of the programme was recognized. Teachers, and the school system in general, exert an influence on the manner in which students handle conflict. A brief look at corporal punishment within schools is therefore essential.

Holdstock (1990), in commenting on the use of corporal punishment in schools, pointed out that instead of facilitating the resolution of conflict and violence, the use of corporal punishment in our schools contributed to the epidemic proportions that violence has reached in South Africa. This was confirmed by Henderson (1996) who undertook research on corporal punishment in New Crossroads, Cape Town. The study revealed that the beating of children by teachers was a common practice and teachers openly carried sticks and sjamboks to school as a symbol

of their authority. Children who were interviewed felt strongly that beating in the schools was not conducive to learning. The author expressed concern at the fact that many teachers viewed corporal punishment as the correct way of teaching children what was right and what was wrong. Holdstock (1990) maintained that the use of force to "motivate" children to learn and resolve interpersonal conflicts was widespread and formed an integral part of the belief systems of many principals, teachers and parents. According to Holdstock (1990), research studies conducted by Gordan (1984), Hyman (1981), and Eron (1980) consistently showed that punishment did not prevent aggressive behaviour. In addition, a report to the United States Congress in 1978 on violent and safe schools, found a high correlation between physical punishment and violent behaviour in pupils. Similarly, Holdstock (1990) highlighted the work of Bandura (1973; 1977) which clearly demonstrated how a teacher who strikes a student provides a model of aggressive behaviour to be copied by the student. An encouraging recommendation listed in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1996, p. 86) relates to the need to educate public and service providers about the negative effects of corporal punishment on the development of the child and the necessity to create awareness about alternative means of conflict resolution.

A successful peace action campaign in South Africa was the programme run by the Centre for Peace Action (CPA) at Eldorado Park, Johannesburg. The centre was established in response to the need for preventive approaches to violence prevention (Seedat et al, 1992). One of the aims of the Peace Action Campaign was to promote a culture of peace in the community. The programme consisted of presentations on topics related to violence prevention at all twenty-four schools in Eldorado Park and Klipspruit West, some churches and nearby factories. Posters, banners and handbills were produced and distributed by school children. There were press releases to local and national media, radio talk shows and television appearances. Seedat et al (1992) stated that although the impact of the campaign was not evaluated by means of a survey, there have been increased referrals and requests for workshops and presentations. This, they claimed, was indicative of the need for violence prevention programmes in the area.

Mitchell (1994) described the value of conflict resolution programmes in managing inter-group conflict at Durban's Ethelbert Child Care Training Centre. The author explained that as a lecturer of child and youth care workers, she discovered that personality clashes and inter-group conflicts were not unique to children in care or staff who are care-givers. She stated that after implementing conflict resolution strategies to groups of student child and youth care workers, the impact was such that the entire mood of the group switched from defensive hostility to supportive understanding. Although this was a treatment rather than an educational/preventive group, Mitchell (1994) emphasized the long term benefits of the programme in helping the group to understand the meaning of tolerance and to increase sensitivity and improve relationships.

SUMMARY

The literature reviewed focused on the ripple effects of the inability to resolve conflict effectively and the consequences of violence being used as a form of conflict resolution. The necessity for training in non-violent means of conflict resolution as an important component of any just and democratic society, was emphasized. Although the researcher has acknowledged the roles of other systems such as the economic, political and legal systems in the prevention of violence, this review has focused specifically on the school context. In accordance with the objectives of this study, the social work role within this context was also emphasized. As this study was concerned with the development and evaluation of a conflict resolution programme, the components of conflict resolution programmes were reviewed as well as programmes that had been evaluated. This provided guidelines for programme development and the programme evaluation for the current study. The following chapter details the methodology of this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Programme evaluation was the primary research method used, incorporating elements of qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. A more detailed exploration of these methods is outlined in detail in Chapter One. In this chapter, the process and outcome of programme evaluation in relation to this study, are illustrated. Attention is paid to the research methods, research tools, the sample and sampling strategies utilized, as well as the data gathering processes. Limitations of the study and ethical considerations are also discussed.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

An evaluation design is a plan which dictates when and from whom measurements will be gathered during the course of a study (Fitz-Gibbon and Morris, 1987). In other words, a design is most basically a way of gathering information so that results from the programme being evaluated can be placed within a context for judging the impact of the programme. The purposes of evaluation are manifold. However, the literature identifies two broad categories of programme evaluation which seek to attain different purposes. These are:

- * *formative evaluations* which involve monitoring programme implementation and the achievement of goals. These evaluations are conducted for the purpose of improving programmes, programme planning, programme implementation and performance (Herman, Morris and Fitz-gibbon, 1987; Rubin and Babbie, 1993). This type of evaluation is also referred to in the literature as *process evaluation* and *implementation evaluation*.
- * *summative evaluations* which are conducted to make basic decisions about

whether a programme is effective or successful and whether it should be continued (Patton, 1987). This type of evaluation addresses the overall impact of a programme on its recipients and is typically the comparison of actual programme outcomes with desired outcomes/goals (King, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987; Patton, 1986; Pietrzak et al, 1990; Rubin and Babbie, 1993). Summative evaluations are also referred to in the literature as *outcome evaluations*.

The overall objectives of the current study necessitated the use of both the above approaches as the purposes of evaluation outlined are not mutually exclusive but complement one another (Rubin and Babbie, 1993). Hornick and Burrows (1988) stressed that both summative and formative analyses were necessary for any comprehensive research evaluation. For Patton (1986), when outcomes are evaluated without knowledge of implementation, the results seldom provide direction for action because the decision maker lacks information about what produced the observed outcomes or lack of outcomes. If an outcome evaluation is not supplemented by an evaluation of programme implementation, then it risks not identifying or misinterpreting the meaning of negative results (Rubin and Babbie, 1993).

Patton (1987) cautioned that there was no one best way to conduct an evaluation. Every evaluation situation is unique in the sense that each emerges from the special characteristics and conditions of a particular situation. Evaluations must therefore be tailored to suit the needs of different and changing situations. The researcher developed phases and formulated operational steps specific to this study.

PHASES OF THE STUDY

This section details the complete sequence of the phases of the study with their constituent operational steps and conditions. These phases and the operational steps within each phase are schematically represented in Table 1.

TABLE 1: PHASES OF THE STUDY

PHASE	OPERATIONAL STEPS
ONE	PRELIMINARY STUDY a) Training of the Facilitators b) Programme implementation c) Evaluation
TWO	PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT
THREE	TRAINING OF THE FACILITATORS
FOUR	THE SAMPLING PROCEDURE
FIVE	PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION: THE DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS
SIX	DATA ANALYSIS

PHASE ONE: PRELIMINARY STUDY

This phase was guided by course requirements for second year students at the Department of Social Work, University of Natal. Students were required to learn and implement a structured programme as part of their groupwork course requirements. The researcher and a colleague were assigned the tasks of teaching and supervising a group of twenty students for this course.

The structured programme selected for teaching was the conflict resolution programme of The Community Board Programme Incorporated (1990) entitled *Conflict Resolution: An Elementary School Curriculum*. There was no specific reason for the selection of this programme, except that it had been recommended by staff of another department who implemented the programme in school contexts. The phases of the preliminary study are briefly described hereunder.

Training

The researcher and her colleague worked together in training/teaching the

students about conflict and conflict resolution. Experiential learning methods were utilized in training students in the implementation of the conflict resolution programme. Teaching methods used included large group discussions, small group discussions, group exercises and role-plays. The programme was taught over a period of six sessions held once weekly over a six-week period. Each session lasted for about two hours.

Programme Implementation

The students were subsequently paired off to implement the programme with groups of standard five pupils attending primary schools in Durban. Each group consisted of approximately 8-10 pupils. The programme was implemented over six one-hourly sessions held once weekly over a period of six weeks. Students received supervision throughout the implementation of the programme. This took the form of discussions with students, observations, assessments, report writing and an informal evaluation of each session as well as of the programme as a whole.

Evaluation

Students were required to submit weekly reports after each session as well as a comprehensive evaluation report after the implementation of the entire programme. The students also undertook informal evaluations with pupils who participated in the programme. Although the programme was fairly successfully implemented, a need was identified to adapt the programme to make it more relevant and accessible to the diverse cultures in South Africa. Problems identified were as follows:

- * Language and terminology used were appropriate to the American context and were not easily understood by all pupils in the groups.
- * Programme content was more applicable to Western society. Some pupils

were unable to identify with and relate to certain aspects of the programme.

These problems limited participation of some pupils in certain aspects of the programme. It was therefore felt that the programme should be modified to increase its effectiveness and to facilitate participation of all children irrespective of their cultural backgrounds. The preliminary evaluation of the programme indicated the need for more systematic evaluation. This served as the primary impetus for the current study.

PHASE TWO: PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT

In developing the conflict resolution programme, the researcher drew on the following sources of information:

- * A review of conflict resolution programmes, life skills programmes, and literature relating to conflict and conflict resolution was undertaken.
- * The researcher consulted with the staff of organizations such as Vuleka Trust and Independent Projects Trust as well as groups and individuals involved in the field of conflict resolution. Meetings were also held with principals, teachers and guidance counsellors to ascertain the general nature of problem solving/conflict resolution within the school setting, and to establish the need for such a programme.
- * Student experiences as well as the experiences of the researcher and her colleague during the preliminary study influenced programme development and provided some guidelines during this process.

The conflict resolution programme is presented in Appendix I. Table 2 outlines the topics covered within the programme and lists the sources from which the sessions were adapted.

TABLE 2: OUTLINE OF THE CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMME

TOPIC	OBJECTIVES	LITERATURE CONSULTED
UNDERSTANDING CONFLICT, VIOLENCE AND PEACE	<p>To define the concepts of conflict, violence and peace, utilizing ideas and experiences of the group.</p> <p>Explore the positive value of conflict.</p>	<p>Hope and Timmel (1988b) Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) Quaker Peace Centre (1992) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)</p>
CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES	<p>To create an awareness of behaviour and responses in the face of conflict.</p> <p>To recognize different conflict resolution styles .</p>	<p>Dougan et al (1986) Hope and Timmel (1988b) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)</p>
APPRECIATING DIVERSITY	<p>To help participants understand that people are different and that these differences must be respected.</p> <p>To encourage participants to appreciate other points of view and to understand the importance of hearing both sides of an issue.</p> <p>To look at how labelling and stereotypes influence our attitudes and actions.</p>	<p>Hope and Timmel (1988a) Quaker Peace Centre (1992) Rooth (1995) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990) Weeks (1994)</p>
COMMUNICATION: LET'S CONSIDER FEELINGS	<p>To understand the importance of communication in resolving conflicts and building relationships.</p> <p>To help participants to express themselves and to communicate feelings more clearly.</p> <p>To try to see the world through another's eyes i.e. to show empathy.</p>	<p>Quaker Peace Centre (1992) Rooth (1995) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990) Weeks (1994)</p>
COMMUNICATION: LISTENING AND TALKING	<p>To help the participants realize the extent to which listening behaviour influences conflict situations.</p> <p>To enable participants to express their wants and needs in an assertive, non-threatening manner.</p>	<p>Quaker Peace Centre (1992) Rooth (1995) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990) Weeks (1994)</p>
RESOLVING CONFLICT: CONSIDER THE PROBLEM	<p>To develop skills in problem definition.</p> <p>To generate alternative solutions to a given problem.</p> <p>To express concerns and needs more constructively in a conflict situation.</p>	<p>Egan (1990) Quaker Peace Centre (1992) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)</p>
STEPS IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION	<p>To see how different resolutions to a conflict may have different consequences.</p> <p>To use the complete conflict resolution process.</p>	<p>Egan (1990) Hogges (1994) The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990) Weeks (1994)</p>

PHASE THREE: TRAINING OF THE FACILITATORS

This phase, which constituted part of the current research process, involved the training of the students in programme implementation. The processes outlined in the pilot project (Phase 1) were repeated with a focused emphasis on evaluation. Second year students in the Department of Social Work were expected to learn and implement a structured programme as part of their course requirement. Students were given the opportunity to choose either the conflict resolution programme or a life skills programme. Twenty students elected to learn the conflict resolution programme. The researcher trained these twenty students in the area of conflict, conflict resolution and the implementation of the conflict resolution programme. Training occurred over eight two and a half hour sessions held once weekly over eight consecutive weeks. The students, who were fully trained, then took on the roles of facilitators. They were paired off to implement the programme with groups of standard five pupils at primary schools in Durban. Facilitators were given clear written instructions regarding programme implementation (Appendix A). For purposes of supervision, the facilitators were randomly allocated in pairs to different supervisors. The researcher thus had the task of supervising four pairs of facilitators, that is, eight facilitators during programme implementation. The decision to have the facilitators work in pairs was based on the following factors:

- * Being at the second year level of study, it was felt that facilitators would perhaps be less anxious and more confident if they assisted and supported each other through programme implementation.
- * The teamwork approach could facilitate effective programme implementation as there would be a sharing of tasks. Facilitators could confer before and after a group session and learn from each other (Corey and Corey, 1992).

- * Different facilitator perspectives of a common group could serve to validate the process and outcome of programme implementation (Corey and Corey, 1992).

PHASE FOUR: THE SAMPLING PROCEDURE

This study employed a non-probability sampling procedure, that is, the probability of inclusion in the sample was unknown and was usually different for each person in the sample (Bailey, 1982; Marlow, 1993; Seaberg, 1988). This procedure is useful in studies in which the sampling units are in key positions to experience the phenomenon being investigated (Seaberg, 1988). Marlow (1993) added that non-probability sampling was frequently applied in social work research and in evaluating social work practice. With non-probability sampling, there is limited support for the claim that the sample is representative of the population from which it is drawn (Gabor, 1993; Patton, 1990). However, this was not a major concern of this particular study since its aim was to improve programme effectiveness within a specific context.

The type of non-probability sampling used, was convenience sampling. This sampling method has also been referred to in the literature as availability sampling or accidental sampling (Bailey, 1982; Gabor, 1993; Marlow, 1993; Seaberg, 1988). Convenience sampling which relies on the closest and most available subjects to constitute the sample, is used extensively in social work research (Gabor, 1993).

Selection process for the sample

The programme was implemented at three schools in the Durban area. The schools involved were co-educational in nature and were racially mixed in terms of the pupil population. The choice of schools was restricted by distance, time, availability and the school's willingness to participate in the programme. The researcher visited the three schools concerned and explained to the principals

and guidance counsellors the content of the conflict resolution programme. The purpose of programme implementation and evaluation were clearly explained. Permission was then sought to enable social work students to implement the programme with groups of standard five pupils. As all the principals and guidance counsellors who were approached were agreeable and very supportive of the idea, the researcher did not approach other schools. In terms of the limited number of facilitators, it would not have been possible to include pupils from additional schools in the programme. Letters of confirmation outlining programme details were subsequently forwarded to the principals concerned (Appendix B).

Because the programme content was considered to be appropriate for children of the adolescent phase, it was decided that standard five pupils should be targeted as they fell within the twelve to fifteen year age category. Teachers divided classes of standard five pupils into groups of ten to twelve pupils. To ensure uniformity of the groups in terms of membership, the researcher requested that the groups be representative of race and gender. Due to the number of facilitators in relation to the number of pupils, some groups were allocated more or less pupils. The group of twenty trainers conducted programmes with groups at the selected schools. In terms of this allocation, the four pairs of students being supervised by the researcher, conducted the programme with four groups of pupils at three different schools. The participants that made up these groups constituted the sample in this study. The sample consisted of thirty-nine participants. There were two groups of eleven participants each, one group of nine participants and another group of eight participants. For the purposes of calculation and anonymity, each participant was allocated a number. Participant absenteeism due to activities such as sport and school duties, resulted in group numbers varying slightly each week. However, the core group which made up the sample, was present for the majority of the sessions. As suggested by Whittington and Moran (1990), participants were given letters informing their parents of their participation in the programme as well as requesting parental support in this regard (Appendix C).

PHASE FIVE: PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

This phase of the research process centred around data collection and involved the development and implementation of the research instruments. The use of multiple data collection methods necessitated the use of several research instruments for the purpose of evaluation. Patton (1990, p. 187) described this process as "methodological triangulation." He stated that the use of multiple data collection methods not only allowed for cross-validity checks but were also illustrative of the creative possibilities that could emerge out of flexible approaches to research design. The triangulation method is discussed in detail in Chapter One. The development of the data gathering instruments and the procedures by which they were applied, varied according to specific objectives. It follows then that the procedures for data analysis also varied across each method of data collection.

The conflict resolution programme in this study was implemented over eight one-hourly sessions held once weekly over a period of eight weeks. As suggested by Corey and Corey (1992), time was set aside at the end of each session to enable participants to complete the evaluation questionnaires. It must be noted that during the eighth session, the facilitators engaged the participants in the process of summarizing and reflecting on lessons learnt during the previous sessions, followed by the overall evaluation of the programme. As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, the programme was implemented in small group contexts. The rationale for the researcher considering this an appropriate method is now discussed.

The groupwork method

The groupwork method, in keeping with the ecological paradigm, has a dual focus, on the individual and on society. This is aptly captured by Thackeray, Farley and Skidmore (1994, p. 73) who defined groupwork as:

a method of working with people in groups (two or more people) for the enhancement of social functioning and for the achievement of socially desirable goals. Groupwork is based on the knowledge of people's needs for each other and their interdependence. Groupwork is a method of reducing or eliminating roadblocks to social interaction and for accomplishing socially desirable purposes.

In keeping with this definition, Drower (1993) stressed the need to use groups to address the connection between the individual and the social context. Breton (cited in Drower, 1993) drew attention to the fact that coping and finding fulfilment in a changing world required an awareness that one's own self interest was linked to the welfare of the larger ecological system.

The value base of group work is of special significance in South Africa. Values of co-operation, non-discrimination, individual initiative, self-determination and mutual decision-making are key ingredients to successful human relations (Drower, 1993). In this study, the group itself constituted a context for understanding human relations, respecting diversity, enhancing communication and problem solving. In commenting on the adolescent phase, Sewpaul (1993) argued that empowerment was essential for individual growth and development and to contribute to heightened feelings of self-esteem, efficacy and control. Empowerment involves consciousness raising through constructive dialogue and praxis. The small group context provides opportunities for such dialogue. As pointed out by Sewpaul (1993), consciousness-raising through dialoguing does not necessarily resolve all conflict or produce group consensus, but it does enhance participation and mutual respect which are the basic objectives of any group process.

Drawing on the work of Wodarski, Sancho (1994) argued that a group context allowed adolescents to practise their skills with several partners, to provide feedback and encouragement to one another and to learn from a variety of peer models. The strength of the group learning approach lies in its ability to capitalize on peer influence and peer reinforcement which are potent variables in the acquisition, alteration and maintenance of behaviour. Furthermore, knowledge

imparted within a group context is more likely to come under the control of group norms and beliefs, thus increasing the likelihood of such information being generalized to other settings (Sancho, 1994). This method was therefore considered relevant and enlightening to the social work students who were trained in its implementation as well as to the pupils who experienced the conflict resolution programme via the groupwork method.

The development and implementation of the research instruments

The following evaluative research instruments were developed and utilized:

- 1) Participant pretest and posttest questionnaire (Appendix D).
- 2) Participant session by session evaluation questionnaire (Appendix E).
- 3) Participant retrospective evaluation questionnaire (Appendix F).
- 4) Guidelines: facilitators' session by session reports (Appendix G).
- 5) Guidelines: facilitators' retrospective evaluation reports (Appendix H).

In addition to the above, the following methods were utilized to supplement and validate data gathered from the research instruments:

- 1) Discussions and verbal feedback from facilitators during supervisory sessions with the researcher.
- 2) Researcher non-participant observation.

Pretest and posttest questionnaire (Appendix D)

The evaluative process began with what Grinnell Jr. (1993), Marlow (1993) and Pietrzak et al (1990) termed the One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design. This design, in which a pretest precedes the introduction of the independent variable and a posttest follows, can be used to determine precisely how the independent variable affects a particular group (Grinnell Jr., 1993). In this study, a self administered pretest and posttest questionnaire was utilized. The pretest measures provided

a baseline against which to gauge changes in participant responses (Pietrzak et al, 1990). Furthermore, in keeping with the objectives of the study, this design helped to ascertain whether minimum standards of programme outcome were achieved and the extent to which participants changed during their participation in the programme (Marlow, 1993). For Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1987), depending on the nature of the study, the absence of a comparison group for judging outcomes can be problematic. However, the authors added that this design was suitable in studies that focused on monitoring programme implementation. As programme implementation was one of the objectives of the study, this design was considered to be appropriate. The choice of this design must be viewed against the total triangulation of the methodology used in this study. This instrument was one of several data gathering instruments used to measure the impact that the programme might have had on participants.

Demographic questions formed the first few questions of this instrument. The questionnaire consisted of a vignette outlining a conflict situation. Participants were asked two open-ended questions pertaining to the vignette, namely: i) How would you feel ? and ii) What would you do ? Question 1 is what Patton (1987) described as a feeling question which is aimed at understanding the emotional responses of people to their experiences and thoughts. Question 2 is what Patton (1987) described as an experience/behaviour question which is aimed at eliciting descriptions of the experiences, behaviours, actions and activities of persons in the face of certain situations. The choice of these questions were in keeping with the views of Ely, Anzul, Friedman, Garner and Steinmetz (1991) who stressed the necessity for researchers to be absolutely clear with regard to what specifically they wanted to measure. In this phase of the study, the researcher clearly wanted to measure spontaneous feelings and possible responses of participants when faced with a specific conflict situation. This instrument was tested in terms of its face and content validity among a small random sample of standard five pupils attending primary schools in Durban. The instrument was then modified in accordance with the problems encountered during its trial use.

Participant session by session evaluation questionnaire (Appendix E)

This questionnaire required 6 responses from the participants. The questionnaire was made up of:

- * three open-ended questions.
- * one question which required a yes/no answer and an explanation for the response.
- * two interval scales.

Data required from this sample were guided by the research questions generated during the conceptual phase of the study, as outlined in Chapter One. All questions related to the participants' experience of the programme. Marlow (1993) referred to these as group questionnaires, that is, questionnaires that were administered to the entire group at one time. Careful thought and consideration was given to questionnaire construction. According to Bailey (1982, p. 113), the key word in questionnaire construction is "relevance." When constructing questionnaires, researchers must bear in mind the goals of the study as well as the relevance of the question to the individual respondent. Cognisance was also taken of the level of understanding of the participants. Attempts were therefore made to state questions as clearly and as simply as possible and to avoid ambiguities and double-barrelled questions (Marlow, 1993; Patton, 1987). Care was also taken to ensure that the questions were short and that unnecessary questions were avoided.

The use of open-ended questions served specific purposes within this study as discussed by several authors. Open-ended questions provide a way of collecting qualitative data in which respondents can answer in ways that accurately reflect their views, that is, they are not forced to answer within the researcher's categories (Bailey, 1982; Marlow, 1993; Mindel, 1993). This allows respondents to freely give information or responses that the researcher may not have anticipated (King et al, 1987). In supporting this statement, Ely et al (1991, p. 66)

added that "open-ended questioning can unearth valuable information that tight questions do not allow." The advantage is that respondents supply their own words, thoughts and insights in answering the questions. Marlow (1993) cautioned that respondents might be intimidated, threatened or put off by open-ended questions. This limitation was overcome by the facilitators clearly explaining to the participants that the questionnaire was being utilized to measure aspects of the programme, and was not a reflection of the participants' academic abilities. The close-ended question included in the instrument was an essential pre-requisite to providing the open-ended explanation that was required.

The instrument also consisted of two interval scales which listed variables on a continuum from one extreme to the other. The response categories on the continuum were ordered in equal intervals and assigned numbers (Jordan, Franklin and Corcoran, 1993). Here again, care was taken to ensure that the scales were simple enough for participants to interpret and to respond. Marlow (1993) highlighted the usefulness of these scales in instances where the variables were not clear-cut and could not be contained in one question or item; instead they were composed of a number of different dimensions or factors. Jordon et al (1993) has indicated that self-ratings are helpful because individuals can evaluate their own thoughts, behaviour and feelings accurately, provided that they are self aware and willing to be truthful.

Participant retrospective evaluation questionnaire (Appendix F)

Retrospective evaluation was undertaken during session eight. A final evaluation questionnaire was developed to obtain feelings and opinions of participants about their experiences of the conflict resolution programme. A written explanation of the purpose of the form was included in the instrument as the participants had a right to know why they were being questioned (King et al, 1987).

The instrument consisted of three close-ended questions and one open-ended question. A close-ended question is one that gives the respondents a certain

number of categories to respond to as answers (Bailey, 1982; Marlow, 1993; Mindel, 1993). The advantage of close-ended questions is that the answers are standard and can be compared from person to person, and there is no need for time-consuming coding procedures such as those involved with open-ended questions (Bailey, 1982; Mindel, 1993). Because choices are provided, respondents are less apt to leave certain questions blank or to choose a "do not know" response (Mindel, 1993, p. 230). Respondents are often clearer about the meaning of the question, that is, a respondent who is often unsure about the meaning of the question can often tell from the answer categories what is expected (Bailey, 1982).

Close ended questions are useful when specific categories are available against which the respondents' replies can be measured and when a clear conceptual framework exists in which respondents' replies will logically fit (Gochros, 1988). Bailey (1982) and Mindel (1993) outlined and saw disadvantages of close-ended questions. A respondent who does not know the answer or has no opinion may simply try to guess the appropriate answer and circle a fixed alternative. It is felt that this limitation has been addressed in the instrument as the response categories related directly to the programme experiences of the respondents. A further problem is that differences in the interpretation of the questions may go undetected. This weakness was overcome as trainers explained and clarified each question with the participants.

Guidelines: facilitators'session by session reports (Appendix G)

Each pair of facilitators submitted joint reports after each session. Reports followed a specific format and facilitators were required to report on specific aspects of the sessions. These reports provided facilitator perspectives on implementation processes, participant responses and goal achievement during each session.

Guidelines: facilitators' retrospective evaluation reports (Appendix H)

Each facilitator submitted a comprehensive evaluative report at the end of programme implementation. As with the sessional reports, these reports followed a specific format and facilitators were required to report on the overall implementation of the programme. The session by session reports and the retrospective evaluation reports provided further qualitative data which were supplemented by verbal feedback from the facilitators during supervisory sessions.

Supervisory sessions

The group of eight facilitators met with the researcher after each session whereby verbal feedback was provided. Group meetings provided the opportunity for the facilitators to share experiences, discuss problems and to support one another. Supervisory sessions enabled the researcher to monitor programme implementation (Schmitz, 1994). In addition to providing guidance with regard to programme implementation, planning for subsequent sessions were discussed and clarified.

Observation

Observation was used informally to provide the researcher with a holistic view of the programme in the implementation phase. For King et al (1987), informal observations are important in providing the evaluator with a sense of context and an intuitive feeling about programme implementation. In using observation, the evaluator assumed the role of an overt non-participant observer. The facilitators and the participants were aware that they were being observed and were informed of the purpose of observation. The researcher sat in and observed a single session for each of the four groups that participated in the study. This meant that different sessions were observed for each group. Because the study involved four groups of participants at three different schools, it was not possible to observe all

the sessions of all the groups.

In this study, observation merely served to confirm or refute data obtained by the simultaneous use of other data gathering methods. In addition, observation enabled the researcher to identify certain problems in programme implementation which were subsequently discussed with facilitators during supervision. The triangulated method described was considered appropriate in shedding light on the questions being investigated and in producing results that were relevant, understandable, reliable and valid (Harrison, 1994; Patton, 1987). In the process of evaluation, formal analysis begins once data collection is completed.

PHASE SIX : DATA ANALYSIS

Through the use of qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection, the study generated an overwhelming amount of data. The different methods used produced different types of data and this demanded that different strategies be adopted for organizing and analysing the data (Harrison, 1994; Marlow, 1993). Data collection and analysis frequently overlap. In the course of gathering data, ideas about analysis and interpretation often occur (Patton, 1987). In this study, the organizing of the data began during the initial phases of data collection. To ensure consistency, each participant was given an identification number to enable the researcher to accurately record participant responses over the entire programme. In addition, throughout the evaluation phase, these numbers enabled the researcher to return to the original document to check and cross-check details (King, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987).

The analysis of the quantitative data was facilitated by the use of quick-tally sheets. This method entailed displaying all response options for each item and tallying the number of times participants chose each option (King, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987). This enabled the researcher to calculate the number and percentage of participants who answered each item in a certain way. With a quick-tally sheet, one tends to "lose" the individual person, that is, one no longer

has access to individual response patterns (King, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987, p. 115). However, the use of multiple methods of data collection and analysis helped to overcome this problem. Quantitative data were supplemented by qualitative data which provided in-depth responses and this allowed the researcher to look at relationships between different responses. Patton (1990, p. 406) described the analysis and interpretation of qualitative data as a "creative process" which was not subject to fixed rules. A review of the purpose of the evaluation provides some focus in analysing qualitative data. In this study, the research questions generated during the conceptual phase and the research instruments provided a framework for the organization and analysis of the raw data.

As with most qualitative evaluations, this study utilized inductive analysis in which "patterns, themes and categories emerged from the data rather than being developed prior to collection" (Marlow, 1993, p. 234). The inductive approach to analysis means that an understanding of programme activities and outcomes emerge from experience within the setting. Theories about what is happening in a setting are grounded in direct programme experience rather than being imposed on the setting by pre-determined constructions (Harrison, 1994; Patton, 1986). Both indigenous categories and researcher-constructed categories as discussed by Marlow (1993) and Patton (1987) were utilized. Indigenous categories attempt to see the world from the participant's point of view and thus does not involve imposed categories by the researcher. Researcher-constructed categories are derived from patterns that emerge from the data. Although these categories may be meaningless to the participants, they provide a good overall picture of the phenomenon under study.

To ensure systematic categorization of the data, the researcher followed steps suggested by Guba (cited in Patton, 1990). The author maintained that the analyst usually began by looking for "recurring regularities" in the data which represented patterns that could be sorted into categories. Categories should then be judged by two criteria, namely, "internal homogeneity" and "external

heterogeneity" (Patton, 1990, p. 403). The former concerns the extent to which the data that belong in a certain category hold together in a meaningful way. The second criterion concerns the extent to which differences among categories are bold and clear. The analyst has the task of working back and forth between the data and the classification system to verify the meaningfulness and accuracy of the categories and the placement of data in categories. Closure of this process occurs when sources of information that are integrated have been exhausted, when sets of categories have been saturated, and when clear regularities have emerged. The steps and procedures suggested by Guba for analysing qualitative data are not mechanical or rigid and provided a guiding framework within which data analysis occurred in this study.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher must be aware of the strengths and limitations of the method/s chosen in producing valid and reliable data and how this will affect the study and the generalizations that can and cannot be made from the findings. Following is a discussion of the possible limitations in the design and methodology of this study.

Sample size

The small sample size limits its representativeness of the population from which it was drawn (Marlow, 1993). This factor further limits the generalizability of the study. However, as pointed out elsewhere in this chapter, this was not a major concern as the evaluation was undertaken with a view to improving programme effectiveness within a particular context. It must be noted that the sample was selected in order to obtain in-depth information. This was adequately achieved in this study.

Researcher effect during observation

The researcher's presence as a non-participant observer during some sessions may have influenced facilitator and participant behaviour during these sessions. People behave quite differently when they know that they are being observed compared to their behaviour if they are not aware of being observed (Patton, 1987). The researcher's presence may have generated anxiety in the facilitators and participants. Responses during these sessions may have been given in an attempt to please the researcher. To minimize this problem, the researcher explained the purpose of observation to the facilitators during supervision. The facilitators in turn informed the participants that the researcher was concerned with programme content and not with the academic abilities of the participants.

Possible researcher bias

As the programme in this study was developed by the researcher, what is referred to by Rubin and Babbie (1993, p. 539) as "the politics of programme evaluation" may have surfaced. This means that the researcher may have tried to design the research or to interpret its findings in ways that were likely to make the programme look good (Rubin and Babbie, 1993). Being aware of this possibility, the researcher consciously maintained an objective stance and presented data obtained from facilitators and participants as accurately as possible.

Facilitator variations in programme implementation

Variations in the manner in which facilitators conducted the programme were noted. These included variations in presentation styles and levels of preparedness for programme implementation. These variations were beyond the control of the researcher. However, the researcher provided written guidelines and close supervision to facilitators to ensure increased uniformity in programme implementation.

Inadequate infra-structure

In some instances, an infra-structure conducive to effective programme implementation, was lacking. Feedback from facilitators indicated that limited time allocated per session sometimes resulted in limited exploration and discussion of issues. In addition, disturbances by other pupils and teachers entering the class during the programme were distracting and time consuming. On occasion, participants were required to excuse themselves from the programme to attend to other activities such as sport, taking of photographs and running errands for teachers. These factors reflect the secondary status accorded to programmes of this nature within the school setting (Holdstock, 1990; Kasiram et al, 1996).

Participant responses

Participants may have responded favourably to questions relating to the programme in an attempt to please the facilitators. Feedback from participants and facilitators confirmed that a fairly good relationship existed between participants and facilitators throughout the programme. It is therefore possible that participants may have been reluctant to report negatively on the programme. Furthermore, participants could have responded in a certain manner as they knew that they were participating in the study. Marlow (1993, p. 133) referred to this as "reactive effects" which could result in outcomes being distorted. Reactive effects are difficult to overcome in any design because it is unethical to engage in research without obtaining the participants' consent (Marlow, 1993).

Reliability and validity of research instruments

The data gathering instruments could have been limiting in their ability to obtain information that reflected the actual reality of situations during the study. In using evaluation questionnaires, differences in the interpretation of the questions may occur (Bailey, 1982; Mindel, 1993). As explained elsewhere in this chapter, to ensure consistency in the data gathering process, facilitators explained and

clarified each question to the participants.

Observation was one of the data gathering methods used. The facilitators observed participant responses and provided verbal and written feedback to the researcher. The researcher observed programme implementation in progress. It must be remembered that the nature of observation lends itself to subjective interpretation of information. This limitation may have been minimized by the fact that multiple data gathering instruments were used to collect similar information. Since the data collected through the evaluation questionnaires and the data collected through observation and document analysis yielded consistent findings, it is hoped that some bias may have been overcome.

Limitations in the methodology

As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, the study did not include a control group against which to judge programme outcomes. However, as pointed out by Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1987), the lack of a control group where programme implementation is being monitored, is not a serious problem. Furthermore, the use of the triangulation method which encompassed multiple methods of data gathering and analysis, minimized this problem. Cross checks between data gathered using different instruments enabled the researcher to validate the information obtained.

Limitations in data analysis

It is possible that there may have been limitations to the way in which data analysis was undertaken. This in turn may have affected the conclusions reached within this study. This limitation was minimized by the fact that the researcher returned to the data several times to ensure that the discussion accurately reflected the data.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations in social work research activities help to protect the interests of participants in studies (Marlow, 1993; Schinke and Gilchrist, 1993). The conflict resolution programme in this study was implemented during school hours and was therefore considered to be part of the school programme by the participants. Participants were therefore not asked to volunteer for the programme but were requested to participate in the programme by the principals and guidance counsellors. Prior to the commencement of the programme, the contents of the programme as well as the purpose of the study were fully discussed with the school principals and guidance counsellors, and a copy of the programme (Appendix I) was made available to the school. Informed consent was thereafter obtained from the school for the implementation of the programme.

As suggested by Schinke and Gilchrist (1993), the parents of the participants were informed of their participation in the programme. During the first session, the facilitators informed the participants about the research that was being undertaken and the purpose of programme evaluation. From an ethical point of view the informed consent of participants was obtained by the social work students who took on the roles of programme facilitators. Both the programme participants and the facilitators were assured anonymity in the reporting of the data.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the methodology used in the study is described and discussed. In discussing the phases of the study, theoretical and operational aspects of the research process are integrated. The practical application of the triangulation method as part of evaluation research is evident in the discussion on the development and implementation of multiple data gathering instruments. The processes involved in the preliminary study, programme development, the sample selection and the methods of data analysis are also discussed. Some possible limitations of the research methodology are noted. The chapter concluded with

a discussion of ethical considerations relevant to the study. The following chapter contains the analysis and discussion of the data obtained through the processes outlined in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter details the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the results. The nature of the study lends itself to the joint presentation of the data analysis and the discussion of the findings. This approach enabled the researcher to establish the links between the research processes, the data gathered, and the findings in relation to the purposes of the study. Although multiple data collection strategies were used, the data are not presented as discrete entities. In view of the interdependence and interconnectedness of the data collected via different methods, the full appreciation of the data depends on holistic analysis and presentation. Since the sample in the study was the primary source of data collection, a major portion of the analysis and discussion centres around the data obtained from the sample. The data obtained from other sources such as the facilitators' verbal feedback, document analysis and researcher observation will be presented to enhance and support the findings made. Given that this study encompassed programme development, programme implementation, programme monitoring and the examination of programme outcomes, large amounts of descriptive data were generated through the research process. Patton (1990) cautioned that focus on the evaluation questions was essential when reporting findings. For presentation and discussion it was thus necessary to select data particularly relevant to the purposes of the study.

As mentioned in Chapter Three, participant numbers varied slightly from session to session. Demographic data were noted during the first session. These details are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

N = 39

CHARACTERISTICS	NO. OF PARTICIPANTS
GENDER:	
Males	17
Females	22
AGES:	
12 years	22
13 years	10
14 years	6
15 years	1
RACE:	
Indian	11
Coloured	9
African	11
White	8

Table 3 indicates that the sample consisted of more females than males. In their study on the effectiveness of a school-based violence prevention programme among adolescents, Farrell and Meyer (1996) reported that while the programme was effective in influencing the behaviour of male participants, female participants did not appear to benefit from the programme. In the current study, although the researcher attempted to ensure that the groups that made up the sample were representative of gender, gender per se was not considered as a specific variable. In keeping with the objectives of the study, the sample constituted adolescents with an age range from 12-15 years. Of relevance is the adolescent developmental phase and its increased risk for emotional and social problems. Increased parent-child conflict, peer pressure and an array of social problems such as teenage pregnancy, suicide and substance abuse characterise this phase. Adolescents are increasingly being seen as an appropriate population-at-risk for primary prevention programmes to enable them to meet the developmental demands of this period (Germain, 1982; Sancho, 1994). It is not unusual for adolescents to feel alone in their conflicts and self-doubts. Corey and Corey (1992) claimed that the group experience could be useful in helping adolescents

deal with feelings of isolation and make constructive choices for a satisfying life. As requested by the researcher, the groups that made up the sample were racially mixed. This was necessary to ensure that the sample was representative in terms of race, language and culture.

The programme was implemented according to the topics as set out in Table 2 (p. 61). This meant that each session focused on a particular aspect of conflict resolution. One of the objectives of the study was to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the programme with a view to making recommendations with regard to the improvement of the programme. This necessitated a session by session analysis and discussion of the data gathered, followed by an overall evaluation. The presentation of the data therefore assumes this format. An analysis and discussion of participant responses to the session by session evaluation questionnaire (Appendix E) is now presented.

SESSION ONE: UNDERSTANDING CONFLICT, VIOLENCE AND PEACE

Concept definition and clarification contextualized the programme for the participants. Of the 39 participants who attended this session, 38 (97.44%) indicated that they were easily able to understand the contents of the session. Facilitators, in their written reports and during supervisory sessions, commented that most participants had a clear idea of what violence entailed and related the concept to issues such as rape, assault, child abuse and murder. All participants indicated that they found the session to be useful. To a more specific question regarding usefulness, 16 participants (41.03%) identified the "Roots of violence/non-violence" exercise as being most useful in creating an awareness of the feelings and attitudes underlying violence and non-violence. Many participants explained that these were issues that they had not thought about before. This was evident in two reports of facilitators who felt that participants experienced difficulty in coming up with positive words and feelings related to conflict, and had to be prompted by the facilitators. On the whole, participant responses and facilitators reports indicated that the "Conflict brainstorm" and the

"Roots of violence/non-violence" exercise provided opportunities for participants to explore and appreciate the positive value of conflict.

Twelve participants (30.77%) indicated that the exercise "What's good and bad about fighting" was most useful to them. The reasons given were that the exercise highlighted the fact that fighting was hurtful and that problems *could* be solved without fighting. Participants indicated that they had previously not considered alternatives to fighting as a problem-solving measure. This was evident in the pretest measurement where 21 participants (53.85%) indicated a possible aggressive response when faced with a conflict situation. This finding was similar to that of Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) who, in implementing this exercise with a group of school-going adolescents, found that many of the participants had never before considered *not* fighting in a conflict situation. The authors explained that initially the group was quite adamant about the necessity to fight. However, after discussion of examples provided by the authors, the group began to question their attitudes and behaviour. A valid point made by Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) was that while people did not convert to a belief in non-violence overnight, exercises of this nature encouraged people to reflect on their behaviour. The purpose of the exercise was to increase understanding of the control that people have over their behaviour and to encourage them to question the inevitability of fighting. In the current study, facilitators' reports indicated that several participants had reached this point.

To the question relating to the least useful part of the session, eight participants (20.51%) stated that all aspects of the session were useful for them. Three participants felt that the "Roots of violence/non-violence" exercise was not necessary but they did not give reasons for this response. A possible explanation could be that these participants did not fully understand and engage in the exercise. Two responses were inappropriate. There were 18 (46.15%) blank responses to this question. A similar pattern emerged for all the sessions where a high blank rate was evident in response to this question. Several reasons may be attributed to this response. Participants may have enjoyed and found all

aspects of the session to be useful and therefore saw no reason to answer the question requesting details on the least useful part of the session. On the other hand, this question required critical thinking and in view of their ages, participants may have found it easier to report on positive rather than on negative aspects of the programme. A further explanation could be that participants were not sufficiently interested to reflect on this somewhat complex question. Furthermore, this may have been a socially conditioned response and an indication of the participants' eagerness to please the facilitators by reflecting favourably on aspects of the programme.

Important lessons learnt from the session fell into two overlapping categories. For 27 participants (69.23%), the session taught them that conflicts can be peacefully resolved and that violence can be prevented. Participants also learnt about the harmful effects of fighting and the need to talk instead of fight. Delva-Tauili'ili (1995) explained that research has shown that youth learnt to respond to situations aggressively and often did not have the ability to think of alternatives. Teaching youth that there were alternatives to fighting formed an important part of this programme.

Questions five and six took the form of interval scales. Question five pertained to the usefulness of the session in helping the participants to *understand* conflict. 16 participants (41.03%) circled "useful" to this question while 23 participants (58.97%) circled "very useful". Question 6 pertained to the usefulness of the session in helping participants to *deal with* conflict. Twenty-one participants (53.85%) circled "useful" to this question while 18 participants (46.15%) circled "very useful". As indicated in Table 4 (p. 95), a similar pattern of high positive response rates to both these questions emerged for all the sessions. These responses were in keeping with the programme intent and objectives. While they reflect the immediate impact of the programme on participants, the sustained impact on dealing with conflict is open to debate.

SESSION TWO: CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES

Forty participants attended this session. The question regarding the most useful part of this session was met with two distinct responses. Twenty-nine participants (72.50%) found identifying and learning about the different conflict resolution styles to be most useful. The reasons given were that participants were previously unaware of the styles that were discussed. Reports of the facilitators confirmed that most of the participants were unfamiliar with the conflict resolution styles and these had to be explained in detail. Referring to the exercise, a few participants pointed out that aggression and denial would not solve problems. Participants clearly identified the problem solving method as being the most effective way to resolve conflicts as stated by Egan (1990). One participant explained that the most useful part of the session was "learning about problem-solving because I always used aggression thinking that it was the only way to solve a problem." Johnson and Johnson (1987) reported similar experiences in teaching conflict resolution strategies. Activities and group exercises that exposed participants to conflict situations and encouraged their participation in the resolution of these conflicts, proved useful in highlighting the advantages of the problem-solving method of conflict resolution (Johnson and Johnson, 1987; Matthews, 1996). Other comments emanated directly from the examples used in the exercise such as "it helps us to have an equal amount of turns in whatever game we play." Although this was not the focus of the session, participant responses indicated that in addition to the objectives of the session, they had learnt further lessons from the examples used. These included the importance of being sensitive to others' feelings and the need to ensure that each person had a turn when playing a game. As revealed in the study by Gentry and Benenson (1993) outlined in Chapter Two, it is likely that these lessons will benefit participants in their daily activities and interactions in various settings.

Eleven participants (27.50%) stated that the "Which animal am I?" exercise helped to create an awareness of their responses in the face of conflict. Being aware of their responses would help them to gauge whether they were being

hurtful or helpful in a conflict situation. Facilitators' reports provided some explanation for the low percentage of participants that responded positively to this exercise. Participants experienced difficulty in identifying their responses with those of the animals on the cards. They found it easier to link other people to the characteristics of the animals on the cards. Hope and Timmel (1988b) viewed this response as predictable because it was usually difficult to be honest about one's unhelpful behaviour. The authors suggested that this exercise should only be used after a group had been together for some time. In this study, participants were fairly familiar with one another. Of significance was the fact that due to familiarity, one group became quite chaotic when participants did not agree on how other participants identified themselves. The facilitators had to intervene and handled this by saying that each person knew best with which animal s/he identified. In another group, participants seemed reluctant to talk about themselves and did not relate their behaviour to that of the animals. In using a similar exercise in teaching conflict resolution skills, Garnham (1992) reported that participants did not easily relate to the negative characteristics of the animals as they wanted to portray themselves in a more positive light. In this study, facilitators generally experienced difficulty in engaging participants in this exercise. The above responses were indicative of the need to review this exercise and its suitability for groups of this nature.

In response to the question relating to the least useful part of the session, eight participants (20%) indicated that they found all aspects of the session to be useful. It was noted that despite the poor response to the "Which animal am I?" exercise, only two participants stated that the exercise was not useful. Thirty participants (75%) stated that the important lesson learnt from the session was the recognition that aggression and denial were not the means by which to solve problems. The facilitators felt that the objectives of the session were achieved in that, through the exercises, the participants were able to see the advantages of the problem-solving method of conflict resolution. This finding concurred with the view of Delva-Tauili'ili (1995) who asserted that social workers had significant roles to play in teaching youth that problems *could* be solved without the use of

aggression and violence. The author further stressed the need for documented effectiveness of intervention in reducing aggressive behaviour and its applicability to the school and classroom settings. Participant responses in Table 4 (p. 95) indicated that the majority of the participants found this session to be very useful in helping them to understand conflict and to deal with conflict.

SESSION THREE: APPRECIATING DIVERSITY

Of the forty participants who attended this session, 38 (95%) indicated that they easily understood the session. Eighteen participants (45%) found the labelling exercise to be the most useful part of the session. For these participants, the exercise highlighted that people were different and that these differences needed to be appreciated. Participants were clear that labelling often led to people being unfairly judged and this could, according to one participant, "lead to people believing that they are bad." Two participants saw labelling as being obstacles to forming good relationships. These responses concurred with Tshiwula's (1995) contention that labelling might alter a person's self-image, influence behaviour and block opportunities for him/her. Exercises which explored diversity contributed to changing perceptions about people and groups by exploring stereotypes about one another .

Nineteen participants (47.50%) described the poem "Little Miss Brown and the Spider" as being the most useful part of the session. Explanations given were that in addition to illustrating how labelling influenced attitudes and actions, the exercise emphasized the importance of considering different points of view and listening to both sides of an issue in a given situation. To quote one participant, "The most useful part of today's session was learning to listen to both sides of something before you make comments because you might say bad things before, and after realise that you were wrong." Responses such as this aptly captured the essence of this exercise and indicated that participants did learn from it.

To the question regarding the least useful part of the session, seven participants (17.50%) indicated that all the exercises were useful. Three participants (7.50%) stated that they did not understand the "Your standpoint is your viewpoint" exercise. This meant that participants failed to see the link between the exercise and the objective which was to illustrate that people could have different points of view about a common object or issue. An interesting point is that apart from these three participants, there were no comments about this exercise from any of the other participants. Perhaps the other two exercises were more interesting and the lessons could have been easier to grasp.

Participants explained that important lessons were learnt from "The labelling exercise" and "Little Miss Brown and the spider." These included the negative effects of labelling which three participants described as "Don't judge a book by its cover." The researcher's observation and facilitators' reports confirmed that the participants related well to the contents of this session and the exercises generated lively discussion around issues pertaining to diversity. In keeping with the objectives of the session, participants stated that they learnt to appreciate differences in people, to appreciate different points of view and to consider many sides of an issue. These responses are noteworthy in view of the fact that research indicates that youths' aggressive responses are in part due to frustration and an improper perception of situations (Delva-Taui'ilili, 1995). The author reflected on the negative effects of stereotyping and suggested that cultural and social factors be incorporated into violence-prevention programmes within the school setting. Participant responses indicated that the session helped them to understand and to deal with conflict (See Table 4).

SESSION FOUR: COMMUNICATION - LET'S CONSIDER FEELINGS

Thirty six participants attended this session. All participants indicated that they understood the contents of the session. Nineteen participants (52.78%) found learning how to express feelings to be most useful. Participants acknowledged that one could learn more about people by understanding their feelings. Learning

to respect others and to be sensitive to their feelings were also listed as useful parts of this session. Facilitators' reports indicated that participants enjoyed talking about feelings related to certain incidents.

Sixteen participants (44.44%) commented on the usefulness of the "Role-exchange" exercise in creating an awareness of the need to understand others' feelings and points of view before reacting to a situation. Empathic awareness was evident in the responses of two participants who explained this as the necessity to "understand being in another's shoes." The researcher's observation of participants' responses during this session, revealed that this exercise was effective in teaching participants to appreciate feelings in relation to one's roles. Nine participants (25%) mentioned the need to consider and respect parental feelings and parental roles. These responses were directly related to examples used in the skits. The transfer of attitudes and behaviours from the programme to the home and other settings is viewed as being one of the positive outcomes of the programme (Gentry and Benenson, 1993; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991). It is hoped that these attitudes and behaviours will assist participants in their daily interactions.

Five participants (13.89%) indicated that there were no "least useful parts" to the session. They found all aspects of the session interesting. One participant (2.78%) felt that the "I feel" exercise "told us what we already know." Perhaps this participant missed the point of the exercise which was to encourage participants to identify and talk about their feelings. For three participants (8.33%), the "role exchange" was not useful although reasons for this response were not given. The ages and the academic levels of the participants may have affected their abilities to fully grasp the purpose of the exercise which was to show empathy.

Twenty-seven participants (75%) stated that important lessons learnt included learning to communicate feelings, learning to listen to other points of view, communicating one's own point of view with respect and the need to respect elders and friends. Five participants (13.89%) felt that the session would help

them to relate better to their parents. The overall responses indicated that the objectives of this session were achieved. This was evident in participant responses outlined in Table 4 (p. 95) where 61.11% of the participants rated the session as having been very useful in helping them to understand and to deal with conflict.

SESSION FIVE: COMMUNICATION - LISTENING AND TALKING

Forty one participants attended this session. Thirty-nine participants (95.12%) indicated that they easily understood what the session was about. The "Good and poor listening" exercise was most useful to 19 participants (46.34%). They appeared to have enjoyed the exercise and four participants explained that it was useful in pointing out the negative consequences of poor listening. The exercise illustrated that active listening was important during interactions with people, in conflict situations, and during conflict resolution. This message seems to have been conveyed via experience during this exercise. One participant explained that learning to listen was useful to her/him because "I always end up in situations like this when only shouting takes place." It was noted that in their responses, participants linked what they had learnt to their behaviour and relationships with teachers, parents and friends. Gentry and Benenson (1993) found that conflict management skills learnt at school appeared to transfer to the home setting for use during conflicts with family members. A similar study by Schmitz (1994) also revealed that pupils trained in conflict management skills used these skills during school breaks, in the classroom, and at home (See Chapter Two). However, it was not within the scope of this study to assess whether or not the lessons learnt were generalized to other contexts.

Despite two pairs of facilitators commenting that participants experienced difficulty in grasping the concept of the "I messages" and "You messages," 22 participants (53.66%) indicated that this exercise was most useful to them. Common reasons forwarded were that the exercise highlighted the importance of communication in problem-solving, the need to be considerate and to avoid adopting a blaming

attitude when resolving conflicts. Dovey (1995) commented that the "I" and "you" messages formed part of a new conflict resolution vocabulary which enabled young people to get in touch with feelings and to express these feelings in confident ways. Facilitators' reports and researcher observation revealed that some participants experienced difficulty in constructing "I messages" and did not participate easily. The researcher is of the opinion that this was not an unusual response to a new exercise that required much explanation and practice. Perhaps more time could have been allocated to allow participants to practise "I messages" during the session. It is felt that with practice, participants may be able to internalize the values and principles underlying this exercise and respond spontaneously using "I messages" in conflict situations. Twenty-eight participants (68.29%) indicated that all aspects of the session were useful for them. The researcher's observation confirmed that participants related well to the content and presentation of the session.

Important lessons learnt centred around the importance of listening and the necessity to convey feelings in a conflict situations. Overall responses indicated that participants had benefitted from the session. This was evident in responses such as "I learnt that I could lose a lot of information if I do not listen" and "We learnt not to approach people in a harsh way." Communication skills training has received strong support in the literature as forming a vital part of violence prevention programmes. As communication forms the basis for effective problem solving, skills training in this area helps participants understand the basic principles of good communication and the role of communication in problem solving (Hicks, 1988; Taylor, 1992; Whittington and Moran, 1990). The Quaker Peace Centre (1992) highlighted the fact that programmes of this nature provided participants with practical experiences and lessons in communication. Participant responses on the interval scales indicated that the session helped them to understand and to deal with conflict.

SESSION SIX: RESOLVING THE CONFLICT - CONSIDER THE PROBLEM

Forty (97.56%) of the forty-one participants who attended this session indicated that they easily understood what the session was about. For 14 participants (34.15%) the most useful part of this session was learning to view problems in different ways and finding solutions to problems. Thirteen participants (31.71%) felt that learning to identify problems was a useful first step to resolving conflicts. One participant pointed out the need to understand problems clearly before attempting to deal with them. The researcher's observation revealed that this exercise was effective in conveying to participants the multi-dimensional nature of problems and the importance of problem identification in problem-solving.

Thirteen participants (31.71%) found the writing of "I letters" to be most useful as it created an awareness of the need to examine one's own feelings and that of others in trying to resolve conflicts. However, one pair of facilitators maintained that the participants were not clear about the exercise and did not appear to be comfortable doing it. The facilitators felt that this may have been due to the individual nature of the exercise as compared to working in sub-groups where participants interacted and elected a spokesperson. Participants may have lacked confidence to provide individual responses that were required. Another reason could have been that facilitators did not provide sufficient examples to illustrate the requirements of this exercise.

Eleven participants (26.83%) indicated that all the exercises in the session were important and useful. Important lessons learnt for 33 participants (80.49%) centred around learning to identify several solutions when reacting to problems. As with the other sessions, some participants described the lessons learnt in relation to the examples used. One such response was: "I learnt that it is not good to tease because we know how we feel when someone teases us." The researcher feels that if participants benefitted from the examples used, this was an additional advantage of the session. Of significance was the fact that during this session, participants were able to reflect and apply lessons learnt in other

sessions. Some examples are: the use of "I messages", understanding feelings, and the use of problem-solving approaches. Such responses indicated that in addition to remembering lessons learnt from previous sessions, participants were able to apply these lessons to appropriate situations. Participant responses in Table 4 (p. 95) confirmed that for the majority of the participants, the session was very useful in helping them to understand conflict (78.05%) and to deal with conflict (68.29%).

SESSION SEVEN: STEPS IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Thirty-seven participants attended this session. Twenty-five participants (67.57%) indicated that learning and practising the steps in the conflict resolution process were most useful to them. The participants related well to the role-plays which were used to prepare them to deal with actual conflict situations, as suggested by Dovey (1995) and Matthews(1996). Three pairs of facilitators explained in their reports that initially some participants experienced difficulty in grasping the steps that were outlined. However, by using examples, careful explanations and reflecting on the content of previous sessions, participants were able to understand and apply the conflict resolution process. Once the process was understood, active participation was evident and participants appeared to enjoy the activity. Some participants saw the process as being essential in preventing fights from occurring. This is directly relevant to one of the overall objectives of the programme. During supervision, facilitators commented that more time was essential to allow participants to practise the steps in conflict resolution during the session.

The "What might happen next?" exercise was most useful for 12 participants (32.43%) who explained that the exercise prompted people to consider the possible consequences of their actions. Furthermore the exercise was useful in encouraging people to view different sides of a problem/conflict before deciding on an appropriate response. In referring to an example to explain what was most useful, one participant said: "learning and understanding the situation of Busi

because its important to know how to solve a problem without violence.” This response captured the essence of the programme and was indicative of the fact that the programme had some positive impact on participants.

For 27 participants (72.97%), understanding the basis of problem solving/conflict resolution provided important lessons for daily interactions. Responses such as “I learnt that understanding is the best way to solve problems, “It has helped me not to fight” and “I have learnt better ways to understand and deal with conflict,” indicated that the overall objectives of the session were achieved. This was confirmed by 70,27% of the participants who indicated that the session was very useful in helping them to understand conflict and by 67.57% of the participants who found the session to be very useful in helping them to deal with conflict (See Table 4).

Participant responses to questions five and six for all the sessions are listed in Table 4. These questions related to the extent to which the programme helped participants to *understand* and to *deal with* conflict.

TABLE 4: USEFULNESS OF PROGRAMME IN HELPING PARTICIPANTS UNDERSTAND AND DEAL WITH CONFLICT

SESSION	Q5. USEFULNESS IN HELPING TO UNDERSTAND CONFLICT				Q6. USEFULNESS IN HELPING TO DEAL WITH CONFLICT			
	USEFUL		VERY USEFUL		USEFUL		VERY USEFUL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
1. (N=39)	16	41.03	23	58.97	21	53.85	18	46.15
2. (N=40)	17	42.50	23	57.50	15	37.50	25	62.50
3. (N=40)	17	42.50	23	57.50	19	47.50	21	52.50
4. (N=36)	14	38.89	22	61.11	14	38.89	22	61.10
5. (N=41)	18	43.90	23	56.10	19	46.34	22	53.65
6. (N=41)	9	21.95	32	78.05	13	31.71	28	68.29
7. (N=37)	11	29.73	26	70.27	12	32.43	25	67.57

RETROSPECTIVE EVALUATION OF THE CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMME


This section provides an analysis and discussion of the data obtained from the questionnaires which assessed participants' retrospective evaluation of all the group sessions (Appendix F). The purpose was to obtain the participants' overall impressions and recommendations regarding the conflict resolution programme. These results were viewed against the results of the sessional evaluations. Supplementary data were also obtained from the comprehensive reports of the facilitators which were submitted after the completion of the programme. As advocated by Bryman (1990), Cheetham et al (1992), Harrison (1994) and Patton (1987), an analysis of information derived from different sources allowed for checks across the data gathered and served to enhance the validity of the findings. Table 5 provides a summary of the extent to which methods of instruction used during programme implementation were useful to participants.

TABLE 5: USEFULNESS OF METHODS OF INSTRUCTION FOR PARTICIPANTS
N=41

METHODS USED	RESPONSES			
	YES	%	NO	%
GENERAL DISCUSSION	41	100.00	-	-
SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION	36	87.80	5	12.20
ROLE PLAYS	39	95.12	2	4.88
EXERCISES	35	85.37	6	14.63

Table 5 reflects that the use of general discussions as a teaching method received the greatest support by participants. There was a 100% affirmative response to this question. Facilitators' reports confirmed that the level of

participation was usually high during general discussions. One pair of facilitators reported that “exercises where the students wrote examples down on newsprint and encouraged group discussion seemed to be the most popular.” However, this was not a consistent feature of the groups. In one group, as part of the general group dynamics involving power, leadership, control and withdrawal, a few participants dominated general discussions while others appeared to be somewhat withdrawn. Facilitators had to use techniques to include other participants in the discussion. These techniques included directing questions at participants, ensuring that all had turns to participate in activities, and contracting with the group regarding group functioning. The overall high response rate to this question can possibly be attributed to facilitator preparedness and a willingness to engage participants as was emphasized during training. An additional factor could have been the identification of the participants with fairly young facilitators who were second year university students. Participants may have felt some affinity with the common “student” status and this may have contributed to the ease of participation. Furthermore, being from the same school, most participants were already familiar with each other. Functioning within the small group context with familiar people could have provided a fairly comfortable setting within which participants interacted.

 For some activities, the group was divided into sub-groups. Table 5 indicates that 87.80% of the participants felt that the small-group discussions were useful to them. Facilitators' observations revealed that participants appeared to prefer exercises requiring small group activity rather than individual activity. This may have been due to the fact that participants felt safer having to respond as part of a group rather than individually. Facilitators indicated that sub-group activities encouraged participants to engage in critical analyses of situations and provided opportunities for all participants to contribute to the discussion. According to the facilitators, co-facilitation enabled them to monitor sub-group discussions, answer queries and clarify issues for participants. One pair of facilitators described co-facilitation as being “a great encourager and supporter for the rapport and confidence necessary to make the sessions flow.”

As indicated by facilitators in their reports and during supervisory sessions, participants appeared to enjoy the role-plays. This was evident from participant responses during weekly evaluations as well as a 95.12% affirmative response in the retrospective evaluations (See Table 5). Role - plays provide powerful means of experiential learning and are important tools in facilitating understanding, empathy and problem-solving between people (Dovey, 1995). It was interesting to note that one facilitator used a role-play to handle disruptive behaviour within a group. The incident is summarized hereunder :

Participant A constantly displayed disruptive behaviour within the group. He teased other participants who were role -playing, and on several occasions talked and distracted other participants during the sessions. Facilitators tried to discipline him by pointing out that he was being disruptive, but this did not bring about a change in his behaviour. On one occasion, while Facilitator B was talking, Participant A constantly spoke to a person next to him. Facilitator B then invited Participant A to swap roles with her and asked him to read a story to the group. While he was reading, Facilitator B chatted to the person next to her. Participant A began to stutter and was somewhat awkward and embarrassed. When asked to explain his feelings, he responded with a knowing smile.

Swapping roles with a disruptive participant clearly illustrated the negative effects of disruptive behaviour. The participant was able to experience what it was like to be at the receiving end of behaviour similar to his. Verbal and written feedback from the facilitators pointed to the fact that this exercise contributed to bringing about some behaviour change in Participant A as he was noticeably less disruptive during subsequent sessions.

Although not a predominant feature in the data, four participants experienced difficulty in relating to some of the exercises such as "Your standpoint is your viewpoint " and "Which animal am I?" Some concepts may have been difficult to grasp. Furthermore, relating the exercise to the purpose of the session may have been difficult for some participants. This could have been due to the facilitators failure to clarify the exercises and to link them to the objectives of the session. However, as noted in Table 5 (p. 96), 85.37% of the participants indicated that the exercises were useful to them. The data provided here are congruent with

data obtained from the participants' sessional evaluations and was further confirmed by the facilitators observations.

Table 6 outlines participant responses to the question pertaining to ways in which the programme helped them. The categories listed formed the basic objectives of the programme.

TABLE 6: WAYS IN WHICH THE PROGRAMME HELPED PARTICIPANTS

N=41

LESSONS LEARNT	RESPONSES					
	YES	%	NO	%	NOT SURE	%
To understand what conflict is.	41	100.00				
To understand different ways of dealing with conflict.	40	97.56			1	2.44
To appreciate differences in people.	38	92.68	2	4.88	1	2.44
To understand the importance of communication in resolving conflicts.	33	80.49	2	4.88	6	14.63
To handle conflict confidently.	34	82.92	4	9.76	3	7.32

The majority of the responses indicated that the overall objectives of the programme were achieved as participants indicated that the various aspects of the programme were beneficial to them. All participants (100%) stated that the programme helped them to understand what conflict is. The majority of the participants (97.56%) indicated that the programme helped them to understand different ways of dealing with conflict. This was congruent with weekly responses obtained from participants regarding the same questions that were asked after each session. Table 6 indicates that 92.68% of the participants felt that the programme helped them to appreciate differences in people. This is an important lesson in view of the fact that a respect for diversity is a pre-requisite for the peaceful co-existence of people. Feedback from facilitators confirmed that the majority of the participants seemed to understand the programme content and learnt from it. This was evident when facilitators recapped previous sessions. Participants generally

displayed a clear understanding of previous sessions. In addition, homework given was promptly completed, followed by discussions which further revealed the high level of awareness of participants regarding programme content. Efforts to secure the interests of parents by requesting their co-operation and support may have contributed to the positive attitude of participants to the programme. This is consistent with experiences of Delva-Tauili'ili (1995) and Whittington and Moran (1990) who found that family support and awareness of programmes of this nature encouraged positive attitudes of participants towards the programme and secured their ongoing involvement. Commitment to the programme may have been further reinforced by the fact that the programme was sanctioned by the principals and teachers at the schools.

A 100% affirmative response was obtained to the question regarding whether participants thought that other pupils would benefit from programmes of this nature. This response clearly reflected the positive attitudes of participants toward the programme and their feelings that they had benefitted from participation. On the other hand, participants could have responded positively to please the facilitators. However, participants elaborated on their responses in the question that followed.

The final question was an optional one which asked: "From your experience of the programme, would you like to make any comments or suggestions ?" Contrary to the expectations of the researcher, there was a 100% response rate to this open-ended question. Participants took the initiative to comment on the programme and to make suggestions. Several participants commented on the fact that the programme taught them about handling conflict non-violently. One participant commented: "I would like to say that the programme has taught me not to turn to violence and to try to solve conflict situations without aggression. And communication is one of the keys for solving conflict." This response aptly reflected the comments of several participants. Other comments related to understanding that people were different and had different points of view and that problems needed to be viewed in different ways. In addition, participants stated

that they enjoyed the experience as the programme was educational and fun.

Several participants indicated that the programme should be implemented at more schools. Reasons given were that the programme was a new and interesting experience and that it could help to reduce fights at school. One participant stated: "I would like to make a suggestion. I would like to say that this programme was very useful and they should continue with the programme for two years so that there will not be so much fights in the school." Another suggestion was: "How about having it in all schools in all standards." Strong support for this suggestion comes from authors such as Alexander, Jr. and Curtis (1995), Duncan and Rock (1994), Hicks (1988), Kasiram et al (1996) and McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) who stressed the importance of these programmes being integrated as part of the school system.

For some participants, the programme had already helped them in relationships with others within settings such as the classroom, the school and the home where lessons learnt were helpful in relationships with peers, siblings and parents. One participant stated: "The programme has been very useful to me because now I don't fight with my boyfriend. I understand now that knowing how to react and looking on the other person's point of view, I won't get into so many arguments or fights etc." This was one of several responses that highlighted the need to consider other points of view in conflict situations. These responses point to the positive impact of the programme on participants. Facilitators played a role in creating this awareness by providing several examples related to diverse situations as discussed during supervision. These findings are consistent with the findings of Gentry and Benenson (1993) who concluded that when conflict management skills were learnt and practised at school, the skills appeared to transfer to the home setting for use during conflict with family members, particularly with siblings.

A few participants felt that additional role-plays would make the programme more interesting. Participants added that plays and radio and television programmes

could help to spread the message of non-violence. These methods have proven to be effective in The Peace Action Campaign in Eldorado Park where topics related to violence and violence prevention were publicized through press releases to local and national media, radio talk shows and television programmes. For Seedat et al (1992), positive feedback from the community and increased requests for programmes of this nature, pointed to the effectiveness of using the media in promoting peace within communities.

Participant responses to the programme were viewed against the pretest and posttest responses to the conflict scenario (Appendix D). These responses are now presented and discussed.

TABLE 7: PRETEST AND POSTTEST RESPONSES TO CONFLICT SCENARIO

PARTICIPANT RESPONSES	PRETEST N=39		POSTTEST N=39	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
AGGRESSION	21	53.85	7	17,95
AVOIDANCE	7	17.95	5	12.82
TELL PARENT	6	15.38	6	15.38
PROBLEM-SOLVE	5	12.82	21	53.85

CHI-SQUARE = 17.172; DEGREES OF FREEDOM = 3, p > 0.01

Thirty-nine participants completed the pretest. As mentioned in Chapter Three, group numbers varied for the different sessions due to participant absenteeism.

Consequently, 41 participants completed the posttest. For the purposes of validity, it was essential to exclude the posttest responses of the two additional participants who did not complete the pretest. The researcher was able to do this as all participants were allocated numbers. It must be noted that the responses of all participants were included in the sessional and overall evaluations as they related directly to participants' experiences of the programme.

The pretest and posttest results as illustrated in Table 7 indicated that there was a high probability that participation in the conflict resolution programme had a positive impact on participants. While the posttest outcomes revealed no marked shift in the "avoidance" and "tell parent" categories, overall responses indicated a decreased leaning toward aggressive responses and an increased leaning toward problem-solving in the face of a conflict situation. These findings were consistent with information obtained from participants' retrospective evaluation of the programme and from participants' session-by-session evaluations. Dovey (1995), Mitchell (1994), Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) and Schmitz (1994) reported that participation in programmes which focused on teaching conflict resolution skills, influenced participants to adopt non-violent strategies for conflict resolution including problem-solving.

However, caution must be exercised in attributing responses solely to participants having undergone the programme. Exposure to other influences such as the media, the school and the family may have influenced the responses. As mentioned in Chapter 3, there was no control or comparison group against which to judge programme outcome. Furthermore, the nature of the study may have introduced bias toward what was considered favourable by the participants. They may have developed positive responses in accordance with perceived expectations.

SUMMARY

Chapter 4 presented the research results and the discussion and interpretation of the data. Data gathered from different sources were presented and discussed, thus enhancing the validity of the findings. Given the triangulated methodology used in this study, data analysis encompassed both qualitative and quantitative methods. Patterns that emerged from the data collected, confirmed important issues raised in the literature regarding the development, implementation and evaluation of conflict resolution programmes. Having analysed, interpreted and discussed the data, the following chapter focuses on consolidating the major findings of the study, drawing conclusions and making recommendations based on these findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The value of programme evaluation is based on the extent to which it produces findings that are appropriate, relevant, accessible, understandable, timely and useful (Patton, 1987). The purpose of evaluation is to make a difference by improving programmes and decision-making about programmes. After evaluation, decisions can be made on the basis of valid information and statistics, and on a clearer understanding of the role, performance, weaknesses and strengths of a programme and its participants in a particular context (Feuerstein, 1986). Patton (1987) argued that the driving force in an evaluation should be a concern for how decision makers, information users and stakeholders would use evaluation processes and findings. Greene (1994) supported Patton by adding that the importance of evaluation lay in its ability to provide guidelines for social change-oriented action.

As explained in Chapter One, this study took place within the context of a society faced with the challenge of curbing the increasing levels of violence. The need to explore non-violent responses to conflict is increasingly being acknowledged (Cairns, 1996; Duncan and Rock, 1994; McKendrick and Hoffman, 1990; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, 1992). Violence reflects a multi-faceted phenomenon and, in accordance with the ecological framework, needs to be viewed from a multi-dimensional perspective both in terms of aetiology and consequence. Addressing this complex issue therefore requires collective action. As discussed in Chapter Two, social workers are well placed to contribute to the process of peace building by developing and implementing multi-faceted violence prevention programmes. The conflict resolution programme in this study is just one attempt to teach non-violent modes of conflict resolution. It should be viewed as part of a more

comprehensive endeavour to prevent violence in this country.

In this chapter, the major conclusions drawn from the study are presented. The chapter concludes with recommendations based on the findings of the study.

MAJOR CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In this section, the major findings of the study are synthesized and presented within the framework of the research questions that were generated during the conceptual phase of the study.

Conclusions regarding the extent to which conflict resolution programmes have been evaluated.

One of the objectives of the study was to assess, through a literature search, the extent to which conflict resolution programmes have been evaluated. Programmes that were implemented at national and international levels were reviewed. The literature reviewed indicated that conflict resolution programmes were implemented on a wide scale internationally. American literature, in particular, provided details of age-appropriate conflict resolution programmes implemented within the school context. There is evidence of formal and structured evaluation of some of these programmes. These are detailed in Chapter Two. The researcher found that a limited number of programmes were being implemented in South African schools. However, the need for these programmes is increasingly being recognized. This is evident from the positive responses to the programmes outlined in Chapter Two. Many of the programmes implemented locally, were international programmes or were based on international programmes. In some instances, conflict resolution formed a component of broader life-skills programmes. Examples are: "The South African Handbook on Education for Peace" (Quaker peace Centre, 1992) and Lifeskills: A Resource Book for Facilitators (Rooth, 1995). The need for indigenous programmes, focusing specifically on conflict resolution, is evident. A review of

the literature confirmed that in South Africa, programmes of this nature were either not evaluated, or cursory attention was being given to evaluation. While structured programme evaluation was lacking, there was evidence of informal and unstructured evaluations as in the case of the peer mediation programme implemented by the Centre for Conflict Resolution's Youth Project in Cape Town (Dovey, 1996) and the Violence Prevention Programme implemented by social work students in Durban as described by Kasiram et al (1996). Programme reports indicated that the programmes were well received by the schools. However, the researcher found no evidence of any formal evaluation being undertaken to ascertain the effectiveness of the programmes in equipping children with conflict resolution skills. This finding was indicative of the need for programme evaluation to illustrate programme effectiveness, the value of the programme to participants, the strengths, weaknesses and the cost-effectiveness of the programme (Farrell and Meyer, 1996; Feuerstein, 1986; Greene, 1994; Herman, Morris and Fitz-gibbon, 1987).

Conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the conflict resolution programme in helping participants adopt non-violent conflict resolution strategies

The study aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of the conflict resolution programme by determining whether or not it created an awareness of the advantages of adopting non-violent strategies of conflict resolution. Data collected from the various sources indicated that this objective was achieved. Participant responses in the sessional evaluations indicated that they had learnt to appreciate the positive value of conflict and to talk instead of fight. Understanding differences between people, appreciating different points of view, learning to understand and respect others' feelings and the importance of communication in conflict resolution, rated highly as lessons learnt from the programme. In addition, the posttest questionnaire in the study revealed a marked decrease in aggressive responses among participants when faced with a conflict situation as compared to the pretest response. It can therefore be

concluded that at the end of the programme, participants were aware that aggressive and violent responses to conflict were ineffective. Prothrow-Stith and Weissman (1991) reported similar findings whereby children demonstrated an increased awareness of the need to develop non-violent, non-hostile relationships with their peers after having participated in a conflict resolution programme.

Conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the conflict resolution programme in developing problem-solving skills

Data obtained during the evaluation process indicated that the conflict resolution programme in this study contributed to the development of more effective problem-solving skills among the participants. The posttest scores indicated that 53,85% of the participants would engage in problem-solving to resolve conflicts as opposed to 12,82% at the pretest level. Furthermore, as illustrated in Table 6, the majority of the participants (97,56%) indicated that the programme helped them to understand different ways of dealing with conflict, to understand the importance of communication in resolving conflicts (80,49%) and to handle conflict more confidently (82,92%). Participant responses to the sessions in the programme that focused specifically on problem-solving, confirmed that participants grasped the steps in problem-solving as being an effective method of conflict resolution. These findings are congruent with the findings of Gentry and Benenson (1993), Mitchell (1994) and Schmitz (1994) who, from their experiences, reported that conflict resolution programmes contributed to equipping adolescents with more effective problem-solving skills. The literature reviewed stressed that as problem-solving formed the basis for effective conflict resolution, problem-solving skills training ought to be one of the major components of any conflict resolution programme (Egan, 1990; Matthews, 1996; Mitchell, 1994; Rooth, 1995). These authors stressed that the acquisition of these skills should not be left to chance, but needed to be actively learnt and developed.

Conclusions regarding further adaptation of the programme

Programme evaluation helps to identify factors inhibiting better programme performance and provides evaluators with guidelines relating to further development and adaptation of programmes (Hornick and Burrows, 1988; Patton 1987; Rubin and Babbie, 1993). Programme adaptation may be necessary to narrow the gap between programme objectives and programme impact. In this study, the data provided clear guidelines for further adaptation of the conflict resolution programme.

Participants experienced difficulty in relating to the "Which animal am I?" exercise during session two. As explained in Chapter 4, participants were reluctant to identify their responses with those of the animals on the cards. Facilitators reported that they experienced difficulty in engaging participants in this exercise. These responses are indicative of the need to review the appropriateness of this exercise for groups.

A few participants stated that they failed to understand the exercise "Your standpoint is your viewpoint" in session three. It was also noted that the majority of the participants stated that they found the other exercises in the session to be useful, but they did not comment on the "Your standpoint is your viewpoint" exercise. Facilitators' reports also indicated that participants did not easily grasp the lesson behind this exercise. It can therefore be concluded that this exercise needs to be reviewed in terms of its content and method of implementation.

Some participants experienced difficulty in grasping the concept of the "I messages" and "You messages" in session five. This exercise required much explanation and participants were initially slow in responding. However, as the session progressed, participants were able to understand and relate to the exercise. It is felt that this exercise needs to be reviewed with regard to the time allocated for the exercise and the method of presentation. Although participants indicated that they benefitted from the exercise, perhaps more detailed

explanations and more group practice is essential for participants to gain the full benefit of this exercise.

A further exercise that participants experienced some difficulty in engaging in, was the "Steps in conflict resolution" in session seven. This exercise required detailed explanations and the use of several examples to illustrate the process of conflict resolution. Although participants eventually related to the exercise and indicated that they found it beneficial, it is felt that more time ought to be allocated to enable participants to familiarize themselves with, and to practise the steps in conflict resolution.

Conclusions regarding the overall evaluation of the conflict resolution programme

The overall response to the conflict resolution programme in this study was positive. Data analysis revealed that the objectives of each session and the programme as a whole were achieved. The topics covered in the programme were relevant and contributed to helping participants understand and deal with conflict in a creative and constructive manner. Participants were comfortable with the methods of instruction used and generally found the sessions interesting.

Data analysis further revealed that skills learnt during the sessions were being implemented outside of the group setting, for example, in the classroom, with peers, with siblings and with parents. These findings are consistent with the findings of studies conducted by Gentry and Benenson (1993) and Schmitz (1994). It can therefore be concluded that the conflict resolution programme has the potential to have a wider impact as it is likely that lessons learnt could generalize to the home and to other settings within the community. Dovey (1995) and Whittington and Moran (1990) agreed that school-based conflict resolution programmes were likely to create positive change within and beyond the confines of the school.

As indicated in Chapter Three, the researcher cannot make categorical statements regarding the effectiveness of the programme in broader contexts. The reliability and validity of the research would have been further enhanced if control groups were used, if feedback from teachers and parents were obtained, and if the study incorporated a longitudinal component. However, the triangulated research method adopted in this study, strongly supports the positive effects of the programme. This is reflected in the participants' suggestions that the programme should be implemented on an ongoing basis at all schools.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study established that the conflict resolution programme developed and implemented in small group contexts was effective in creating awareness of the advantages of adopting non-violent strategies of conflict resolution and in contributing to the development of more effective problem-solving skills. Caution must be exercised in generalizing the findings to other groups and settings as the sample in this study was not representative. However, the enhanced reliability of data obtained through the triangulated methodology in this study and the literature reviewed, points to the effectiveness of programmes of this nature in promoting non-violence in the face of conflict (Alexander Jr. and Curtis, 1995; Edmunds, 1990; Mitchell, 1994; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; Weir, 1995;). These authors argued strongly for the implementation of conflict resolution programmes with children and adolescents. Based on the findings of this study and the literature reviewed, recommendations are made with regard to programme adaptation, programme implementation, policy and conflict resolution skills training, social work and conflict resolution skills training, and the need for further research in conflict resolution and programme evaluation.

Recommendations regarding the adaptation of the conflict resolution programme

Conclusions drawn from the study point to the need for further adaptation of the

conflict resolution programme to ensure that programme objectives are adequately met. It is recommended that the following exercises be reviewed: "Which animal am I?", "Your standpoint is your viewpoint" and "I messages" and "You messages." It is further recommended that more time be allocated for the session "Steps in conflict resolution." It is hoped that these adaptations will contribute to the programme being easier to understand and that it will become more meaningful to potential participants.

The conflict resolution programme in this study is flexible and can be adapted for use with a diverse range of age and interest groups. To ensure maximum effectiveness of the programme, it is recommended that the programme be adjusted based on the needs of the group/s for whom the programme is intended.

Recommendations regarding programme implementation

A strong recommendation is made for the inclusion of conflict resolution programmes into school curricula as part of the schools' goals related to violence prevention. This is consistent with the goals of the White Paper for Social Welfare (1996) which outlined the negative effects of corporal punishment on the development of the child and stressed the need to create awareness about alternative means of conflict resolution.

Participants in this study suggested that the programme be taken to other schools as they felt that other pupils could benefit from the experience offered by the programme. As advocated by Taylor (1992), a three-pronged approach can be adopted. Aspects of the programme can be incorporated into existing subjects such as English Literature and History. Alternatively, the programme can be taught as a separate course by trained teachers, or specialists from outside the school environment can be invited to implement the conflict resolution programme at schools.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the study noted different approaches to conflict

resolution that were applicable within the school setting. The peer mediation approach has received considerable support due to the successful implementation of this method at several schools (Dovey, 1995; Gentry and Benenson, 1993; Prothrow-Stith and Weissman, 1991; Schmitz, 1994; Weir, 1995). It is recommended that this approach to conflict resolution in South African schools be further developed and explored.

Recommendations regarding policy and conflict resolution skills training

Teachers and guidance counsellors need to be active role-players in violence prevention and the promotion of a peaceful climate within the school setting. The literature reviewed pointed to the necessity of conflict resolution skills training for teachers and guidance counsellors. Policies stipulating the incorporation of conflict resolution skills training as a component of teacher training curricula are emphasized. The formulation of such policies need to reflect a collaborative process between the national and provincial levels of government. Duncan and Rock (1994), Kasiram et al (1996) and the researcher's experience during the current study highlighted the fact that ad-hoc arrangements were not taken seriously and programmes of this nature were generally relegated secondary functions within the school setting. National policies prescribing conflict resolution skills training for pupils at all schools need to be developed. This is in keeping with Taylor's (1992) assertion that peace education must be accorded the same status as other academic subjects such as English, geography and mathematics.

Recommendations regarding social work and conflict resolution skills training

There is a strong motivation for social workers to be engaged in conflict resolution skills training. Chapter Two provides details of the potential of social workers to contribute to the area of violence prevention. Social workers serve as important links between the pupil, the school, the family and the community. As recommended by Tshiwula (1995), social workers can contribute to designing

school curricula to promote the personal and social development of pupils. Social workers trained in conflict resolution can implement programmes at schools. In addition, social workers can be involved in the training of teachers and guidance counsellors in conflict resolution. The roles and tasks of the social worker in conflict resolution have implications for social work education. Chetkew-Yanoov (1991) emphasized that since social work has long engaged in conflict resolution, appropriate conflict resolution skills training needs to form part of social work curricula. Well trained social workers are essential if violence prevention is to be given priority in South African society. A further social work role lies in its contribution to policy formulation at provincial and national levels regarding conflict resolution skills training and violence prevention.

Recommendations regarding future research

The outcome of the study indicated cognitive behavioural changes among the participants. As acknowledged in Chapter Four, the ability of the participants to sustain these behavioural changes is questionable. A longitudinal study is recommended to ascertain the long-term effects of the programme. In addition, studies similar to those conducted by Gentry and Benenson (1993) and Schmitz (1994) which included feedback from parents and teachers on the behaviour of the participants, may be beneficial in providing further information on the impact of the programme.

This study focused on programme evaluation. The literature reviewed stressed the importance of programme evaluation in measuring the effectiveness of programmes and providing guidelines for programme planning and decision making (Farrell and Meyer, 1996; Greene, 1994; Rubin and Babbie, 1993). It is recommended that with the development and implementation of further preventive programmes, the evaluation component be included to ensure that the prevention efforts are having the desired effects. This is consistent with the National Social Welfare and Development Plan of the African National Congress (1994) which views evaluation as an ongoing process to determine the appropriateness and

economic viability of social welfare programmes.

The area of conflict resolution is ripe for research. There is room to replicate previous studies, to refine the research designs, to better address previously studied questions and to explore new questions (Weir, 1995). It is recommended that further research be conducted in this area and that researchers continue to gather and analyse data that will evaluate the effectiveness of conflict resolution programmes.

Conclusion

The findings of this study revealed that the conflict resolution programme *did* contribute to encouraging non-violent strategies of conflict resolution. The programme is viewed as one part of broader preventive initiatives in the area of violence prevention. The need to develop and implement more programmes aimed at promoting non-violence and co-operation is emphasized. The essential components of promoting such non-violence and co-operation are love and a true respect for human diversity. This is embraced as the principle of *uBuntu* which means that "people are people through other people" (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1996, p. 11). *uBuntu* implies a connection with the essence of humanity and an unconditional demonstration of love and acceptance of one's fellow beings. This study is based on the premise that promoting non-violence, peace, love and co-operation at the micro level can contribute to peace at national and international levels. This is aptly captured in the Gandhian notion that *peace between countries rests on the solid foundations of love between individuals* (cited in Sewpaul, 1994, p. 353).

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A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS TO FACILITATORS

The following instructions are applicable for each session of the implementation of the Conflict Resolution Programme:

1. Summarize activities covered during the session. List on the blackboard/newsprint.
2. Distribute evaluation forms to group members. Explain that after each session, pupils will be required to complete these forms.
3. Explain that the purpose of the form is merely to find out how the pupils experienced the programme. This is **not** a test. Pupils must answer as fully and as honestly as possible. This information will help us to know whether programmes of this nature will be useful to other pupils.
4. Explain each question on the evaluation form to ensure that pupils know exactly what is required. Ensure that pupils are aware of the differences between questions **five** and **six**.
5. Be on hand to clarify questions pupils may have.

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS CONFIRMING PROGRAMME DETAILS

11 August 1995

The Principal
(Name of School)
(Address)

Dear (Title) (Name)

Conflict Resolution Programme for Standard Five Pupils

Thank you for allowing the social work students to implement the conflict resolution programme with standard five pupils at your school. It is hoped that the pupils and the students benefit mutually from the programme. I wish to confirm the following as discussed with you:

Dates: 24 August 1995; 31 August 1995; 07 September 1995; 14 September 1995;
21 September 1995; 12 October 1995; 19 October 1995; 26 October 1995.

Time: 12H45 - 13H45

The sessions: The programme will be conducted over eight one-hourly sessions. The pupils will be divided into groups of about ten. Two student facilitators will be allocated to each group. Enclosed is an outline of the programme for your information. Should you require further clarification, please contact me.

We look forward to working with your school and thank you for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully

RESHMA SATHIPARSAD (MS)
Academic Supervisor

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO PARENTS OF PARTICIPANTS

22 August 1995

Dear Parent

Thank you for allowing your child to participate in the Conflict Resolution Programme. The purpose of the programme is to teach children that conflict can be resolved by peaceful means without the use of violence. Topics covered during the programme include understanding conflict, communication, respecting differences among people and effective problem-solving.

Students from the Department of Social Work, University of Natal, will conduct the programme at school, using one hour sessions weekly over eight weeks. Sometimes your child will be given homework as part of the programme. Your support and encouragement in this regard will be appreciated.

I hope that this programme will benefit all pupils who are participating.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

RESHMA SATHIPARSAD

Academic Supervisor

APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANT PRETEST AND POSTTEST QUESTIONNAIRE

My number is:.....

Age:.....

Sex: Female / Male (Please circle)

I live in:..... (State area)

Scene:

You share a bedroom with your brother. He is playing the radio very loudly. You are trying to study for a test tomorrow. You are finding it difficult to study and you ask him to turn off the radio. He pays no attention to you. You are anxious because you have much studying to do. You raise your voice and repeat that he should turn off the radio. He tells you to shut up.

1. How would you feel?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. What would you do?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX F

PARTICIPANT RETROSPECTIVE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

NUMBER: _____

The purpose of this form is to obtain a general idea of your experience of the conflict resolution programme. Please answer the following questions honestly and to the best of your ability.

1. Were the following methods useful for you?
(Please give an answer for each method by placing a tick in the box provided.)

METHODS USED	YES	NO
General discussions		
Small group discussions		
Role plays		
Exercises		

2. Do you think that the programme helped you in the following ways:
(Please give an answer for each statement listed by placing a tick in the box provided.)

LESSONS LEARNT	YES	NO	NOT SURE
To understand what conflict is			
To understand different ways of dealing with conflict			
To appreciate differences in people			
To understand the importance of communication in resolving conflicts			
To handle conflict more confidently			

3. Do you think that other pupils will benefit from programmes of this nature?

YES	NO

4. From your experience of the programme, would you like to make any comments or suggestions?

APPENDIX G

GUIDELINES: FACILITATORS' SESSION BY SESSION REPORTS

- * Date of session
- * Number of Members
- * Purpose of the session
- * Activities
- * Group process
- * Evaluation of pupils' response to the programme
- * Evaluation of the facilitator's role
- * Planning for the next session
- * Issues for supervision

APPENDIX H

GUIDELINES: FACILITATORS' RETROSPECTIVE EVALUATION REPORTS

- * Objectives of the programme
- * A concise description of the programme
- * Achievement/non-achievement of objectives
- * Evaluation of the groupwork process
- * Evaluation of pupils' overall response to the programme
- * Evaluation of facilitator's role

THE CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMME

APPENDIX I

SESSION ONE

UNDERSTANDING CONFLICT, VIOLENCE AND PEACE



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Hope and Timmel (1988b)

Prothrow - Stith and Weissman (1991)

Quaker Peace Centre (1992)

The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)



INTRODUCTION

SOME DEFINITIONS TO GUIDE THE INTRODUCTORY DISCUSSION

CONFLICT

A conflict is a disagreement between people. When people want different things or have different ideas, they may have a conflict. Conflict is a normal and natural part of life. Conflict provides opportunities for growth and development. Through conflict, we explore ideas and points of view that may differ from ours. We may also learn about and increase our understanding of people, groups and communities. Conflict also teaches us about relationships. If conflicts are peacefully resolved, relationships may be strengthened.

VIOLENCE

Violence refers to the use of force to harm, injure or abuse others. Violence not only refers to physical harm or damage to the body or property, but also includes harming a person mentally or emotionally. People may use violence to try to resolve a conflict, but this usually results in someone being hurt. We need to question whether violence *does* help to resolve a conflict, that is, we need to look at whether the problem is solved and whether people are happier after the use of violence.

PEACE

Here are some ideas about peace.

Peace means calm and quiet.

Peace implies harmony in personal relations.

Peace is not the absence of conflict, but the ability to deal with conflict without hurting others.

Peace exists at many different levels - within the individual, the community, the nation and the world.

Working for peace means respecting people and treating everyone fairly, honestly and lovingly.

Sometimes we feel anger and grief at what is wrong- we must use this anger as energy to work for peace.

DISCUSSION

All over the world, people are striving for peace. People feel happy when they feel understood, loved, have harmonious relationships with one another, and feel generally secure/safe in their environments.

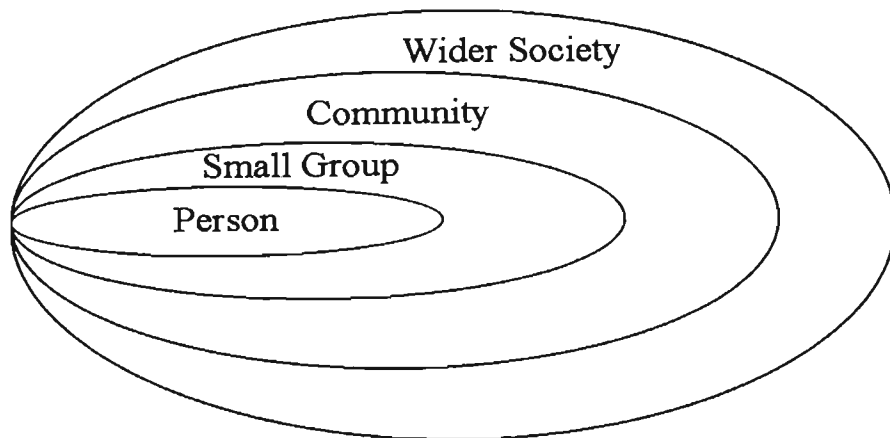
However, in South Africa as well as in other countries, this feeling of peace and harmony is threatened by the increase in acts of aggression and violence. Daily reports in our newspapers, on television and on radio bring home to us the fact that violence seems to have become very much a part of our lives. From the games that we play, in our schools and homes and in our communities, we often unconsciously learn responses to conflict that result in violence. We need to realize that problems can be solved by peaceful means without the use of violence.

The conflict resolution programme is therefore aimed at:

- a) increasing knowledge, awareness and understanding of conflict between people.
- b) showing people that conflict can be viewed in a positive rather than in a negative way, and to point out peaceful ways of resolving everyday problems.
- c) developing skills required to resolve conflict peacefully.

To achieve this, each of us has an important role to play in terms of our commitment to peace and to work for a world that is less violent. If we learn about and cultivate peaceful means of problem solving in our homes and in our

classrooms, this message is likely to be spread to other groups and structures of which we form a part. Our place in society can be seen in the following diagram:



Each person's attitude, knowledge, behaviour and responses feeds into and affects individuals, groups, the community, and finally the wider society of which we form a part. We must remember that there is a two way interaction between the person and the environment, that is, just as actions of the individual affects the environment, whatever happens in the environment also affects and influences the individual. The interaction between the person and the environment is continuous. It is therefore clear that each of us has an important contribution to make in creating a just and peaceful society.

CONFLICT BRAINSTORM

OBJECTIVES

To define conflict utilizing the ideas and experiences of the group.

To explore the positive aspects of conflict.

MATERIALS

Chart paper and coloured pens, or blackboard and chalk

PROCEDURE

1. Ask the pupils what a conflict is. Have them give examples.
2. Explain the process of brainstorming.

A brainstorm is a 'storm' of ideas. The ideas are like raindrops in a rainstorm. The idea of brainstorming is to encourage people to come up with as many different ideas as possible. For brainstorming to be effective, you must:

- * offer every idea that you can think of
 - * do not criticize any idea
 - * think of as many ideas as possible within the time limit given
3. Ask pupils to brainstorm all the words they can think of when they hear the word CONFLICT. List these words on the blackboard or chart paper.
 4. After brainstorming, ask students to identify which words on the list are positive, which are negative, and which are neutral.

Examples of negative words : angry, hurt, sad, hit, fight, aggression.

Examples of positive words: solution, agree, peace, problem-solving, harmony.

Examples of neutral words: disagreement , difference, problem.

5. These words may be put into categories for discussion. Discuss with pupils:

- * Which category has the most words? Why?
- * Was it difficult to think of positive words? Why?
- * Why were there more negative words?

6. Explain to pupils that:

- * Everyone has conflicts.
- * It is normal and natural for people to disagree and to have conflicts
- * Conflict can be positive. If we talk about our differences we can learn new and better ways to respond to problems, build better relationships, learn more about ourselves and others. Both people in a conflict can feel like winners.

7. Conclude the activity by setting the stage for the following sessions. Inform the students that you will be working together to learn more about conflict and to learn to settle differences in peaceful ways.

ROOTS OF VIOLENCE/NON-VIOLENCE

OBJECTIVE

To create an awareness of violent and non-violent responses and to identify the attitudes and feelings associated with these responses.

MATERIALS

Chart paper and coloured pens, or blackboard and chalk.

PROCEDURE

Put up two trees on the wall, and label one "violence" and the other "non-violence." Ask the group to brainstorm words connected with violence, to be written on the foliage of that tree. This is followed by the group thinking of attitudes, beliefs and feelings that form the "roots" of violence. These words are written on the roots of the "tree of violence." The same procedure is followed with the "tree of non-violence".

The discussion which follows highlights those attitudes, beliefs and feelings that may promote peace and those that may lead to violence. The group can be encouraged to come up with ideas regarding what can be done to remove the obstacles to peace and to convert the "tree of violence" to the "tree of non-violence". The discussion can focus on the fact that each one of us has a responsibility to contribute to this process.

WHAT'S GOOD /BAD ABOUT FIGHTING



OBJECTIVES

- To consider: i) the consequences of fighting.
ii) fighting as a method of resolving conflicts.

MATERIALS

Chart paper and coloured pens, or blackboard and chalk.

PROCEDURE

Ask pupils to list ways of dealing with anger. Categorize responses into two columns viz. healthy and unhealthy. (Fighting will most probably be included in this list). Then list in two columns what is good and what is bad about fighting.

The list may look like this:

WHAT'S GOOD AND WHAT'S BAD ABOUT FIGHTING

GOOD

winning
prove your point
get a reputation
get attention
enjoyment
evens the score

BAD

kill someone
get killed
might lose
get embarrassed
get suspended from school
get expelled
lose a job
revenge cycle begins
get scarred for life
lose respect of friends
get punished

DISCUSSION

Discuss appropriateness of fighting in some instances eg."fighting" for better education; "fighting" for better health care; "fighting" for equality etc. Discuss fighting within these contexts as opposed to fighting with someone who calls you a name, or loses your book.

Highlight that people do not have to rise / respond with anger to every insult. It may be better to respond to an insult with a non - defensive question eg.

- * Why would you want to say that?
- * Why would you want to tell me that I'm ugly (or dumb, or fat) and hurt my feelings?

This response may cause the offensive person to stop short and "review" the purpose of his/her statement. In this way, he/ she may realize that the statement was unnecessary and hurtful. Encourage pupils to discuss other examples.

SESSION TWO

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Dougan et al (1986)

Hope and Timmel (1988b)

The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)



WHICH "ANIMAL" AM I ?

OBJECTIVE

To create an awareness of behaviour and responses in the face of conflict.

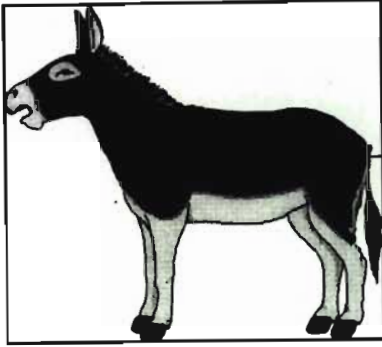
MATERIALS

Pictures of animals.

PROCEDURE

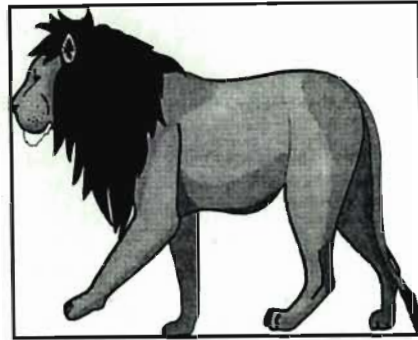
1. The facilitator explains the need to be aware of our behaviour when confronted with problems. People need to be aware of their interactions with others as well as the effects of these interactions. Highlight the fact that animals show in a very clear way some kinds of human behaviour, and humans also show in a very clear way some kinds of animal behaviour.
2. Divide the group into sub-groups of 4-5 members. Hand each group a sheet with animal pictures (Handout). Each member in the group focuses on one animal and discusses:
 - a) When did I behave like this?
 - b) How did other people react i.e. what was the result of my behaviour?
 - c) How did I feel?
 - d) Did my behaviour help to solve the problem? Explain.

After the exercise, pupils come together to discuss what they have learnt from the exercise. Discuss the fact that somehow it always seems easier to criticize the behaviour of others while failing to look at ourselves and our responses. Focus on the importance of being aware of our behaviours and the effects that our behaviours have on others.



THE DONKEY

who is very stubborn, will not change his/her point of view



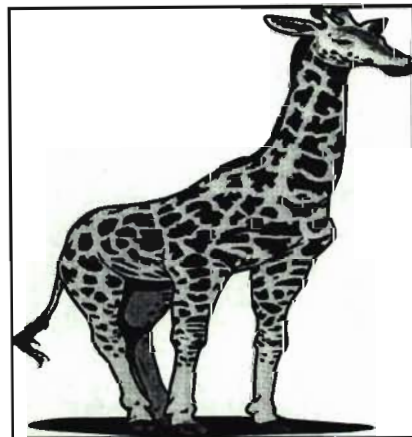
THE LION

Who is ready to fight whenever others disagree with his/her plans



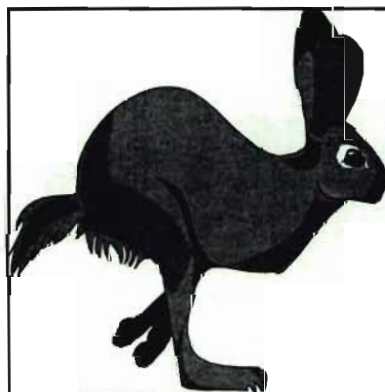
THE MONKEY

who fools around and does not take issues seriously



THE GIRAFFE

who looks down on others feeling,
"I am above all this childish nonsense"



THE RABBIT

who runs away as soon as (s)he senses tension and conflict. This may mean quickly switching to another topic (flight behaviour).

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES

OBJECTIVE

To recognize different conflict resolution styles.

MATERIALS

Copies of Handout: "One Story with Three Different Endings".

Blackboard and chalk.

PROCEDURE

1. Define the word conflict.

"A conflict is what happens when one or more people can't agree on something. Most of us are involved in conflicts every day. I may have a conflict with myself about whether or not to watch TV tonight. You and your best friend may have a conflict about what to do after school, or perhaps two soccer teams might have a conflict about the rules of their game. Conflicts happen because we all think, and sometimes we have different opinions about things. These differences are part of what makes us human."

2. Ask the pupils if they can think of any conflict which they have seen or been involved in recently. Ask them if they would like to briefly describe some of these conflicts.
3. Discuss the three different ways that a conflict can be dealt with: DENIAL, AGGRESSION, or PROBLEM SOLVING. Write these three words on the blackboard.

DENIAL occurs when someone is angry because of a conflict or fight. Instead of saying what bothers them, they pretend that there is no problem

or that they are not feeling angry. The difficulty with trying to end a conflict this way is that it doesn't really end because the other person never knows what is wrong or why the first person is angry at them. So it is unlikely that they will act differently the next time or that they will leave this conflict feeling good.

AGGRESSION occurs when there is a conflict and one person attacks the other, either physically or verbally. This usually happens when two people are not willing to listen to each other's side of the problem or to talk about it. Instead, they attack the other's ideas or worth.

PROBLEM SOLVING occurs when people talk about the problem without insulting or blaming each other. They know that they have a problem and try to think of many ways to solve it. They then choose the solution that will be best for everybody.

4. Ask the pupils if they have any questions and help clarify these for them.
5. Split the group into three sub-groups. On the blackboard, write out the story but do not include the endings. Hand to one group Ending 1 only; to the second group Ending 2 only and to the third group Ending 3 only.

Ask the groups to discuss the stories that they have and to answer the following questions:

- a) What is the solution to the conflict in this ending?
 - b) Were the boys understanding each other's feelings?
 - c) Was anyone's feelings hurt? Whose?
 - d) Who was happy at the end of the story? Who wasn't?
 - e) What kind of conflict resolution style was used in this story?
6. The groups then come together to discuss their answers. Further examples can be used to illustrate the advantages of using the problem-solving methods of conflict resolution.

HANDOUT

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES

ONE STORY WITH THREE DIFFERENT ENDINGS

Sipho and Peter are practising cricket, taking turns to bat. Ajay comes over and asks if he can play too.

Ending 1

Sipho says, "Sure." Peter doesn't like Ajay much and would prefer Ajay not to play with them. Instead of saying anything, he just shrugs his shoulders and plays half-heartedly. Whenever it's Ajay's turn, Peter throws the ball at him much too hard, and becomes impatient when Ajay fails to hit the ball. After a while, Ajay asks him what's troubling him. He replies in an angry tone, "Nothing is troubling me," and walks away from Ajay.

Ending 2

Sipho says, "Sure," but Peter says, "Forget it!" Ajay walks up to Peter and asks, "Why can't I play?" Peter tells him that he hates practising cricket with him because he grabs the bat and does not allow others to have a turn. Ajay says, "You're a liar. You just don't want me to play because I'm a good player and I can score more runs than you." Peter is angry and says, "Get out of here!" Ajay says, "You just try to make me get out." Peter moves forward, and he and Ajay look like they're about to fight.

Ending 3

Sipho says, "Sure." Peter says "Forget it!" Sipho asks Peter, "Why don't you want Ajay to play with us?" Peter says to Ajay, "The last time we played cricket, you took more turns than you were supposed to, and when you wouldn't give up the bat, I got angry. I didn't get to play as much as I do when everyone takes turns." Ajay says to Peter, "So you don't want me to play because you think I take too many turns?" Sipho makes a suggestion, "Why don't we agree to take only three turns each and then give the bat to the next person? What do you guys think?" Peter says, "Sounds OK to me. If anyone takes more than three turns, he's out of the game. Agree?" Sipho and Ajay reply, "Yes, let's play."

HANDOUT

THE CONFLICTS I SAW

	CONFLICT 1	CONFLICT 2	CONFLICT 3
What was the conflict about? Examples: *Argument *Fight *Name Calling *Violating school rules *Other			
How did the conflict end? *In a fight *In agreement *An adult stopped it *Sent to principal			
What type of resolution was it? *Denial *Aggression *Problem Solving			

SESSION THREE

APPRECIATING DIVERSITY



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Hope and Timmel (1988a)
Quaker Peace Centre (1992)
Rooth (1995)
The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)
Weeks (1994)



LOOKING AT OURSELVES

OBJECTIVES

To help pupils learn more about themselves.

To help pupils understand that people are different and that these differences must be respected.

MATERIALS

"Looking at Ourselves" handout.

PROCEDURE

Each pupil is given a handout to complete. Explain that there are no right answers and that there may be more than one answer to each question. After completing the questionnaire, pupils discuss their answers in pairs. The group then comes together to discuss similarities and differences between people.

Discussion

When it comes to conflict, we tend to think that we are much better than other people involved in the conflict. We need to remember that as much as people have similarities, they also have differences. Each person is unique (even identical twins have differences). Many factors contribute to people being different from one another, for example: biological, social, economic, environmental, religious, and so on. Some discussion can follow to ensure that pupils understand the concept of different factors influencing development. Referring to the exercise, the discussion can focus on the fact that people have different likes, dislikes, feelings, anxieties, fears etc. As individuals have differences, so do groups. Being different is not bad. In fact, differences must be appreciated as they contribute to the variety and richness of life.

HANDOUT

LOOKING AT OURSELVES

1. What makes me impatient?

2. What makes me angry?

3. What makes me happy?

4. What frightens me?

5. What kind of people do I get on well with?

LABELS

OBJECTIVE

To develop an awareness of differences and the effects of "labelling."

MATERIALS

Sticky labels

PROCEDURE

The facilitator asks for a few volunteers (about three) from the group. Stick onto each volunteer a label denoting a negative quality. The group then focuses on each volunteer, highlighting the "label" eg. Doris is a bigmouth ; Gary is a grouch; Sandile is an idiot.

DISCUSSION

How does it feel to be labelled ? Each volunteer states how s/he felt, having a negative label.

Then give each volunteer a positive label, eg. Tabie is a smart girl, Mpho is very kind.

Ask each volunteer to describe how s/he feels now? This can lead to a broader discussion on group stereotypes and how this affects attitudes, behaviours and relationships.

WHAT IS A STEREOTYPE ?

This is when one has a previously formed idea about a person (without knowing him or her). This idea can be based on eg. physical features - skin colour, hair, build; language, culture, religion, place of residence, school attended, economic level etc. Some examples of stereotypes:

Tall people are bullies.

People from Protea village are unfriendly.

Children from Umgeni School are hard working.

English speaking people are smart and intelligent.

These may be learnt in the family, from friends, or through ideas which exist in society. Often, when we have direct experiences with people from groups we have negative ideas about, we become aware that everyone is different (unique), and not all members of any one group are alike. (Reference can be made to the "Looking at ourselves " exercise. Although participants belong to this particular group, each person is different in his /her own way.)

Sometimes stereotypical ideas prevent us from appreciating the uniqueness of others, eg. if we do not have much contact with people who are from other cultures, we can easily have mistaken ideas about them. The more contact we have with other cultures, the easier it is to see that while people from a particular group may have some common characteristics, there are actually many differences among the individuals in any group.

LITTLE MISS BROWN AND THE SPIDER

OBJECTIVES

To understand the importance of hearing both sides of an issue.

To look at how labelling and stereotypes influence our attitudes and actions.

MATERIALS

One copy of "Little Miss Brown."

One copy of "The Friendly Spider."

PROCEDURE

1. Read aloud the poem, "Little Miss Brown"
2. Ask the group:
 - * What happened?
 - * How do you feel towards Miss Brown?
 - * How do you feel about the spider?
3. Read "The Friendly Spider." aloud to the group. At the end ask:
 - * How did you feel about the spider in "Little Miss Brown" before you heard this poem?
 - * Now that you've heard the spider's story, how do you feel about him?
 - * How do you feel about Little Miss Brown now?
 - * What do you think caused Miss Brown's reaction to the spider?
 - * What have you learned from these poems?
 - * Are there always two or more points of view in a conflict?
 - * How does this affect the resolution of the conflict.

DISCUSSION

Discussion can centre around the fact that it is absolutely necessary to take into account all points of view in conflict situations. What we have been exposed to and taught, affects our attitudes and behaviour e.g. Little Miss Brown was already told by her father that spiders were bad. This may have influenced her reactions to some extent. Only if we are aware of different factors that influence our attitudes and behaviours, will we be able to view situations more openly, recognise and appreciate differences, and perhaps respond in more appropriate ways. Encourage pupils to look at instances in their lives when they thought differently about a situation after listening to "both sides of the story."

LITTLE MISS BROWN*

Little Miss Brown
Sat on the ground
Feeling all happy and gay
A dark spider appeared
She thought "He certainly is geared
To frighten me and spoil my day"

He crept up near
And stared at her straight
She was filled with fear
Her pretty eyes began to tear.

The spider lifted his hand
Miss Brown knew he would strike
She got up with speed
and thought "This I don't need"

She ran home to tell dad
He'd said spiders were bad
And always such pests
You'd never want them as guests.

** Written by the researcher*

THE FRIENDLY SPIDER*

On a bright hot sunny day
A friendly spider came out to play
He spotted a girl
Her hair in a curl
And thought
Well, here's a friend for me.

He strode up to her
And looked at her face
He thought she looked pretty
All dressed up in lace.

The spider put out his hand
to say "Pleased to meet you
If you're looking for a friend
That makes us two."

The girl stared at him
She looked rather grim
With nothing to say
She quickly ran away

The spider felt hurt
At being treated like dirt.
Humans are sure an unfriendly pack
A smile, a kind word they certainly lack.

** Written by the researcher*

YOUR STANDPOINT IS YOUR VIEWPOINT

OBJECTIVES

To help participants understand that people can have different points of view about a common object/issue.

To encourage participants to appreciate other points of view.

MATERIALS

None.



PROCEDURE

The play

Ask two people to sit facing each other, with one person facing the door (if there is more than one door, choose an object in the room of which there is only one, for example the blackboard, the window or the table). This is important. Ask the second person to sit with his/her back to the door. The third person comes to the two of them, from one side, and asks, "Where is the door?" They both respond immediately, the one facing the door says, "in front". The one with his/her back to the door says, "behind". The third person asks again, "Where?" and the responses are, "In front", "Behind" - each out-shouting the other. The play then ends.

Questions for Discussion

1. Who was correct? Was anyone correct for the third person (because the door was at his/her side, not behind or in front)?
2. What does this short play tell us?
3. What parallel has it to real life and the manner in which we relate to one another.

Some discussion can follow on how we view things, and factors that affect our views eg. our backgrounds, religion, culture, education, class. Viewing things differently does not necessarily have to involve a right or wrong label.

SESSION FOUR

COMMUNICATION : LET'S CONSIDER FEELINGS



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Quaker Peace Centre (1992)

Rooth (1995)

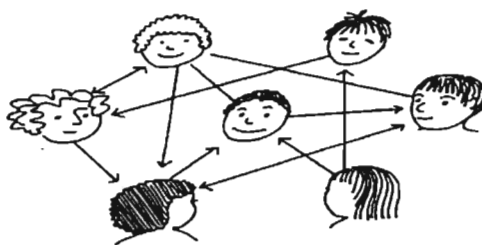
The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)

Weeks (1994)



COMMUNICATION GUIDELINES (for discussion)

With our words, actions, gestures and expressions, we communicate what we feel, what we want and what we need. We even communicate with complete silence. In other words, it is impossible *not to* communicate. Sometimes it is difficult to say directly what we want to express. This may be because of feelings of shame, fear, or due to habit or custom. Communication is an important tool in "opening the door" to forming trusting, respectful relationships with others.



Attitudes which help communication

Respect: This refers to treating other people with consideration, and includes polite greetings, honesty and being non-judgemental in our interactions with people.

Warmth: Warmth can be shown with the tone of voice, facial expressions, gestures and words. A warm, caring attitude makes the other person feel comfortable and invites open communication.

Empathy: This is the ability to understand another person's point of view i.e. to see the world as another sees it. A popular way to put it is "to walk a mile in the other person's shoes." To really understand someone's experiences, feelings and thoughts, at times it is necessary to put aside one's own opinions, prejudices and tastes. To improve your empathy, you could ask yourself the following question while listening to the other person: "If it were happening to me, how would I feel?"

We must remember to **talk clearly** to convey our feelings, wants and needs. When interacting with others, we must be able to communicate in an assertive, non-threatening manner.

It is also important to **listen actively** to ensure that we understand what is being said. Only if we listen well, will we be able to respond appropriately to what is being said.

UNDERSTANDING FEELINGS



OBJECTIVES

To identify and discuss feelings.

To increase an awareness of a "feeling word" vocabulary.

To learn to use words, not actions, to communicate feelings.

MATERIALS

Newsprint and pens, or blackboard and chalk.

A copy of the "I feel" handout for each pupil.

PROCEDURE

Ask pupils to list as many feeling words that come to mind. Encourage words depicting both positive and negative feelings. The list may include: excited, happy, jealous, lonely, embarrassed, proud, upset, angry, frustrated, scared, disappointed. These words may be listed on the blackboard. Explain to pupils that increasing our "feeling word" vocabulary will help us to express ourselves and to communicate our feelings more clearly.

Distribute the "I feel" handouts to pupils for completion. Convey to pupils that all feelings are okay to have and to talk about.

Questions for discussion:

- * Why is it important to be able to identify what we are feeling and to talk about our feelings?
- * If we have angry or unhappy feelings and we do not talk about them, what might happen?
- * Can talking about our feelings help to make a situation better? How?

HANDOUT

"I FEEL"

When someone pushes me, I feel _____

When someone call me a name, I feel _____

When someone won't share with me, I feel _____

When someone teases me, I feel _____

When I make a mistake, I feel _____

When people ask me to play with them, I feel _____

When someone smiles at me, I feel _____

When I can share with someone, I feel _____

When someone shares with me, I feel _____

When someone hits me, I feel _____

When I get into trouble, I feel _____

When someone likes me, I feel _____

When no one will let me play, I feel _____

When I say "hello" to someone who doesn't answer me, I feel _____

When someone takes my things without asking me, I feel _____

ROLE EXCHANGE

OBJECTIVES

To consider different points of view in a given situation

To try to see the world through another's eyes, that is, to show empathy.

MATERIALS

None

PROCEDURE

Using a role play, ask two pupils from the group to act out a conflict situation. The role play is then repeated with the pupils having switched roles. Ask the pupils to describe the following with regard to the different roles played:

- * What happened?
- * How did he/she feel?
- * What was the conflict for him/her in each situation ?
- * What would have to happen in each situation for him/her to feel better?

POSSIBLE CONFLICT SITUATIONS

1. For some time now, you and a friend have been planning a picnic for Saturday. On Wednesday night, you got home an hour later than the time your father told you to be in. You protested that it wasn't your fault and you were unable to phone home. In spite of your protest, your father forbids you to go out for a week.
2. Your best friend is having a birthday party. Your school report shows that you did not do well in your recent examinations. Your father/mother says that you cannot go to the party.

SESSION FIVE

COMMUNICATION : LISTENING AND TALKING



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Quaker Peace Centre (1992)

Rooth (1995)

The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)

Weeks (1994)



GOOD AND POOR LISTENING

OBJECTIVES

To identify good and poor listening behaviours

To help participants realize the extent to which these behaviours influence conflict situations.

MATERIALS

none



PROCEDURE

Ask a volunteer to relate to the pupils how s/he spent the last week-end.

While the volunteer stands aside, tell the rest of the group to demonstrate poor listening by:

- * looking away
- * looking bored
- * interrupting
- * looking at your watch
- * laughing inappropriately
- * asking a question that has nothing to do with what the speaker is saying.

Stop the role play after a few minutes. Ask the volunteer:

- * was the group listening to you?
- * What exactly did the group do or say that told you they were not listening?
- * How did you feel?

A second role-play can be done with two volunteers talking to each other and demonstrating good listening by:

- * keeping eye contact
- * facing partner, nodding and smiling if appropriate
- * not interrupting unnecessarily
- * asking relevant questions
- * restating certain words/sentences for clarity.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

(relate to conflict situation)

- * What can happen when you don't listen to someone?
- * How can you show someone you're listening?
- * How do you feel when someone listens to you?
- * How do you feel when someone doesn't listen to you?



"I MESSAGES" AND "YOU MESSAGES"

OBJECTIVE

To enable participants to express their wants and needs in an assertive, non-threatening manner.

MATERIALS

Newsprint and pens or blackboard and chalk.

Copies of the "I message" and "You message" skits.

Copies of the "Design an I-message" handout.

PROCEDURE

A "You message" skit is acted out by two volunteers.

Questions for discussion

How do you think Nomsa felt about Carol in this skit ?

How do you think Carol felt about Nomsa?

Do you think Carol is going to stop spreading rumours about Nomsa ?

Why or why not ?

An "I message" skit is then acted out by the same pair of volunteers.

Questions for discussion

How do you think Nomsa felt about Carol this time ?

How do you think Carol felt about Nomsa this time ?

Do you think Carol will spread more rumours about Nomsa ?

Why or why not ?

Comparison of the two skits

Help the pupils to see the differences between "You messages" and "I messages" by working through these questions :

- * What was different about the way in which Nomsa and Carol communicated in the two skits ?
- * Which was the more effective way ?

Explain to participants that messages a starting with "You..." as in the first skit usually make the listener feel judged and blamed ; the listener feels angry and may become defensive. "You messages" usually present obstacles to effective problem solving.

Messages starting with an "I"..., as in the second skit, tells the listener how the speaker feels, without threatening the listener, so often s/he reflects on what s/he did or neglected to do. The person is thus perhaps able to respond more appropriately.

Discuss the "I message" formula (on the blackboard or on newsprint) :

I feel_____ (state your feeling)

when you_____ (state what the person has done or is doing that is causing you to feel this way)

because_____ (explain the effect that the person's action is having on you.)

and I would like you to_____ (clarify what you would like the person to do to rectify the situation)

Example of an "I message" :

I felt upset

when you returned my book with pages torn out

because now I can't read it

and I would like you to replace the missing pages as soon as possible.

"YOU - MESSAGE" SKIT

NOMSA: Carol, you're a useless friend- you're such a blabber mouth, you just can't keep things to yourself. I told you that Priya and I had an argument, and now it's all over the school that we're going to have a fight! We spent half the morning straightening things out, then your gossiping messed things up all over again. I will never tell you anything ever again!

CAROL: Why don't you just shut up ! Who cares what you think anyway ? I was just giving you some back-up ! You are most ungrateful ! I don't want you as my friend anymore !

"I MESSAGE" SKIT

NOMSA: Carol, I was really upset when I heard that you told people that I was going to fight Priya after school. We had already made up, and she got angry all over again. I was also hurt because you repeated what I had told you in confidence. I want to be your friend, but I feel that I can't trust you anymore.

CAROL: I'm sorry, Nomsa. I didn't mean to mess things up like that. I was only trying to help because I really like you. I want us to be friends and I promise that in future , if you tell me anything in confidence, I will keep it to myself. If you want, we could go and explain things to Priya together.

HANDOUT

DESIGN AN "I MESSAGE"

1. You're heard that a pupil in your class has told other pupils that you did well in your last test because you cheated.

feel.....
.....

when you.....
.....

because.....
.....

and I would like you to.....
.....

2. You're standing in a queue for a bus/taxi. Suddenly a pupils pushes right in front of you.

I feel.....
.....

when you.....
.....

because.....
.....

and I would like you to.....
.....

SESSION SIX

RESOLVING THE CONFLICT : CONSIDER THE PROBLEM



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Egan (1990)
Quaker Peace Centre (1992)
The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)



IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM

OBJECTIVE

To develop skills in problem definition

MATERIALS

Blackboard and chalk

Copies of the "Identify the problem" handout

PROCEDURE

Introduce the topic of problem definition and why it's important to understand what the problem is before working on solutions. Before you can resolve a conflict, you have to correctly identify what the problem is so that both people can work together to find a solution. If you identify the wrong problem, even if you find a brilliant solution, the conflict will probably continue. We need to be clear about what exactly is the problem, why is it a problem, and for whom is the situation a problem.

The group can be split up into sub-groups. (+- three pupils in each sub-group)
The "Identify the problem" handout is given to each sub-group. Each sub-group can discuss a different story from the handout, and answer the following questions:

- * What is the problem in the story?
- * For whom is the situation a problem?
- * How is each person feeling?

Discussion can focus on the fact that sometimes problems are difficult to identify. It is therefore helpful to consider whether addressing the identified problem actually *does* help to resolve the conflict at hand.

HANDOUT

IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM

Zanele left her new pen on her desk when she went to lunch. When she came back to class, her pen was gone. She sees John with a pen and complains to the teacher that he has taken the pen that was hers. John calls Zanele a liar and they start arguing.

.....

On reading his report card, Amil sees that he has done badly in reading and mathematics. He knows that his parents will be angry when they see it. During the lunch break, Amil's friend Tabo teases Amil about his new haircut. Amil slaps Tabo and a fight starts.

.....

Alice borrowed Meena's new umbrella and tore a hole in it. Alice was so embarrassed that she just left the umbrella on Meena's chair and decided to avoid her until she could save enough money to buy a new one. Meena was hurt because Alice didn't apologize to her and because Alice stopped talking to her. Meena didn't need a new umbrella because her mother said she could mend the torn one.

.....

Primrose is walking behind Constance and Rita carrying her lunch tray. Constance and Rita are playing around and Constance accidentally bumps into Primrose, spilling the lunch all over Primrose's clothes. Primrose insists that Constance pushed her on purpose.

WHAT'S POSSIBLE HERE?

OBJECTIVES

To generate many solutions to a given problem.

To anticipate and evaluate the consequences of different solutions to a problem.

MATERIALS

Blackboard and chalk

PROCEDURE

1. Explain that thinking of many possible solutions is important. We often decide on the first solution that comes to mind and never consider others.
2. Introduce the topic of brainstorming, which is a way people can think of many different ideas or solutions.
3. Refer to the first exercise on brainstorming and repeat the following rules:
 - a. Offer every idea that comes to mind.
 - b. Do not criticize any idea that is offered - your own or anyone else's.
 - c. Come up with as many ideas as possible
4. Announce that you would like the group to brainstorm solutions to the following problem:

Manuel brings a game to school that his uncle gave him last night for his birthday. He is very proud of it, and everyone in class wants to have a turn playing with it. When it's Sibü's turn, he accidentally breaks one of the pieces. Manuel sees this happen and gets really angry at Sibü.

5. Instruct pupils to think of as many solutions as possible in two minutes. Remind pupils not to discuss or comment on answers during brainstorming.
6. Write all the possible solutions on the blackboard, encouraging everyone to participate.
7. Define the word "consequence" in the following way:

"Consequences are the things that happen because of something else that has happened i.e. each action has some kind of effect. For example, if Petros takes a toy away from his little brother, the consequences might be that his little brother will cry, and Petros's parents will punish him. If Pravin helps his friend Tony mow the lawn so they can go to the park sooner, the consequences might be that his friend will appreciate the help. Also, if two people don't talk about a conflict, the consequences might be that the problem will get worse."

8. Now go back and discuss the consequences of each of the ideas on the list. Encourage students to consider such things as:

- * Does the solution really solve the problem?
- * What are some of the consequences/effects of this solution?

Students can then list some things that will make a good resolution. The list may include: being realistic, preventing the problem from occurring again, all parties agree to the solution, being clear as to whether the solution does solve the problem.

I - LETTERS

OBJECTIVE

To express concerns and needs in a conflict situation.

PROCEDURE

1. Read out the following story aloud.

Bheki and Bongani are brothers. Bheki is going to his friend's party and looks for his new jersey. When he finds his jersey, he notices a stain on it and realizes that Bongani had already worn the jersey without his permission. Bheki confronts Bongani and an argument starts.

2. Ask half the group to pretend that they are Bheki and write a letter to Bongani. Ask the other half of the group to pretend that they are Bongani and to write a letter to Bheki. In the letter, say:

- * How you felt.
- * What happened from your point of view.
- * Why it bothered you.
- * What would make the situation better for you.

3. Ask a few pupils to read their letters out aloud to the group. This can lead to a discussion on expressing concerns in conflict situations and suggesting possible solutions. Pupils can reflect on the use of "I" and "You" messages.

SESSION SEVEN

STEPS IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION



This session is based on information obtained from the following sources :-

Egan (1990)

Hogges (1994)

The Community Board Programme Inc. (1990)

Weeks (1994)



WHAT MIGHT HAPPEN NEXT?

OBJECTIVE

To see how different resolutions to a conflict may have different consequences.

MATERIALS

One copy of the "What might happen next?" handout for each pupil.

PROCEDURE

- 1) Distribute copies of the handout. Ask pupils to read the story to themselves while you read it out aloud.
- 2) Read the first solution. Ask a volunteer to say what s/he thinks might happen if this solution were tried i.e. how would Busi respond. Then ask a second volunteer whether s/he would want this consequence.
- 3) Repeat the same procedure for each solution by asking a pupil to anticipate the consequences of a solution, and then commenting on how effective the solution is.
- 4) After discussing all the solutions, pupils can think of a fourth solution and complete the handout.

Answers can then be shared and discussed with the group.

HANDOUT

WHAT MIGHT HAPPEN NEXT?

Busi has been playing with the jigsaw puzzle for a long time. Shireen wants to use it and she is getting tired of waiting. Think ahead to what might happen next if...

*Shireen says, "Stop hogging the game and let me play!"
*Shireen grabs the puzzle
*Shireen says, "May I please have a turn?"

Name another solution that Shireen could try:

What might happen next if she tried this?

Is this solution a good one?

RESOLVE THE CONFLICT

OBJECTIVE

To demonstrate the complete conflict resolution process.

MATERIALS

One copy of the handout "Steps for Resolving a Conflict" for each pupil.

PROCEDURE

Write out a few conflict situations on the blackboard. Give to each pupil a copy of the handout, "Steps for Resolving a Conflict". Pupils can work in pairs and practise resolving the conflict situations.

DISCUSSION

Even when you have learned some conflict resolution skills, it can be easier to resolve conflicts if you have a set of steps to follow. The following steps are guidelines that pupils involved in a conflict can use to try to resolve the problem. For this to work, both pupils must be willing to try to resolve the problem.

Pupils must remember and apply what they had learnt during previous sessions i.e. identifying the problem, the importance of listening, use of "I messages", and thinking of several solutions to a given problem.

HANDOUT

STEPS FOR RESOLVING A CONFLICT

STEP 1: Each person agrees to the ground rules.

- no name calling or foul language
- no shouting
- no interrupting while the other person is speaking.

STEP 2: Each person states the problem as s/he sees it.

- * How s/he feels
- * what happened
- * what s/he wants.

STEP 3: Both persons suggest possible solutions.

Pupils think of solutions that both of them can accept. They should be willing to explore a bit before

STEP 4: Each person suggests something s/he can do to solve the problem. It is important to realize that each one of us has a role to play in problem-solving. We must therefore learn to take responsibility for our part of the problem.

STEP 5: Agree on a resolution.

Both pupils agree on a solution to the problem.