



Boran, G. (2015). Information Structure in EFL Teaching. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 2(3). 199-214.
<http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/95/114>

INFORMATION STRUCTURE IN EFL TEACHING

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Abstract

When speaking or writing in a foreign language, being grammatically and semantically competent may not be enough to convey the necessary information to the interlocutors in dual conversations or to the readers who read our texts in various genres such as personal letters, formal letters, e-mails, etc. Namely, individuals who communicate in a foreign language may generate grammatically and semantically well-formed sentences or phrases but their sentences and phrases may still not be comprehensible enough because they fail in highlighting the new information (unfamiliar information) and deemphasizing the given (old) information. Therefore, teaching how to utilize intonation, sentence stress and pitch when speaking English and teaching how to utilize various syntactic constructions such as fronting, left-dislocation, clefting, pseudoclefting, passive structures and word order in order to highlight new information and deemphasise given information when both speaking English and writing a text in English are of great importance in foreign language teaching. In this article, the concept of information structure is reviewed, examples are given both in Turkish and English and suggestions are made for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes.

Key words: information structure, given and new information, pragmatics

1. Introduction

Even though a sentence is grammatically and semantically well-formed, it may not be able to express the idea and convey the message because the new information it carries is not highlighted well enough and it emphasizes the wrong elements of the sentence or phrase at the wrong time.

According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), what speakers and writers do about information structure is very similar to what a painter does when creating his/her painting and they state that “Speakers and writers are responsible for highlighting certain elements and backgrounding other elements, exactly as a painter highlights particular details and deemphasizes others with judicious use of colour, shape, and position” (p. 214). Information structure concerns the way in which pragmatic information (such as what information is new, recent or unfamiliar, what information is old or familiar, what information is important, etc.) is packaged into a sentence. In order for our sentences to be successful in conveying information, we must emphasize the appropriate elements at the right time and deemphasize others. The issue of highlighting new information and deemphasizing given information in language texts oral or written is termed as information structure which is also known as information packaging (Finegan, 2008, p. 249).

As Finegan (2008) points out, “In order to mark information structure in a sentence, speakers rely on the fact that syntactic operations permit alternative ways of shaping sentences” (p. 250). Finegan (2008) gives the following sentences which are alternative ways of saying the same thing. Obviously, a different element is emphasized in each sentence.

1. The firefighter discovered a leak in the basement.
2. In the basement, the firefighter discovered a leak.

3. A leak in the basement was discovered by the firefighter.
4. It was the firefighter who discovered a leak in the basement.
5. What the firefighter discovered in the basement was a leak.
6. It was a leak that the firefighter discovered in the basement.
7. What was discovered by the firefighter was a leak in the basement.
8. The firefighter, he discovered a leak in the basement. (Finegan, 2008, p. 250)

Finegan (2008) points out that we exploit such a choice of alternatives to mark information structure.

2. Some definitions

In order to have a preliminary idea about information structure, some definitions will be useful.

Crystal (1992) defines information structure as "... a proposed analysis of sentences into information units" (p. 187). He also states that "... in speech these units are usually distinguished by intonational criteria, the information focus being conveyed by nuclear tone. For example, in the sentence 'Mary bought a RED car' the intonational emphasis on 'red' conveys that 'red' is the new information in the sentence, while 'Mary', 'bought' and 'car' are part of the given information" (p. 188).

Finegan (2008) states that information structure is "...the level of structure at which certain elements in a sentence are highlighted or backgrounded according to their prominence in the discourse" (p. 539).

We can infer from the definitions above that the elements highlighted or emphasized in a sentence are new information which the sender thinks the receiver does not know and the elements which are backgrounded or deemphasized are the given information which the sender thinks the receiver already knows. To state briefly, information structure is divided into two major parts: new and given.

3. Categories of information structure

The categories of information structure are listed as given and new information, topic, contrast, definiteness, and referentiality. According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), "These categories must be applicable to all languages although the ways they use them are different and with these categories, how discourse is constructed can be comprehended. Ultimately, these explanations may put forward hypotheses about how the different components of the human mind (such as memory, attention, and logic) work and get into interaction with each other" (p. 215). An important difference exists between the types of syntactic constructions found in particular languages and the categories of information structure. Furthermore, the range of syntactic constructions available in different languages differs noticeably; for example, some languages have a passive construction but others do not have that kind of construction. Because the categories of information structure are not language dependent, we cannot define them in terms of particular structures. Nonetheless, there is a very close relation between pragmatics and syntax (sentence and phrase structure). In all languages of the world, one major function of syntax is to bear and convey pragmatic information. The way in which pragmatic structure maps onto syntax differs from language to language (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 215).

As stated earlier, information structure is composed of two major parts: new information also termed as unfamiliar information and given information also known as old information. It will be useful to review given and new information in detail.

3.1. Given and new information

According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), one key category of information structure is the difference between given and new information. As Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out, “Given information is information currently in the forefront of the hearer’s mind; new information is information being introduced into the discourse” (p. 216). They give the following two-turn interaction as an example:

Alice: Who ate the custard?

Tom: Mary ate the custard? (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 216)

‘Mary’ is the new information because it is just being introduced into the discourse, and ‘custard’, in contrast, is the given information in Tom’s answer because it can be presumed to be in the mind of Alice, who has just introduced it into the discourse in the previous turn (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 216).

On the other hand, given and new information can be introduced into the discourse by the same speaker. Consider the following example:

- A man called while you were on your break. He said he’d call back.
(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 216)

Finegan and Besnier (1989) state that a piece of information is sometimes received as given because it closely associates with something that has already been introduced into the discourse. For example, when an interlocutor introduces a noun phrase into a discourse, all the subparts of the referent can be treated as given (old or familiar) information. Examine the following example.

1. Kent returned my car last night after borrowing it for the day. One of the wheels was about to fall off and the dashboard was missing (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 216).

In face-to-face conversations and most other kinds of discourse, interactors take first person (speaker) and second person (addressee) pronouns to be given information (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 216). These noun phrases do not need to be introduced as new information into the discourse (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 216). Consider the following example:

A: I bought this book in Istanbul.

B: Really? When were you there?

Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out that noun phrases carrying new information usually have stronger stress than those carrying given (old) information, and they are commonly expressed in a more elaborate fashion - for instance, with a full noun phrase instead of a pronoun, and sometimes with an adjectival clause or adjectival modifiers. Finegan and Besnier (1989) give the following typical example of how new information is introduced into a discourse:

- When I entered the room, there was a tall man with an old-fashioned hat on, quite elegantly dressed (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 217).

Finegan and Besnier (1989) state that “... given information is commonly expressed in more attenuated ways – ways that are abbreviated or reduced. Sometimes given

information is simply left out of a sentence altogether” (p. 217). Consider how the given information (*is at the door*) is left out in the following interaction:

A: Who’s at the door?

B: The mailman (*is at the door*) (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 217).

3.2. Topic

According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), “The topic of a sentence is its centre of attention - what the sentence is about, its point of departure. The notion of topic is opposed to the notion of *comment*, the element of the sentence that says something about the topic” (p. 217).

Given information is the element of the sentence about which we say something; namely, given information represents the topic. On the other hand, new information represents what we want to express about the topic; it is the comment and thus, if *Mary ate the custard* is offered in a response to the question *What did Mary do?*, the topic would be *Mary* (the given information) and the comment would be *ate the custard* (the new information) (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 217). The topic of a sentence can often be phrased as in this example:

- Speaking of Mary, she ate the custard. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 217)

As Finegan and Besnier (1989) suggest, given information does not always function as the topic. In the second sentence of the following sequence, the noun phrase *her little sister* represents both new information and the topic.

- Mary ate the custard. As for her little sister, she drank the cod-liver oil. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 217)

According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), similarly given information can function as comment, as the underlined element in the following sequence shows. The given/new contrast differs from the topic/comment contrast.

- Harold didn’t believe anything the charlatan said. As for Hilda, she believed everything he said. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 217)

It is very difficult to make an exact definition about what a topic is. While the topic is the sentence element that serves as the centre of attention, a sentence like ‘Oh look!’ uttered to draw attention to a beautiful sunset, has an unexpressed topic (“the setting sun” or “the sky”). Thus a topic may not necessarily mean a property of the sentence, but it may be a property of the discourse context. Despite the difficulty in defining topic, the notion of topic is important and needs to be distinguished from other categories of information structure (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 218).

3.3. Contrast

Contrast is a category of information structure. As Finegan (2008) remarks, “A noun phrase is said to be contrastive when it occurs in opposition to another noun phrase in the discourse” (p. 254). In the following conversation, *Sara* in Beth’s answer is contrasted with *Matt* in Alan’s question.

Alan: Did Matt see the ghost?

Beth: No, Sara did. (Finegan, 2008, p. 254)

Finegan (2008) states that “Contrast Beth’s answer with another possible one in which the noun phrase would not be contrastive: *Yes, he did*” (p. 254).

Besides, Finegan (2008) states that contrast can also be marked in sentences that express the narrowing down of a choice from several candidates to one. In such sentences, the noun phrase which refers to the candidate that is chosen is marked contrastively.

- Of everyone present, only Sara knew what was going on. (Finegan, 2008, p. 254)

However, Finegan (2008) also points out that *Sara* in the following sentence is not contrastive.

- Gerard knew what was going on, and Sara did, too.

Finegan (2008) offers a simple test and states that "...if a noun phrase can be followed by *rather than*, it is contrastive" (254). Examine the following example.

Speaker A: Did Matt see the ghost?

Speaker B: No, Sara, rather than Matt, saw the ghost. (Finegan, 2008, p. 254)

Additionally, a single sentence can have more than one contrastive noun phrase. Finegan (2008) gives the following example in which *Sara* contrasts with *Matt*, and *an entire cast of spirits* contrasts with *a ghost*.

Aaron: Did Matt see a ghost?

Bella: Yes, Matt saw a ghost, but Sara saw an entire cast of spirits. (Finegan, 2008, p. 254)

According to Finegan (2008), "In English, contrastive noun phrases can be marked in a variety of ways, most commonly by pronouncing the contrastive noun phrase with strong stress" (p. 255).

- You may be smart, but he's popular. (Finegan, 2008, p. 219)

3.4. Definiteness

Speakers mark a noun phrase as definite when they think that the listener can identify the referent of the noun phrase or the noun phrase is marked as 'indefinite' (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 219). In the example below, the definite noun phrase 'the neighbour' in B's answer presupposes that A can determine which neighbour B is talking about. According to the explanation Finegan and Besnier (1989) give about the example below, "B's answer is appropriate if A and B have only one neighbour or have reason to expect a particular neighbour. If they have several neighbours, none of whom they know particularly well, B cannot assume that A will be able to identify which neighbour is at the door, and the answer to A's question must be indefinite" (p. 220).

A: Who's at the door?

B: It's the neighbour. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 220)

We can give the following dialogue in Turkish as an example for the same purpose. Compare the following example in Turkish with the example above.

A: Kim bağıryor? (Who is yelling?)

B: O Adam bağıryor. (The/That man is yelling.) (The pronoun, 'O' in Turkish is used for definiteness.)

According to Finegan & Besnier (1989), "Definiteness must be distinguished from givenness because a noun phrase can be definite and given, indefinite and given, definite and new, or indefinite and new" (p. 221). The underlined noun phrase in the first sentence is indefinite and new, and the one in the second sentence is definite and given.

- Once upon a time, there was a young woman who lived on a remote farm in the country. The young woman was named Mary. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 221)

Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out that "...a noun phrase that refers to new information can also be definite" (p. 221). In the following sentence, 'the plumber' is definite, and it is acceptable whether or not the speaker has introduced a particular identifiable plumber into the previous discourse.

- The kitchen faucet is leaking; we have to call the plumber.

(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 221)

In certain circumstances, a noun phrase can be both indefinite and given, as with the underlined noun phrase in the following example:

- I ate a hamburger for breakfast – a hamburger, I might add, that was one of the worst I've ever eaten. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 221)

We can conclude that definiteness and givenness are distinct categories of information structure.

3.5. Referentiality

Finegan and Besnier (1989) state that "A noun phrase is referential when it refers to a particular entity. In the first example, the noun phrase *an Italian with dark eyes* does not refer to anyone in particular and is therefore non-referential. In the second example, in contrast, the same noun phrase does have a referent and is referential" (p. 222).

1. Katie wants to marry an Italian with dark eyes, but she hasn't found one yet.
2. Katie wants to marry an Italian with dark eyes; his name is Mario.

(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 222)

The same category can be observed in the following example in Turkish:

1. Ali bahçeli bir eve taşınmak istiyor fakat henüz aramak için vakit bulamadı. (Ali wants to move to a house with a garden but he did not have time to look for one.)
2. Ali bahçeli bir eve taşınmak istiyor; taşınmak istediği ev şimdi oturduğuna çok yakın. (Ali wants to move to a house with a garden; the house which he wants to move to is very close to the one where he lives now.)

4. Intonation and information structure

Before the Second World War, the Prague School constituted serious studies on information structure. Brown and Yule (1983) report that "They studied what they called 'the communicative dynamics' of the elements contributing to a sentence, within the framework of functional sentence perspective" (p. 153).

Halliday, in one of his articles published in 1967, elaborated and developed the Prague Scholars' work which was related directly to his own interest in the structure of texts. He also drew other Western linguists' interest to the matter. He adopted the Prague School view of information as consisting of two categories: new information which the addressor believes the addressee does not know, and given information which the addressor believes the addressee already knows, either because it is physically present in the context or because it has already been mentioned in the discourse (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 153).

Halliday also supported Prague Scholars' idea that intonation in English has a role in emphasizing new information and backgrounding given information. Halliday is

concerned to specify the organization of information within spoken English and to relate this organization to phonological realization, specifically to intonation (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 154). Additionally, Lee (2013) emphasizes the role of sentence stress in information structure in English: “English sentences typically bear at least one greater stress prominence known as a sentence stress (or nuclear accent), which is heavier than other lexical and phrasal stresses. Sentence stress typically marks the flow of new information, in that sentences, clauses or utterances typically contain older or topical information and a set of newer information” (p. 3). He also exemplifies this role of stress with the following recorded sample of family dinner conversation about movies:

(1) Recorded conversation sample:

- 1 A. He would make diagrams of almost all the **shots** and –
- 2 B. **Really?**
- 3 K. Yeah... that’s how they were able to make that new **Psycho**, uhm
- 4 They used all of his **notes**, yes.
- 5 So it was actually – it was **exactly** the same as the original
- 6 except for the **actors**.
- 7 B. Including the **dialogue**?
- 8 A. I **think** so.
- 9 C. Oh, please pass the **salad**.
- 10 And **both** dressings. (Lee, 2013, p. 4)

Lee (2013) explains his example that illustrates how the new information is marked with a sentence stress: “As seen above, the new information, often in the predicate, is marked with a sentence stress. Most often, it relates the flow of new information in an utterance, in that it falls on a content word, often the last content word bearing new information. However, it can sometimes mark emphasis instead (line 5, line 10), in which case it may not fall near the end of a clause, and can readily occur on function words (‘both’ in line 10)” (Lee, 2013, p. 4).

4.1. Information units

As Brown and Yule (1983) report, “Halliday assumes that the speaker intends to encode the content of the clause (the basic unit in his grammatical system). In many ways, what Halliday views as the ‘ideational’ content of a clause may be compared with what others have called the ‘propositional’ content of a simple sentence. This clause content is organised by the speaker into a syntactic clausal structure, in which the speaker chooses among the thematic options available to him and, in spoken language, the clause content is organised into one or more information units which are realised phonologically by intonation” (p. 155). Crystal (1989) points out that intonation has an important function to convey new information in speech. He emphasizes the significance of intonation with an example: “... if someone says ‘I saw a BLUE car’ with maximum intonational prominence on blue, this pronunciation presupposes that someone has previously queried the colour; whereas if the emphasis is on ‘I’, it presupposes a previous question about which person is involved. It would be very odd for someone to ask ‘Who saw a blue car?’ and for the reply to be ‘I saw a BLUE car’” (p. 171).

As Brown and Yule (1983) point out, according to Halliday, the speaker is obliged to disintegrate his speech into chunks of information units. He is also obliged to present his message in a series of packages. However, he is free to decide where each information unit begins and ends and how it is organized internally. Thus, given that the speaker has decided to tell his hearer that ‘John has gone into the garden with Mary’, the speaker may package this information into one chunk as in the following example:

1. John has gone into the garden with Mary.

Or two or three chunks as in:

2. John-has gone into the garden with Mary.

3. John – has gone into the garden with – Mary. (Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 155)

Brown and Yule (1983) further asserts that “The ‘internal organization’ of the information unit, relates to the way in which given and new information is distributed within the unit” (p. 155). Brown and Yule (1983) also report Halliday’s view about the sequencing of new information and given information: “...the speaker will order given information before new information. The ‘unmarked’ sequencing of information structure is taken to be *given-new*. Naturally, information units which are initial in a discourse will contain only new information” (p. 155).

On the other hand, new information may become given information after it has been introduced into the discourse and when it is referred again. Furthermore, Cook (1989) points out that “... any unit of information may of course change status as the discourse proceeds, and what was new in one sentence becomes given in the next, precisely because it has just been said. Indeed communication might be defined as the conversion of new information into given information, and successful communicator as a person who correctly assesses the state of knowledge of his or her interlocutor. If we misjudge, and treat what is given as new, we will be boring; in the reverse case when we assume the new to be given, we will be incomprehensible” (p. 64).

In the following conversation, new information becomes given information.

A: What is your brother’s name?

B: His name is JOHN.

A: What does he do?

B: (Laughing) John is only TEN years old. (Cook, 1989, p. 64)

4.2. Tone groups and tonics

As Brown and Yule (1983) point out, “Information units are directly realized in speech as ‘tone groups’ and they are also identified as ‘breath-groups’, ‘phonemic clauses’ or ‘tone units’. The speaker distributes the quanta of information that he wishes to express into these phonologically defined units” (p. 155).

Brown and Yule (1983) point out that it is possible to distinguish tone group phonologically. An important characteristic of tonic syllable is that it has the maximal unit of pitch on it. According to Lehiste (cited in Brown & Yule, 1983, p. 155), Tonic syllable is also called ‘nuclear syllable’ or ‘sentence stress’ and it has maximal moving pitch, maximal pitch height, maximal intensity and/or maximal duration.

In the following sentence the tonic is marked by capitalization, tone group boundaries by // and the silent ictus by ^. The tonic syllable functions to focus the new information in the tone group.

// ^ I / find it incompre /HENSible //

Finegan and Besnier (1989) state that “... in English and some other languages, intonation is an important information-marking device. Generally, noun phrases representing new information receive stronger stress than noun phrases representing given

information, and they are uttered on a slightly higher pitch than the rest of the sentence. This is called “new-information stress” (p. 230).

Finegan and Besnier (1989) give the following example which illustrates sentence stress to mark new information.

A: Whose foot marks are those on the sofa?

B: They’re Hilda’s foot marks. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 239)

Cook (1989) suggests the following practice:

Practice 1: Imagine a situation in which you have just marked 200 examination scripts. You might then be asked any of the following questions:

A) What have you just done?

B) How many examination scripts have you marked?

C) Who marked these 200 examination scripts?

D) What did you say you had marked?

E) What have you done with these 200 examination scripts?

F) When did you mark these examination scripts?

1) For each question, give a short answer of between one and five words.

2) If your spoken answer to each question was the full ‘I have just marked 200 examination scripts’, which word or words would you stress in each case?

3) If you had written a full answer to each question, how could you have rearranged the word order to draw attention to the most important word or words?

(Cook, 1989, p. 66)

5. Pragmatic categories and syntax

Languages use a variety of ways to express a given ‘thought’. Most frequently, the difference between these various ways of expressing the same thing is a pragmatic one. As Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out, “Languages differ in the extent to which and the way in which pragmatic information is encoded in morphology and syntax. Some languages like Japanese have function words whose sole purpose is to indicate pragmatic categories. Other languages like English depend on syntactic transformations like passivization to convey pragmatic information” (p. 224). They also state that for some languages, like French and Chinese, intonation is less important in marking information structure. However, in English, intonation is an important tool for information structure. Namely, different languages use different strategies to encode pragmatic information (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 224).

Under the following subtitles, syntactic strategies in marking pragmatic information will be explained and some examples in English and Turkish will be given.

5.1. Fronting

One of the strategies that speakers may use to mark information structure is fronting and it is a type of focus strategy which is often used to enhance cohesion and provide emphasis. According to Crystal (1992), fronting is carrying a sentence element from the middle or final position of a sentence to the initial position. Crystal (1992) gives the following example:

We turned left at *The Rose*.

At the Rose, we turned left. (Crystal, 1992, p. 147)

Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out that “Fronting is a movement transformation that operates in many languages, although its exact function varies from language to language. In English, it creates sentence (a) from the structure underlying sentence (b), which has the same meaning” (p. 224).

(a) Hilda I cannot stand.

(b) I cannot stand Hilda. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 224)

In English, fronting is used to mark ‘givenness’ by speakers and the fronted noun phrase represents given information.

A: I heard that you really like mushrooms.

B: Mushrooms I’d kill for. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 224)

As Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out, “A noun phrase can be fronted and if its referent is part of a set that has been mentioned previously in the discourse, even though it may not represent given information itself” (p. 224). In the following example given by Finegan and Besnier (1989), “...*mushrooms* is a hyponym of *vegetable*, which is mentioned in the question that immediately precedes the fronted noun phrase; the result is pragmatically acceptable” (p. 225).

A: What’s your favourite vegetable?

B: Mushrooms I find delicious. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 225)

Fronted noun phrases are often contrastive in English.

A: Do you eat cauliflower?

B: I hate cauliflower, but mushrooms I find delicious.

(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 225)

As Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out, “The fronted noun phrase must be the more salient element of the sentence. If this requirement is violated, the result is pragmatically ill formed” (p. 225). In the example given by Finegan and Besnier (1989), “In B’s answer in the following interaction, *mushrooms* is not the most salient element in the sentence, because the hearer’s attention is distracted by the phrase with butter and parsley” (p. 225).

A: What’s your favourite vegetable?

B: *Mushrooms I love to eat with butter and parsley. (*Pragmatically ill-formed because the sentence does not fit well into the context in which they occur).

(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 225)

5.2. Left-dislocation

Finegan (2008) defines left-dislocation as “an operation that derives sentences such as 1 from the same underlying structures as basic sentences such as 2” (p. 261).

1. Holly, I can’t stand her.

2. I can’t stand Holly. (Finegan, 2008, p. 261)

Manetta (2007) points out that a left dislocated noun phrase that appears in an initial pre-clausal position that is coreferential with a personal pronoun that occurs elsewhere in the clause. Manetta (2007) gives the following example sentences. The left dislocated phrases are bolded.

- (1) **My turtle**, he froze to death.
- (2) **My aunt Vicky**, she used to get bird poop on her every year.
- (3) **The knife**, I kept it at school. (Manetta, 2007, p. 1029)

Although left-dislocation syntactically resembles fronting, there are several differences between fronting and left-dislocating. In particular, a fronted noun phrase does not leave a pronoun in the sentence, but a left-dislocated noun phrase leaves a pronoun (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 226).

Margaret I can't stand. (Fronting)

Margaret, I can't stand her. (Left-dislocating) (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 226)

5.3. Clefting and pseudoclefting

Frascarelli and Ramaglia (2008) exemplify clefting and pseudoclefting with the following two sentences:

- (1) It is a book that I gave John. (cleft)
- (2) What I gave John is a book. (pseudocleft) (Frascarelli & Ramaglia, 2008, p. 1)

According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), “Clefting and pseudoclefting are transformations that are commonly used in English and many other languages to mark information structure in the sentence” (p. 227). In the example they give, sentence (a) is a cleft sentence, sentence (b) is a pseudocleft sentence, and sentence (c) is the basic sentence that corresponds to (a) and (b) – that is, the sentence that is derived from the same underlying structure but to which no transformation has applied.

- (a) It was Harold that Stan saw at the party.
- (b) What Stan saw at the party was Harold.
- (c) Stan saw Harold at the party. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 228)

According to Finegan and Besnier (1989), we can use both cleft and pseudocleft constructions to mark givenness, and the clefted noun phrase gives new information in a cleft construction. The rest of the sentence presents given information. In the following example, (b) can be the answer to the information question in (a). The answer to the question is clefted. However, (c) cannot be the accurate answer because the clefted element is not the requested new information.

- (a) Who did Stan see at the party?
- (b) It was Harold that Stan saw at the party.
- (c) It was Stan who saw Harold at the party. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 228)

For similar cases, following examples are possible in Turkish. In the constructions a, b, and c, different elements are emphasized as new information.

- (a) Mehmet'i kim şikâyet etti? (Who complained about Mehmet?)
- (b) Cemaldi Mehmet'i şikâyet eden. (It was Cemal who complained about Mehmet.)
- (c) Mehmet'ti Cemali şikâyet eden. (It was Mehmet who complained about Cemal.)

Although different elements are emphasized in (b) and (c), the emphasized element in (c) is not the requested new information. Therefore, the accurate answer to the question in (a) is the answer in (b).

As Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out, pseudocleft constructions and cleft constructions are similar and in pseudocleft sentences, the new information is placed after the verb 'to be', and the rest of the clause is between the WH-word and the 'be' verb.

(a) What did Stan see at the party?

(b) What Stan saw at the party was Harold dancing the rhumba.

(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 229)

5.4. Passives

Finegan and Besnier (1989) emphasize the role of passive construction in marking information structure and they state that like many other languages that have a passive construction, passive constructions can also be exploited to mark information structure in English. They give the following example to show how information structure is marked in passive sentences.

(a) The old man was scolding the mermaid.

(b) The mermaid was being scolded by the old man.

(c) The mermaid was being scolded. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 232)

Finegan and Besnier (1989) explain the examples above: "Of these three sentences, all of which can describe essentially the same situation, (a) is active, while the other two are passive structures. In (b), the agent is expressed (by the old man), whereas there is no expressed agent in (c)" (p. 232).

Native speakers and writers of English use agentless passive sentences and agent passive sentences for specific purposes. An agentless passive sentence is constructed if the agent is not important (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 232). Consider the following examples:

- A new shopping mall is being built near the Interstate.
- New Christmas stamps are issued every year
- Linguistics 100 has been cancelled today. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 232)

Agentless passives are used in Turkish for the same purpose.

- Yeni köprü gelecek ay bitirilecek. (The new bridge will be completed next month.)
- Bunların yarın postalanması gerekiyor. (These need to be posted tomorrow.)
- Bu radyo dün tamir edildi. (This radio was repaired yesterday.)

Agent passives are used for some reasons. The following are the reasons and examples for agent passive constructions:

1. The agent is expressed when it is a proper name indicating an artist, an inventor, a discoverer, or an innovator.
 - a. The Mona Lisa was painted by *Leonardo da Vinci*.
 - b. The Americas were discovered by *Christopher Columbus*.

2. The agent is expressed when it is an indefinite noun phrase conveying new information that the speaker/writer thinks is important enough to mention.
 - a. These works of art were all produced *by a woman*.
 - b. The corner store was robbed *by a masked gunman*.
3. The agent is expressed when it is an unexpected inanimate noun.
 - a. Thirteen people were injured *by a tornado* in Florida.
 - b. All the lights in this building are controlled *by computers*. (R-I-T Rochester Institute of Technology SEA Supporting English Acquisition, 2015)

5.5. Word order

As Finegan and Besnier (1989) point out, “Many languages use the sequential order of noun phrases to mark differences in information structure. English cannot use the full resources of word order for this purpose because it uses word order to mark subjects and direct objects. In the following English sentence, the word order indicates who is doing the chasing and who is being chased” (p. 233).

- The cat is chasing the dog. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 234)

If the noun phrases in the above sentence are inverted, the semantics of the sentence changes. Examine the following sentence.

- The dog is chasing the cat. (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 234)

However, in Turkish the word order does not mark the object or the subject. Although the word order changes in each version of “Köpeği kedi kovaladı”, the meaning (semantically) does not change because inflections on the noun define the noun either as the object or subject of the sentence but various word orders of the same proposition in Turkish have pragmatic functions. Turkish marks information structure through word order. In (a), (b) and (c), the introduction of focus and topic changes. Examine the following sentences in Turkish.

- (a) Köpeği kedi kovaladı. (The cat chased the dog.) (The dog is emphasized.)
- (b) Kedi kovaladı köpeği. (The cat chased the dog.) (The cat is emphasized.)
- (c) Kovaladı köpeği kedi. (The cat chased the dog.) (The verb, ‘chase’ is emphasized.)

Batman-Ratyosyan and Stromswold (2002) give the following examples and they state that “...in (2a) the constituents of the sentence are in the canonical position. In (2b) constituents have been moved to different positions to convey pragmatic information and Mektup is the topic, Ali is focused, and Hasan is backgrounded” (p. 794).

- (2) a. Hasan Ali'ye mektub-u ver-di.

Hasan Ali-DAT letter-ACC give-PAST

'Hasan gave the letter to Ali'

- b. Mektub-u Ali-ye verdi Hasan. '(Speaking of) the letter, it was Ali (that) Hasan gave (it) to.'
- (Batman-Ratyosyan & Stromswold, 2002, p. 794)

5.6. Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

Finegan and Besnier (1989) state that in many other languages as well as in English there are two types of relative clauses: restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

Sentence (a) has a noun phrase modified by a restrictive relative clause, and sentence (b) contains a noun phrase modified by a non-restrictive relative clause. Finegan and Besnier (1989) also point out that “A restrictive relative clause enables the hearer to identify the particular referent of the head of the relative clause (*the tree* in example (a))” (p. 235).

- (a) The tree that had been blocking the view was struck by lightning.
 - (b) The tree, which had been blocking the view, was struck by lightning.
- (Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 235)

Finegan and Besnier (1989), in their further explanation, state that non-restrictive relative clauses give additional information (description, modification, or explanation) about the referent of the head noun, information that is not essential for the hearer to identify the referent of the head noun. Besides, they point out that “Non-restrictive relative clauses are usually set off from the rest of the sentence by short pauses, represented in writing with commas” (p. 235). Finegan and Besnier (1989) give the following example.

- (a) A man who had been standing around suddenly darted inside the store. (indefinite, restrictive)
- (b) A man, who had been standing around, suddenly darted inside the store. (indefinite, non-restrictive)
- (c) John objected to the report that Sheila wrote at his suggestion. (definite, restrictive)

(Finegan & Besnier, 1989, p. 235)

6. Information structure in EFL classes

In EFL classes, information structure should not be neglected. When dealing with grammar or writing skills, students should be taught how to highlight new information and background given information through different syntax structures such as fronting, clefting and pseudoclefting, left-dislocating, passive structures and active structures. When students learn how to formulate these syntactic constructions, they should also learn their functional effects on information structure in discourse. For instance, students should know that passive constructions are not only syntactic varieties but also very functional in highlighting new information and deemphasizing given information. Finegan and Besnier (1989) want to draw our attention to beginning writers’ misconception about passive construction: “What makes a sentence like ‘*A good time was had by all*’ humorous is the fact that it is passive without a reason. Such unmotivated passives occur frequently among beginning writers, who appear to labor under the misapprehension that passive structures are more literary than active ones.” (p. 232).

EFL teachers should bring necessary language materials to their classrooms and get their learners to practise these syntactic variations in contexts so that they can use information structure strategies with these syntactic constructions in their written or spoken discourses successfully. Practice with authentic language materials is more useful than practice with non-authentic, simplified and graded ones because learners will have a chance to experience how information structure strategies are used with various sentence structures in authentic language materials.

Besides, the issue of information structure should also be emphasised when teaching pronunciation. Turkish learners of English, under the influence of their native language, usually cannot make the necessary stress on the correct sentence element and fail in emphasising new information and deemphasising given information in their spoken

discourses in English because Turkish is a syllable-timed language but English is a stress-timed language. Turkish EFL learners unnecessarily stress even function words such as prepositions, articles, auxiliaries, pronouns when they speak English. They speak English with flat or monotonous intonation and for this reason their speeches are usually incomprehensible and boring to native speakers of English. In order to fill this efficiency, EFL teachers should integrate grammar with pronunciation and when teaching grammar they should also teach their students how to stress the necessary sentence element in their sentences so that they can successfully convey the message by highlighting new information and backgrounding old information.

EFL teachers should attach due importance to the issue of information structure and enable their EFL learners to communicate successfully and convey the necessary information to their interlocutors in their conversations in English by utilizing information structure strategies in their pronunciations and construction of sentences.

7. Conclusion

We cannot assume that syntax and semantics are the only regulators of sentence structure. A sentence may be grammatically and semantically well-formed but still be problematic when used in a particular context (Finegan, 2008, p. 249). For particular contexts certain elements need to be highlighted and the rest of the elements may require to be deemphasized for better comprehension.

In English, not only intonation, sentence stress and pitch but also various sentence constructions are utilized to emphasise given information and deemphasise new information. Therefore, EFL teachers should be aware of the contrasting differences between students' native language and English, because the answer 'I BOUGHT a new bag' to the question 'What did you buy?' would be odd due to the fact that the emphasis is on the word 'bought', which is a wrong sentence element to stress.

When speaking or writing, second or foreign language users must be able to emphasize the correct elements of their sentences at the correct time. Therefore, in EFL teaching, mere grammar and vocabulary teaching is not effective enough to make EFL learners successful communicators in English. Pragmatic aspects of English should also be integrated with teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading and writing.

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Obiefuna, C. A., Offorma, G. C. & Ifegbo, P. C. (2015). Perception of intern teachers' use of interactive strategies in teaching large classes in online environment. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 2(3), 146-156. <http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/98/111>

PERCEPTION OF INTERN TEACHERS' USE OF INTERACTIVE STRATEGIES IN TEACHING LARGE CLASSES IN ONLINE ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Higher education institutions experience large classes despite the National Universities' Commission's (NUC) and other supervisory agencies emphasis on carrying capacity of the institutions in Nigeria. The overpopulation affects effective teaching and learning and quality assurance. This study focused on perception of intern teachers of the use of interactive strategies in teaching Curriculum Studies in an online environment in a College of Education. 200 computer science students (intern teachers) in a Curriculum Studies class formed the study sample. Three research questions guided the study. A structured and validated questionnaire with reliability index of 0.79, made up of 25 items constructed on a four-point Likert-type scale was administered on the students for data collection. The data were analysed using simple mean and the results showed that the intern teachers supported the use of the teaching strategies in an online class as a complement to the face to face method of teaching. They are also recommended as alternative strategies to reduce the problems associated with large classes. However, the research subjects were sceptical about the implementation of online teaching as a result of power supply and access to internet facilities. The findings have a far reaching implication for the 21st Century teaching and learning. Suggestions towards effective online teaching and learning were made especially with the Government's reiteration of the need for Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the schools in Nigeria.

Key Words: Interactive learning, online environment, Intern teachers, virtual learning and online teaching.

1. Introduction

The Nigerian higher education system currently has 95 universities, 27 Federal universities, 34 state universities and 34 privately owned universities and about 160 other tertiary institutions: Colleges of education, Polytechnics, and Monotechnics, (Aborisade, 2009; NUC (2009)). Every year, about a million or more students apply to enrol into these institutions of higher learning, but barely 10% of them actually secure admission (JAMB, 2009). A lot of concern is growing about the teeming population of youths who want to gain higher education, but were unable to get admission into the universities. In 2012, for instance a total number of 1,503,931 candidates wrote the 2012 Unified Tertiary Matriculation

Examination (UTME). In 2013, the number grew up to 10,338,000 candidates, and they were competing for only 500,000 admission slots (JAMB, 2009). Many students who were not offered admission in the faculties of their choice were offered admission in the faculty of education, a faculty majority of students will consider as their last option. The admissions into the faculty/school of education have increased the population of students taking courses in education. The growing population of students has impact on the human resources, facilities and infrastructure available in the institutions. The need to create a widening participation and improved social inclusion that will consider the growing population and the learning processes become inevitable. This paper therefore examined the intern teachers' perception of the use of interactive strategies in teaching a large class in an online environment.

Perceptions of class size are subjective and also depend on a number of variables. Hayes (1997) believes that there is no quantitative definition of what constitutes a large class, as people's perception of this varies from context to context. Describing a large class from an African context, (Onwu, 1998) was of the view that a large class is one "where the majority of characteristics and conditions present themselves as inter-related and collective constraints that can impede meaningful teaching and learning. Such constraints may be in the area of students' population, facilities and infrastructure or teacher-student ratio.

Population however, is contextual hence Buchanan (1990) estimated the population size in a large class as 80 or more students, (Enerson, 1997). In the University of Pretoria (version 2) large class is estimated at 100. Aborisade (2009), was of the view that about 150 students and above with one teacher can be seen as a large class and an extra-large class is within the range of 700 students with up to four teachers. Nilsson (2003) however argued that using learner- teacher ratio to describe a large class is not meaningful, because some courses by their design may have more or fewer students. This is true of foundation level courses in the universities and education courses in the faculty of education where the number of students is large, based on discipline.

The teacher in a face to face class is challenged with teaching a large group of students in a hall of small capacity. In some institutions, clashes on the time table schedules result in students struggling for space for their lectures. In some cases lectures are stretched far into the evenings on the same group of students. These practices may have some health, academic and social implications on the students. Such observations provide knowledge of what Council (2006), described as new trends in teaching and learning playing major roles in shaping the physical learning environment. In the context of this study, Onwu's (1999) view of serious conditions affecting learning is considered. More so, the National Policy on Education's stipulation for teacher-student ratio will be a yardstick for considering a class large. Invariably any class of above 45 students per teacher is termed a large class.

The percentage rise in students' population seems to grow with the sensitization programmes on the need for education in national development. According to (Oladipo. Adeosun and Oni, 2009), the demand for university education has reached an unprecedented high level that doubles the current number of universities in the country. Today the number of universities is 143. The students' population increase however, has a lot of implications on teaching and learning. The available physical facilities are severely overstretched and ill maintained. NUC (2004), Adeyemi (2007), observed that overcrowded class leads to distraction and indiscipline. Manjanga (2011) shows that large class minimizes interactions in the class. Osim (2012) is of the view that large class size affects the quality of evaluation,

assessment and feedback. In such a class the method of teaching is simply lecturing, and practical work. At the best, it is demonstration (Onwu, 2005). In effect, limited opportunities to meet individual learner's needs for active participation, inquiry, motivation, discipline, safety and socialization are lacking.

Discussing the consequences of indiscipline which may be an attribute of poor class control in a large class, *The Telegraph* of 26/02/2012 for instance, observed that "more teachers quit the classroom over indiscipline" and that teachers in England are retiring before the statutory retirement age. The observation suggests that if students are not properly engaged, if learning is not taking place, the students are likely to disrupt classroom activities to the detriment of the teachers' job satisfaction. There is need therefore for a strategy that discourages formal teaching spaces of large class with the teacher being a sage on the stage. With smaller, less formal settings where students learn from one another as well as from their appointed teachers; a strategy that considers learning occurring when a learner is not in a fixed or pre-determined location and at the same time ensuring effective teaching and learning for a better performance output may solve the problems of large class teaching. How would the intern teachers perceive such a strategy?

One of the goals of teacher education according to the National Policy on Education (FGN, 2004) is to provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and to make them adaptable to the changing situations. One of such intellectual abilities inculcated in the pre-service teacher is the knowledge of information and communication technology (ICT). The knowledge of ICT is a basic requirement for teaching and learning in the 21st Century. Agyeman (2007), citing the ICT Policy pointed out that ICT skills have been made mandatory as part of minimum national standard for teacher education at NCE and undergraduate levels. Leye (2007), Olatokun, (2007) also observed that with the emerging technologies, the teaching profession is evolving from an emphasis on teacher-centred education, lecture-based instruction to student-centred, interactive learning environment. The shift from instructional paradigm to a learning paradigm has changed the role of the institutions of higher learning from a place of instruction to a place for producing learning. (Council, 2006).

New learning style determines the type of learning environment required. Learning environments may be simulated environment, immersive environment, social learning environment where less emphasis is paid on factual knowledge. Focus is more on ability to think critically and create information for solving complex problems. New teaching and learning environment provides room for both the real and virtual learning spaces to coexist (Brown, 2003). The new learning environment which encourages student-centred interactive learning is a characteristic of the 21st century teaching and learning environment. It incorporates the 4cs' creativity, collaboration, communication and critical thinking. The use of the 4c's produces proficient communicators, creators, critical thinkers, and collaborators who are globally competitive. The 4c's are derived from Kolb's and Vygotsky's (1978) theories of constructivism and socialization which allow the learner to experience the environment through problem solving, inquiry learning and socialization processes.

Online environment is an example of a new teaching and learning space which incorporates the 4c's in teaching and learning, with the teacher as a facilitator. According to Poe and Stassen (2002) online involves faculty delivered instruction through the internet using either real time- (synchronous) or anytime, anywhere (asynchronous) modes of teaching. They are two-way parallel processes within an online environment. The

asynchronous mode is mainly used in distance learning while the synchronous mode can be used in large theatre halls with the use of clickers. For the benefit of this study, the asynchronous mode where students are situated in different locations within the campus with their mobile devices was considered. (Kukulka-Hulme (2009), was of the opinion that mobile devices can be used in an online environment to record and to listen to audio presentations at any time. They encourage spontaneous reactions. (Alaba, 2005) notes the high prevalence in the ownership of mobile devices among Nigerian youths. This advantage can be harnessed and applied in the classroom.

Successful online teaching according to Gunawardena and Zittle (1995) promotes cognitive strategies, learner centeredness, interactivity, collaborative learning and social presence. Students are empowered to take control of their own learning, (Poyatos-Matas and Allan (2005). Students select and transform information, construct hypotheses and make decisions based in a cognitive manner. These attributes according to Greyling and Wentzel (2007) reduce and eliminate the emotional constraints of anonymity experienced in a large class setting.

The National Education Association also notes that the use of the 4c's in problem solving involves teamwork and cooperation which can be achieved using Wikis, blogs, and Web 2.0, that enable strangers separated in time and space to collaborate. The collaboration is enhanced with the strangers' communicative competencies which are achieved through articulated ideas, expressed in speaking or writing. The use of the spoken or written communication is given immediate feedback that helps one to realize if the contributed ideas are acceptable or not. Hence Lia Voerman (2012) describes the concept of feedback as information regarding one's performance or understanding, given by an agent, teacher, peer, computer, book, parent, self, or experience. Pauli (2010) identified four levels of feedback to include feedback on the task, feedback on the task process, feedback on self-regulation and feedback on self.

In this study, the teacher and peer feedback were taken into consideration to determine the extent the use of creativity, collaboration, communication and critical thinking strategies promoted immediate feedback in a large class. It is a phenomenon that most institutions of higher learning experience as a result of the teeming population of Nigerian youths seeking higher education. Large population can affect human and material resources and invariably affect students' attendance to class; active participation in class activities and the use of feedback. This paper examined the use of interactive teaching strategies in an online environment. It specifically sought to find out the perception of intern teachers of the use of the 4cs' in an online environment. Would that encourage active participation, improve class attendance and promote use of immediate feedback that is rarely used in a large class, in a face to face classroom? It also sought to find out if the online environment can provide an alternative source of learning environment in the face of shortage of accommodation for large classes.

Four research questions guided the study:

- 1.What is the perception of intern teachers of the reduction of accommodation problems created in a face to face classroom by online environment?
- 2.How do the intern teachers perceive the use of the 4c's in an online teaching in a large class size?

3.How do the intern teachers perceive the use of the 4c's in an online teaching to improve class attendance in a large class size?

4.What is the perception of intern teachers of the use of the 4c's in an online teaching to promote immediate feedback in a large class size?

2. Method

This study is an ipso facto study investigating the use of the 4c's in an online teaching in a large class. The study was carried out at Alvan Ikoku Federal College of Education, Owerri, Nigeria. The population of the study consisted of 200 second year Computer Science students offering Curriculum Studies which is one of the core education courses offered by undergraduate students to obtain a Bachelor's degree in Education (B.Ed). These students had earlier used a face to face lecture method in their first year and have an experience of face to face lecture method in a large class situation. This group of students was exposed to online environment in their second year. The students, in an online learning environment have working knowledge of the hardware and software used to deliver the online courses. They can chat, read, write and listen in an online class. The topics were uploaded and the students were made to read the online materials and react to the assignments given. Each student was made to respond to at least three different contributions from their peers (fellow students). They were also made to sign the participation sheet which served as attendance. They were requested to respond to the assignments from any location and anytime within the stipulated time scheduled for the tasks. At the end of the course, a questionnaire of 25 items constructed on a 4-point Likert type of scale was administered on the students electronically using a Survey Monkey. The instrument was face validated by three (3) lecturers in the Departments of Curriculum Studies and Educational Technology. The internal consistency of the instrument was calculated using Cronbach Alpha. An estimated reliability coefficient of 0.79 was realized showing high reliability index. The data were analysed using a simple mean. A mean of 2.5 was accepted while a mean below 2.5 was rejected.

3. Results

The results are presented in the Tables below.

The result in Table 1 shows that with a grand mean of 2.73 the respondents were of the view that online teaching would ease accommodation problem experienced in large class size in face to face classroom.

Table1. *What is the perception of intern teachers of the reduction of accommodation problems created in a face to face classroom by online environment?*

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	Total	Mean
1	Learning can take place anywhere anytime	640	60	30	5	735	3.68
2	Non-physical classroom is a barrier to teaching and learning	112	75	128	83	398	1.9
3	Physical absence of the teacher affects teaching	88	90	104	96	378	1.8

4	Accommodation is not a problem as long as the learner is connected to the internet	580	105	44	8	733	3.66
5	Power supply was constant in online lessons	80	90	112	5	287	1.4
6	Stress on both teacher and learner is reduced	448	124	56	12	660	3.3
7	Conducive environment for learning is guaranteed	488	120	25	13	671	3.4
Grand Mean							2.73

The result in Table 1 shows that with a grand mean of 2.73 the respondents were of the view that online teaching would ease accommodation problem experienced in large class size in face to face classroom.

Table 2. *How do the intern teachers perceive the use of the 4c's in an online teaching in a large class size?*

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	Total	Mean
8	collaboration will be encouraged	616	66	32	8	722	3.61
9	Effective communication is guaranteed	528	105	50	8	691	3.5
10	Quality and quantity of interaction is higher	500	114	50	13	676	3.38
11	Lesson is personalised	416	180	60	6	662	3.31
12	Online lesson improves construction of ideas	540	87	36	18	681	3.4
13	Online lesson gives one the opportunity to source for information.	512	144	36	9	701	3.5
14	Online lesson improves critical thinking skills	464	126	54	15	659	3.29
15	Connected networks provide more freedom and expressive power to the learner	424	144	56	18	642	3.21
16.	Active participation enhances the use of technology skills	496	108	52	14	670	3.3
Grand Mean							3.4

Table 3. *How do the intern teachers perceive the use of the 4c's in an online teaching in improving class attendance in a large class size?*

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	Total	Mean
17	Feedbacks are prompt in online teaching.	520	90	60	10	680	3.4
18	Immediate feedbacks are regular.	456	165	52	5	678	3.3
19	Immediate feedback promotes team spirit among peers.	476	132	40	17	665	3.3
20	Immediate feedback promotes motivation.	504	126	44	10	684	3.4
21	Immediate feedback creates new learning strategy.	480	114	60	12	666	3.3
22	Immediate feedback encourages peer editing.	408	120	60	28	616	3.01
23	Immediate feedback responses and contribution creates workload on teacher and	488	96	54	19	657	3.2

The result in Table 3 shows that with a grand mean of 3.2, the respondents agreed that online teaching promotes immediate feedback.

Table 4. *What is the perception of intern teachers of the use of the 4c's in an online teaching to promote immediate feedback in a large class size?*

SN	Items	SA	A	D	SD	Total	Mean
24	Immediate feedback contribution and responses help to detect absentee student.	464	120	66	11	661	3.3

The Table above shows that the intern teachers were of the view that the use of 4c's in an online teaching facilitates detection of absentees as shown by the mean of 3.3.

4. Discussion

The findings in Research Question 1 show that in an online class, learning can be realized from any location provided the learner is connected through the internet to the rest of the class members and can make contributions to thread discussions. This finding is a support from an earlier study showing high prevalence in the ownership of technological devices, such as mobile phones, laptops and palm tops among Nigerian youths (Alaba, 2005). A mean score of 1.9 and 1.8 respectively show that the respondents were of the view that the absence of a physical classroom environment or the physical absence of a teacher cannot be a barrier to teaching and learning. This may be based on their ownership of resource that can make the teaching and learning feasible.

The findings from this study also support Council's (2006)) observation that new environments are being designed or reshaped to respond to the pedagogical styles and changing numbers of learners. Again this can be made possible once the resource materials are available in the new environment. It also shows that the trend where the teacher is a sage on the stage is being overtaken by the online environment.

The results from the study equally show that with the online environment, excessive use of facilities, stress on human and material resources are reduced. Adebayo (2005) had earlier pointed out the implications of an overcrowded classroom in which indiscipline can occur when the facilities are not enough. Students may struggle over existing ones and in the process some of them may be destroyed. In an online environment, learning can take place in any location and at any time with a teacher as a facilitator. This is a new trend in teaching and learning which can occur outside the four walls of a classroom.

Emphasis is shifting on social inclusion which provides an opportunity for everyone to be literate. With the new trend in mobile learning, the challenges of large class size will be accommodated with new technologies. Millions of Nigerian youths are yearning for social inclusion in the education stratum to achieve their life ambitions. The lifelong education has provided equal opportunity for all irrespective of age or social stratum. The only snag in the online environment is power supply. The arrangement of the Federal Government to provide cloud network to institutions of higher learning through the National Communications Commission (NCC) is a step in the right direction. If the government can equally make power supply regular and constant, even if it is using the solar energy, the online environment will be used to address the large class and other issues encountered in teaching and learning.

The findings in research question two show that with a mean score of 3.4, the respondents agreed that the use of the 4c's in an online environment promotes active participation of the learner. The active participation occurred as a result of collaboration and communication skills which entailed sharing of ideas between and among one the peers. The students used threads of discussion through a written communication thereby sharing ideas between and among them. The written communication through collaborative ideas for instance enabled the learner to think critically before constructing and contributing personal ideas. The collaborative and communicative mechanisms support Kolb's and Vygotsky's (1978) theories of constructivism and socialization. Though the students were not physically present, they were able to exchange ideas and reconstruct and contribute ideas to the forum through the online threaded discussions and chats.

The exchange of ideas agrees with Greyling's and Wentzel's (2007), views that online lessons reduce and eliminate the emotional constraints of anonymity experienced in a large class setting. A mean score of 3.5 shows that with the use of the 4c's in an online lesson a learner has an opportunity to source for information on the net. Sourcing for information improves the learner's online reading habits and builds confidence in the expressive power of the learner which is realized through personal contribution of ideas. The use of 4c's equally helps the learner to gain hands-on experience using technology to learn rather than learning technology. The use of technology supports social inclusion theories of Kolb and Vygotsky which accommodates all, irrespective of age or social inclination, thereby reducing digital divide that occurs in admission processes. Ownership of mobile devices among students helps to ensure that lifelong education is achievable and realizable.

Research question 3 shows that a grand mean of 3.2 indicates that the respondents agree that the use of 4c's in an online environment promotes immediate feedback. The promptness and regularity of feedback by the students and the teachers eliminate the delayed feedbacks experienced in face to face classroom and promote students seeing their performances on time and taking corrective measures where necessary. The prompt feedback and number of feedbacks coming from both peers and the teacher provide more information that would enable the student to critically reconstruct knowledge to an acceptable standard. The peer editing involved in the immediate feedback encourages the pre-service teachers in the art of providing feedbacks especially, as other persons react to comments on feedback provided by fellow participants. Through immediate feedback, the learner can develop a learning strategy that can enhance learning and will help the learner to become independent and confident.

Independence and autonomy are some of the things lacking in an average face to face large class learning that most often may lead to cheating and examination malpractice. Another major attribute of the immediate response is that it will at a glance detect a student who is not contributing to the discussion as a result of absence from the class. This is hardly detected in a face to face large class mode despite the attendance strategy the teacher may have developed. The students' contribution in an online class can help to ascertain a students' eligibility to write an examination as some of the contributions carry some marks, especially under continuous assessment mode.

One thing that has been taken for granted is the students' attendance and active participation rate in the classroom. This often leads to poor performance of the students. The use of the 4c's will to a great extent reduce inactivity in the class and at the same time promote and encourage regular attendance. A mean score of 3.2 shows that the respondents were of the opinion that the workload in the use of the 4c's in an online environment is

cumbersome, but it will not be compared with when the teacher was bearing the burden alone, neither will it be compared with when the student, a pre-service teacher who is being prepared for the teaching profession cannot create, think critically, communicate or collaborate in a classroom environment. The pre-service teachers will definitely prepare the learner in the way they were prepared thereby revolving the cycle.

One major essence of technology is to make work easier for the teacher. The teacher in an online class has ample opportunity to read and make comments on the students work because the students do not post their assignments at the same time. The teacher does not need to comment on all the assignments, but the thread of the discussion will enable the teacher post a general comment and make specific comments where necessary.

This study has examined the use of the 4c's in an online environment and it specifically examined how the use of the 4c's in an online environment can reduce students accommodation problems, encourage active participation and enhance the use of immediate feedbacks. These variables are some of the factors that have affected large classes in a face to face class. The use of the 4c's has shown a lot of improvements for the variable and they have educational implications. There is need to train the pre-service teacher in the use of the 4c's in an online environment as the world of work expects competence in communicative process, collaboration and team spirit, ability to think critically in the face of challenges and be able to create a product that will compete favourably in the global market economy. The only avenue to realize the objective is in the educational institutions by given learner opportunity to make a contribution.

5. Conclusion

The results from the study show that in online teaching environment with the 21st century teaching skills some of the problems encountered in face to face large class size are minimized. The idea of classroom accommodation problems experienced in a face to face class can be solved by using online environment which encourages learning from any location. In the same vein, the challenges of passive and inactive nature of students in a large class are reduced as every student has an opportunity to contribute an experience in an online class. When written assignments are given in a face to face class, immediate feedbacks are not given to enable students realize their mistakes, but in an online class immediate feedback (knowledge of result) is not only essential, but encourages reconstruction of ideas that will enable a student understand a the materials better.

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Alagozlu, N. & Makihara, M. (2015). Conflict resolution strategies in Turkish and American speech communities: a school setting. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 2(3). 177-197.
<http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/100/113>

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES IN TURKISH AND AMERICAN SPEECH COMMUNITIES: A SCHOOL SETTING

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Abstract

Conflicts in communication are very common in every culture. However, resolving them varies from one culture to another. Conflict management strategies in communication revolve around five solutions collaboration, compromise, avoidance, competition, and accommodation as stated by Kilman (1977). This study attempts to explore ways of terminating verbal conflicts in academic settings. In the study, first, we aim to evaluate the ways of solving conflicts in two settings: a Turkish and an American University. Secondly, taking a pragmatic perspective, a classification of speech acts used to end conflicts is targeted according to both Killman's strategies and a facework analysis. Specifically, it is aimed to investigate:

- generally how Turkish and American speakers end conflicts in discourse and which strategies they use in order to resolve conflicts
- how "face" is reflected in those speech acts as categorized by Ting Toomey (1988, 1992).
- any differences between Turkish and American speakers styles
- any changes in conflict resolution due to power status in both cultures.

Results are valuable in that they add up to the knowledge about intercultural pragmatic language use and cultural cognitions. Moreover, as the research aims to reveal basic verbal and behavioural differences between two communities, it is likely to contribute to intercultural understanding.

1. Introduction

Intercultural conflict and resolution styles have fascinated researchers from different aspects. It is found complicated owing to perceived incompatibility of values, norms, face orientations, goals, scarce resources, processes, and/or outcomes between a minimum of two parties from two different cultural communities in an interactive situation (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001 p. 68).

The study of conflict resolution styles in intercultural communication is valuable as it helps getting a grasp of how different cultures engage in combat with the situations or topics of potential source of conflict and how they find a way out. Such knowledge may also be useful in establishing intercultural peace and welfare as it is an attempt to decipher an aspect of the codes of conduct adopted by different cultures.

With it, the existing disagreements may be repaired. Such knowledge can be used in the management of conflicts since a lack of knowledge on conflict resolution styles may escalate an intense conflict dynamic between contending parties (Ting-Toomey et al. 2000).

This present study attempts to explore ways of terminating conflict talk in academic settings in Turkish and American speech communities. This was a part of a large project ‘Voices of New York’ (VONY) conducted at the Linguistic Anthropology Department of City University of New York (CUNY), which was a collection of projects on language in society that specifically seek discoveries about how New Yorkers use language.

Specifically, it is aimed to investigate generally how Turkish and American speakers end conflicts in discourse and which strategies they use in order to resolve conflicts among those stated by Kilmann (1977), namely, collaboration, compromise, avoidance, competition, and accommodation .

- any changes in conflict resolution ways due to power status in both communities.
- how “face” is reflected in the speech acts used to resolve conflicts as categorized by Ting Toomey (1985, 1988).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Conflicts

Conflicts are generally seen as disagreements of two or more groups who are incompatible in views. Basing his compilation on many diverse definitions, Hammer (2005) pinpoints a general consensus on the core components of a conflict: Conflicts are primarily “perceived substantive disagreements” existing among contending parties. For example, for Ting-Toomey et al. (2000) “conflicts are intense disagreement processes between a minimum of interdependent parties when they perceived incompatible interest, viewpoints, processes and /or goals in an interaction episode” (p.48). Secondly, he sees conflicts as “affective or emotional reactions” as a result of a sort of antagonism based on perceived threat or interference” Groups or individuals might be linked with a form of antagonistic psychological relation.

Hocker and Wilmot (1991) define conflict as an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals , scarce sources and interferences from the other party in achieving their goals (p.12). To French and Albright (1998), culture, ethics and way of upbringing have immense effects on people’s ways of approaching conflicts. If people are taught that it is ethical to value the individual over the other as opposed to the group, or the other over the individual, people’s conflict style will be affected (Croucher, 2011 p. 40).

2.2 Conflict styles

An early typology of conflict resolution styles in intercultural settings were first roughly made by Cannon (1923) as fight-fight, cooperation-competition and by Horney (1945) as moving away, moving toward and moving against framework. In 1994, Rubin et al. classified conflict resolution styles as withdrawing, yielding, problem solving or inaction (as cited in Hammer, 2005).

Today, the most widespread taxonomy is based on Blake and Mouton’s approach (1964). Conflict styles emerging from an individual’s concern for self-interest against the interest of the other. Most remarkable categorization is made by Rahim (1983) who developed an instrument –ROCI-II- including five styles of conflict resolution: dominating style: high self/low other concern, obliging style: low self/high other concern, avoiding style: low self/other concern, integrating style: high self/other concern, and compromising style: moderate self/other concern. (Ting-Toomey, et al. 2000)

The weakness of all such measurements is that there is not a valid generalizable-etic-patterns of cultural difference that is applicable to the measurement of cultural difference. Therefore, Hammer (2005) develops an International Conflict Style Inventory (ICSI) to model conflict resolution styles across cultures. In this, he proposes a four quadrant intercultural conflict resolution styles as high/low level of directness and high/low level of emotional expressiveness. 1- discussion style (direct and emotionally restrained) 2- engagement style (direct and emotionally expressive), 3- accomodation style (indirect and emotionally restrained), and 4- dynamic style (indirect and emotionally expressive).

There are many different approaches towards the variability of cultures in the study field of intercultural communication. Hall's (1976) low-context versus high-context scheme and Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions of cultural variability (individualism/collectivism, power distance/uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity) have been extensively used in cross cultural studies and have been instrumental in the development of several theories of communication: Face Negotiation Theory, Conversational Constraints Theory, Anxiety/Uncertainty Management Theory, and Expectancy Violation Theory (Kim, 2012, p.121).

2.2.1. Individualism and Collectivism

Hofstede's (1980) individualism is a model of psychology where individuals self-oriented and autonomous. Collectivism describes a model in which actors are interdependent and inherently embedded within their social contexts and sacrifice their interests for the others. However, for a group of researchers the relationship between individualism and collectivism is not straightforward and there are other dimensions of I-C that may vary according to situations, relationship and culture. Among these, Triandis (1995) formulated a more comprehensive I-C framework. To Triandis, individualism and collectivism emerge out of relational contexts. Status-equal (horizontal) versus status –unequal (hierarchical- vertical) relationship. Accordingly, Triandis model included four diverse dimensions: Horizontal-Vertical Individualism-Collectivism (HVIC). **Horizontal collectivism** refers to a cultural orientation where the self is perceived as equal to other in-group members and social harmony is highly valued. **Vertical collectivism** stands for a cultural orientation where the self is in a hierarchy in the society and is to sacrifice his interests for the higher order ingroup members. **Horizontal individualism** describes an autonomous self which tend to be unique and socially equal. Finally, **Vertical individualism** also describes autonomous self, but fostered by competition and personal achievement (Vargas and Kemmelmeier, 2013 p.196).

2.2.2. Research on conflict resolution strategies

Cai and Fink (2002) investigated the fundamental beliefs regarding cross-cultural differences in conflict styles of 188 US and non-US students from 31 different countries residing in the U.S. To avoid a priori categorization regarding the countries, they delivered both scales - Collectivism and Individualism Scales - The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II- Rahim-1986 scale (Hui & Triandis, 1986, cited in Cai and Fink (2002) to all the respondents.

Their findings indicated that assumptions regarding the relationship of culture to conflict style preferences may not be valid. Preference for using five conflict styles were measured: avoiding, obliging, integrating, compromising, and dominating. The integrating style is generally the most preferred; obliging and avoiding are next, followed by compromising and dominating. Avoiding is preferred by individualists rather than by collectivists. Individualists do not differ from collectivists in their preference for the dominating conflict style. They also found that collectivists prefer compromising and integrating more than individualists do,

whereas individualism-collectivism had no significant linear effect on preference for the obliging style.

Conflict styles are highly multidimensional for both individualists and collectivists. Even though the five conflict styles can be subsumed under four types, the items measuring the five styles cannot be generated from any two-dimensional typology. Finally, the meaning of four of the five styles is different for individualists and collectivists: Dominating is the only style interpreted similarly by both groups.

Of the studies that compare the rate of individualism and collectivism of American ethnic/racial groups, a general finding centers on the idea that contemporary American minorities were found to have high level of collectivism than non minorities (Coon and Kimmelmeier, 2001). Asian Americans and Latino Americans are respective and family bound due to Catholicism whereas European Americans are thought to be the carriers of individualism, reminiscent of their Protestant culture valuing personal development, individualism and autonomy (Barker and Carmen, 2000).

Vargas and Kimmelmeier (2013) compared African, Asian, Latino, and European Americans on horizontal-vertical individualism-collectivism through a meta analytic research conducted by both cross sectionally and longitudinally. They used both published and unpublished data consistently handled with a 32 item measurement- HVIC (Horizontal-Vertical Individualism-Collectivism) by Triandis (1995).

Due to the continuous flux of non-European populations, and their birth rate several investigations reveal that the number of European originated Americans do not seem to form the majority of the population any longer in the future.

Their question was if these demographic changes affect the cultural outlook of the US. and if these recent increases promote a convergence or (discontinuity) of cultural values for different ethnic racial groups.

The results showed that there were no ethnic and racial differences in the mean scores of both variants of collectivism, although European Americans were higher in vertical individualism than African Americans and Latino Americans. The longitudinal perspective to the data indicated a convergence of cultural orientations, but the correlation of the four types of individualism-collectivism showed remarkable differences among the groups. All these show that it is plausible that an acculturation process works on the part of the immigrants to the US. A cultural convergence hypothesis is at work due to digital world and weakening cultural boundaries as the studies involved suggest that they do not have much different patterns of egalitarian and hierarchical values.

Based on their comprehensive meta-analyses in the field, Vargas and Kimmelmeier (ibid.) propose that the existing literature points to a doubt that European Americans are more individualistic than other ethnic groups in the US. Second, those groups may have some distinct reconciling strategies regarding individualism and collectivism. Third, so called ethnic groups must be investigated considering their socio histories and experiences in their past (or ancestry) like effect of the history of slavery and oppression on the African Americans orientation. In short, convergence or cultural discontinuity, then, is an everlasting question that awaits revelation through research.

In 1993, Lee and Kabasakal explored conflict resolution styles of Turkish and American university business students. Students received two cases describing an organizational setting. They were asked to put themselves in the situation of a member in conflict with a peer in the work environment. Rather than sticking to the Individualism-Collectivism dichotomy, taking

a situational/contingency approach, they concluded that situations have determinative effects on the choices of conflict resolution styles across cultures.

Wienders (2011) has recently studied conflict management strategies that are used by Turkish and Dutch people living in The Netherlands. Turkish respondents were the first and second generation immigrants who have been exposed to Dutch culture for a length of time. She found that Turkish and Dutch informants did not differ in their self-orientations. Gender and the country of birth of the informant had no significant influence on their self-conceptions. Additionally, both parties are found to use the integrating style (individualistic), the avoidance style (collectivistic), and the emotional expression style (individualistic) mostly in the Netherlands. It is surprising that Turkish people are seen to use individualistic conflict styles. It is equally interesting to notice that while all Turkish respondents considered themselves to be Turkish or Turkish and Dutch, they still use the same types of conflict resolution strategies as the Dutch informants. The impact of education in Dutch culture and the duration of stay in the Netherlands or the period of exposure to Dutch culture are thought to account for this similarity in conduct.

Kozan&Ergin (1998) investigated the preference of individuals from Turkey and the US for third-party help during conflict using a prisoner's dilemma type game. The participants had the option to communicate directly with their adversary or through an intermediary. Turkish participants chose the intermediary, whereas US participants chose direct communication. It is concluded that this is consistent with conventional Individualism-Collectivism distinction. That is to say, the collectivist Turkish participants resorted to the third party in order to avoid conflict and preserve group harmony, whereas the individualistic US participants used direct communication to solve conflicts.

2.2.3. The concept of face in conflict resolution and face negotiation theory

In her theory, Ting-Toomey (1985, 1988) taps on the link between conflict styles and face orientations. She identifies and compares “facework” patterns in conflict situations in individualistic cultures and collectivist cultures. The theory incapsulates the cultural level dimension of individualism –collectivism and the individualism dimension of independent – interdependent self-construal with the concept of “facework”

To Goffman (1959), “face” is a speaker's sense of linguistic and social identity. Augsburger (1995) sees “face” as “the public self-image that every member (of society) wants to claim for himself”. An embracing definition is by Carr (1993 p.90) who proposes “face” is a sort of 'sociodynamic valuation', a lexical hyponym of words meaning 'prestige; dignity; honor; respect; status'. For Yutang (2009), it is “a psychological image that can be granted, lost, fought for and presented as a gift.” Face can be given by people and lost.

Ting-Toomey (1985, 1988) defines face as “the claimed sense of self-image in a “relational” (social network) situation” where people or cultures are in contact. It is the way we want others to see us and treat us. Using language, we can manage to ward off any attacks on our “face”, we maintain, save and honor our or somebody else’s face. “Face is a universal phenomenon as everyone would like to be respected; everyone needs a sense of self-respect. But how we manage strategies in maintaining, saving and honoring one’s face differs across cultures”

The concept of face in cross cultural conflict studies has been widely studied by Ting-Toomey (1985,1988) under Face Negotiation Theory. Two facets to face-negotiation she mentioned are; face concern and face need. Face concern relates to the question of whose face a person is trying to save, his or her own or someone else’s. (whose face?)

Face need deals with whether autonomy (space and privacy) is valued, or whether inclusion (respect and approval) is the primary concern. (autonomy or inclusion? –negative-positive face). Thus, two dimensions are highlighted: **self-other face and positive-negative face**.

Within the framework of this theory, four types of face are likely to be encountered in conflict resolution situations:

- *Face-Restoration or Self Negative-Face* is the need to give oneself freedom and space and to protect self from other's infringement on one's autonomy.
- *Face-Saving or Other Negative-Face* is the need to signal respect for the other person's need for freedom, space, and dissociation.
- *Face-Assertion or Self Positive-Face* is the need to defend and protect one's need for inclusion and association.
- *Face-Giving or Other Positive-Face* is the need to defend and support the other person's need for inclusion and association (Ng, 2008).

Ting-Toomey (1988, 1992) collects these differences in conflict management styles under two outstanding views: individualistic and collectivist cultures, pinpointing different societies have different face needs.

Individualists like European and American cultures tend to value autonomy (avoiding any impositions) and self-concern face needs, use more direct conflict styles (i.e. dominating and competing). They foster communication to find a win-win solution, mutually satisfying scenario, for everyone involved after problem solving and drafting agreements (Fisher and Ury, 1983).

Collectivists like Chinese, Korean, Japanese cultures and Mexicans tend to use more indirect, styles other-face concern or mutual-concern face needs, therefore indirect conflict styles (i.e., avoiding and seeking third-party help). They emphasize approval, inclusion, respect and appreciation face needs and value harmony with others (Oetzel, Ting-Toomey & Masumoto 2001; Liang & Han, 2005; Ting-Toomey 2005). Mediation is valued and direct intervention might be taken very rude (Augsberger, 1992).

2. Methodology

2.1 Setting and participants

Participants from Turkey and the USA who recalled a conflict situation completed a self-report questionnaire about their attitudes and conflict behaviors during a recalled conflict. Respondents in the US were university students and recruited in the study according to their age and birthplace. They had to be 18 or over and born in the US. In Turkey, similarly, university students participated in the study.

In the classrooms, instructor (who has given prior permission) distributed and collected the written questionnaires prepared by the researchers (See the Appendices). Answering the questionnaires did not take more than half an hour.

100 native speakers of Turkish from different departments with limited or no American English language knowledge and access to American English culture undergraduate students aged between 18-22 just like the Americans.

100 American university students from the departments at Queens College and Graduate Center of CUNY like Linguistics, Linguistic Anthropology, Law, Educational Sciences. The University where the study is conducted has a very rich ethnic population. This urged us to

redefine the concept” American” as “people living in that culture” rather than sticking to their diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. Fliers were posted on the boards of the Graduate center and the department to search for American English native speaker who were born in the US. Later while analysing the questionnaires, we filtered those who are born outside the US.

To support the qualitative data, DCTs were delivered to 55 American and 55 Turkish respondents.

2.2 Instruments

Aiming at data triangulation, quantitative data for the research are gathered primarily from the [Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument \(TKI\)](#) (1977), a questionnaire, which contains items representing five strategies of conflict resolution: accommodation, avoidance, compromise, collaboration, competition as explained respectively by Thomas and Kilmann (1977):

[Accommodation](#) – surrender one's own needs and wishes to accommodate the other party. (harmonize with/tone in)

[Avoidance](#) – avoid or postpone conflict by ignoring it, changing the subject, etc. Avoidance nonverbally can involve severing a relationship or leaving a group.

[Compromise](#) – bring the problem into the open and have the third person present (kind of mediation). The aim of conflict resolution is to reach agreement .

[Collaboration](#) – work together to find a mutually beneficial solution. While the Thomas Kilmann views collaboration as the only win-win solution to conflict.

[Competition](#) – assert one's viewpoint at the potential expense of another. It can be useful when achieving one's objectives outweighs one's concern for the relationship. (assertive and dominating, noncooperative)

(from <http://www.kilmann.com/conflict.html>)

The qualitative data comes from the Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs) in which conflict situations at schools are presented to the participants and responses are elicited. As a first step, frequent conflict situations were asked to report and later eight scenarios among them were chosen considering relations of power among the speakers. The respondents were asked to fill in what they would say in response to the higher-status people and their peers in those situations.

Thus, situations include only the variable of power status. Probable scenarios for the DCTs were compiled through the first part of the questionnaires which the respondents are required to write two sample conflict situations they experienced. Scenarios in the DCTs were randomly selected among them.

DCTs were first prepared in Turkish, later translated into English, English version is proof-read and revised in language and compatibility to culture by a native speaker at Queens College.

Questionnaires and DCTs were delivered in three ways:

First, in the classroom settings, contacts were made through the instructors in the case of classroom based surveys.

Secondly, online surveys were conducted through <http://www.kwiksurveys.com> to collect information from the academic network of the colleges based on the availability to use the mail servers of the colleges.

And in the library setting, before or after they enter the library, the subjects were contacted and given questionnaires. On the voluntary basis, they were required to fill in the questionnaires.

In in-class surveys, the instructor handed out and collected the questionnaires with written consent cover pages attached. The participants were given time to read the page and if they decide to participate, they then filled out and returned the questionnaire and kept the cover page for their records (see attached). If online surveys were used, consent were given online on a web page before they started the questionnaire. Additionally, from the Graduate Center, IRB (CUNY Institutional Review Board) Consent was also taken for the research to be completed.

3. Data Analysis

A Likert scale on a 1 to 5 basis is used (never –seldom- sometimes-often- always) in the TKI. In the analysis, the scores of each dimension for each respondent were calculated and mean scores were compared through Independent Samples T-tests.

As for the DCTs, responses to the conflict situations in the DCTs are first checked out for five strategies by Thomas & Kilmann (1977), namely, Avoiding, Competing, Compromising, Accommodating, and Collaborating by two raters to establish interrater reliability. Agreed- on decision was included, the others were not considered for the study. Later, corresponding face behaviours in these five strategies were determined according to Ting Toomey's classification (1988) based on the two dimensions:

- Self other face and Positive/Negative face. These two dimensions are mapped into four sub categories of face behaviours:
- Self- Centered positive face (self need for approval-inclusion Self centered negative face (self need for autonomy)
- Other centered positive face (support others' need for approval-inclusion)
- Other centered negative face (respect for others need for autonomy)

4. Results

4.1 The Thomas-Killmann instrument: in-group comparisons

American students prefer the strategy of “collaboration” most frequently in solving conflicts both with peers, with higher status people (instructors and administrators). They rarely accomodate to their peers to solve conflicts as expected. They rarely compete with higher status people (13.49).

Turkish students are also seen to use the strategy of “collaboration “ (with a mean of 19.77) most frequently towards their peers and higher status people (19.41). But they rarely avoid conflict resolution with peers, they are assertive with peers. They use “competition” the least with higher status people (15.63). (Tables 1-2)

In both groups, there are statistically significant differences between their attitudes to peers and to higher status ($p < 0,01$), they both avoid and accomodate more in conflict resolution with higher status people than peers and less compete with them, which consolidates social power or status makes a difference in both communities.

Table 1. *Group Statistics and Independent Samples T-test for American Students Conflict Resolution Strategies with Peers and Higher Status People.*

Americans to Peers&HS	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	df	Sig..(2-tailed)
Avoidance	100	15,6000	3,84550	198	,000
	100	17,9100	3,70938		
Competition	100	15,6600	3,83292	198	,000
	100	13,4900	4,31463		
Comromise	100	17,0500	3,55725	198	,135
	100	16,2600	3,88371		
Accomodation	100	14,8900	3,63178	198	,000
	100	17,4200	4,00045		
	100	18,1900	3,81039		
Colloboration	100	18,2000	3,97721	198	,986

Note: The highest score for each section is 25 in all the tables. The highest mean score shows the most preferred strategy. Higher Status scores are in bold.

Table 2. *Group Statistics and Independent Samples T-test for Turkish Students Conflict Resolution Strategies with Peers and Higher Status People.*

Turks to Peers&HS	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	df	Sig..(2-tailed)
Avoidance	100	15,0500	4,35165	198	,001
	100	17,2600	4,77286		
Competition	100	17,2500	4,13014	198	,007
	100	13,4900	4,33369		
Compromise	100	15,6300	3,57346	198	,264
	100	18,7700	4,45143		
Accomodation	100	15,2100	4,17858	198	,010
	100	16,8300	4,62111		
	100	19,7700	4,08460		
Collaboration	100	19,4100	4,47461	198	,553

4.2 The Thomas-Killmann instrument: inter-group comparisons

To solve conflicts with peers, American and Turkish students showed statistical differences in terms of “collaboration” ($p < 0.05$), compromise” and competition” ($p < 0.01$). This means Turkish students compete with their peers more than American students. They compromise and collaborate more than American students, which contradicts the case of the collectivist cultures (Table 3 and 4).

Table 3. *Group Statistics and Independent Samples T-test for American and Turkish Students' Conflict Resolution Strategies with Higher Status People.*

Ame & Turks to HS	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	df	Sig..(2-tailed)
Avoidance	100 100	17,9100 17,2600	3,70938 4,77286	198	,001
Competition	100 100	13,4900 15,6300	4,31463 4,33369	198	,000
Compromise	100 100	16,2600 18,7700	3,88371 4,45143	198	,336
Accomodation	100 100 100	17,4200 16,8300 18,2000 3,97721	4,00045 4,6211	198	,010
Collaboration	100	19,4100	4,47461	198	,045

In resolving conflicts with higher status people, American and Turkish students are found to be statistically different in “collaboration” ($p < 0.05$), compromise” and competition” ($p < 0.01$), which means Turkish students compete with higher status people more than American students. They compromise and collaborate significantly more than American students in conflicts with higher status people.

Table 4. *Group Statistics and Independent Samples T-test for American and Turkish Students' Conflict Resolution Strategies with Peers.*

Ame & Turks to HS	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	df	Sig..(2-tailed)
Avoidance	100 100	15,600 15,0500	3,84550 4,35165	198	,345
Competition	100 100	15,6600 17,2500	3,83292 4,13014	198	,005
Compromise	100 100	17,0500 19,4100	3,55725 3,57346	198	,000
Accomodation	100 100 100	14,8900 15,2100 18,9100 3,81039	3,63178 4,17858	198	,564
Collaboration	100	19,7700	4,08460	198	,005

4.3 Discourse completion tests (DCTs)

When Turkish and American respondents are compared, Turkish respondents are found to compete, compromise and collaborate significantly more than American respondents. The rate of competition with peers and higher status people in the DCTs also verified this (19/45 and 44/45), which is as many as the American respondents (15/55 peers versus 40/53 HS) (Table 5)

Table 5. *Discourse Completion Tests Conflict Solving Strategies used by the students either to peers or to the higher status people.*

	To peers		To Higher Status	
	Turkish	American	Turkish	American
Avoidance	15	25	-	-
Competition	19	15	44	40
Compromise	4	1	-	8
Accomodation	1	12	-	2
Collaboration	8	2	1	3
Total	44	55	45	53

5. Conclusion/Discussion

A great deal of research on intercultural conflict resolution has generally indicated that individualistic cultures mostly use the integrating style, the compromising style, the dominating style, and emotional expression) unlike collectivistic cultures who use the obliging style, the avoiding style, and third party help (Wielders, 2011). In contrast, our data show that Turkish students included in our research do not reflect features of collectivist cultures in conflict resolution since strategies “collaboration” and competition” “compromising” are given as the characteristics of individualistic cultures.

Specifically, the most preferred strategy by both Turkish and American groups to peers and higher status people is “**Collaboration**” which corresponds to Self - Other Negative face or mutual face concern in which parties work together to reach win-win solutions, through open and direct problem solving.

When Turkish and American respondents are compared, Turkish respondents are found to **compete, compromise and collaborate significantly** more than American respondents. The rate of competition with peers and higher status people in the DCTs also verified this (19/45 and 44/45), which is as many as the American respondents (peers 15/55 vs. HS 40/53). As for face concerns, **competition** is a conflict resolution style which corresponds to self negative face and the need to protect self negative face. Valuing autonomy, those who prefer this style have direct and autonomous conflict styles, protecting self from the infringement of the others. Collaboration and competition are given as the features of individualistic cultures. **Compromise** as a conflict resolution style supports mutual-oriented or self – other positive negative face concern. (sometimes seeking a third party help) This strategy is reported to be a characteristic of collectivist cultures.

In both Turkish and American data, it is seen that **power status** is a determinant factor in the selection of conflict resolution strategies as both communities calibrate their resolution styles to higher status people. Both **avoid** and **accomodate** more in conflict resolution with higher status people than peers and less **compete** with them, which consolidates social power or status makes a difference in both communities.

Perhaps more data and participants are needed to reach a thorough decision, but these results do suggest that cultural differences in conflict resolution styles must be mapped onto further dimensions that can be tailored to all cultures so as not to cause stereo types.

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APPENDIX I

THE THOMAS-KILLMANN INSTRUMENT IN ENGLISH

Dear Participant,

This study probes into verbal conflict resolution styles at school. This is a part of international research which scrutinizes intercultural cognitive and linguistic differences. Please think of two different situations where you have a conflict, disagreement, argument, or disappointment with your peers (Situation 1) and with your instructors/administrators (Situation 2) at school. Briefly describe the situation without giving any identifier in the blanks first. Then, fill in your scores for situation 1 and situation 2. Thus, for each question, you need to score twice. Thank you.

Situation 1 _____

Situation 2 _____

Please score the following using this scale

1= never 2 = seldom 3 = sometimes 4 = often 5 = always

1. ___|___ I avoid being “put on the spot”; I keep conflicts to myself.
2. ___|___ I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.
3. ___|___ I usually try to split the difference to resolve an issue.
4. ___|___ I generally try to satisfy the others’ needs.
5. ___|___ I try to investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to us.
6. ___|___ I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with the other.
7. ___|___ I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.
8. ___|___ I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.
9. ___|___ I usually accommodate to the other’s wishes.
10. ___|___ I try to integrate my ideas with the other’s to come up with a joint decision.
11. ___|___ I try to stay away from disagreement with the other.
12. ___|___ I use my expertise to make a decision that favors me.
13. ___|___ I propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.
14. ___|___ I give in to the other’s wishes.
15. ___|___ I try to work with the other to find solutions that satisfy both our expectations.
16. ___|___ I try to keep my disagreement to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.
17. ___|___ I generally pursue my side of the issue.
18. ___|___ I negotiate with the other to reach a compromise.
19. ___|___ I often go with the other’s suggestions.
20. ___|___ I exchange accurate information with the other so we can solve a problem together.
21. ___|___ I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with the other.
22. ___|___ I sometimes use my power to win the argument.
23. ___|___ I use “give and take” so that a compromise can be made.

24. I try to satisfy the other's expectations.
25. I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that issues can be resolved.

APPENDIX II

THE THOMAS-KILLMANN INSTRUMENT IN TURKISH

ÇATIŞMA ÇÖZÜMLEME STRATEJİLERİ

Değerli katılımcı, bu çalışma akademik ortamda karşılaştığınız çatışmaları çözmeye yönelik sözel çözüm stratejilerini araştırmaktadır. Bu araştırma kültürler arası bilişsel ve dilsel farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlayan uluslararası bir çalışmanın bir bölümünü oluşturacaktır. Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Akademik ortamda/okulda öğretmenleriniz ve arkadaşlarınızla sıklıkla yaşadığınız iki farklı çatışma durumunu örnekler misiniz? Bu çatışmalardan birisi arkadaşlarınızla diğeri de öğretmeniniz veya okul yönetimi ile ilgili olmalıdır. Lütfen, anlattığınız bu iki durumu düşünerek bu çatışmaları çözümleme tarzınızı belirleyin.

A – (Öğretim Elemanı/Üyesi)

B- (Arkadaş)

Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak anketi tamamlayın

1 = asla, 2 = nadiren, 3 = bazen, 4 = sıklıkla, 5 = daima

A | B

1. ___|___ Zor durumda kalmaktan kaçınırım; çatışma ve fikir ayrılıklarını kendime saklarım.
2. ___|___ Fikirlerimin kabul edilmesi için tüm gücümü/etkimi kullanırım.
3. ___|___ Genellikle bir konuyu çözmek için fikir ayrılığını ortadan kaldırmaya çalışırım
4. ___|___ Genellikle karşı tarafın ihtiyaçlarını /duygularını karşılamaya çalışırım.
5. ___|___ Her iki taraf için de kabul edilebilir bir çözüm bulmaya çalışırım
6. ___|___ Genellikle fikir ayrılıklarımı diğerleriyle açıkça tartışmaktan kaçınırım.
7. ___|___ Gücümü kendi lehimde karar vermek için kullanırım.
8. ___|___ Bir problemi çözmek için bir ara yol bulmaya çalışırım.
9. ___|___ Diğerlerinin isteklerine genellikle uyum gösteririm.
- 10 ___|___ Ortak bir karar almak için fikirlerimi karşı tarafınkiyle birleştiririm.
11. ___|___ Karşı tarafla fikir çatışmasından uzak durmaya çalışırım.
12. ___|___ Uzmanlığımı/bilgilerimi lehime olan kararlar vermek için kullanırım.
13. ___|___ Çıkmazları çözmeye ortak bir yol öneririm.
14. ___|___ Diğerlerinin isteklerine boyun eğerim.
15. ___|___ Tartışmada her iki tarafın da beklentilerini karşılayacak çözümler bulmak için birlikte çaba gösteririm.
16. ___|___ Küskünlük ve kırgınlığı engellemek için karşı fikirlerimi kendime saklarım.
17. ___|___ Genellikle konunun beni ilgilendiren kısmıyla ilgilenirim.
18. ___|___ Orta yol bulmak için karşı tarafla uzlaşırım.
19. ___|___ Sıklıkla karşı tarafın önerilerine uyarım
20. ___|___ Sorunu çözmek için karşı tarafla doğru bilgi paylaşımında bulunurum

21. ___|___ Karşı tarafla hoş olmayan atışmalardan kaçınmaya çalışırım.
22. ___|___ Tartışmayı kazanmak için kimi zaman sosyal gücümü kullanırım.
23. ___|___ Orta yol bulmak için karşılıklı özveri yöntemini kullanırım.
24. ___|___ Diğerlerinin beklentilerini gerçekleştirmeye çalışırım.
25. ___|___ Sorunların işbirliği ile çözülmesi için her konuyu açıkça dile getirmeye çalışırım.

APPENDIX III

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST IN ENGLISH

The following are eight conflict scenarios which you may experience at school. Please write out what you are to SAY to solve the problem or conflict in these situations.

Your Age: _____ Hometown: _____ Mother tongue(s): _____

Scenario 1.
Your friends feel that you should go out for a change. Group members propose different suggestions, then try to push for their own ideas, but you don't agree; you don't go for any of them. But you should make a decision. In response, you'd say:
Scenario 2.
At your friend's party, you mention that you are thinking of taking a certain course next semester. Someone says, "Yes, I've heard of that course. It's difficult and boring". However, you have learned from a friend that the course is very easy and interesting, and you believe your friend. In response, you say: (taken from LIANG Guodong & HAN Jing, 2005)
Scenario 3.
For a certain course, you must form groups, fulfill certain criteria and then share the topics in a class presentation so that you can get a passing grade. But some of the group members are not willing to do their best and are reluctant to do the job assigned. They say if the work is completed, it doesn't matter who did it. In response, you say:
Scenario 4.
You failed a course last term. The program requires that you repeat the course, but this course conflicts with another course you must take in the program. Knowing that you are not allowed to take two courses at the same time, you relate this problem to the administration (Department Chair) and learn they cannot change the course hours. In response, you say:
Scenario 5.
You forgot to bring your dictionary to class, which is a must for writing classes. In response, the instructor asks you to leave the classroom as a disciplinary measure. You thought his attitude was arrogant and his action was extreme. Since you didn't want to miss the whole class, you refused to leave. You relate this incident to the Department Chair. He indicates that the instructor was absolutely right. In response, you say:

Scenario 6.
You had difficulty understanding a certain topic during class, and have a number of questions. You wanted some clarification from your instructor, but did not get a satisfactory response. Instead, she states that it is your responsibility to research the answers. Though you agree to some extent, you feel that she should at least provide you with some direction. In response, you say:
Scenario 7
Your instructor wanted the whole class to conduct a project by the end of the term. The requirements of the project were orally explained by the instructor beforehand, and all the students were sure that they understood what was required. However, as the project due date approaches, s/he wants you to include additional details which s/he never mentioned before. In response, you say:
Scenario 8.
Although your grades were quite high in a course, you end up failing. The instructor tells you "I'm sorry, but I do not feel that you earned a passing grade in this course due to your absences " However you believe that you attended class regularly and that there must be some sort of error or misunderstanding. In response you say:

APPENDIX IV- DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST IN TURKISH

Okulda karşılaşılabileceğiniz kimi durumlar aşağıda anlatılmıştır. Lütfen kendinizi aşağıda verilen durumlardaki konuşmacıların yerine koyunuz ve bu durumlarda problemi ya da çatışmayı çözmek için ne söyleyeceğinizi yazınız.

Yaşınız: ___ **Doğum Yeri/Memleket:** _____ **Anadiliniz:** _____

1. Durum
Arkadaşlarınızla değişiklik olsun diye dışarıda bir yerlere gitmek istiyorsunuz. Ortak bir karar vermek durumundasınız. Herkes farklı fikirler ortaya atıyor ve kendi fikrini kabul ettirmeye çalışıyor. Hiçbiri ile aynı fikirde değilsiniz ve fikirlerin hiçbirinden hoşlanmadınız. Onlara diyorsunuz ki,
.....
2. Durum
Bir arkadaş toplantısında , bir sonraki dönem belli bir hocadan bir ders almak istediğinizi söylüyorsunuz. Birisi, o hocaın ve dersinin çok sıkıcı ve zor olduğunu söylüyor. Ancak siz aslında dersin kolay ve zevkli olduğunu bir dostunuzdan öğrendiniz ve arkadaşınıza güveniyorsunuz. Ona diyorsunuz ki,
.....
3. Durum
Bir derste geçer not alabilmek için, grup oluşturmanız, konuları paylaşmanız ve sorumluluklarını yerine getirmeniz gerekmektedir. Ancak, grup arkadaşlarınız ellerinden geleni yapma konusunda çok isteksiz ve gönülsüzler. İçlerinden biri iş yapılıns da kim yaparsa yapsın diyor. Ona diyorsunuz ki,
.....
4. Durum
Bir önceki dönemde bir dersten kalıyorsunuz. Dersi tekrar etmeniz gerekiyor. Ancak tekrar etmeniz gereken ders o dönem almanız zorunlu olan başka bir dersle çakışıyor. Tüm dersleri almak ve geçmek istiyorsunuz. Aynı saatlerde iki derse giremeyeceğiniz için bölüm başkanına probleminizi anlatıyorsunuz. Size ders programını değiştiremeyeceklerini söylüyor. Ona diyorsunuz ki,
.....
5. Durum
Yazma dersinde getirilmesi zorunlu olan sözlüğünüzü evde unuttunuz. Öğretmen ceza olarak sınıfı terk etmenizi söyledi. Bunu çok kaba ve ayrıca gereksiz buldunuz çünkü dersi tamamen kaçırmak istemiyorsunuz. Bu durumu bölüm başkanına anlatıyorsunuz. Size öğretmeninizin kesinlikle haklı olduğunu söylüyor. Ona diyorsunuz ki,

.....
6. Durum
Öğretmenin verdiği bir karara karşısınız. Kendi çözümünüzü önerdiniz. Sizin tepkinizi gözardı etti ve kendi söylediğinin doğru olduğunu sınıftaki tek otoritenin kendisi olduğunu söylüyor. Üstelik bu kararın bölümdeki herkes tarafından onaylandığını söylüyor. Ona diyorsunuz ki,
.....
7. Durum
Öğretmeniniz tüm sınıfa dönem sonunda hazırlanması için bir proje verdi. Ödevin ayrıntıları öğretmeniniz tarafından önceden sözel olarak açıklandı. Herkes ödevi nasıl hazırlayacağını anladığından emin. Ancak, ödev teslim tarihi geldiğinde, ödevin daha önce hiç bahsedilmeyen bir şekilde yapılması gerektiğini öğreniyorsunuz. Ona diyorsunuz ki
.....
8. Durum
Bir dersteki notlarınız oldukça yüksek ancak devamsızlık yüzünden sınıfta kalıyorsunuz. Öğretmeniniz üzgünüm bu dersten geçmeyi hak etmiyorsun diyor. Sen tüm derslere düzenli devam ettiğini düşünüyorsun ve bir yanlış anlama ya da devamsızlıkların yanlış kayıt edildiğini savunuyorsun. Öğretmene diyorsunuz ki
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Öztürk, Z., Ertuş Ş. (2015). University education effect on domestic service employees efficiency views (Gazi University sample). *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, 2(3). 158-175.
<http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/101/112>

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION EFFECT ON DOMESTIC SERVICE EMPLOYEES EFFICIENCY VIEWS (GAZI UNIVERSITY SAMPLE)

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Abstract

This study aims to establish the views of the administrative staff working at Gazi University with regard to in-service training programs in terms of necessity, eagerness, perception, convenience, and to determine whether there is a meaningful difference in the effect of in-service training programs on productivity in terms of the demographic information of the staff. The scale prepared for this study was applied to 350 administrative staff working at Gazi University during the educational period of 2013-2014. At the end of the study, recommendations and implications for in-service training were included in the light of research findings.

Keywords: Training, In-service Training, Productivity

1. Introduction

Change and development is the main feature of our time. Today, wherever you stay out of the development opportunities anywhere in the world and change it is eliminated. A place in any emerging social, cultural, economic and technological changes and developments elsewhere shows the effect in a very short time. Enter the 21st century is the product of the accumulation of past experience and great advances were followed further action especially in the last decade, countries and communities; to a rapid scientific and technological progress, the economic and social development, has been the scene of political various inconceivable. 21st Century began with innovations and highlight the value of these changes. New century to keep pace with this changing conditions, in order to live in a modern society, it is insufficient to simply literate. This century is the education that will grow more important. Competition has grown invest more focused training in the new world order with qualified countries will gain an advantage (Cin, 2008:1).

In a globalized and competitive reached serious dimensions in today's world, it enters the human resources in the organization 's structure and not to lose them in the quest to get more efficiency. During this quest undoubtedly important "training" tool.

Intense competition in the world, the rapid developments in information and technology, the information received has led to inadequate pre-service education in the business environment over time. Survive by increasing their productivity and provide training as required by the job and the work environment to employees of organizations who want to grow, so did not need in-service (Yetişkin, 2010:58).

Investing institutions regarding the training of the emphasis on education and working to change and can easily adapt to evolving conditions. Although they are clearly visible from education to the employees of the institutions that have not lost their competitiveness refresh



their knowledge of the employees gain new skills. Acquired the knowledge and skills of employees in terms of their development and skills that make them highly useful and it is clear that these people become more productive. Increasing the productivity of employees, it would undoubtedly tend to increase the organization's efficiency. His training as a result of employee self-confident and can show the courage to use their ability; creativity will be used for the organization, can take quick decisions, apply new ideas, throw out, time to assess the best way, the team will give importance to the work, and therefore also the efficiency of the organization as well as increase the personal productivity will be a great help (Akgül, 2008:1-2).

2. Training concept

Education cannot be fit for human life carries on much greater importance words and sentences. People were obtained many research data for those bits that are around the womb starts to become more sensitive. Therefore, a person constantly teeming with an educational process in accordance with owned intellectual potential. The simple daily habits, complex projects as many behavior patterns, social understandings, arrangements for social life, professional knowledge is gained in the process of education (Muradova, 1994:75).

When assessing the importance of education in terms of businesses; institutions they create the appropriate environment for present information to meet the training needs of employees in the transformation of society to be able to provide faster and easier compliance. Therefore, " to learn the basic aim of education in institutions of learning " is learning that is carried out continuously. In this context, working with existing businesses and institutions as well as the training activities carried out by employees to complete their deficiencies in terms of " service training " are considered (Örücü, Kanbur, & Kanbur, 2007).

3. Service training concept

There is a close relationship between the importances given to education by the development level of countries. Education comes from the beginning of the factors necessary for the development of a country develop (Balkız, 2013:30).

If we look to history for the training of employees; the prisoner brought from the ancient Egyptians and the overseas locations in the country dates back to the training of workers as foreman. This is done directly and job training periods. The evaluation of the training carried out entirely by the employees of the act was a simple process condition. In the twentieth century the basic forms of employee compliance training of education, job training, task - based training, which requires dexterity and aims to teach the crafts are organized in the form of apprenticeship training emerges.

In another definition in-service training in the 1940s, habits of thought and action and to provide appropriate information on current and future employees until business is defined as a process aid for activities to bring their skills and attitudes (Pehlivan, 1992:105).

In-service training, Private and hired at a certain salary or wages in workplaces belonging to legal entities and individuals with the necessary information about the tasks running, it called the training given to ensure the skills and attitudes (Taymaz, 1997:4).

Civil Servants Training General Plan in -service training ; " The training carried out to improve the knowledge and skills related to the duties of the staff working in public institutions " is seen in the form of identification.

3.1 In-service training objectives

The overall objective of the in-service training can be listed as follows;

- a) Necessary information to employees to gain skills and attitudes.
- b) Identify and develop the skills of employees.
- c) Keep the morale - motivation of employees at the highest level (Ulus, 2009: 14).
- d) To prepare staff to senior staff and employees need to ensure that the organization
- e) Administrators control and reduce their workload.
- f) People and contribute to communication between departments (Yıldız, 2009: 89).
- g) To improve the efficiency of the staff and the organization.
- h) Authority dynamism and sense of dignity.
- i) Business structure resilient to make changes from the external environment.
- j) Contribute to communication between employees and departments.
- k) Maintenance and repair costs to a minimum download.
- l) Work late and reduce absenteeism (Erdem, 2010: 10).

3.2 Service training importance

In our age continues to increase day by day are factors affecting human life. One of the most important technological, these are the problems that they create economic and social development. To adapt to the society in which the people and that the necessary information in order to play the role of educational institutions in the community, gain skills and behaviors. However, it may not be enough time in the business environment. Which today has gained tremendous importance in-service training, he has taken an active role in eliminating the shortcomings that arise (Altınışik, 1996:331).

3.3 The necessity of –service training:

Cause-related in-service training requirements can be listed as follows;

Scientific and technological development: the individual as a condition of the job is developing technology needed to refresh their knowledge and skills. Decreasing the time between application of science and technology (the discovery of the photo posing with the application 112, the phone is 56, the radio was found in 15 years) has led to major changes at the core of business and fast. This continuity of change is inevitable. This is why, as we have done in the life of school education will not mean the end of the training provided in the workplace.

To overcome the shortcomings of pre-service: it is impossible to argue that everything should be learned in school life. Because the desired learning environment in the school environment to not realize is that power and natural environment.

Social changes: One of the reasons for the necessity of in-service training, the rapid changes in our era parallel to the changes in society, developments and the emergence of new problems as a result of them. To solve this problem the person is made in some of the new requirements. This makes the in-service training to take the necessary staff.

Failure to achieve the Equal Opportunity Policy in Education: Education is not at the same rate and take advantage of opportunities to benefit from social and economic rights in social life. For example, work to benefit equally from everyone on staff training will be given to all that.

To fill the gaps in communication requirement: space consisting of corporate communications but it is not due to in-service training.

Motivation necessity: the only member of the organization reach its corporate objectives effectively and efficiently. The realization of this in-service training was satisfied with the way their social and psychological needs of employees to motivated provided motivation for the purposes of the organization (Altınışik, 1996: 331-332).

3.4 Service training benefits

With the most basic sense of the cost benefits of economic institutions provides in-service training institution is to make a positive difference in the output. However, the planning of training programs will be organized to achieve these benefits, programming, implementation and evaluation of the organization has a specific cost. In contrast, increasing the rewards of running training programs as a result of obtaining a more positive work attitudes and the promotion of job satisfaction and providing peace of strength came in the form of education (Pehlivan, 1992: 111).

3.5 Service training types

Orientation training: Newly-hired or newly arrived personnel of the institution's objectives and policy organization, structure, its duties, powers and recognize their responsibility for education (Taymaz, 1997: 8).

Basic training: The purpose of this training, new hires or the workplace will try to new people participated in the organization, workplace policies, occupational areas, with work to employees with work-related tasks, introduce powers and responsibilities, lack issued prior to the service of the candidate's profession It is to eliminate.

Development training: adapt or develop training for Change, the employees in the institutions legislation concerning their business, technology and development of tools, modification or their relevant when the novelty quickly be transmitted, the purpose of application of information given and the profession is education provided by (Çevikbaş, 2002: 35).

Completion of training: new tasks require the knowledge and skills of the employees brought a different task for which training programs are implemented in order to win. The reason for changing personnel working in the organization, staffing, and age is due to changes in the production process (Taymaz, 1997: 8).

Upgrade training: The staffing system in the organization and running of the programs are prepared to meet the needs increase (Çatmalı, 2006: 6)

Custom field training: Employee training programs are implemented in order to train in different areas and to develop customized services. Within the organization to provide specific expertise or trying to teach a foreign language they are held for the purpose of education. (Taymaz, 1997: 9).

In-service training at work: Employees performing work-related duties of the employee's grown-service training aimed at work, usually applied in the upbringing and development of the institution newly arrived personnel. This is a hand job while working in the training, learn the business from one side. The principle is based on the work without the worker. In this case, jobs and education and learning intertwined size excels running (Yıldız, 2009: 85-86).

Business out -service training: somewhere in the organization of employees leaving their jobs or receive training in an environment outside the institution means to. The majority of

educational institutions operating outside the education institution other than business, management training and consultancy in the branch is seen that the company and with the support of educators (Yetişkin, 2010: 86).

3.6 Service training methods

Task switching method (rotation) : Staff in various areas of running the business is one way to learn is how to do it in other works. The method of the target, to recognize staff in all parts of the business and is ensure that the work done is seen as a totality (Yıldız, 2009: 94).

Employment training (orientation) : Orientation training, the new employees to the profession, is a training method that led to the acquisition of knowledge about the their bodies and Institutions of vocational and work Purposes (Taymaz, 1997: 8).

Coaching: Coaching method is a time in helping another person in the transfer of skills or qualifications. Coaching to improve the efficiency of a person and to ensure that its development is the experience of having an approach that guided him in making that person (Yetişkin, 2010: 81).

Show through education: Educational anything in front of the participants of the training method being applied, showing how to type with this method in both visual and auditory communication is applied. Any business with the proper training in this method would have seen how successful or subtly (Doğan, 2010: 51).

Straight (recital) method lecture: Lecture (the declaration) method; It is a speech made by a group of speakers. Theoretical (theoretical) some information, regularly and systematically be given at one time, and it allows a large number of people (Kol, 2009: 26).

Observation and excursions: staff required to learn the subject of the research trips are organized where they are. However, they should be prepared in advance in order to be efficient and trip itinerary must be carried out by making necessary information accompanied by an experienced guide. (Ulus, 2009: 23-24).

Group discussion: about a particular subject, tutorials have also called on the group discussion on the mutual transfer of knowledge and ideas under the guidance of the training participants. Made participation in the group is seen as a successful method is also a method that allows a limited number of participants. Some also suggested that this method does not exceed ten people talk environment of the group members for each group, the team seems to give targeted results due to pressure (Yetişkin, 2010: 88).

Seminar: Technology and new developments in the training provided by the experts referred to a person or persons held to provide information in the field (Beach, 1985).

Computer systems and multimedia training: This training method, and computer-based education approach is coupled with audio-visual education. In practice, on the basis of text, graphics, animation and sound are made whole. Multimedia education, training those who motivates. In this way, feedback and guidance departments by creating opportunities to learn about themselves, the participants of the training are provided. This particular type of transmission method of education, which have geographic limitations, methods such as privacy, if desired, come to the fore more (Esin 2013: 36).

E-learning: Electronics Training (E- Learning) , creates training opportunities in the virtual learning environment, which is a new product of technology and communication in the design of education programs using the Internet network, submission, implementation, means to be governed by another expression (Yetişkin, 2010 94).

3.7 Stages of in-service training process

Determination of in-service training requirement: Determination of in-service training requirements, the organization's existing long and short-term plans to achieve their goals and identify human resources quality and quantity that will be needed in the future, the difference between the required competencies to owned by employees and determinations, and that differences in training needs is put forward and reporting process (Kol, 2009: 41).

Planning in-service training: Educational Planning; the current state of the targets set, is the process of determining the policy to be followed to achieve the objectives. According to this definition for the first time to achieve the desired targets are detected by the current situation for the planning process, then policy and constitute the elements of the plan will benefit the plan implementation;

- i. Human and material resources
- ii. Methods and techniques to be applied
- iii. Application areas and environment
- iv. Time and its durations
- v. Control of time, techniques, tools and criteria determined (Taymaz, 1997: 48).

Preparation services training program: In-service training programs, employee training plan determined in keeping with the priorities and needs will be prepared in such a way. The issue of an education program, determines the content of the problems or needs. On the other hand the required knowledge work, which made the decision to develop competence in working with the skills and behaviors are an important factor in determining the content (Altınışık, 2006: 367).

Implementation of in-service training program: implementation of the operational phase of the training program adopted in-service training is in phase with the most important educational activities. After all kinds of research completed, it was determined that the training requirements specified in-service training policy, planning and preparing various programs, investments have been made. In this step, all resources have been foreseen by the program, determined purposes and achieve objectives are activated to achieve them (Aydın, 1988: 23).

Evaluation of in-service training programme: The final stage of the in-service training is evaluated. Assessment of individuals who come together to learn, to learn how they got along for identifying the training stage in a systematic way. Apparently the evaluation process, the purpose or purposes of the regulation is to show what percentage of the training program can perform. In other words, compared to the basic training program to edit the desired objectives to be achieved and actual results can be reached. Embody the results of the evaluation process is not a training program, a training program was incomplete. Based on previous information required to be performed by in-service training, staff specific information, teach skills and behaviors. They won that by this knowledge, we wish to achieve with requirements by providing skills and behavior, to what extent is that we want to solve the problems encountered in the organization. Or it is whether a significant reduction in their size. Thus training is an integral part of the assessment (Aksoy, 1984: 54).

3.8 Educational transfer

They have learned during the training the participants in education (knowledge, skills, attitudes, cognitive strategies) are called transfer training to work in an efficient and continuous application (Noe, 2009: 169).

Efficiency description: The concept of productivity has been ongoing since the early days of production in order to maintain the old as the history of humanity and people's lives,

producing human mode of production is directly related to the use of manufactured products and the production. The efficiency concept has a long history as the concept of social production, influenced by economic and technological progress and were defined in many different ways. Our era intensely competitive environment in which one of the factors to be taken into consideration in order to continue the existence of organizational efficiency (Hançer, 2004: 1) is defined as the ratio of the amount of physical factors of production spent for the production of products derived from the production with the most general definition (Ataay, 1988: 1). So the input to the output or input ratio is the ability to convert the output (Hançer, 2004: 1).

Impact on service training efficiency: In-service training, people are systematic practices for enhancing the knowledge and skills in order to do a job (Şenatalar, 1975: 93). These applications increase the productivity of employees, the management team requires more responsibility to prepare and provide the versatility to cover services such purposes. Education, whether in need of information about the services provided to improve the employee's susceptibility to services, improve skills and attitudes. It also raises the efficiency and quality of service, reduce staff turnover, saving time and effort. Also training enables them to be aware of what they are doing when employees, improves job satisfaction and team support operation (Uslu et al., 2013: 103).

In addition, training, employee 's work gripping strength, improves performance, erratic behavior and reduce losses and reduce the likelihood of accidents at work. Who constantly renew themselves in work, planned and scheduled work habits, time provides the opportunity to better evaluation. The business who 's self- confidence, improve their advancement opportunities; It adopts the productivity culture. All of this is achieved positive results in increased productivity (Ü. Doğan, 1998: 233) .

4. Methods And Research

4.1 The aim of the study

The requirements of the administrative staff in-service training program working at Gazi University, wishes, perception is to determine whether the detection of opinion in terms of compliance sizes and in-service training is a significant difference compared to the demographic characteristics of the staff about the impact on productivity.

4.2 Sub-objectives of the study

H1: in-service training of administrative staff by age participated in the study there was a significant difference between the impact on productivity.

H2: in-service training by the administrative staff participated in the study there was a significant gender difference in the impact on productivity.

H3: The administrative staff surveyed in-service training according to marital status is a significant difference between the impact on productivity.

H4: According to the administrative staff of the educational status surveyed in-service training is a significant difference between the impact on productivity.

H5: The administrative staff surveyed by the employee in-service training is a significant difference between the impact on productivity.

H6 : in-service training by the time of the administrative staff involved in the research work is a significant difference between the impact on productivity .

4.3 Research Model

This research, Gazi University in serving and in-service training joined the administrative staff of the services of views on the efficiency level of educational training requirements for managerial staff of the service request, perception, eligibility for views and some characteristics (gender, age, education level, marital status, seniority, work time in the institution) to determine whether and at what level predicted by the relational model from the general survey model used in this study.

4.4 Population and Sample

This research, working at Gazi University in the 2013-2014 academic year and participate in in-service training programs were conducted with 350 administrative staff. There are 3463 administrative staff who work in Gazi University. Büyüköztürk and others to determine the number of administrative staff to be achieved within the scope of the survey (2012) specified by the Equality. It was used.

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{n_0}{N}}$$

Equality. Sample size estimation in continuous variables

Located on equality $n_0 = \frac{t^2 PQ}{d^2}$ is calculated with equality and when p significance value of 0.05 received, $PQ = 0.25$ would be responsible and table money is coming t value 1.96 0.05 significance level $n_0 =$ is calculated as 384.16 (Büyüköztürk & diğerleri, 2012). When placed on the n_0 yer the formula;

$$n = \frac{384,16}{1 + \frac{384,16}{3463}}$$

It was determined that the number of administrative staff to reach 346. 350 administrative staff in the research views were taken.

Sex on the administrative right to participating in the study, age, education, marital status, seniority, work time in the institution, distribution of tasks in the task done by units 've institutions are located in Table 1.

Table 1. *Created by the Working Group on Demographic Characteristics of Administrative Staff*

Variable	Categories	f	%
Sex	woman	183	52,3
	man	167	47,7
Age	18-29	81	23,1
	30-35	79	22,6
	36-41	100	28,6
	42 and above	90	25,7
Education	high school	245	70,0

	associate degree	93	26,6
	license	12	3,4
	Graduate	82	23,4
Marital Status	married	82	23,4
	single	154	44,0
	divorced	32	9,1
Seniority	0-5 years	72	20,6
	6-10 years	78	22,3
	11-15 years	65	18,6
	16-20 years	84	24,0
	21 years and over	51	14,6
Working time in the institution	0-5 years	82	23,4
	6-10 years	87	24,9
	11-15 years	68	19,4
	16-20 years	77	22,0
	21 years and over	36	10,3
Task	School secretary	1	,3
	Officer	2	,6
	Assistant General Secretary .	1	,3
	Department head asst .	7	2,0
	Hospital director	26	7,4
	Expert	12	3,4
	Technical staff	260	74,3
	Institute secretary	41	11,7
Tasks performed by unit	Rector central units	125	35,7
	Faculty	136	38,9

College	18	5,1
Institute	40	11,4
Research and training centers	7	2,0
Hospital	24	6,9

4.5 Data Collection Tool

Data for this study were collected through a survey called the Administrative Staff Feedback Regarding the In-Service Training. The survey consists of two parts, namely agents for the opinions of in-service training with a personal information form. In order to give themselves their intimate and accurate answers to the questions subject credentials are requested. Administrative Staff Inservice Opinion Survey on Education, Cinema (2008) Applications developed by the In-Service Training Evaluation Survey was created in line. In the development process of the first survey of the literature was performed and the questionnaire was designed to consist of two parts. 5s in Likert type questionnaire items graded Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree categories are available. The administrative staff surveyed the personal information form gender, education level, age, marital status, seniority, work time in the institution, the task is to get information regarding the unit where he served.

Total item questionnaire consisting of 30 items will visit the five dimensions of the appropriate administrative personnel within the scope of the research is regulated in some way. For example, "in-service training, the effectiveness of the education system, we increase the efficiency." article, "In-service training, we increase the efficiency of the work environment productivity." It has been arranged. Cronbach's administrative rights in accordance with the answer to the organized working at Gazi University substances alpha (α) coefficient was calculated. The first item in the size scale with the size requirements of the α value of 0914; Article 0807 of the request size of the α value; Perception of the size of the α value of the goods in 0837; Compatibility size of the goods in 0826 during a visit of the α value of the goods in the value of α is determined that a 0783 Productivity size. All items on the scale Click calculated Cronbach's alpha value is. 920 ISE. (Kalaycı, 2009), alpha (α) coefficient refers to the reliability of the connected scale can be interpreted as follows:

- * $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$ scale ISE is Unreliable.
- * $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$ ISE scale reliability is low.
- * $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$ ISE scale is quite reliable.
- * $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$ scale highly reliable ISE.

In this regard, Administrative Personnel Services within the dimensions of the prepared scale to determine their views on education and all were found to be highly reliable.

4.6 Data Analysis

In order to solve the problems of the research is primarily descriptive statistics were calculated for administrative staff to answer derived from data collection tool. Then, in accordance with sub-problems of the survey frequency and percentage values were examined. Administrative staff in the measurements unrelated to investigate whether in-service training for their views differed depending on the characteristics t test, one way ANOVA and LSD multiple comparison test was calculated.

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the relationship between the variables in the study. To what extent it is determined that disclosure of the opinions of the efficiency of in-service training of administrative staff has been calculated in order to stepwise multiple regression analysis.

5. Results and Comments

In this study, we aimed to determine the opinions of administrative staff in-service training and determination to show that this view of some features differ according to administrative staff . It is included in the framework of sub- problems to the findings.

Gazi University is level with views on the training of managerial staff of the service?

A questionnaire consisting of five dimensions to administrative staff and 30 items were applied to determine the opinions of training and in-service administrative staff working at Gazi University 's services participating in the training. Descriptive statistics were calculated in accordance with the answers they gave to the administrative staff of the questionnaire items are included in Table 2.

Table 2. *Gazi University Regarding Administrative Staff Of Inservice Training Feedback*

	Article Number	N	lowest	highest	\bar{X}	SS
requirement	8	350	8,00	40,00	32,82	5,66
request	3	350	3,00	15,00	11,98	2,25
perception	5	350	5,00	25,00	16,85	4,13
fitness	10	350	10,00	50,00	32,69	6,68
productivity	4	350	4,00	20,00	14,93	3,22
Total (efficiency of in-service training)	30	350	49,00	149,00	109,27	16,50

Table 2 shows attended in-service training for their views before training administrative staff services (total) in order that they have received an average score of 30 Preparations 109.27. The calculated average score in the survey because it is close to the maximum score from the survey of the opinions of administrative staff training services were determined to be positive.

Gazi University 'opinions on the training of managerial staff of the service is at what level?

Working at Gazi University and participate in in-service training programs for the training of administrative staff views substances were examined on the basis of the service.

Necessity size: The training of administrative staff working in the service of Gazi University regarding the requirement to substances in general is seen that participation. The administrative staff of the aforementioned size matter " in-service training is a necessity of our times. " expression (45.4 %) and agree (42.6 %) being strongly agree (88%) with a "scientific, technological and social developments in the areas of administration and require

administrative staff to take in-service training. " agent (46.6%) and agree (41.4 %) being strongly agree (88%) with one of the most participation shown substances.

Wish size: In-service training requests Veterans surveyed the items on the size of the University, it was determined that overall participation of administrative staff. Administrative staff in substances " to in-service training activities, developments and trends that I believe that I join my support innovation." agent (60.6 %) and agree (22.3 %) being strongly agree (82.9 %) are shown to propose maximum contributions.

Perception size: Administrative staff in-service training of the substance in the perception of size " in-service training activities program suitable environments (buildings, halls, classrooms, tools and equipment, etc .) Is carried out. " Expression (53.4 %) agree and (13.7 %) to strongly agree to (67.1 %) are shown to propose maximum contributions.

Compliance size: Research joined the administrative staff in-service training of the articles concerning the eligibility " personnel (administrators, administrative personnel) for which there is a healthy and regular in-service training policy. " Material (30.3 %) disagree and (15.7%) to strongly disagree to (46.0 %) and " in-service training units do not have a corporate management team and worthy of. " material (25.1 %) and disagree (11.1%) being strongly disagree (36.2 %) and " tutorials will be deployed in -service training (trainers) can not be selected from among experts in the field. " expression of (25.4 %) disagree and (12.6 %) being strongly disagree (38.0 %) was determined to be generally participate trends.

Attended in-service training before Gazi University was created to measure the appropriateness of in-service training of administrative staff are determined that the overall trend in the other seven participating substances. Administrative staff inservice of the created material for the training of compliance " intended knowledge and skills in the program in -service training activities are accelerated. " Statement (52.6 %) agree and (11.4%) being strongly agree (64.0 %) with a maximum participation proposition shown.

Efficiency size: Other materials for in-service training has been determined that the efficiency of the overall participation. The administrative staff surveyed "I share with my colleagues what I learned in-service training. " Expression (49.7 %) agree and (32.0 %) being strongly agree (81.7 %) are propositions shown maximum participation.

Gazi University administrative staff in-service training for staff of the opinions of some characteristics (gender, age, marital status, age, seniority, work time in the institution) does differ?

The views for training managerial staff of the service involved in the research requirements, desires, perceptions, convenience, and efficiency dimensions of staff of gender , age , marital status, working time in the institution and it was determined that no significant difference according to seniority.

By education level; One-way analysis of variance to determine whether there is a difference of opinion based on in-service training for educational staff working at Gazi University 's administrative situation calculated and the results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. *Gazi University Administrative Staff of One-Way Analysis of Variance by the staff of Inservice Education Opinion on Education*

Dimensions	Source of variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Frames Per	F	p
requirement	Intergroup	277,593	3	92,531	2,937	,033
	Groups within	10899,424	346	31,501		
	total	11177,017	349			
request	Intergroup	19,148	3	6,383	1,264	,286
	Groups within	1746,669	346	5,048		
	total	1765,817	349			
perception	Intergroup	61,315	3	20,438	1,201	,309
	Groups within	5888,354	346	17,018		
	total	5949,669	349			
fitness	Intergroup	33,814	3	11,271	,251	,861
	Groups within	15544,861	346	44,927		
	total	15578,674	349			
productivity	Intergroup	47,115	3	15,705	1,521	,209
	Groups within	3572,374	346	10,325		
	total	3619,489	349			
total	Intergroup	454,504	3	151,501	,554	,646
	Groups within	94588,710	346	273,378		
	total	95043,214	349			

Considering the information contained in Table 3 of the training of administrative staff surveyed service request, harmony, perception, it was determined that no significant differences by education level in the efficiency of the administrative staff of the views size ($p > 0.05$).

Table 3 ' acting in accordance with the information in -house administrative staff at Gazi University 's training requirements for service views is determined that no significant differences by education level of administrative staff ($p > 0.05$) . LSD multiple comparison test was calculated in order to determine which groups are the differences, and the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. *Gazi University Administrative Staff of Inservice Training Staff views on the necessity of LSD by Education Level Test*

Education (I)	Education (J)	The average difference (I- J)	SE	p
High school	associate degree	-2,45122(*)	,87654	,005
	license	-1,80393(*)	,76728	,019
	Graduate	-1,90701	1,16986	,104
Associate degree	high school	2,45122(*)	,87654	,005
	license	,64729	,76728	,399
	Graduate	,54421	1,16986	,642
License	high school	1,80393(*)	,76728	,019
	associate degree	-,64729	,76728	,399
	Graduate	-,10308	1,09040	,925
Graduate	high school	1,90701	1,16986	,104
	associate degree	-,54421	1,16986	,642
	license	,10308	1,09040	,925

Considering the information contained in Table 4, only high school graduates based on their views regarding the training of the necessity of the administrative staff of the service working at Gazi University administrative staff training status seems to vary with the administrative staff with other education and administrative staff. High school graduate undergraduate and graduate degree is determined that the administrative staff of views on the need for in-service training by staff was lower ($p < 0.05$).

6. Conclusions And Recommendations

Gazi University administrative staff have been examined views on the impact on efficiency of in-service training at the university applied, the results obtained in accordance with the answers given are as follows;

- A positive opinion on the direction of the HIE is necessary implemented in university administrative staff at Gazi University have been identified.
- A positive opinion on the direction they want it to be applied in the university administrative staff at Gazi University HIE have been identified.
- The administrative staff at Gazi University HIE applied to the perception that the university has been identified as a positive level.
- Veterans ' positive opinions towards the suitably programmed for the purpose of HIE implemented in university administrative staff of the University have been identified.

- A positive opinion on the direction of the administrative staff as efficiently implemented in universities have been identified HIE in Gazi University.

- Opinions on the training of administrative staff at Gazi University was investigated whether the services varies by demographic characteristics. In this context;

Requirements of views on training managerial staff of the service participate in the survey, wishes, perception, availability and efficiency dimensions of staff of gender, age, marital status, seniority is determined that no significant difference compared to the working time in the institution.

The training of administrative staff participate in the exploration of the service request, harmony, perception, it was determined that no significant differences by education level in the efficiency of the administrative staff of the views size.

Opinions regarding the training of administrative staff participate in the survey requirements of the service only a high school graduate by education level seems to vary with the administrative staff with other education administrative staff and administrative staff. High school graduate by the administrative staff of the undergraduate and graduate degree views for staff in-service training requirements have been determined to be lower.

6.1 Recommendations

- a. Due to the high level of the opinion that the necessary in-service training, giving more importance to the HIE of university management, enhancing the implementation of the training and all staff will be in place to do the work.
- b. Indicates that they are willing to be at a high level in terms of HIE for administrative staff, since the request based on a need for more frequent training to meet these needs and wants and needs will be useful for the application.
- c. Due to the positive level of perception that the HIE, the university management of the HIE particular place in terms of making the clean and spacious environment, appropriate time and number of participants should be given to issues such as appropriate kept by the venue. Need of tools and equipment used in training will need to be capable of meeting. In particular, training people to be taken must be based on objective criteria, if the state is involved in the perception of administrative staff a more transparent system should be established for the selection of people to be trained to create.
- d. University management to administrative staff indicating that for the purposes of HIE, giving more importance to the content of the HIE must be made of the efforts to enhance the quality depending on specific needs. Increasing training activities should be chosen from experts in the field of trainers. Away from the boredom of training tutorial topics that should be given to a so entertaining in nature. Before training and after training to create change in the staff's knowledge, skills and behavior should work towards making the programming of HIE.
- e. University management to administrative staff expressed a positive opinion that is productive of HIE, HIE programs to be systematically and reliably. The content of the training must be capable of meeting the expectations and motivating. Training for staff advancement (promotion) should form the direction of step. The effective participation of the staff in training should be provided. After the training, staff prepared an environment to apply what they have learned for the benefit of her authority and focus on issues such as the nature of increasing the efficiency of the staff will be given the responsibility.

- f. High school graduate reasons for the lower of views on the administrative staff of the undergraduate and graduate degree requirements by staff in-service training should be examined and measures should be taken.
- g. Universities participating in in-service training to staff training skills and knowledge gained in the workplace and their friends in a survey done in being transferred.

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