

Addressing Time Shortages With Microteaching

Bahra Taib Rashid

English Department, College of Basic Education, University of Sulaimani, Sulaymaniyah- Kurdistan Region, F. R. Iraq

*Corresponding author's email: bahra.rashid@univsul.edu.iq

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ABSTRACT

This study presents and evaluates the methodology used in a 90-minute microteaching lesson, which was given to a group of fourth year students who are studying English at the University of Sulaimani and who are training to become English teachers. This study aimed to assess the role of the teacher, students, lecture materials, and activities used in the classroom and to address the time shortages experienced during the academic calendar with microteaching. This article provides a brief overview of the topic and the audience at which the lesson was aimed. The methodology section includes details about the method that was used in the study, which was based on communicative language teaching, with the justifications for using it. Details about the analysis of the key features of the lesson plan is subsequently presented and includes justifications for the use of each activity. Finally, an overall evaluation of the lesson is presented and the conclusion that microteaching is the best solution and strategy to develop teaching skill is drawn.

Keywords: Microteaching, Training, Lesson Plan, Communicative Language Teaching, Feedback

1. INTRODUCTION

The issues addressed in this study can be summarized by the following questions: (1) How effective is the microteaching strategy as a technique to improve the teaching skills of the students in the Faculty of Basic Education at the University of Sulaimani? (2) Can the microteaching strategy be used to accommodate the time shortage during an academic year? (3) Is the microteaching approach a better alternative to the traditional process of educating future teachers by using the lecture method in addition to practical presentations at the schools? The outcomes of this study show that microteaching has an important role in education. This method utilizes a straightforward strategy of training students on the proper educational

strategies while receiving immediate feedback from students on whether the required skills were achieved. The topic of the prepared lesson was

“Hollywood films.” The lesson was designed for a group of 30 Kurdish students, aged between 18 and 26 years, at the University of Sulaimani who are training to become English teachers. Their proficiency in the English language is described as intermediate. The topic was deliberately chosen to improve the listening and speaking skills of the students and to enhance their fluency. The topic is appropriate for the ages of the students and their level of proficiency, because it contained simple vocabulary that the students were familiar with. The topic was suited to their needs and interests, because it is interesting and attracted the students' attention and motivated them. According to Harmer (2007), the desire to achieve some goal is the bedrock of motivation, and it may be easier to be extrinsically motivated when the topic is easy and the students can express their ideas about it effectively

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during interactions with teachers and other students because of existing knowledge about the topic. Harmer (2007) further defined extrinsic motivation as being the influence of external factors that come from outside the classroom, such as the attitude of society, family, and others on the student. In contrast, intrinsic motivation is generated by what happens inside the classroom. Students study the English language for specific academic purposes, and because it is compulsory in all schools and universities in Kurdistan. The English language is considered to be an international language, and it is used as a business language throughout the world, implying that proficiency in English is required to obtain higher level jobs. The purpose of studying the English language is to familiarize students with the language and cultures of different countries and to improve their speaking and listening comprehension with the aim of mastering the English language to a high level of accuracy and fluency. Kurdish students need to learn the English language to be successful in effective learning styles to become qualified English teachers who can explain the lessons confidently and who can articulate their desires and needs. Moreover, they need it to strengthen their listening skills and develop their ability to respond appropriately to questions asked in English to pass the official exams of the university. A good grasp of the English language is required to understand American films and English songs and to translate them for the purpose of possible future careers, such as dubbing English films. According to Ala'Alden (2011), the Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG) sent many students abroad on full-time scholarships to pursue both postgraduate and undergraduate degrees before the financial crisis. To enter the competition, one of the requirements was to have a recognized English qualification that could allow the selected students to study in the United States or the United Kingdom with the aim of improving their English language proficiency and also to improve their own PhD studies. The KRG needs a radical reform in the educational system.

2. METHODOLOGY

The method that was chosen for the microteaching lesson is based on CLT, which is currently considered to be the main method of teaching in developed countries. According to Richards and Renandya (2002), the evolution of CLT started in the late 1970s to challenge the grammar-based approach that was previously used in the teaching of a language. Lightbown & Spada (2006) defined CLT as follows: “[CLT] is based on the premise that successful language learning involves not only a knowledge of the structure and forms of a language, but also the functions and purposes that a language serves in different communicative settings.”

Linguists realized the need to formulate and develop alternative methods of teaching that focused on communicative aptitude rather than on the mere mastery of structures in language teaching, which was considered a high priority (Richards, 2006). CLT-based teaching emphasizes the use of the English language for real communication rather than for the demonstration of perfect grammar, and therefore students are more motivated to learn the language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), the most important characteristic of CLT is that it focuses on communicative competence rather than linguistic competence, implying that language and communication are interdependent. In addition, the primary aim of CLT is to achieve fluency and accuracy, with accuracy being judged in context and not in an abstract setting. Therefore, the target language is learned more optimally through the process of communication, which at first will be difficult but will improve through trial and error, which is the aim of this lesson. Furthermore, during CLT, learners are expected to interact with others through working in pairs and groups to overcome their shyness, which is common among most Kurdish students (Towards a global perspective, 2009). CLT-based methods also improve pronunciation. Finally, CLT allows for the use of the native language, where needed, to enhance the understanding of concepts in a foreign language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

A CLT-based method was chosen to provide a high level of student support to remove obstacles that might impede their progress, because Kurdish students are typically not

very confident in listening and speaking. This approach might aid in the transition of the Kurdistan educational system from an isolated entity to an entity that is internationally integrated in the field of academic study. It is designed to meet the specific criteria required to enhance learners' fluency through many opportunities for cooperative interaction with their classmate and the teacher (Gatbonton and Segalowitz, 2005). It conveys their basic knowledge and ability to interact proficiently, because of its emphasis on the learner's cognitive ability and operational capabilities. Thus, students are taught to express their views in real life scenarios, allowing them to improve their ability to use the language to communicate with others (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). According to Ala'Alden (2011), the KRG began to focus on the quality of outputs rather than on the quantity and they choose the higher education sector as the first to implement their strategy to improve the standard of the outputs. In order to expand the curriculum and to improve skills like critical thinking and learning a second language, many activities and opportunities should be presented to the students, including problem solving activities, role play activities, and attending seminars and conferences, which are examples of CLT activities. The role of the teacher is to facilitate these activities. According to Wilson (2008), there is more room for personal or critical responses to the content and less emphasis on drilling repetition in CLT.

However, selecting CLT as the teaching method employed in this lesson brought its own challenges because of the traditional methods that the Kurdish students are used to. It has the potential of creating cultural and phonological problems and reticence, because they have difficulties in speaking fluently, communicatively, and effectively as required to reach the goal of CLT. Consequently, the role of the teacher was to help the learners in a way that motivated them to interact with the language and incorporate it into their interests until they overcame their concerns (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Furthermore, teachers might incorporate it gradually. First, they might start with pair work and gradually progress to working in small groups until they

get used to it. Bax (2003) argued that, although CLT has a crucial role in language teaching, it ignores the context, which is an important aspect of language pedagogy. Because the activities employed in CLT require participation in small groups, it might not be the ideal method to use with Kurdish students, owing to the crowded classes in Kurdistan with no means to provide them with good education, in addition to the limited available time to cover the large syllabi (Jamil, cited in Taha, 2010).

Overall, the assumptions and design criteria of the methodology presented here can be performed for research purposes, allowing CLT to be evaluated in systematic outcome testing (Gatbonton and Segalowitz, 2005).

2.1. Analysis

The lesson utilized in this study was focused on listening and speaking, which were both integrated into the lesson. According to Al-Issa (2006), listening will become more interesting, motivating, and effective when it is practiced along with other skills such as the integration with speaking, as experienced in real life scenarios, and will enable the students to develop their abilities and make them more successful and eager to learn than if it is isolated. Therefore, when students are participating in listening activities, speech should also be incorporated, because isolating skills is not an effective way of teaching languages.

2.2. Activating Schema

Initially, some pictures of Hollywood actors were shown, relying on vision to improve the effectiveness of teaching (Barnett and McCormick, 2002). Subsequently, to introduce the students to the subject, various activities were conducted during the lesson's pre-listening tasks, starting with brainstorming information and vocabulary to activate schema, which is defined by Hill (2004) as follows: "brain storm is a personal roadmap to a better understanding of creative thinking and the brainstorming process . . . as an individual or in a group setting, you can

begin generating ideas with the power to change the world around you.” Another element incorporated was the presentation of several trailers, which concluded with answering personalized questions with the aim of activating their schemata, which, according to Wilson (2008), is required to help the students prepare for what they are going to hear and to give them a greater chance of success in any given task. Using the internet as a source of authentic input allowed the students to access a wide range of materials and provided them with virtual access to the target language and in so doing, guided them to collect their own materials for the activities. The students were then asked to articulate what they observed to encourage them to speak (Elliot, 2006). Stempleski (2002) stated that successful teachers select the appropriate videos that connect with the students’ need, promotes active viewing, and integrates the concepts from the video with other areas of the language curriculum. Accordingly, it can be said that microteaching is an operative schema that can develop the teaching skills of the students.

2.3. Listening and Speaking Tasks

According to Richards and Renandya (2002), listening and speaking are supposed to be of greater importance in foreign language classrooms to help the students to speak confidently.

In the “while-listening” activities, students are listening for gist and detail, and they check their answers in groups, which, according to Wilson (2008), provides them with confidence and removes any areas of suspicion. They then listen for a second time either to check their answers or to answer more detailed questions. Wilson (2008) stated that it is important for students to be asked to do different tasks whenever they are listening, especially to the parts they found difficult, with the aim of reducing their anxiety with the guidance of the teacher. For example, when the teacher gives each group a difficult task, such as doing exercises, they start to think and discuss it together as a team, and in so doing, they help each other and reduce the

burden of the individual to perform a task alone, which reduces their anxiety.

Through answering oral questions in pairs or groups and by groups discussions as follow-up tasks, students might learn how to interact without overreacting, because they are speaking about and listening to topics with personal knowledge. This is based on the statement by Flowerdew and Miller (2005) who noted that by extending the discussion, students may learn how to monitor their emotions and reaction to the information about stereotypes.

Using various activities in “while-listening” and follow-up tasks will avoid monotony. Saricoban (1999) observed that by providing a variety of input in the classroom, the students are kept motivated, and it allows students to recycle and revise the language that was already taught for the given skill.

Films and clips from the internet are valuable sources of authentic input which is more practical and provides them with more opportunity to interpret what they have seen. This can certainly raise motivation (Wilson, 2008).

Appropriate listening can be enhanced by other features of a speaker’s behavior. Blumer (2009) noted that the analysis of symbolic interaction is extremely important; it can be seen in the presentation of gestures and postures, such as presented in the game of Charades, that are conveyed to the person who is supposed to respond, and recognize his/her response on the basis of what they mean to him/her. Additionally, using games create a cooperative and joyful atmosphere inside the classroom and motivate the students to learn effectively (Lyster, 2007). Furthermore, questioning plays an important role in listening and can be used to check the students’ comprehension, which is done by asking questions based on a listening activity (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005). Subsequently, by providing positive feedback impacts the students’ performance positively and build their confidence (Cox and Heames 1999). In contrast,

Thornbury (1999) noted that by providing only negative feedback to the students may ultimately be demotivating.

Importantly, personalization should be used in questions and answers in pairs as follow-up tasks. Wilson (2008) stated that, “It seeks to engage the students on a personal level through meaningful interaction and personalization.”

At the end of the lesson, errors that were heard or word that were written down incorrectly were written on the board for correction by the students in pairs and groups with the help of the teacher. According to Mishra (2005): “Recent researches, however, have shifted the responsibility (of correction) to students. Rather a cooperative and collaborative approach has been suggested correction for teachers and students with more active role being assigned to the students.”

Thornbury (2005) believes that if the focus of the activity is more on the meaning, it is perhaps better to correct without interfering too much with the flow of communication, because intervention in learners’ performance might prevent fluency and push them to focus on accuracy. Furthermore, Hedge (2000) believes that in the fluency activity, correction of errors is better to be delayed until the end so as not to interrupt the learners while they are trying to speak.

In CLT, the teacher must encourage the students to engage in conversation by increasing the opportunities for the students to talk and by reducing the amount of talking by the teacher, thereby ensuring that the opportunities are balanced.

3. EVALUATION OF MICROTEACHING

This part is divided into 3 sections. In the first section, the role of the teacher was evaluated through feedback from peers and the tutor who highlighted the strengths of the methods and the areas for improvement. The second section evaluated the students’ performance during the lesson. The final section is an evaluation of the actions

that were employed during the lesson and how these can be adjusted to improve the same lesson based on feedback from the tutor and peers.

3.1. Teacher

According to the feedback from the tutor and peers, there were many strengths in the performance of the teacher. The lesson had a good introduction and employed a good use of visuals, questions, and answers to activate the students’ schemata. According to Scrivener (2005), typical introductions involve showing pictures related to the topic, asking the students some personal questions related to the subject, etcetera and might promote the students’ motivation or interest. Furthermore, by means of the pre-task, students were able to predict the topic.

Another positive point of the lesson was that the teacher’s voice projected clearly from the start to the end of the lesson and effective instructions were provided. This corresponds to Harmer (2007) who stated that the teacher should present the lesson in a confident and authoritative voice and make sure that his/her voice reaches the furthest corner of the class and also avoid repetitive idioms like “OK.”

Every student was addressed by name, ensuring a positive psychological impact on the students, because they felt important to the teacher from the start of the lesson. The teacher made an undeliberate mistake by incorrectly naming one of the students, which annoyed her, but the teacher apologized and corrected that mistake. Therefore, it is important to be aware of such seemingly small things that may have an adverse impact on the psyche of the students.

Furthermore, Cox and Heames (1999) found that by giving positive feedback to the students, their motivation was increased and their confidence boosted. Accordingly, the positive feedback and the amount of praise that were given to the students during the lesson was sufficient to encourage them to actively participate in the lesson. The teacher created a friendly and comfortable atmosphere in

the class and avoided interrupting the students in order not to demotivate them. Moreover, Harmer (2007) stated that one of the teacher's roles is monitoring, which, according to tutor's feedback, was successfully performed while the students were working on their tasks.

Finally, the teacher avoided to correct the students' oral mistakes, because they did not affect their communication, and Hedge (2000) recommended delaying corrections to the end of the lesson in order not to affect their fluency.

Overall, the teacher took into consideration the characteristics of a good teacher and applied these during the lesson, starting from the attitude toward monitoring, guiding, facilitating, etc. to make the lesson as effective as possible.

3.2. Learners

Choosing an interesting topic such as "Hollywood films" was very effective in creating a very lively lesson and motivating the students because they had sufficient knowledge about the topic. Moreover, a very active involvement in some of the students was noted throughout the lesson in individual, pair, and group activities. According to Jacobs and Hall (2002), working in pairs or groups encourages mutual helpfulness among the students and encourages them to participate actively in the lesson. There were lots of opportunities for interaction between the students and the teacher and among the students themselves. This concurs with Laurillard (2000), as cited in the study by Anderson (2003), who said the following: "The university education must go far beyond access to information or content to include engagement with others in the gradual development of their personal understanding".

Students responded positively and actively during the tasks, and they did not have any difficulties in understanding the instructions and the tasks. Although one group was confused about the kinds of films and vocabulary related to filming, the teacher noticed that the

students enjoyed the topic and that most of them enjoyed brainstorming about information and vocabulary.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that there was a good discussion when the students were asked to work in pairs or groups on the questionnaire about their favorite films and to justify why they preferred specific types of films. That showed that they had good background knowledge about the topic and that the lesson was appropriate for their level.

3.3. Action Plan

The overall feedback that was received from the peers and tutor was very positive, and there was no clear negative feedback from them. However, I do not think that there is a perfect teacher. Accordingly, aspects about the teaching style and performance can be improved, including the fast pace of the teacher's speech. At times, the pace was too fast and it became difficult for the students to hear every word that was pronounced. According to Harmer (2007), teachers need to speak in a comprehensible manner to their students to help them better understand the input she or he delivers. Another area of improvement worth mentioning is to better manage the timing of the activities, especially when the students are asked to do certain activities. This was highlighted by the evaluators as an area that can be improved in future lessons. Finally, the teacher noted the importance of building a friendship with the students to improve the student's attitude and, in turn, encourage the students to pay attention during lesson presentations. A strict teacher may cause unhappiness and, consequently, the students might not want to attend his or her lectures and therefore they may fail in their studies. According to Bahjat (2016), microteaching comprises many skills, such as preparation skills, skills to select teaching materials, distribution and organization skills, presentation skills, annotation skills, enhancement skills, skills of posing questions to get the desired responses while taking into account individual differences, the skills of movement, the skills to use teaching techniques, and skills of training and managing time. Microteaching is therefore it considered to be better

than the other traditional ways of teaching. Krpalek et al. (2017) deduced from their study that the efficiency of microteaching over the traditional teaching methods for developing students' professional behaviors and facilitating peer-supported learning should not be underestimated. This was reiterated by Ali (1994), Mohammed (1995), and Hindi (2000) as cited by Bahjat (2016) in their studies on the training of third year students in the Agricultural Department, Faculty of Education in Almena (Ali, 2014), among students of teachers from the Arabic Language Department in the Faculty of Education, King Saud University (Mohammed, 1995), and among students of teachers of agricultural sciences in the Faculty of Education, Bani Suef (Hindi, 2000). According to Alnashef and Winter (2007), "One of the pre-service teachers preparation systems is integrated system, which allows the training of pre-service teachers, and it represented by the content of practical education courses which are taught in the colleges of education, and the content of these materials such as planning, implementation and evaluation skills, which can be trained by the students during their study." As a basic procedure that is applied in the College of Basic Education, especially in the English Department at the Sulaimani University, pre-service teachers are applying what they have been taught in their courses during the four years of their study in primary and intermediate schools in a very limited time. They have to be supervised by their teachers, even in very bad circumstances when schools are shut down, which is really difficult because it needs a lot of time and effort. Teachers have to supervise the trained students, supervise their projects, set 2 term examinations, prepare teachers' portfolios, and many other tasks within a very short time. In addition, trained students need to set plans for their lessons, teach, work on their graduation projects, and prepare themselves for the final examination, which also require a lot of time and effort on the students' behalf. In an attempt to save time and effort for both teachers and students, microteaching offers the best solution to reduce these stresses and ease the loads on teachers' and students' shoulders.

4. CONCLUSION

In light of the analysis and the method that was utilized in this study at the University of Sulaimani, the following conclusions can be drawn. First, microteaching is one of the most effective and crucial strategies that should be utilized in the academic curriculum in place of the traditional methods that have been used in the past. This is because of the benefits observed in this study (Bahjat, 2016). Consequently, CLT can be considered as a proper method that can develop the pre-service teacher's listening and speaking skills because it motivates them to speak fluently. It is also worth mentioning that according to Thornbury, (1999) giving positive feedback is another factor that can assist pre-service teachers to overcome their fears and increase their learning. Finally, to address the shortage of time at the end of the year, it is better to use microteaching in the education faculty at the University of Sulaimani.

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Fraud Risk Factors that Affect the Audit Program Plan: The Case of Kurdistan Region, Iraq

Samer H. Alssabagh

Accounting Department, Faculty of Administrative Sciences and Economics, Tishk International University, Erbil- Kurdistan Region, F. R. Iraq

*Corresponding author's email: Samer.alssabagh@tiu.edu.iq

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to identify the most frequent fraud risk factors that affect the nature, timing, and extent of planned audit procedures. The perceptions of both international and local external auditors in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq, were investigated. In general, it was found that the respondents were more interested in assessing fraud risk factors related to misappropriation of assets (84.61%) compared with those related to fraudulent financial reporting (75.43%). Stepwise regression analysis indicates a positive and significant effect of each fraud risk factor related to fraudulent financial reporting that resulted from incentives or pressures and attitudes or rationalization, and the fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets that resulted from attitudes or rationalization on the nature, timing, and extent of the planned audit procedures. However, other fraud risk factors in the study model did not show a significant effect on the audit program plan. The findings of this paper contribute to the existing literature in the area of fraud risk assessment and its effect on planning audit programs in eastern developing countries such as the Kurdistan Region, Iraq.

Keywords: Fraud risk factors, Audit program plan, Kurdistan Region, Iraq

1. INTRODUCTION

The International Standards on Auditing no. 240 (ISA 240), issued by the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC), defines fraud as “an intentional act by one or more individuals among management, those charged with governance, employees, or third parties, involving the use of deception to obtain an unjust or illegal advantage” (IFAC, 2016, ISA240: Par.11). The auditor, according to the ISA, is responsible for getting rational assurance that the financial statements, as a whole, are free from material

misstatements, owing to either fraud or error. Accordingly, he/she should design an auditing program plan and perform audit procedures whose nature, timing, and extent are based on and are responsive to the assessed material misstatement risk (IFAC, 2016, ISA330).

One of the effective methods used to assess material misstatement owing to fraud is using fraud risk factors that have been defined by ISA 240 as “events or conditions that indicate an incentive or pressure to commit fraud or provide an opportunity to commit fraud” (IFAC, 2016, ISA240: Par.11). However, an unsuitable fraud risk assessment can lead to a misdirection of audit resource allocation and, ultimately, in an ineffective and/or inefficient audit (Low, 2004; Hajiha, 2012). It also could have negative effects on the audit planning process (Bedard & Graham, 2002). Hence, examining if auditors’ reliance on fraud risk factors leads to modification or reconsideration of their audit program plans is important

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because auditors should plan the audit work to enhance the audit quality and further reduce the risk of litigation (Arens et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2005). Moreover, the results of the risk assessment conducted during the planning stage will influence the design and execution of the audit procedures during the fieldwork stage.

The objective of this paper is to identify the most common fraud risk factors used by auditors in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq, as well as to measure the effect of the assessed fraud risk factors on the audit program plan. Consequently, this paper raises the following 2 questions:

- What are the most frequent fraud risk factors used by auditors in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq?
- Do the assessed fraud risk factors affect the audit program plan?

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the previous literature. In section 3, the study design, methodology, and hypotheses developed are presented. Section 4 details the results. In section 5, the concluding comments are presented.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Planning an auditing program requires the application of professional judgment when deciding about the types of procedures to be performed during the fieldwork (Mentz et al., 2018). Such planning involves determining the nature, timing, and extent of the planned audit procedures at the assertion level (IFAC, 2016, ISA300). More specifically, the list of planned audit procedures, usually called an audit program, should include the following 4 components (Arens et al., 2014):

- Which audit procedures should be used (nature)?
- What sample size should be selected for a given procedure (extent)?
- Which items should be selected from the population (extent)?

- When should the procedures be performed (timing)?

Furthermore, all the components of the planned audit procedures should be modified or reconsidered as a subsequent response to fraud risk assessment (Mock & Turner, 2005). In other words, planning the nature, timing, and extent of specific further audit procedures should depend on the outcome of the auditors' fraud risk assessment (IFAC, 2016, ISA330). Fraud risk is of 2 major types, namely, fraudulent financial reporting and misappropriation of assets. Fraudulent financial reporting involves intentional misstatement including omission of amounts or disclosures to trick financial statement users. In addition, it often involves overriding of controls by the management that may otherwise appear to be operating effectively. In contrast, misappropriation of assets involves stealing of an entity's assets and is often committed by employees in relatively small and immaterial amounts (IFAC, 2016, ISA240).

ISA 240 indicates that the risk of the auditor not detecting a material misstatement resulting from management fraud (fraudulent financial reporting) is greater than for employee fraud (misappropriation of assets), because management is frequently in a position to directly or indirectly manipulate accounting records, present fraudulent financial information, or override control procedures designed to prevent similar types of frauds by other employees. However, both kinds of frauds involve incentives or pressure to commit fraud, a perceived opportunity to do so, and some rationalization of such acts (IFAC, 2016, ISA240). In other words, the commitment of fraud requires at least 1 of the following 3 motives: incentive or pressure, opportunity, and attitude or rationalization, which are together known as the "fraud triangle" (Jans et al., 2010).

The fraud triangle, as illustrated in Fig. 1, consists of 3 conditions generally present when fraud occurs. Incentive or pressure is what causes a person to commit fraud. Opportunity is the ability to commit fraud. Attitude or rationalization is a crucial component in most frauds, and it involves a person reconciling his/her behavior (stealing) with the commonly accepted notions of decency and trust (Okoye et al., 2009).

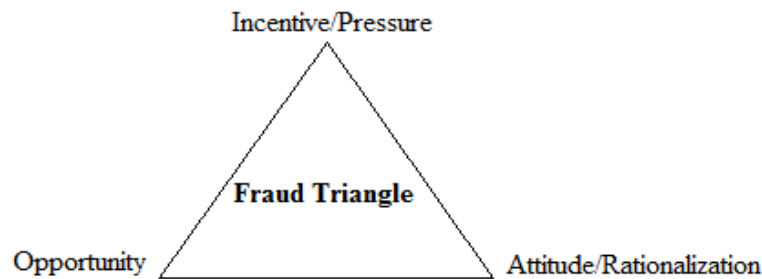


Figure 1. Fraud triangle (Montgomery et al., 2002)

Accordingly, fraud risk factors have been classified, by both international and American standards, into 3 groups that fit the fraud triangle (Hammersly, 2011). On the one hand, ISA 240 presents a list of the risk factors (in an appendix) according to the conceptual framework of the fraud triangle (IFAC, 2016, ISA240). On the other hand, the Statement on Auditing Standards no. 99 (SAS 99), issued by the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), organizes and presents fraud risk factors (also in an appendix) according to the dimension of the fraud triangle (AICPA, 2002, SAS 99).

Fraud risk assessment techniques and their effects on several audit planning aspects have been of major concern to researchers in the past 2 decades, especially after the recent cases of audit failure, which emphasize the importance of adequate assessment of fraud risk and effective planning of audit programs. In this regard, the Public Company Accounting Oversight Board pointed out in its report issued in 2013 after reviewing 455 audit cases in the USA that most design flaws of audit procedures are because of fraud risk and the auditors' lack of experience in assessing fraud risk factors (McKee, 2014). In addition, data collected by the AICPA's peer review program in 2016 showed that more than 1 in 10 firms failed to comply with the auditing standard (AU-C) section 315, which deals with understanding the entity and its environment and assessing the risks of material misstatement, or AU-C section 330, which deals with performing audit procedures in response to assessed risks and evaluating the audit evidence obtained (Mayes et al., 2018).

Furthermore, several studies suggest that determining the critical risk factors could help auditors in an audit case and fraud risk assessment and affect the nature, timing, and extent of the audit procedures, evidence collected,

and audit quality (Colbert, 1996; Helliari et al., 1996; Bedard et al., 1999; Blay et al. 2007; De Martinis et al., 2007; Blay et al., 2008; Chang et al., 2008; Razak et al., 2018). Brasel et al. (2019) found that auditors made more skeptical judgments when revisiting and reassessing fraud risk assessments. Furthermore, when auditors perform operational-level fraud inquiries before substantive testing, they exhibit a significantly greater skeptical judgment than when inquiries are performed subsequently or not at all. Popova (2008) found that integrating fraud risk into the material misstatement risks assessment process increased the effectiveness of audit risk assessment because all the risk components were included. Likewise, Alssabagh (2016) suggested that accurate assessment of material misstatement risks, including fraud risk, resulted in a balance between the audit efficiency and effectiveness by guiding the auditors to identify the appropriate extent of the planned audit procedures. However, other studies indicate that an auditor's reliance on fraud risk factors is not always helpful for audit planning decisions. For instance, Graham and Bedard (2003) examined the effect of specific fraud risk factor categories on audit planning decisions in a sample of audited clients. They found that the association between audit test planning and the identified fraud risk factors is stronger than with fraud risk assessment. Thus, it appears that auditors' fraud risk assessments do not always capture the fraud risk factors very well, but auditors do consider the fraud risk factors in their audit planning. Furthermore, Asare and Wright (2004) found that the auditors who used an SAS no. 82-based risk checklist made a lower assessment of fraud risk than the auditors who did not use a checklist. Similarly, Fukukawa et al. (2006) found, from a set of Japanese audits, that the association between client risks and audit plans was somewhat weak, and fraud risk factors had little effect on audit planning.

The importance, diagnostic ability, and weighting of risk factors in assessing fraud risk factors are investigated in several studies. Wilks and Zimbelman (2004a) suggested that decomposition of the fraud risk assessment task may require less cognitive effort in assessing fraud risk and may allow auditors to better process fraud risk factors. Wilks and Zimbelman (2004b) suggested, from a study in which they examined the assessment of fraud risk when difficult-to-assess “attitude” risk factors indicate low fraud risk, that auditors may be differentially sensitive to “incentive” and “opportunity” risk factors depending on the method of assessment they use (decomposed assessment of fraud risk using the elements of the fraud triangle vs. global assessment of the overall fraud risk). Alssabagh and Dahdoh (2016) found, from a study based in Syria, that auditors have a moderate commitment to assessing fraud risk factors owing to fraudulent financial reporting, whereas they have a strong commitment to assessing fraud risk factors owing to misappropriation of assets (Alssabagh and Dahdoh, 2016). Brazel et al. (2013) suggested that it was important to assess nonfinancial fraud risk factors, because they were important indicators for the auditor and helped them to assess the risks of fraud effectively. Furthermore, Carpenter (2007) examined the brainstorming process in an experimental setting and found that brainstorming sessions resulted in a higher assessment of fraud risk. Likewise, Brazel et al. (2010) found that assessment of fraud risk factors required the auditors to use the highest degree of brainstorming which improved the relationship between fraud risk factors and the auditor's assessment of fraud risks. Finally, Allen et al. (2006), after insight reviews of academic literature on fraud risk assessment, indicated that auditors often responded to fraud risks by performing more audit procedures that were not directly related to the risk area. In other words, a typical audit response was to perform “more of the same” checks rather than performing different kinds of procedures specifically targeted at the identified fraud risk.

3. STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The nature of this study is empirical because it employs a questionnaire to survey fraud risk factors that affect the

audit program plan. The questionnaire, as a primary study instrument, consisted of 2 parts. The first part included 6 general questions related to some demographic information about the respondents, whereas the second part included 33 questions that were divided into 2 sections according to the study variables. Section 1 was about fraud risk factors prepared based on ISA 240 and SAS 99, whereas section 2 was about the audit program components identified by ISA 300 and ISA 330 and related literature.

3.1. Data Collection and Statistical Techniques

The study population consisted of local and international auditors who practiced auditing as a profession in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq. The questionnaire was distributed across a random sample of 80 auditors. However, only 54 of these were subjected to statistical analysis because of the lack of returned questionnaires or because of the return of incomplete questionnaires. Therefore, the response rate was 67.5%.

Data collection was done through several successive stages. First, a five-point Likert scale was used in the study to measure the extent of the respondents' agreement with each parameter in the questionnaire because it is one of the most common metrics used to measure opinions and responses. Subsequently, the collected data were transformed into quantifiable numbers and percentages to assist in the data analysis process. Finally, statistical analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 24) software program.

This study implemented a set of statistical techniques and procedures that aided in the analysis of the collected data and in the verification of the stipulated hypotheses. Frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were determined for descriptive statistics, whereas linear regression analysis was employed to test the proposed model and verify the study hypotheses. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha test was used to check the reliability and validity of the study instrument, and the following result was obtained:

Table 1: Reliability of Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	N of Items
.856	33

Table 1 shows that the value of alpha was (85.6%), which indicates homogeneity and high credibility of the parameters used in the study questionnaire.

3.2. Study Model

After reviewing the literature for both fraud risk assessment and planning the audit program, the following model was proposed for this study:

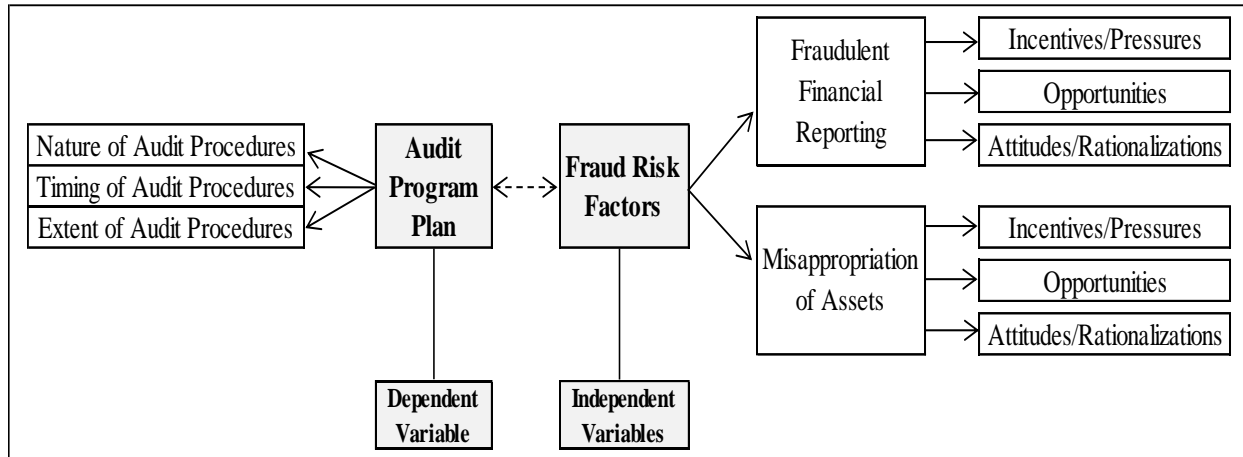


Figure 2. Study model

Moreover, to examine the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable, in accordance with the above proposed study model, the following model was used:

$$\text{AuditPP} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{FIP} + \beta_2 \text{FOP} + \beta_3 \text{FAR} + \beta_4 \text{MIP} + \beta_5 \text{MOP} + \beta_6 \text{MAR} + \epsilon$$

where, AuditPP denotes the audit program plan; FIP are factors related to fraudulent financial reporting resulting from incentives or pressures; FOP are factors related to fraudulent financial reporting resulting from opportunities; FAR are factors related to fraudulent financial reporting resulting from attitudes or rationalizations; MIP are factors related to the misappropriation of assets resulting from incentives or pressures; MOP are factors related to the misappropriation of assets resulting from opportunities; MAR are factors related to the misappropriation of assets resulting from attitudes or rationalizations, and ϵ denotes the random error.

3.3. Study Hypotheses

Based on the proposed study model, the following hypotheses were made to address the study objective:

H1: Fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting and resulting from incentives or pressures affect the audit program plan.

H2: Fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting and resulting from opportunities affect the audit program plan.

H3: Fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting and resulting from attitudes or rationalizations affect the audit program plan.

H4: Fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets and resulting from incentives or pressures affect the audit program plan.

H5: Fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets and resulting from opportunities affect the audit program plan.

H6: Fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets and resulting from attitudes or rationalizations affect the audit program plan.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESES VERIFICATION

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 provides the response frequencies and percentages of the cohort across the demographic variables of the study. Table 2 shows that approximately 48% of the respondents have high university degrees. It

also illustrates that around three-quarters of the respondents are specialized in accounting and about half of them are at junior or assistant levels (with 5 years of experience or less). However, only 38.9% of the respondents have international professional certificates (CPA, CIA, or CMA). Moreover, Table 2 shows, remarkably, that 68.5% of the respondents work either in the Big4 or in international audit firms, which indicates that the foreign audit firms control most of the audit market share in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq.

Table 2: Demographic variables description

Parameter		Frequency	Percentage
Academic qualification	BSc/BA	28	51.9
	Higher Diploma	6	11.1
	MSc/MBA	16	29.6
	PhD	4	7.4
Specialization	Accounting	39	72.2
	Business & Management	6	11.1
	Banking & Finance	9	16.7
Job title	Junior Auditor	9	16.7
	Senior Auditor	22	40.7
	Assistant Audit Manager	8	14.8
	Audit Manager	7	13.0
	Senior Audit Manager	6	11.1
	Partner	2	3.7
Years of experience	<2 years	9	16.7
	2–5 years	25	46.3
	6–10 years	12	22.2
	>10 years	8	14.8
Professional certificates	CPA	8	14.8
	CIA	4	7.4
	CMA	9	16.7
Type of audit firm	Local CPA	33	61.1
	Big 4 Audit Firms	24	44.4
	International Audit Firm	13	24.1
	Regional Audit Firm	5	9.3
	Local Audit Firm/Individual Office	12	22.2
Total		54	100

Table 3 provides the averages and standard deviations of the cohort across the study variables. Table 3 shows that the number of observations for each variable was 54, which reflects that the respondents answered all the questions concerning the study variables. It also illustrates that the average value for AuditPP was 75.62%, indicating that the auditors believe that they have a relatively high response for reconsidering or modifying their audit plans based on the assessed fraud risk.

In addition, Table 3 illustrates that the average values for fraud risk factors related to the misappropriating of assets and fraudulent financial reporting were 84.61% and 75.43%, respectively, which indicate that auditors in the

Kurdistan Region, Iraq, are more interested in assessing fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets compared with those related to fraudulent financial reporting. However, Table 3 shows that the average value of MIP was 87.78%, which indicates that fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets resulting from incentives or pressures are the most used fraud factors among all the factors, whereas the fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting resulting from attitudes or rationalizations are the least used factors with an average value for FAR of only 68.24%. Finally, the standard deviations for all variables were relatively low, which indicates that respondents' answers were consistent and closely matched.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for study variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
AuditPP	54	.63	.96	.7562	.08005
FIP	54	.70	.96	.8083	.06919
FOP	54	.60	.90	.7722	.05109
FAR	54	.60	.82	.6824	.07700
Fraudulent financial reporting	54	.68	.86	.7543	.04805
MIP	54	.70	1.00	.8778	.06344
MOP	54	.70	1.00	.8667	.06443
MAR	54	.72	.96	.7940	.08455
Misappropriation of assets	54	.74	.92	.8461	.03721

4.2. Regression Analysis

Tables 4, 5, and 6 present the results of regression analysis for study model.

Table 4: Model summary^b

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. error of the estimate	Change Statistics				Durbin-Watson	
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2		Sig. F change
1	.827 ^a	.684	.644	.0477663	.684	16.977	6	47	.000	1.671

^aPredictors: (constant), MAR, FAR, FOP, MIP, FIP, MOP; ^bDependent variable: AuditPP

Table 5: Analysis of variance (ANOVA)^a

Model		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.232	6	.039	16.977	.000 ^b
	Residual	.107	47	.002		
	Total	.340	53			

^aDependent variable: AuditPP; ^bPredictors: (constant), MAR, FAR, FOP, MIP, FIP, MOP

Table 6: Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Unstandardized coefficients		95% Confidence interval for B		
		B	Std. error	Beta	T	Sig.	Lower bound	Upper bound
1	(Constant)	-.200	.232		-0.861	.393	-.667	.267
	FIP	.327	.151	.283	2.165	.035	.023	.631
	FOP	.068	.148	.043	0.459	.649	-.230	.366
	FAR	.336	.132	.323	2.552	.014	.071	.600
	MIP	.017	.143	.014	0.121	.904	-.270	.305
	MOP	-.006	.164	-.005	-0.039	.969	-.336	.323
	MAR	.505	.148	.533	3.409	.001	.207	.802

^aDependent variable: AuditPP

Based on the tables above, the following can be inferred: The R2 and adjusted R2 values were 68.4% and 64.4%, respectively, which reflect that the explanatory power for

the independent variables (fraud risk factors) explains about 64% of the change in the dependent variable (audit program plan).

The Durbin-Watson statistic was 1.67, which indicates that there is no serial correlation (autocorrelation) for the dependent variable because it is relatively close to the optimal value 2.

The F-statistic and its significance denote the goodness of fit. In other words, the F-statistic indicates that the model was properly specified to reflect the effect of the fraud risk factors on the audit program plan.

Finally, FIP, FAR, and MAR are the only variables that have a positive and significant effect (at 5% significance level) on AuditPP, whereas the other independent variables (FOP, MIP, and MOP) did not show any significant effect on the dependent variable.

Moreover, to exclude nonsignificant variables that might affect the results negatively, stepwise regression analysis was done. Stepwise regression is a method selection option that allows specifying how independent variables are entered into the analysis. According to this method, stepwise variable entry and removal examines the variables in the block at each step for entry or removal. At each step, the independent variable with the smallest probability of F, which has not yet been entered in the equation, is entered if the probability is sufficiently small. Variables already in the regression equation are removed if their probability of F becomes sufficiently large. The method terminates when no more variables are eligible for inclusion or removal (Al-Khaddash et al., 2013).

Tables 7, 8, and 9 present the results of stepwise regression analysis for this study model.

Table 7: Model summary^d

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. error of the estimate	Change statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	
1	.604 ^a	.365	.353	.0644154	0.365	29.857	1	52	0.000	
2	.806 ^b	.650	.636	.0482706	0.285	41.602	1	51	0.000	
3	.826 ^c	.682	.663	.0464495	0.32	5.077	1	50	0.029	1.691

^aPredictors: (constant), MAR; ^bPredictors: (constant), MAR, FAR; ^cPredictors: (constant), MAR, FAR, FIP; ^dDependent variable: AuditPP

Table 8: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.124	1	.124	29.857	.000 ^b
	Residual	.216	52	.004		
	Total	.340	53			
2	Regression	.221	2	.110	47.385	.000 ^c
	Residual	.119	51	.002		
	Total	.340	53			
3	Regression	.232	3	.077	35.808	.000 ^d
	Residual	.108	50	.002		
	Total	.340	53			

^aDependent variable: AuditPP; ^bPredictors: (constant), MAR; ^cPredictors: (constant), MAR, FAR; ^dPredictors: (constant), MAR, FAR, FIP.

Table 9: Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Unstandardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95% Confidence interval for B	
		B	Std. error	Beta			Lower bound	Upper bound
1	(Constant)	.302	.084		3.616	.001	.134	.470
	MAR	.572	.105	.604	5.464	.000	.362	.782
2	(Constant)	-.051	.083		-0.612	.543	-.218	.116
	MAR	.538	.079	.568	6.845	.000	.380	.696
3	FAR	.557	.086	.535	6.450	.000	.383	.730
	(Constant)	-.155	.092		-1.676	.100	-.340	.031
	MAR	.530	.076	.560	7.006	.000	.378	.682
	FAR	.343	.126	.330	2.715	.009	.089	.596
	FIP	.317	.141	.274	2.253	.029	.034	.599

^aDependent variable: AuditPP

Based on the tables above, the following can be inferred:

The analysis produced 3 models as follows:

$$\text{AuditPP} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{MAR}$$

$$\text{AuditPP} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{MAR} + \beta_2 \text{FAR}$$

$$\text{AuditPP} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{MAR} + \beta_2 \text{FAR} + \beta_3 \text{FIP}$$

These models include the most important fraud risk factors that affect the audit program plan. Other variables were excluded because they were not significant and affected other variables negatively.

Adjusted R² ranged from 35.3% to 66.3%, which reflects that the explanatory power for the independent variables explains a large proportion of the change in the dependent variable.

The F-statistic and its significance denote the goodness of fit for all models (1, 2, and 3). In other words, the F-statistic indicates that the 3 models, in general, are properly specified to reflect the effect of fraud risk factors on the audit program plan.

Finally, MAR, FAR, and FIP are the only variables that have a positive and significant effect (at 5% significance level) on AuditPP, whereas the other independent variables (FOP, MIP, and MOP) were excluded from the model because of their insignificant effect on AuditPP.

4.3. Hypotheses Testing Results

Based on the discussion presented above, the result of testing the study hypotheses can be summarized as shown in table 10:

Table 10: Result of Hypotheses Testing		
No.	Hypothesis	Result
H1 _(FIP)	Fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting and resulting from incentives or pressures affect the audit program plan.	Accept
H2 _(FOP)	Fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting and resulting from opportunities affect the audit program plan.	Reject
H3 _(FAR)	Fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting and resulting from attitudes or rationalizations affect the audit program plan.	Accept
H4 _(MIP)	Fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets and resulting from incentives or pressures affect the audit program plan.	Reject
H5 _(MOP)	Fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets and resulting from opportunities affect the audit program plan.	Reject
H6 _(MAR)	Fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets and resulting from attitudes or rationalizations affect the audit program plan.	Accept

5. CONCLUDING COMMENTS

In this study, the author sought to contribute to the extant research on fraud risk assessments by auditors and planning of audit programs in eastern developing countries such as in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq. More specifically, the author examined the extent of auditors' reliance on fraud risk factors, listed by ISA 240 and SAS 99, during the audit risk assessment stage as well as if the auditors modified or reconsidered the nature, extent, and timing of their planned audit procedures based on the assessed fraud risk factors.

The study results suggest that the auditors' reliance on fraud risk factors to assess material misstatements owing to fraud is relatively high. This result is in line with that of Alssabagh and Dahdoh's study, which was performed in Syria in 2016, with regard to fraud risk factors related to misappropriation of assets; however, the results related to fraudulent financial reporting differ. In general, auditors are more interested in assessing fraud risk factors related to the misappropriation of assets compared with those related to fraudulent financial reporting. Accordingly, the weighted average score for factors related to the misappropriation of assets was 4.23 out of 5 (about 85%) compared with 3.77 out of 5 (about 75%) for factors related to fraudulent financial reporting. In particular, the weighted average score for using fraud risk factors ranged from 3.41 to 4.39 out of 5 (from 68.24% to 87.78%), with factors related to the misappropriation of assets resulting from incentives or pressures at the top of list and factors related to fraudulent financial reporting resulting from attitudes or rationalizations at the bottom.

These results suggest that auditors also have a relatively high response rate regarding modifying or reconsidering their planned audit procedures based on the assessed material misstatements owing to fraud. This result corresponds with those of several studies (Bedard and Graham, 2002; Graham and Bedard, 2003; Mock and Turner, 2005; Okoye et al., 2009). Furthermore, the study findings confirmed the existence of a significant positive effect when using each of the fraud risk factors related to fraudulent financial reporting that resulted from incentives or pressures and attitudes or rationalization, and factors related to the misappropriation of assets that resulted from attitudes or rationalization on the nature, extent, and timing of the planned auditing procedures,

whereas the other risk factors in the study model did not show a significant effect on the audit program plan.

The main limitation of this study was the limited access to respondents. More specifically, the majority of respondents (about 57%) were mainly at a junior or assistant level (with 5 years of experience or less), whereas respondents occupying roles at the principal levels (assistant managers and above), who are mainly responsible for audit risk assessment, were in the minority (about 43%). Therefore, the study findings might be biased by the point of view of the majority. However, the standard deviations for all the respondents were relatively low, which indicates that the respondents' answers, at all levels, were consistent and closely matched.

Finally, the study recommends that licensed auditors in the Kurdistan Region, Iraq pay more attention to assessing fraud risk factors related to opportunities and to modify or reconsider their audit program plans accordingly. Furthermore, this study can be used as a basis for future studies in which

factors – other than the fraud risks – that drive auditors to modify their audit program plans are explored, leading to an improvement in the efficiency and effectiveness of the audit planning process.

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The Need for Entrepreneurial Universities in the Kurdistan Region

Sir,

Universities operate in an ever-changing environment, which is both continuous and rapid. This has increased the levels of uncertainty and, consequently, universities are facing difficult times, especially with regards to the evolution of their responsibilities to meet the needs and expectations of the stakeholders according to the altered business model under which they now must operate. Furthermore, they are expected, perhaps demanded, not only to behave in an entrepreneurial manner but also to put this behavior on display for both the immediate stakeholders and the wider community. What makes this even more complicated is the fact that a consensus on a single definition for entrepreneurship has yet to be reached. Therefore, it can be logically argued that entrepreneurial endeavors are “not an absolute but a continuum” set of behaviors ranging from the Schumpeterian waves of “creative destruction” to the Kirznerian market adjustment.

Formerly, entrepreneurship in universities mostly comprised joint ventures with businesses, commercialization of inventions, and the establishment of incubators. Currently, there is also an internal focus on encouraging and enabling staff and students to be more entrepreneurial. In addition, there is an increasing need for senior staff to exhibit entrepreneurial skills, both in strategy formulation and implementation.

Entrepreneurial universities are business-oriented and innovative universities that develop entrepreneurial opportunities in a way that helps to create value. They pay a great deal of attention to innovations and obtaining and

integrating knowledge and also on sharing it with their wider community. They continuously search for new sources of funding and engage in various entrepreneurial activities, allowing them to build their independence and to also have a positive impact on the regional economy.

What benefits can the universities in the Kurdistan Region gain from being entrepreneurial universities?

The main advantage of adopting an entrepreneurial university model for the universities in the Kurdistan Region will be to help them with the “funding issues” they are currently facing. This model offers the opportunity to find various sources of funding to fund part of their expenditures. This will contribute to an improvement in their performance, especially because the financial allocations from the government are not adequate to cover any additional expenses related to performance-improvement activities. Moreover, the performance of the universities in the Kurdistan Region is affected by the unstable political and economic situation of this region. This instability may cause their performance to be, somewhat, unpredictable. Finding other sources of funding may help them to cope with these issues.

Being an entrepreneurial university can be a reason for enjoying more academic freedom and using the resources in a more efficient, effective, and innovative way, as well as in the generation of new knowledge. Universities in the Kurdistan Region attempt to produce new knowledge through innovative and high-quality research. The latter certainly requires more financial recourses, which are not available in abundance at the moment.

Undoubtedly, having entrepreneurial universities in the Kurdistan Region can contribute substantially to the development of the Kurdish economy and society. This positive impact of the universities can be delivered through several activities and modes, such as establishing new ventures, spin-offs and subsidiaries, supporting and

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developing innovation and a high level of growth of small and medium-sized enterprises, helping businesses to improve their performance, producing entrepreneurs, business people, and high-quality graduates who can contribute to transforming their societies, and employing a considerable number of individuals because of their continuous growth. In addition, engaging fully and working hand-in-hand with the public and the local community by owning and supporting social enterprises, undertaking research that contributes to minimizing the negative impact on the environment, and adding value to society.

Finally, acting according to the principles of entrepreneurial universities may aid in their response to the globalized challenges and allow them to compete with highly prestigious international universities. Recognizing the modes and frameworks related to entrepreneurialism has become easier in the era of the globalization through the internet and advanced information technology. The above can assist the universities in the Kurdistan Region to become prestigious learning institutions.

Alvin Aldawod*

Department of Business Administration, College of Administration and Economics, University of Duhok, Erbil, Kurdistan Region- F.R. Iraq

***Corresponding author's email:** alvin.dawod@uod.ac

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The Significance of Literary Texts in the Pedagogy of English Language in EFL and ESL Classrooms

Bahra T. Rashid*, Mariwan N. Hasan

English Department, College of Basic Education, University of Sulaimani, Sulaymaniyah, Kurdistan Region- F. R. Iraq.

*Corresponding author's email: bahra.rashid@univsul.edu.iq

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ABSTRACT

Currently, one of the major concerns of teachers is about the study material they intend to present to the students. One of the biggest challenges of English classes is literature. The benefits of using literary texts in English language classes outweigh their shortcomings and have been highlighted by some literary critics, such as Chnara Khdir and Mariwan Hasan who elaborated on this truth in their paper titled, "The Importance of Literary Texts in Teaching Language in EFL Classes: The Waste Land as an Example." We strongly agree with this and believe that one can easily learn a language by studying its literature. To learn the English language, one needs to study reading, writing, listening, and speaking, the 4 essential skills, which can be learnt by studying literature. Although alternative study materials are sufficient to develop these skills, literary texts are an established source for these. Moreover, information about a culture is inferred via learning a language and a greater understanding of the society is achieved. This is a characteristic of language that requires materials associated with culture. Culture is a basis for literature ; this does not merely imply that literature deals with culture, but that literature is about the culture of any specific user of that language. Furthermore, one can say the use of literary texts in language classes inspires more attentive and determined language learning. Thus, the students are not merely exposed to the actual usage of the language, but they also become critical scholars. As such, this study argues why we should focus on the use of literary texts for teaching the English language.

Keywords: Literary Texts, English language, Culture, Society, Language skills.

1. INTRODUCTION

Teachers always look for different and cutting-edge approaches in the pedagogy of English as a second language (ESL) . They first choose a literary text to teach English in ESL or English as a foreign language (EFL) classes. The majority of language teachers aim to provide their students with inspiring materials that will encourage them to speak up,

seek out responses to queries, voice their inquiries, and increase general reading profoundly. A critical objective of instruction is to equip learners with materials that will enhance their prospects and allow them to contribute to their society instead of being a burden on the society and others. English language instructors are completely mindful of this objective. Accordingly, they endeavor to create such an environment for the learners of the English language by selecting materials that will encourage the students to improve their social standing. A priceless contribution to this study is provided by Keshavarzi (2012). Currently, the number of students streaming into classrooms in English-speaking countries is increasing fast. Studies by Eddy, Derwing, De Corby, Ichikawa, Jamieson, Gunderson, and Watt and Roessingh state that

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instructive foundation teachers ought to do their best to grab the opportunity offered by this rapid increase in the number of students streaming into classrooms in English-speaking countries around the world. This emphasis on utilizing this opportunity requires more consideration from the instructors' side with regard to their material selection. They need to choose materials that will retain the learners and develop them into contributing individuals of various social orders. It is from this perspective that literature affords itself to leading these educators on their own right path. However, it is frequently observed that literature has some extraordinary elements that make it unfit to be a source of material for English courses.

Claudia Ferradas (2009), alongside different proponents, asserted that literature has minimal commonsense application, is frequently and firmly associated with a particular social setting, and can be eccentric and even subversive. However, different researchers have discovered the "common sense of literature," practically speaking. The best example of this is the development of "BritLit" in Spain. This English literature venture was initiated in Catalonia, Spain. It is associated with the Catalan Teachers of English Association. "BritLit" has officially earned itself fame in classrooms and among educators from various nations, inside and outside Europe. It has helped instructors from around the world endeavor to use English writing in the ELT classroom as a dialect device (Denham and Figueras 9). BritLit is not by any means the only project that uses writing in English classrooms.

There are a number of online projects that provide English educators and students with literary messages and energize them to teach and learn English through literature. The fact of the matter is that dialect instructors are viewed as bearers of social messages, and the comprehension of a dialect requires an understanding of the way of life. At the end of the day, enthusiasm about certain key social ideas is required for a genuine

comprehension of the dialect being learnt (Keshavarzi, 2012).

From the middle of the 20th century, a lot of consideration has been given to language and material selection for teaching English as a second language (TESL). The studies of Chamot and O'Malley (1994), Christie (1992), Cranda iii (1987), Early et al. (1986), Early and Hooper (2001), Mohan (1986), Short (1994), and Davison and Williams (2001) have all focused on the lexical, syntactic, type, and information structures of the various speech methodologies of language adoption; however, the concept of learning basic writing skills to enhance the students' understanding of the topic, cannot be disregarded. Literature is, by all accounts, the endless wellspring of information of basic writing to assist the students in learning English.

2. DISCUSSION

Using literature as part of ESL and EFL teaching enhances specific language skills. Literature is valuable for dialect advancement. It provides a good example of exact style, assorted sentence designs, and energetic accounts (Ghosn, 2002). Because literature is based on real-life scenarios, it applies appropriate language. The language used in literature is the language of its audience, and therefore, it cannot be used incorrectly. In addition, because literature is composed from different perspectives and circumstances, it is rich in sentence variation. In reality, each individual speaks and writes in unique ways, and therefore, literature contains different examples of the use of language. Furthermore, energy has its own esteem in writing.

When reading literary writings, the reader is captivated by exciting content. Engagement is by and large considered a key part of the learning environment, particularly the learning of the English language. This engagement is achieved particularly through abstract works in which obstacles are overcome. Struggle is not present in just some writings; it exists in every abstract work, even in a short lyric, and can be experienced by the reader when they understand what the artist implies. Contention,

determination, and correspondence are the best scenarios to use to generate an engaging learning environment. Kolonder and Guzdiel (1990) and Schank (1990) believe that human information is generally made up of a record of stories, individual accounts, and first- and second-hand encounters that we draw from and reuse as needed in certain situations. In that capacity, the central role that literature plays in advancing English for learners is clear. It conveys information to the learners and subsequently provides them second-hand critical thinking encounters. Studying literary texts enhances the knowledge of ESL students about the society and culture, which is difficult to capture in any other type of writing.

Language is related to culture. Language is the bearer of social messages. Accordingly, literature is exceptionally important when used in teaching a language. Literature inseparable from culture. For example, literary texts frequently portray the point of view of the primary character who is encountering the agonies of growing up. This is what sets reading literary writings apart from logical articles, which are the frequently used literature texts in ESL readings. Certainly, "the English curriculum is a place for enjoying and reflecting on . . . cultural resources, debating their values, and imagining and designing . . . futures" (Goodwy 12).

Thus literature is a great source of information that can help contextualize language exercises. A decent story book not only informs ESL students about the circumstances and the developments in specific situations, it also places the readers in the given situation and helps gain direct knowledge of the English culture and society. English instructors ought to familiarize themselves with language use to enhance their own particular ability and to comprehend the dialect as a social wonder, and not just as a restrictive branch of learning. It is literature that makes us colleagues in English instruction. When the educators realize this, they can change the classrooms to reach the phase in which there is a genuine routine of informative language. At the end of the day, educators ought to consider dialect as

involving social worthiness; that is, they ought to look at the English language classroom as an environment which conveys the similarities with the outside dialect. In addition, non-native students should be presented with different artistic messages with the specific end goal of enhancing their capacity to consider another's way of life in their worldwide engagement. In this manner, the non-native learners' educational modules ought to incorporate instruction of abstract literary writings or writings to encourage such universal correspondence for the learners. Literary writings investigate the lives of English speaking individuals and their emotions toward some social adages.

By incorporating religion, superstition, and folktales in literary writings, which in essence is culture, learners are exposed to the concealed features of the English speaking society. By sharing their own opinions, learners can experience how different individuals approach and react to the same scholarly work. In the study of various literary writings, students can determine the social, chronicled settings of a scenario and become more comfortable with the culture. The art in literary writings engages and opens the eyes of the students when they observe how other individuals think, decipher, and investigate a number of topics, especially those that are of interest to the ESL students.

The emphasis on internal discourse when learning a new language highlights the importance of literature in the mastering the language. Internal discourse is, in reality, disguised social discourse; it is "the most intense instrument of thought intervention." According to this hypothesis, it is believed that "youngsters first take part in and afterward disguise the verbal practices of the group" (de Guerrero xii). Literature is the appropriate setting for English language learners to create internal discourse. Literature provides them with a source to disguise the different verbal practices of the group, thereby empowering the learner to "think words" and to be occupied with mental practice and inner conversation. Accordingly, writing empowers more astute and

deliberate dialect learning. It exposes the learners to the appropriate use of the language. Writing significantly helps to change the experience in the classroom from an instructor-focused English classroom to a student-centered classroom in which the learners work in groups. In fact, literature empowers students to work more effectively in groups, which is the learning objective for numerous instruction projects McGee (1996) believes that sharing in discussions about writing provides the students with bits of information and an understanding that they cannot master a language on their own. During group work, students need to share their observations and support and organize their ideas, which encourages critical thinking and basic conversation.

With literary texts, a better understanding is brought about by compelling students to read and interpret the text. Literature encourages students to read more frequently and also more profoundly. By keeping the end goal in mind, which is to comprehend the reading material in front of them, they are forced to read it over and over again and to contemplate on every section to discover the interrelation between the parts. Literature helps to connect phonetic ability with language utilization in various social circumstances. Literary writings, particularly short stories, provide educators and learners of the English language with a great deal of prereading and postreading exercises, which invigorate the learners' creative energy and encourage innovation. Interestingly, these exercises have a long-lasting effect on the learners, and they recall the stories and their anticipated outcomes .

The use of literature in English classroom makes the learners focus on the important aspects (Mourao 2009). Thus, the use of language becomes its own method for mastering it. It is not only a method used for practice. This shift is used and controlled by the learners as a means to comprehend the writings by drawing from their own information and experience, which is referred to as filling "the information gap" (170) by Mourao (2009). Mourao further notes that by using literature, the focus is "on process instead of item," on "arrangement as opposed to

pre-assurance", and that the educator "goes about as facilitator" and not simply as teacher (17). The critical point is that literature furnishes learners with writings, which are above their level of creation and understanding.

This part of literature is based on Krashen's obtaining-based procedure, that is, an information driven hypothesis. In fact, literature helps students enhance their reading appreciation of English. Literature offers students, and additionally instructors, the opportunity to ask different types of questions based on the subject of the writing. Through these inquiries, students are enabled to increase their speaking and writing skills. Literary writings empower educators to use distinctive types of inquiries to assess the students' comprehension, for example, their fulfillment, if the comprehension is genuine or false, and the coordination and discourse framework from which they work. Literature enhances the learners' system skills; they listen and read for general importance, anticipate, and determine the significance of new words. Because they need to verbalize their own thoughts when talking about the content of the topic, they enhance their deduction aptitudes. Similarly, their successive engagements with words strengthen their inclination to determine the importance of the words based on the settings in which they are found. Retaining words from a lexicon is a purposeless and debilitating employment. It brings about disappointment and tedium.

Literature gives us the opportunity to learn how to use words in various settings. Literary texts help students to look past the superficial significance and investigate the hidden meanings; that is, they empower students to go past what is composed and plunge into what is implied. The topic or setting is an essential component of the time spent in learning a language. If the topic is boring and stale, it will not rouse and energize learners. Literature provides the topics to propel learners and help them determine the potential meanings of unknown words, thereby upgrading their language skill immensely. Because literary writings employ the creative use of language to various degrees, the learner is encouraged

through the reading of literature to learn the language in real-life scenarios and circumstances with the goal of conversing smoothly. Mechanical, customary language instruction diminishes the learners' abilities to those of imitative and unmotivated speakers and authors.

Literature summons emotions through words, hauls learners out of the evaluated linguistic structures, and helps them impart in a way that draws in the learning of the language. Once the student reads literary content, he starts to occupy the content. He jumps into the content. Understanding the implications of lexicon or expressions becomes critical; however, seeking to know how the story progresses is even more important. The student is more concerned about discovering what happens as the story unfolds in the end, because he feels a connection to specific characters and shares their passionate reactions. This can have a useful impact on the entire language learning process. It is in this context that the determination of the meaning of abstract content with regard to necessities, desires, interests, and dialect level of the students becomes important.

In this process, the student can extract the emerging personality and form it into a real person. Literature creates subjects and scenarios that are intrinsically intriguing, because they are pieces of human experience treated in such a way to draw in the reader's attention. All things considered, literature is becoming a source of motivation for English students.

A fundamental component of the learning process is the advancement of the intelligent thinking of the learner. An intelligent process or consideration is viewed as a basic part of transformative learning for students (Kember et al., 1999; Mezirow, 1991).

Literary writings have the ability to create scenarios that compel the English language students to apply intelligent speculation to determine why the things are the way they see them, why things are unique in relation to their desires, or why they are not the same as the others they experience in writing. Along these lines, learners ponder

their own particular encounters and contrast how their encounters are comparable with or not the same as their desires.

Obviously, amid this inner reflection process, they connect with the inner self, and this passionate engagement helps them significantly to see the circumstance in a better light. This enhanced discernment is of great importance in acquiring the language. They learn the language as they are locked in with different parts of learning. One might say that they acquire the English language in much the same way as children acquire their native language. When a child acquires its native language, it is not their aim to keep the language for themselves. Language is used to communicate with his seniors, fulfill his requests, draw in others, and communicate with people that surround him. Literature creates the very same environment for the English learner.

The principle focus of the learner is on the best way to engage with the circumstance he experiences, and through this connection, the insight into the English language is enhanced.

3. CONCLUSION

A significant part of the material that is used as part of English educational modules needs passion, literary fervor, and fun. Scholarly writings are significant, true, and applicable to learners' lives. They yield the most powerful opportunities for engagement, and reflection, and subsequently learning is awakened in the students. Writing is mentally empowering in light of the fact that it permits the reader to envision worlds that they are not acquainted with. This is done using understandable language construction. Keeping in mind that the end goal is to comprehend, the reader will make their own conclusion of what the author is describing. In this sense, the reader turns into an entertainer or a performing artist on an open stage as he reads.

Literature construct programs focus on the individual's interpretation of the language in order for students to try different experiments with the language and consolidate this into their regular conversation and vocabulary.

Accordingly, literature helps them acquire language as a means of communication. The language that is acquired through literature-focused learning enables learners to use language in the same way that native speakers would use it. Instructors of language ought to attempt to understand that the significance and adequacy of learning a language lies in its unconstrained and noteworthy use by the learners. As Obediat (1997) states, literary writings help learners get a native-like ability in English, express their thoughts in good English, take in the components of present day English, figure out how the English semantic framework is used for correspondence, speak plainly, decisively, and succinctly, turn out to be more capable in English, and get to be inventive, basic, and investigative learners.

English students that focus on literary writings are reading an adaptation of the language, which is rich in allegory, simile, mention, and vagueness; these are the components that will extend their reasoning and comprehension of the material they are reading and, additionally, of the English language. When English is instructed through writing, it enhances the self-confidence of students and, consequently, has impact on their practices, inspirations, and states of mind about learning the English language. Without doubt, learners' self-conviction mental premise also enhances the their understanding of the practices, inspirations, emotional responses, and future objectives. Based on this, it is recommend that English is taught through literary texts to enhance the self-confidence of students.

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The European Court of Human Rights' Approach in the Protection of Rights of Religious Minority Groups

Chemen Bajalan^{1*}

¹The Public Prosecutor, Ministry of Justice, Sualiamaniah, Kurdistan Region- F. R. Iraq

*Corresponding author's email: chemen.bajalan@hotmail.com

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ABSTRACT

The European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) is reluctant to distinguish the group right qua group. However, it is impossible to ignore the group dimension in the right to freedom of religion. Such a dimension is clearer in the manifestation of beliefs, which require more common practices than mere beliefs. The Court's decisions when dealing with the freedom of religion tend to be inconsistent because it considers the unique social and political situation of each member state. This limits the scope of the right to freedom of religion and the range of protection of a group's religious rights. Using a literature review and analyzing the case law, this paper highlights the inconsistencies in the Court's decisions in relation to acknowledging minorities' religious rights.

Keywords: ECHR (European Convention on Human Rights), ECtHR (European Court of Human Rights), Minorities, Religion, Manifestation of Beliefs, Minorities' identity, Minorities' Children's Education

1. INTRODUCTION

The main question that this paper addresses is the extent to which the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) has protected the rights of religious minorities. Hence, it analyzes the Court's interpretation of some related articles in the European Convention of Human Rights (ECHR) and the influence thereof in its decisions. Bearing in mind that in many countries, minorities are among the most marginalized groups, the issue of religious minority groups' struggles remains a significant area of focus in human rights. Freedom of religion and beliefs is a fundamental right,

which is enshrined not only in the ECHR but also in a wide range of national and international laws. The Court's global importance as a standard setter in protecting human rights is significant. The Court's power of enforcement makes the protection of human rights, including religious minorities' rights, under the Convention vital, not only for Europe and its 47 member states but also for setting international standards.

There are discussions around group rights and differentiating them from group human rights. This paper is concerned with group human rights. It is clear that, "Groups may have some sort of rights, but whatever those rights might be, they cannot be human rights. Human rights must be rights borne by human individuals" (Jones, 1999).

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There is no specific provision for minority rights in the ECHR (European Convention on Human Rights, 1950) and its Protocols. Apart from Article 14,¹ which prohibits discrimination against enjoying the Convention's rights "... on any ground such as ... associated with a national minority," the Convention is silent on the treatment of minorities. Despite the lack of specific provisions, the right to equal treatment and nondiscrimination reflects some of the minorities' concerns. In addition, the Court offers some protection to religious minorities by means of other provisions such as Articles 9² and 2 of Protocol 1.³

Despite the focus of the Convention on an individual as opposed to a group, ECtHR and the former Commission⁴ have often dealt with very complex issues of religious minorities and religious conflicts. Because it is almost impossible to separate individual cases from their historical and political background, (Medda-Windischer, 2003) the Court has started accepting complaints by legal, as opposed to natural, individuals, which include more group dimensions.

Minority groups, including religious minority groups, qua group, are not within the purview of the Convention. The right to enjoy religious freedom has been acknowledged specifically in favor of individual members of a group. However, an individual's right to freedom of religion according to Article 9 includes the right to manifest his/her religion and it allows a minority group the necessary degree of control over the community's religious matters. However, the Court's interpretation of the state's limitations in manifesting religions or beliefs

reduces the benefits of manifesting these as a means of protecting religious minorities.

Although the Convention's approach to the rights of religious minorities follows an individual approach, it is impossible to ignore the group dimension in some areas of the freedom of religion and beliefs. Cases concerning the recognition of some minority groups, state action in dealing with a conflict between these groups, the institutional lives of religious groups, their educational rights, and the limitations of the right to manifest religious beliefs are some areas which clearly deal with and affect religious minorities as a group.

The fundamental basis of liberal political thinking is an individual's rights. Its aim is to protect and guarantee individual rights that are free from the pressure of the majority. "Within liberalism individuals and not groups are considered to be the basic moral units of society and sole bearers of rights and obligations" (Singh, 2002). This notion of individual rights is manifested in the Convention. However, although no specific provisions for the protection of minorities exist in the Convention and its Protocols, the Strasbourg Organs have reviewed a number of cases concerning religious minorities' rights in ways which lead to further protection of minority groups. It is obvious that the Court's judgments in individual cases serve not only to decide the cases brought before it, but they also lead to more general safeguards of the rights set by the Convention. The Strasbourg Organs' case-by-case decisions have resulted in raising the standards of

¹ Article 14 states, "The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Convention shall be secured without discrimination on any grounds as sex, race, colour, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, associated with a national minority, property, birth or other status."

² Article 9 states, "1. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief, in worship, teaching, practice and observation.' 2. Freedom to manifest one's religion or beliefs shall be subject to only to such limitation as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of public safety, for the protection of public order, health or

morals, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others."

³ Article 2, Protocol 1 states, "No person shall be denied the right to education. In the exercise of any functions which it assumes in relation to education and to teaching, the State shall respect the right of parents to ensure such education and teaching in conformity with their own religious and philosophical convictions."

⁴ The Court (hereinafter referred to as the Court") was set up in 1959 to deal with the alleged violations of the Convention. On 1 November 1998, a full time Court was established, replacing the two institutions, the part time Court and the European Commission of Human Rights (hereinafter "the Commission").

protecting human rights in public policy throughout the Convention's states (Moravcsik, 2000).

What follows is an assessment of the nature and extent of the protection of religious minorities' rights under the Convention through an evaluation of selected case laws. First, we examine what constitutes a minority, religion, or beliefs that need to be considered for protection within the scope of Article 9 and, accordingly, within the scope of the Convention. Second, we also discuss the internal and external aspects of religious freedom along with the limitations of religious manifestation in Articles 9 and 2.

Article 2 of Protocol 1 addresses the right to education, but it is related to the protection of minorities' rights through its consideration of the parents' beliefs. However, as a review of the law cases shows, the Strasbourg Organs are restrictive in their interpretation of the provisions. Further on, this paper also examines the manifestations of religion or beliefs, which bring beliefs from the private individual sphere to the community sphere which might possibly lead to some conflicts. There are different types of reactions by the state and these have different levels of limitations in the right to manifest religion or beliefs. The Court and Convention play a restrictive role in evaluating such limitations and case-by-case decisions are taken with wide consideration for each state party's special situation or the amount of appreciation.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: section 2 provides the definitions for minorities, religions, and beliefs; section 3 discusses the internal and external aspects of religious freedom, thus adding to the limitations of religious manifestation in Article 9 and 2 of the Convention; section 4 discusses the recognition of religious minority groups in the context of ECHR and its Protocols; section 5 discusses the minority religious institutions and their autonomy in the light of ECtHR's decisions; the manifestation of religious beliefs by religious minorities in the context of ECtHR's view is discussed in section 6 while section 7 discusses the limitations in the manifestation of religious beliefs by religious minorities; section 8 discusses the application of the Margin of Appreciation for religious minorities; and section 9 gives the conclusion.

2. DEFINITIONS OF MINORITIES, RELIGIONS, AND BELIEFS

Adopted by consensus in 1992, the United Nations (UN) Minorities Declaration in its Article 1 refers to minorities as based on national or ethnic, cultural, religious, and linguistic identities and provides that states should protect their existence. There is no internationally agreed on definition as to which groups constitute minorities. It is often stressed that the existence of a minority group is a fact and that any definition must include both objective factors (such as the existence of a shared ethnicity, language, or religion) and subjective factors (including that individuals must identify themselves as members of a minority) (General Comment No. 22, 1993).

This paper uses the definition of religion given by the "historian of religion," Martin Riesebrodt, who tries to find one definition that includes both Abrahamic and Asian religions:

"Religion is complex of practices that are based on the premise of the existence of superhuman powers, whether personal or impersonal, that are generally invisible. The 'super humanness' of these powers consists in the fact that influence or control over dimensions of individual or social human life and the natural environment is attributed to them—dimensions that are usually beyond direct human control. Religious practices normally consist in using culturally prescribed means to establish contact with these powers or to gain access to them. What contact or access means depends on the religious imagination and on the social and cultural forms of accessibility" (Riesebrodt 2010) (Abdullah, 2018).

The Universal Declaration on Human Rights' Article 18, the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) 1966 in Article 18(1), and the UN declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion and Belief of 1981 in its Article are international treaties that recognize the freedom of religion or beliefs. Similar to ECHR, none of these treaties provide definitions for religion and beliefs.

The Human Rights Committee (HRC), in a general comment on ICCPR's Article 18 stated that, "Article 18 protects theistic, non-theistic and atheistic beliefs, as well as the right not to profess any religion or belief. The terms 'belief' and 'religion' are to be broadly construed. Article 18 is not limited in its application to traditional religions or to religions and beliefs with institutional characteristics

or practices analogous to those of traditional religions. The Committee therefore views with concern any tendency to discriminate against any religion or belief for any reason, including the fact that they are newly established, or represent religious minorities that may be the subject of hostility on the part of a predominant religious community” (Equal rights trust, 1993).

According to the Convention, when it comes to what constitutes religion as a right, the Commission does not place much emphasis on its definition. Both the Commission and the Court have adopted “a broad approach to the recognition of religions” (Ovey and White, 2006). However, the Commission acknowledges that “the belief had to attain a certain level of cogency, seriousness, cohesion, and importance” (Campbell and Cossans, 1982). Developing principles that provide a definition for beliefs that warrant protection under Article 9 are one of the areas that the Court needs to address in its jurisprudence (Gilbert, 2006). In such cases, the Court details the conditions of applying religious rights under the Convention.

In the case of X versus Germany, (X v. Germany, 1918) the Commission considered that the applicant’s desire to be cremated and have his ashes spread over his land was a desire with a “strong personal motivation” and it did not express some “coherent view on fundamental problems.” Accordingly, the Commission concluded that the applicant’s wish was not protected under Article 9. This approach reminds one of the cases of a member of the Wicca religion in which the applicant protested at the failure of the prison authorities to register his name in the prison records. The Commission noted that “the applicant had not mentioned any facts making it possible to establish the existence of Wicca religion” (X v. the United Kingdom, 1917).

The issue of considering a particular belief as a “religion or belief” remains controversial, especially in the case of a new religion, which should be included in the scope of the protection given under Article 9, although the state might not want to recognize it. The word “belief” in Article 9 widens the scope of beliefs and makes it possible to include beliefs and not just the traditional concept of religion (Evans, 2001). The jurisprudence of the Court and the Commission gives some directions about what constitutes a “religion or belief” in order for Article 9 to

be applied. The Court and the Commission have a very wide and liberal definition for “religion or belief” (Evans, 2001).

3. INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ASPECTS OF RELIGIOUS FREEDOM

There is a distinction between a religion’s internal and external aspects. The general comment number 22 of the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights on the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion points out this distinction. The comment refers to the unconditional protection of the freedom of thought, conscience, religion, or belief and that no limitation whatsoever is permitted on the freedom to have or adopt a religion or belief of one’s choice (General Comment No. 22, 1993). There is unconditional protection for *forum internum* as stated by the UN General Assembly report of the special rapporteur on freedom of religion or belief (United Nation General Assembly, 2015). The same value of protection of the internal aspects of religious freedom is guaranteed by the Convention “as an essential right of considerable importance.” This protection is not at the same level with regards to the manifestation of religion or beliefs. “It is noteworthy that freedom of conscience and religion does not protect each and every act or form of behaviour motivated or inspired by religion or a belief, in other words, Article 9 of the Convention protects a person’s private sphere of conscience but not necessarily any public conduct inspired by that conscience” (EHCR, 2011).

The external dimension of the freedom of religion, including the freedom to manifest one’s religion or beliefs, is conditional. It is an aspect in which the freedom of religion could cause conflict with other society or state values or laws. Such circumstances are discussed in the Court’s decisions.

In the case of S.A.S. versus France which was about a French national’s complaint that the ban on wearing clothing to conceal one’s face in public places, introduced by law no. 2010-1192 of October 2010, deprived her of the possibility of wearing the full-face veil in public. She alleged that there had been a violation of her right to religion among other rights under the Convention. The

Court found that there was no violation of any of ECHR's provisions. (*S.A.S. v. France*, 2014).

In this case, the Court discussed and examined 5 aspects of the right to religion under the Convention:

- (1) if there had been a "limitation" or an "interference." According to the Court there was an interference and limitation to the right guaranteed by the Convention;
- (2) if the measure was "prescribed" by law. The Court found that the limitation was prescribed in the law of October 11, 2010;
- (3) if there was a legitimate aim. The Court was convinced by the government's submission and it did not doubt that gender equality might rightly justify as an interference;
- (4) if the measure was necessary in a democratic society. On this aspect, the Court made an important statement: "As enshrined in Article 9, freedom of thought, conscience and religion is one of the foundations of a 'democratic society' within the meaning of the Convention. This freedom is, in its religious dimension, one of the most vital elements that go to make up the identity of believers and their conception of life, but it is also a precious asset for atheists, agnostics, sceptics and the unconcerned. The pluralism in dissociable from a democratic society, which has been dearly won over the centuries, depends on it. That freedom entails, inter alia, freedom to hold or not to hold religious beliefs and to practise or not to practise a religion."

As noted earlier, different aspects of the external dimension of the freedom of religion and beliefs have been considered by the Court. In trying to strike a balance between the freedom of manifestation of religion and the justification by the state, the Court found that there had been no violation of the rights guaranteed by the Convention.

4. RECOGNITION OF RELIGIOUS MINORITY GROUPS IN THE CONTEXT OF ECHR AND ITS PROTOCOLS

It is almost impossible to find a homogenous society in which all people accept the same religion or no religion. There is an ongoing debate about whether minority groups, as opposed to the members of these groups, should be accorded religious rights (Wright, 1999). Religious rights are seen as individual rights rather than a group's rights. "The scope of the right to freedom of religion should be defined in terms of an individual's right which would allow for the impetus for social change through individual action as a manifestation of belief" (Gilbert, 2006). Such a perspective is in agreement with the Strasbourg Organs' earlier decision in a claim by a church.

In the case of the alleged breaches of Articles 9 and 2 of Protocol 1 by the church in X versus the United Kingdom, the Commission dismissed the case on the grounds that "a corporation being a legal and not a natural person, is incapable of having or exercising the rights mentioned in Article 9 and Article 2 of the first Protocol" (Church of X, 1968). In this case, the Commission was reluctant to recognize the church as a body, which may have a great role in promoting and protecting a religious group's identity. Such a role for the religious organization is significant "especially in cases where the government has undertaken an explicit campaign to limit the effectiveness of a religious group rather than to restrict the rights of individual members" (Evans, 2001).

Later, in the case of X and the Church of Scientology versus Sweden, (*X and Church of Scientology v. Sweden*, 1979) the Commission revised its decision for refusing to grant any standing to churches. The claim was brought by the minister of the church because the church was a representative of its members. In this case, the Commission overruled its previous decision in the case of X versus the United Kingdom. The Commission's position in recognizing the representative status of the church or any other religious body was an acknowledgment of a reality that the distinction between the church and its members is "artificial" (*X and Church of Scientology v. Sweden*, 1979).

In another case, the Metropolitan Church of Bessarabia and Others versus Moldova, (Metropolitan Church of Bessarabia and Others v. Moldova, 2002) the Court dealt with the issues of recognition. The claim was concerning the Moldovan authorities' refusal to recognize the applicant church (Orthodox Christian). The Court noted that it was impossible for the applicant church to organize itself with no legal recognition. Accordingly, the Court concluded that the recognition of the applicant church was essential for its right to freedom of religion.

In a recent case concerning recognition, the case of Izzettin Dogan and Others versus Turkey, the discrimination was very clearly related to the group more than being related to individual followers of the group. The case was concerned with the legal recognition for purposes of benefiting from public services. The Turkish state provides religious services to the Muslim religion as a public service. The Court addressed the question of whether there was a difference in the treatment of people in a similar situation. The Court observed that the main argument that the government relied on as justification for its differential treatment was based on a theological debate concerning the place of the Alevi faith within the Muslim religion. The Court found that there was a violation of Article 9 in conjunction with Article 14 (Izzettin Dogan et al., 2016).

The representation of the group is one of the most obvious areas that shows the importance of the group, as opposed to the individual dimension of enjoying the freedom of religion. The Commission's position in accepting a religious body as a party in a law case was viewed as a "welcome" change (Evans, 2001). Dismissal of cases on the ground that only natural persons have the right to claim the Convention's rights, allows the Commission to "refuse to deal with cases of widespread government actions against particular religious groups on largely technical grounds" (Evans, 2001),

The developments in acknowledging the protection of the rights of religious minority groups set in the Convention are inevitable and progressive. Religious minority groups' acknowledgment and protection are addressed by the political process of each member state and the "Judges cannot and should not substitute for the political process addressing minority group concerns. But they can and should inform that process with dynamic understanding

of human rights law. Whatever lies ahead in the jurisprudence of the Court, it will open up possibilities for a variety of groups irrespective of definitional hurdles. Claimants' expectations should be reasonable and proportionate to the scope of the Convention. The Court's persuasiveness will hinge on a modicum of methodology – a new interpretive ethos, as it were – as to how to handle relevant claims and what is at stake when it comes to considering them" (Pentassuglia, 2012).

Article 2, Protocol 1 is another means of protecting the minorities' identity through education of children belonging to these groups. The article provides only limited protection to those belonging to religious minorities. According to the Court, the right given by the article merely implies the right to access education and not to be educated in a certain way. The state is not required to "provide for or subsidize any particular form of education" (Craig, 2003). Such a restricted interpretation of the article is reflected in the Court's decision concerning the state's obligations to respect parental convictions within state owned and operated schools.

The Court noted that "persons subject to the jurisdiction of a Contracting State cannot draw from the Convention the right to obtain from the public authorities the creation of a particular kind of educational establishment; nevertheless, a State which had set up such establishment could not, in laying down entrance requirements, take discriminatory measures within the meaning of Article 14" (Belgian linguistic case, 1968). Accordingly, in the context of the protection of religious minorities, an important role is played by the application of Article 14 and the state's actions designed to eliminate existing and continuing forms of discrimination.

A recent case of Hassan and Eylem Zengin versus Turkey (Hassan and Eylem, 2007) involved the applicants' adherence to Alevism, a branch of Islam which has deep roots in the Turkish society. Applicant Eylem was obliged as a pupil in a state school to attend classes in religious culture and ethics. The applicant maintained that the way in which religious culture and ethics were taught in Turkey infringed on her right to freedom of religion and her parents' right to ensure her education's conformity with their religious convictions as guaranteed under Article 2 of Protocol 1 and Article 9 of the Convention.

The applicant alleged that the course was taught from a religious perspective which praised the Sunni interpretation of Islam and that no detailed information about other religions was included in the syllabus.

The Court found that religious culture and ethnic lessons in Turkey were not meeting the criteria of objectivity and pluralism necessary for education in a democratic society and for pupils to develop a critical approach toward religion. In the applicant's case, the lessons did not respect the religious and philosophical convictions of Zengin's father. In addition, there was no choice for the children of parents who had a religious or philosophical belief other than that of Sunni Islam. Accordingly, the Court concluded that there had been a violation of Article 2 of Protocol 1. (Hassan and Eylem, 2007)

In its judgment in the Zengin case, the Court did not go beyond its limited interpretation of the state's obligations under Article 2 of Protocol 1. As it did in its earlier judgments, the Court's emphasis in this judgment was also on "protection against indoctrination rather than on the preservation of minority values" (Craig, 2003). As the judgment acknowledged, "In short, the second sentence of Article 2 aims to safeguard the possibility of pluralism in education, a possibility which is essential for the preservation of the "democratic society" as convinced by the Convention" (Hassan and Eylem, 2007). In other words, "the purpose of the provision is to operate as a check against possible indoctrination" *Kjeldsen v. 1982*).

5. RELIGIOUS MINORITY INSTITUTIONS AND THEIR AUTONOMY IN THE LIGHT OF ECTHR'S DECISIONS

One important aspect of religious freedom is the traditional existence of religion in a community or some sort of organization. This dimension of practice is a right covered by Article 11 of the Convention, which safeguards an associative life against unjustified state interference (Hassan and Chaush, 2000).

It is obvious that it is not enough to let people believe and that their beliefs need to be institutionally established and that the state has to allow for this. The state is obliged to act neutrally, especially in relation to equality and conflicts between 2 branches of the same faith (Gilbert, 2002). The institutional life of a religion is central to minority culture. The state has to allow members of a

religious minority group to establish the required institutions. Permission for establishing institutions brings up possible conflicts between 2 branches of 1 particular faith. The issues of representation and recognition of a group are more problematic in the case of minorities within a minority in which the question of the group's autonomy is raised (Gilbert, 2002).

Decisions taken by a group for its members contribute to the autonomy of the religious group in running its affairs. Autonomy is regarded as "an appropriate vehicle for the enjoyment of human rights by minority groups. Clearly it is a mechanism which relates to the existence of the group, qua group and its shape and content will be variable according to the circumstances of the group" (Wright, 1999). However, it is not just the group's circumstances that determine the shape and the content of its autonomy, it is also the conditions imposed by the state which limit and shape such autonomy.

Decisions by a religious group may contradict those of the state in dealing with the group's affairs. The question of how far the state is allowed to interfere in the internal issues of a religious group has been addressed by the Court. However, the Court is not clear whether the decision taken by the state or the religious group has the highest priority. In the case of *Serif versus Greece* (*Serif v. Greece, 1999*) on the death of the local mufti (Muslim cleric), the applicant who wanted to replace the deceased mufti was an elected mufti. However, the Greek state appointed a new mufti. According to the original law the post was an elected one, but during the process, the President of the Greek Republic altered the law. The mufti elected by the members of the group was convicted for acting as if he was the mufti. The state's decision to convict and fine the elected mufti was considered by the group as a breach of its right to freedom of religion. The Court found it to be a violation of Article 9.

The Court upheld the essential need for autonomy of religious groups and their organizational lives in the case of *Hassan and Chaush versus Bulgaria* (Hassan and Chaush, 2000) The case was concerned with the forced replacement of the leadership of the Muslim community by Bulgarian authorities. The applicant claimed that the state interfered in the autonomy of the group. The Court upheld that "the autonomy of the existence of religious communities... concern not only the organization of the

community as such but also the effective enjoyment of the right to freedom of religion by all its active members. If the organizational life of the community is not protected by Article 9 of the Convention, all other aspects of the individual's freedom of religion would become vulnerable" (Hassan and Chaush, 2000). It is clear from the Court's statement that the group and its organizational aspects are essential for the right to freedom of religion.

The recognition of a religious body as an official representative of a religious group does not prevent the possibility of the existence of other organizations as representative bodies within the same group. The case of the Supreme Holy Council of the Muslim community versus Bulgaria, (*Supreme Holy Council of Muslim Community v. Bulgaria*, 2001) involved the right of another group within the Muslim community to exist and manage its affairs. The applicant organization claimed in substance that it was entitled to remain the only legitimate organization of the Muslim community in Bulgaria and that this right was infringed upon by the recognition of another Muslim leadership. The Court, however, found the right to peaceful organizational life of a religious community free from arbitrary state interference. As is guaranteed by Article 9 of the Convention interpreted in light of Article 11, this did not lead to a right to official recognition of the sole organization of a religious community, nor to the exclusion of others (*Supreme Holy Council of Muslim Community v. Bulgaria*, 2001).

6. MANIFESTATION OF RELIGIOUS BELIEFS FOR RELIGIOUS MINORITIES IN ECtHR's VIEW

The manifestation of religion examines the extent of intolerance and tolerance toward minority groups in a specific society. One of the main sources of intolerance toward minorities is the fear that minority groups are a threat to the "core value in a society" (Vatte, 2014).

It is clear that the right to freedom of religion or beliefs is an important right under the Convention. The right to manifest religious beliefs has both positive and negative aspects. In the *Kokkinakis versus Greece* case, the first conviction issued by the Court concerning a Jehovah's witness who was convicted by Greek courts because of a conversation with a woman in which he allegedly tried to convince her to pursue his beliefs (*Kokkinakis v.*, 1993). The Court stated: "As enshrined in Article 9, freedom of

thought, conscience and religion is one of the foundations of a 'democratic society' within the meaning of the Convention. It is, in its religious dimension, one of the most vital elements which go to make up the identity of believers and their conception of life, but it is also a precious asset to atheists, agnostics, sceptics and the unconcerned. The pluralism is dissociable from a democratic society, which has been dearly won over the centuries, depends on it."

There is agreement that the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion is one of the foundations of a "democratic society." However, an analysis of the wording of Article 9 shows that, "The Article itself suggests that a distinction must be drawn between the general right to freedom of religion or belief and the right to manifest that religion or belief" (Evans, 2001). Manifestation of religion or beliefs extends the right from its private invisible sphere into a more public visible sphere. This raises issues of manifestation of a particular faith within a community and its contradictions with other faiths or with some of society's interests.

According to the Court, this distinction is essential because the states are not allowed to derogate from the freedom to have or to change religion, whereas the right to manifestation may be subject to restrictions under certain circumstances. This seems to be what Arcot Krishnaswami suggested in his study of religious discrimination when he wrote the following: "Freedom to maintain or to change religion or belief falls primarily within the domain of the inner faith and conscience of an individual viewed from this angle, one would assume that any intervention from the outside is not only illegitimate but impossible" (Krishnaswami, 1960).

The second part of Article 9(1) states that everyone has the "freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief, in worship, teaching, practice, and observation." According to Article 9 (1) the believers of a particular religion or belief have the choice to practice their beliefs "alone or in community with others" and "in public or private." The manifestation of beliefs in common with others is essentially important for promoting and protecting religious minorities. It is considered a crucial part of the right to freedom of religion and beliefs.

In a discussion about which practices are considered a manifestation of religion or beliefs, the Commission acknowledges that not all acts are considered as such. In the case of *Arrowsmith versus the United Kingdom* (Arrowsmith, 1985) involving a committed pacifist who was convicted for distributing leaflets to soldiers in which he argued against accepting a tour of duty in Northern Ireland, the Commission “considered that the term ‘practice’ as employed in Article 9.1 does not cover each act which is motivated or influenced by a religion or belief”(Arrowsmith, 1985). Although it is clear from the quote that not every act is a “practice” covered by Article 9, it is not clear which acts of “practice” are covered by the word “practice.”

There is a clear consideration for the practice of religion in a “commune.” For example, the case of *X versus the United Kingdom* (*X v. the United Kingdom*, 1981) involved the refusal of a school to rearrange its time table to give a Muslim teacher a 45-minute extension of the lunch hour on Friday afternoons to allow him to attend prayers at a mosque. The United Kingdom argued that it was sufficient protection of his right to worship that he was given a room in the school in which he could pray in private. The Commission rejected this argument by saying that the right to practice one's religion in community with others, “has always been regarded as an essential part of freedom of religion” and found that the 2 alternatives “either alone or in community with others in Article 9(1) cannot be considered as mutually exclusive, or as leaving the choice to the authorities, but only as recognizing that religion may be practiced in either forms” (*X v. the United Kingdom*, 1981).

In this case, the applicant was not obliged to change his faith and he was free to relinquish his job although the Court in its decision gave valuable consideration to the practice of the applicant's beliefs. However, in other cases, the Commission found that the refusal to work in a specific time even if motivated by religious convictions, cannot as such be considered protected by Article 9(1). In the cases of *Konttinen versus Finland* (Kottinen, 1996), and *Stedman versus the (United Kingdom, Stedman v. United Kingdom, 1960)* the refusal to work during specific hours because of religious beliefs was a reason for losing their jobs. But the Commission found that the applicants' losing their jobs was not because of their beliefs but because of their refusal to work for certain hours.

Determining the scope of the manifestation of religion and beliefs raises the issue of if a particular act is encouraged or permitted by a religion or if it is a requirement of the religion. In the case of *Khan versus the United Kingdom* concerning a Muslim man who married a 14-year-old girl contrary to the wishes of her parents, the man was convicted and sentenced to prison under the British law for abducting the girl. The applicant's complaint that this breached his right to freedom of religion was dismissed by the Commission. The reason for the dismissal was in part that Islam permits marriage at an earlier age than British law (*Khan v.*, 1986). The same reasoning was given in the case of *X versus Austria* (*X v. Austria*, 1981).

However, in other cases the issue of how far an act or a practice is required by religion and not encouraged or permitted by law were neither considered nor discusses. The case concerning the wearing of Islamic headscarves is one of the practices that brings up the question of manifesting a religion or a belief and if such an act is required by religion. In the case of *Karadoman versus Turkey*, (*Karadoman v.*, 1993) the applicant refused to supply a photograph of her bare head for the university as required. Therefore, the university refused to provide her with a degree certificate. This refusal was an alleged violation of the applicant's right to freedom of religion because covering her head with an Islamic headscarf was a practice prescribed by her religion. The Commission decided that there was no interference with the applicant's right to manifest her religion without finding out whether covering one's head is a requirement for Muslim women.

Finding out whether there is an infringement of a protected right to freedom of religion or beliefs is vital for the protection of the minorities' religions. The recognition of the act is important in considering Article 14. In *Choudhury versus the United Kingdom*, (*Choudhury*, 1991) in a case involving blasphemy of Muslims, the applicant sought to bring criminal charges against the author and publisher of the novel “*The Satanic Verses*” by Salman Rushdie. The Commission found that Article 9 was not applicable and therefore, accordingly, Article 14 was also not applicable. The Commission held the view that in this case, no protection was granted to Islam against blasphemy of the religion by a publication.

However, in an analogous case of offensive action against a religious faith, *Murphy versus Ireland*, (*Murphy v.*, 2003) concerning the right to freedom of expression on religious matters, the Court followed a different approach. A pastor attached to the Irish Religious Faith Centre, a Bible-based Christian ministry in Dublin, was refused permission to transmit an advertisement of a religious video on a local, independent religious and commercial radio station. The advertisement covering different religious beliefs was seen by the Irish High Court, “to be offensive to many people” (Medda-Windischer, 2003). In the Court’s view, such a consideration provided “highly relevant reasons justifying the Irish State’s prohibition of the broadcasting of religious advertisements” (*Murphy v.*, 2003).

An indication of the negative orientation of the Court can be seen in the case of *Sinan Isik versus Turkey* in which the Court held the view that there had been a violation of Article 9 of the Convention for the fact that the applicant’s identity card contained an indication of his religion. The Court underlined that the freedom to manifest one’s religion had a negative aspect, namely the right not to be obliged to disclose one’s religion. Furthermore, the Court indicated that the deletion of the “religion” box on identity cards could be an appropriate form of reparation to put an end to the breach in question (EHCR, 2019). The same negative aspect of religious freedom by not revealing a person’s faith or religious belief was the basis for the Court’s decision in the *Dimirtas and Others versus Greece* case. The applicants complained that they had been obliged to reveal their “non-Orthodox” religious convictions when taking oath in court. The Court held that there was a violation of Article 9 of the Convention because the interference in the applicants’ religion was neither justified nor proportionate to the aim pursued (EHCR, 2019).

7. LIMITATIONS OF THE MANIFESTATION OF RELIGIOUS BELIEFS FOR RELIGIOUS MINORITIES

Unlike the freedom to have a religion or a belief, the right to manifest these is subject to limitations under Article 9(2). Manifestation of religion moves it from the private sphere to the common or public sphere. This may lead to a tendency to influence society. Individuals seek changes and their opposition to the current social structure may lead to resistance in society. Social or state opposition to

the diversity shaped in law is not considered an adequate reason for placing restrictions on the manifestation of religion or beliefs. “The manifestation of religion or belief may collide in one way or another with legislation, administrative practice, or social policy. It would not be disputed that Article 9 does not sanction manifestation of religion or belief contrary to the ordinary criminal law; but there can be conflict between conscience and social policy, expressed in law or practice” (Fawcett, 1987).

Placing limitations on manifesting religion or beliefs is a mechanism that society has developed as a reaction to resisting change. However, such limitations have to be described by law, and have to be necessary in a “democratic society.” The Court identified the need for such restrictions in the case of *Kokkinakis* “in ‘democratic societies,’ in which several religions coexist within one and the same population, it may be necessary to place restrictions on this freedom in order to reconcile the interests of the various groups and ensure that everyone’s beliefs are respected” (*Kokkinakis v.*, 1993).

There is inconsistency in the Court and the Commission’s justification in relation to the restrictions imposed on the manifestation of religion or beliefs. In the case of *Serif versus Greece*, the Court maintained that the state had to ensure that different religious groups were tolerant of each other when it stated that, “Although the Court recognizes that it is possible that the tension is created in situations where a religion or any other community becomes divided, it considers that this is one of the unavoidable consequences of pluralism. The role of the authorities in such circumstances is not to remove the cause of tension by eliminating pluralism, but to ensure that the competing groups tolerate each other” (*Serif v. Greece*, 1999). This inconsistency can also be seen more recently, in the case of *Genov versus Bulgaria* (2017). The case was concerned with the authorities’ refusal to register the new religious association of which Geno had been the chairman. The Court addressed such issues as the right to manifestation of a minority religious faith and the right to legal personality, allowing groups to carry out legal proceedings.

However, in the *United Christian Broadcasting (United Christian Broad. Ltd. v. United Kingdom)* case, the Court upheld that institutional freedom was not unlimited under Article 9. The state can limit the means of manifesting

religion or beliefs by a religious group, in this case by prohibiting the granting of national radio licenses to all religious groups for reasonable and objective reasons. In a state with many different faith groups, one may need to limit the manifestation of religion or beliefs to protect the sensibilities of all the groups. This Court's position contradicts its position in the Serif case mentioned earlier when, although recognizing the possibility of tensions between different groups, the Court acknowledged that the state should ensure tolerance between the groups rather than removing the cause of the tension.

A recent case of 97 members of the Gldani Congregation of Jehovah's Witnesses and 4 Others versus Greece (97 members of the Gldani Congregation of Jehovah's Witnesses and 4 others v., 2007) brought the state's role in conflict with different religious groups. The state was obliged to take the necessary measures. The case concerned an incident in which a fanatical group of Orthodox believers led by a defrocked priest (known as "Father Basil") attacked a congregation of Jehovah's Witnesses. Like its position in the Serif case, the Court found the state in violation of Article 9 because, "Through their inactivity, the relevant authorities failed to take the necessary measures to ensure that the group of Orthodox extremists led by Father Basil tolerates the existence of the applicant's religious community and enables them to exercise freely their right to freedom of religion" (97 members of the Gldani Congregation of Jehovah's Witnesses and 4 others v., 2007).

The Court also emphasized the manifestation of religion or beliefs in another case. In the case of Kokkinakis versus Greece, the Court stressed the importance of a distinction between "bearing Christian witness and improper proselytism" (Kokkinakis v., 1993) and that improper proselytism may be legitimately limited. The Court's latter decision is relevant for minorities' protection "in two respects. On the one hand, they are protected against improper proselytism (which can be accompanied by a positive state obligation) and on the other hand they are allowed to persuade others of their beliefs as long as they do not use inappropriate means" (Henarrd, 2007).

In the recent January 10, 2018 case of Osmanoglu and Konabas versus Switzerland concerning the authority's refusal to grant a Muslim family exemption in relation to

their refusal to send their daughter, who had not reached the age of puberty, to compulsory mixed swimming lessons as part of her schooling, the Court held the view that there was no violation of Article 9 of the Convention. The Court gave precedence "to the children's obligation to follow the full school curriculum and their successful integration over the applicant's private interests in obtaining an exemption from mixed swimming lessons for their daughter on a religious ground." In particular, the Court noted that the law prescribed the authority's interference and it was pursuing a legitimate aim of the school's role in the social integration of foreign pupils and protecting them from any form of social exclusion.

8. THE APPLICATION OF THE MARGIN OF APPRECIATION FOR RELIGIOUS MINORITIES

It is not enough that any restriction on the manifestation of religion or beliefs has legitimacy by law, but also that such a restriction has to be, "necessary in a democratic society." There are inconsistencies in the Court and the Commission's position with regard to the issue of necessity as a condition for legitimate restrictions on the manifestation of religion or beliefs. These inconsistencies arise because of a wide range of considerations of the circumstances of each case within a particular state. There is a tendency to provide a wide range of Margins of Appreciation for the requirement of "balancing a range of complex factors" (Evans, 2001).

According to some commentators, the concept of Margin of Appreciation is a welcome concept because it respects the diversity of values and traditions in member states. However, others view this as a hindrance that restricts the development of common human rights, values, and standards among the states party to the Convention (Palmer, 2007). According to some scholars, because of the Margin of Appreciation doctrine, the Court has failed in its role as a "guarantor" against the "tyranny of the majority," and that "the limited relevance of ECtHR in relation to majority/minority conflicts results principally from a reliance on the 'balance' metaphor and margin of appreciation doctrine" (Wheatley, 2007).

For the Strasbourg Organs, the states are in a better position to determine proper restrictions on the freedom of religion or beliefs according to the significance of religion in a particular society. The case of wearing

Islamic dresses in Turkey was considered a danger to the secular foundation of the Turkish state and, accordingly, there was a Margin of Appreciation by the Commission and the Court in such cases; whereas in other European countries, there is no such pressure on wearing headscarves and the subject has a different dimension (Henarrd, 2007).

The balancing of various factors appeared in the case of *Farnesco Sessa versus Italy* in which in April 2012 the Court held the view that there was no violation of Article 9. An Italian court refused the applicant's, a Jewish lawyer, request for the adjournment of the hearing date set by the Court as it would prevent him from attending a religious festival. According to the applicant, his religious obligations prevented him from attending the Court at the set date. The Court saw the applicant's refusal to attend on the fixed date as an infringement of his right to religious manifestation.

In particular, the Court was not convinced that holding the hearing in question on the date of a Jewish holiday and refusing to adjourn it to a later date amounted to a restriction of the applicant's right to freely manifest his faith. Even supposing that there had been an interference with the applicant's right under Article 9, the Court considered that such an interference, prescribed by law, was justified on the grounds of the protection of the rights and freedoms of others—and in particular the public's right to the proper administration of justice—and the principle that cases be heard within a reasonable time. The interference observed a reasonable relationship of proportionality between the means employed and the aim pursued.

9. CONCLUSION

Although no specific provisions for protecting religious minorities exist in the Convention and its Protocols, a number of cases dealing with the right to freedom of religion shed light on the concerns of religious minorities. This paper discussed the cases by individual, natural, and legal rights. However, while dealing with individual cases, the Court and the Commission have often dealt with religious conflict and religious minority protection because of the complexity of isolating individual cases from their group dimensions.

One important aspect of religious freedom is the traditional existence of religion in a community or some sort of an organization. Although the rights recognized under Article 9 are individual rights, a recognition of the collective aspect of religious freedom is inevitable.

There is a restrictive interpretation of related provisions concerning parents' rights to ensure the type of education for their children, which complies with their beliefs. This right is provided under Article 2 of the first Protocol of the Convention. The application of the provision does not play a role in protecting religious minorities. In dealing with cases related to religious beliefs, the Court and the Commission lean towards prohibiting indoctrination of beliefs in education rather than protecting religious minority groups.

The Strasbourg Organs' jurisdiction, in interpreting the religious dimension of the right enshrined in Article 9 to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion, has a very broad definition of what is considered "religion or belief" to be accorded protection under the provision. This means inclusion of wider groups and not limiting the provision of protection to official or traditional religions or beliefs.

However, even though such generous definitions of religion and beliefs coexist, there is a very restrictive view of what freedom of religion or beliefs involves. Limitations on what kind of religious practices are protected under the Convention diminish the benefits of the wide definitions of religion or beliefs because of the wide Margin of Appreciation that is provided to state parties in the evaluation of the limitations on the freedom of manifestation of religion and beliefs, and therefore the Convention's role in protecting religious minorities is doubtful. The Court showed inconsistencies in its decision in a case related to the practice of religion in the public space. This paper highlighted more than one instance of the Court's contradictory decisions. The very nature of religion and beliefs includes the right to manifestation in addition to practicing religion either alone or in the community, which makes considering what a violation entails a complex issue.

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Teachers' and Students' Attitudes Toward the Implementation of the Politeness Principle in Classroom Interactions

Kavi Shakir Mohammed^{1*}

¹English Department, College of Basic Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil, Erbil, Kurdistan Region- F.R. Iraq

*Corresponding author's email: kavi.muhammad@su.edu.krd

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ABSTRACT

Politeness is considered to promote effective interaction between people. In the process of language teaching and learning, it is believed to enhance learning by providing a lively and friendly atmosphere in the classroom (Jiang, 2010). During classroom periods, including class policy, activities, and techniques, a teacher's language plays a critical role; it also plays an important role while giving academic instructions, motivating the class, and during the evaluation of a student's performance and participation. This paper approaches classroom interaction from a pragmatic perspective by adopting Leech's politeness principle and maxims. It aims to answer the following 2 questions: first, "what are the teachers' attitudes toward the implementation of the politeness principle during classroom interactions?" and second, "what are the students' attitudes toward the implementation of the politeness principle during classroom interactions?" To achieve the aims of this study by finding answers to the questions, the researcher prepared 2 sets of questionnaires: 1 for the teachers in the English Department and 1 for the fourth year students in the same department at the College of Basic Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil, Erbil, Iran, for the academic year of 2018 to 2019. By analyzing the data collected, it was found that both the teachers and students have positive attitudes toward the politeness maxims and the implementation thereof during classroom interactions; furthermore, there was agreement between the teachers' and students' responses to the questionnaires for most of the politeness maxims except in 3 cases, which were for the maxims of sympathy, obligation (S to O), and feeling reticence.

Keywords: Politeness principle, Leech's politeness maxims, Classroom interaction

1. INTRODUCTION

Language is used for communication to convey one's intention to others in different social interactions. In conveying intention, people use strategies in their communication as part of the language user's communicative competence. To do so, language learners need to be equipped with proper

communicative competence to achieve successful communication among users and native speakers of the target language. Communicative competence involves both language competence and pragmatic competence. The former includes vocabulary, pronunciation, word formation, spelling, and sentence structure, whereas the latter refers to the practical use of the language and choosing the proper utterances in the given situation. Pragmatics is involved in the communicative competence of a speaker. Thus, it deals with different aspects of everyday communication with politeness being one of these. The politeness principle is very important to investigate because it is used by people in their social interactions and in specific contexts and forms the basis

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for knowing what to say, how to say it, when to say it, and how to be with other people (Yule, 1996).

This paper aimed to answer the following 2 questions: first, “what are the teachers’ attitudes toward the implementation of the politeness principle during classroom interactions?” and second, “what are the students’ attitude toward the implementation of the politeness principle during classroom interactions?” This research study used a combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods by using a questionnaire as the tool to collect the data. The participants were teachers in the English Department of the College of Basic Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil, Erbil, Iran, and fourth year students in the same department, college, and university for the academic year of 2018 and 2019. The questionnaires were based on the application of Leech’s politeness maxims, which include the tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, sympathy, obligation, opinion reticence, and feeling reticence maxim.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this section, information about classroom interaction, theories of politeness in general, and Leech’s politeness maxims in particular are reviewed. Moreover, some information concerning the relationship between politeness and classroom interaction are given.

2.1. Classroom interaction

Interaction is the “heart of communication” (Brown, 2007) through which thoughts, ideas, feelings, knowledge, etc. are exchanged, for example, the way we send and receive messages, interpret, decode, and comprehend them in order to achieve certain aims and objectives. Accordingly, Brown (2007) regards interaction as “the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between 2 or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other.”

The classroom is the place where the interaction process happens between the teacher and students on the one hand, and among students themselves on the other hand. The Interaction hypothesis explains that the position that promotes the development of proficiency in a second or foreign language is the process of face-to-face linguistic interaction, not merely the exposure to input. In the

classroom, if the interaction runs smoothly, the knowledge that will be delivered by the teacher will be received well by the students.

There are 2 forms of the Interaction hypothesis: the first 1 is called the strong form, in which the linguistic development occurs in the interactional process itself, whereas the weak form of this hypothesis proposes that interaction, although important, is better seen as a process in which learning opportunities are made available to learners who may or may not make productive use of them (Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

A language classroom can be seen as a sociolinguistic environment and discourse between communities during which participants use different functions of language to establish a communication system in which the teacher-student interaction is believed to contribute to the students’ language development (Consolo, 2006). Therefore, classroom interaction is similar to any other social relationship in which the interlocutors have to work hard to promote effective communication. Classroom interactions with awareness about the pragmatic aspect as well as the knowledge of politeness are important for teaching a foreign language.

Mugford (2011) stated that various characteristics of students can be altered through classroom interactions. Therefore, a good classroom interaction is necessary for both the teacher and student. A good interaction has the ability to develop the abilities of students in both an academic and a nonacademic sense. It is because inside the classroom, a teacher does not only provide subject materials but also shares moral values that will benefit students outside the classroom. For teachers, a good interaction enables them to build a positive relationship with their students so that the gap between them can be bridged by good communication skills. Thus, carrying out effective communication in the classroom is very important and cannot be underestimated.

2.2. Theories of politeness

Politeness is universal and is best expressed as the practical application of good manners or etiquette. Thus, it is one type of social action that people look for in practice in their interactions to reach comity.

In this regard, Watt (2003) defined politeness as the ability to please others through external actions. Moreover, Foley (1997) referred to politeness as “a battery of social skills whose goal is to ensure that everyone feels affirmed in a social interaction.” Moreover, Yule (2006) defined politeness as a way of showing awareness of and consideration for another person’s face (where face in pragmatics is the public self-image).

Politeness strategies are more likely to be used when a speaker of relatively low power makes a larger request to a more distant relation than when a speaker of relatively high power makes a smaller request to a closer relation (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Politeness strategies are ways to convey the speech acts as polite as possible. To achieve that, there are some strategies that can be applied in specific context and that can be used by individuals in certain societies.

There are various scholars who focused on politeness in their studies and proposed different theories through which their names were connected with linguistic politeness, such as Robin Lakoff, Geoffrey Leech, Brown and Levinson, and Watts, who are regarded as the most influential and well known scholars in this area in addition to Elen, Fraser, and Nolan. These theories are reviewed in this paper, but the main focus is on Leech’s politeness principle (the updated 10 maxims) on which the practical framework is based.

Robin T. Lakoff, called “the mother of modern politeness,” began the modern study of politeness from pragmatic rules (Leech, 2014) in her article entitled “The logic of politeness” in 1973. Thus, she is the first linguistic theorist to posit the need for a politeness principle. Her work influenced later researchers whose work then expanded on and superseded her work. Lakoff defined politeness as “forms of behavior that have been developed in societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction” (Watts, 2003). Furthermore, Lakoff suggested the following 2 rules and sub rules for pragmatic competence: rule (1) is to be clear and rule (2) is to be polite. The first rule is the Gricean “Cooperative Principle” (CP), which she renamed as the “rules of conversation.” The second rule consists of the following 3 sub rules: (1) “do not impose,” (2) “give options,” and (3) “make addressee feel good – be friendly”(Watts,

2003). Therefore, she suggested that the participants in a conversation must try to keep the balance among these 3 maxims because the violation of 1 of them leads to an inappropriate or impolite interaction.

In addition, the model of Brown and Levinson (1978 and 1987) is regarded as one of the most influential models and has been applied in different fields to study the politeness phenomena. Their theory is viewed and analyzed in their book entitled “Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage” over 2 editions in 1978 and 1987. The main concept on which their theory is based is the concept of “face,” which was introduced by Ervin Goffman to refer to the public image of a self and that one has to be aware of what another’s face wants during an interaction. The core of their theory is the notion of face-saving acts. Furthermore, the framework of their model involves using different strategies to summarize human politeness behavior, for example, as positive politeness, negative politeness, bald on record and off record, or indirect strategy as well as other subdivisions.

Subsequently, Geoffrey Leech (1983) proposed a way of explaining how politeness operates in conversational exchanges through a set of 6 maxims, but he then revised and updated them in 2014 to 10 maxims and introduced these as a “General Strategy of Politeness” as a way to explain how politeness operates in conversational exchanges (Leech, 2014). These maxims and their uses are the main focus of this paper, and the details of this theory are explained below.

The criticizing and researching of politeness by different researchers in different fields of life have encouraged researchers to take a look at new perspectives on politeness such as was done by Watts (2003) and Locher (2004). They described politeness in 2 ways, namely *Politeness 1* and *Politeness 2*. The former is the “lay or folk linguistics” (LoCastro, 2012), which involve the practical aspects of language use including etiquette, which is what is considered to be polite by most people. In contrast, the latter involves the theoretical concepts involved in a language including the different strategies found to have a successful and polite interaction, such as those outlined in Brown and Levinson’s model. Finally, LoCastro (2012) concludes Watts’ view by stating that for the purpose of building a strong, inclusive theory of

politeness, “researchers need, first of all, to study what happens in everyday interactions to learn not only how politeness is shown, but also how the participants react to and interpret it;” that is to say, it would be better if researchers study or investigate *Politeness 1* and then move to build up strategies and modules for *Politeness 2* rather than the other way round.

2.2.1. Leech (1983 and 2014)

The politeness principle proposed by Geoffrey Leech is applied, in this paper, to observe the case of classroom interaction between teachers and their students. There are researchers who investigated the implementation of politeness phenomena in the classroom or in other fields of life, such as Agustina and Cahyono’s work (2016) entitled “Politeness and Power Relation in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Classroom Interactions: A Study on Indonesian Learners and Lecturers,” Wanli and Aihong’s (2000) work entitled “An Investigation and Analysis of Politeness Strategies Employed in College English Teachers’ Classroom Feedback,” Sulu’s (2015) study entitled ‘Teacher’s Politeness in EFL Class,’ and the Diploma thesis by Subertova (2013) entitled “Aspects of Politeness in a classroom of English as a Second Language.” All of the above-mentioned studies focused mainly on investigating, observing, and/or analyzing politeness in classroom interactions with different aims and procedures. What makes this paper different from others is that it measured the teachers’ and students’ attitudes toward the politeness principle in classroom interactions according to the General Strategies of Politeness proposed by Leech, which involves 10 politeness maxims instead of the previous 6 maxims on which the previous analyses were based. Furthermore, most of the previous studies on politeness have applied Brown and Levinson’s theory as a module for analysis.

In 1983, Geoffrey Leech published his “Principles of Pragmatics” in London, offering his landmark model on the politeness principle, which has been regarded as the most appropriate for practical situations. The politeness principle, like the cooperative principle and irony principle, is regarded as a part of the interpersonal rhetoric. In describing Leech’s model of politeness, Archer et al. (2012) stated that this model is based on “the assumption that interlocutors seek to minimize the expression of impolite beliefs and maximize the expression of polite beliefs” via some maxims. It was

categorized and introduced in the form of 6 maxims but, later on in 2014, Leech published his work entitled “The Pragmatics of Politeness” in the United States in which he revised and updated the politeness maxims and reformulated and increased them into 10 maxims, which include the tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim, sympathy maxim, obligation (of speaker [S] to other [O]) maxim, obligation (of O to S) maxim, opinion reticence maxim, and feeling reticence maxim.

Leech defines politeness as forms of behavior that establish and maintain feelings of comity within a social group; that is, the ability of the participants in a social interaction to engage in an atmosphere of relative harmony. It can be expressed by certain polite formulaic utterances such as *please, thank you, excuse me, sorry*, etc. According to Leech, the politeness principle involves 2 participants in conversation, which are *self* and *other*. The *self* conventionally represents the speaker, whereas *other* refers to the hearer or the addressee. The concept of *other* also refers to a third party. The speaker must also show his or her politeness to a third party, whether present or not.

Leech (1983) set up 3 pragmatic scales. The cost-benefit scale deals with the cost or benefit that an action will have for the hearer: the higher the cost to the hearer, the less polite the illocutionary act is, and the lower the cost (or the higher the benefit), the more polite the illocutionary act is. The indirectness scale has to do with the degree of indirectness of an act with regard to its illocutionary goal. Leech (1983) asserted that indirectness gives rise to optionality and, at the same time, minimizes the impositive force of the illocution. Therefore, the more indirect a stance is, the more polite a speech is. However, this is not categorical and that is why the concept of optionality is needed. The optionality scale accounts for the choice given to the hearer to refuse, described by Leech (1983) as “... it becomes progressively easier for [the hearer] to say no ... negative politeness (i.e., serving the avoidance of the cost to [the hearer]) is increased.” The 3 scales are interrelated, i.e., the higher the cost, the more indirect the utterance will be and the greater the amount of optionality to the addressee. These scales underlie all the maxims of politeness.

The maxims that Leech (1983) postulated were influenced by the distinction he drew between negative and positive politeness. Negative politeness consists of minimizing impoliteness while positive politeness involves maximizing politeness. This leads to a dual vision for the 6 maxims. He also asserted that speech acts can be either *other*-centered or *self*-centered, and are thus bilateral, which is seen in the tact and generosity maxims as well as in the case of approbation and modesty (Leech, 1983).

(1) Tact maxim

“Give a low value to S’s want.” (Leech, 2014)

“Minimize cost to other. Maximize benefit to other.” (Leech, 1983)

Tact is the first maxim of the politeness principle and the most important kind of politeness in the English-speaking society. The speaker tries to be tactful in communication by minimizing the expression of beliefs that imply cost to other and maximizing the expression of beliefs that imply benefit to others. This maxim is implemented using directive (impositive or competitive illocutions and commissive utterances). The directive or impositive utterance is a form of utterance mainly used to show a command such as ordering, commanding, requesting, advising, and recommending in addition to invitation, which is either direct or indirect. Meanwhile, the commissive utterance is the utterance that functions to declare a promise or offer something.

Examples:

Would you mind having another sandwich?

Can you answer the phone?

Could I interrupt you for a minute to help me?

Please take your clothes, I have washed for you.

(2) Generosity maxim

“Give a high value to O’s wants.” (Leech, 2014)

“Minimize benefit to self: maximize cost to self.” (Leech, 1983)

The intent of this maxim, generosity, is to make the advantages to *self* as small as possible. The generosity maxim requires the participants to minimize the benefit to *self* and maximize cost to *self*. This maxim is like the tact maxim in that it can be expressed by the directive, impositive, and commissive utterances. However, it is different in that the generosity maxim is *self*-centered, while the tact maxim is *other*-centered.

Examples:

Could I borrow this electric drill?

I wouldn’t mind a cup of coffee.

You could borrow my bicycle, if you like.

In the maxim of charity or generosity, the focus is on *others* where they should be put first instead of on *self* in a way that respect for others will happen if one can reduce profits to *self* and maximize profits to *others*.

Example:

(A) *Let me wash your clothes too. I just have the same thing to be washed, really.*

(B) *No, Mom. I will wash them later today.*

From the speech delivered above, it can be clearly noted that the speaker is trying to maximize profits by adding cost to himself/herself.

(3) Approbation maxim

“Give a high value to O’s qualities.”(Leech, 2014)

“Minimize dispraise of other: maximize praise of other.” (Leech, 1983)

This maxim requires the speaker to avoid everything that hurts *other*, especially the addressee, described by Leech (1983) as “avoid saying unpleasant things about others, and more particularly about [the hearer].” This maxim is expressed using expressive and assertive utterances. The function of the expressive utterance is to express the speaker’s psychological attitude toward a situation. This utterance can usually be found in some utterances to express thankfulness, congratulation, welcoming, blaming, condoling, apologizing, praising, etc. The

assertive utterance is commonly used to declare the truth proposition (Leech, 1983). It can usually be found if someone expresses his opinion, a comment, suggestion, complaint, claim, report, etc.

Examples:

What a marvelous meal you cooked!

I heard your English just now. You are good in English.

You could be more careful.

(4) Modesty maxim

“Give a low value to S’s qualities.” (Leech, 2014)

“Minimize praise of self: Maximize dispraise of self.” (Leech, 1983)

In this maxim, “self-deprecation is often felt to be polite” (Leech, 2014). Accordingly, the modesty of the speaker’s speech elicits a denial from the hearer in accordance with approbation. Thus, this kind of gratuitous-self-deprecation is sometimes called “fishing for compliments.”

Example:

(A) I am so dumb. I can’t believe it has taken me so long to figure out such a simple question!

(B) Come on! If you were dumb, there would not exist any smart guy in the world!

Like the generosity maxim, this maxim is also expressed by the expressive and assertive utterances.

In the maxim of simplicity or modesty, participants are expected to be humble by reducing the praise to *self*. If the maxim of generosity or appreciation centered on *other*, the modesty maxim is *self*-centered. This maxim requires each participant to maximize dispraise of *self* and minimize praise of *self*.

Examples:

How stupid I am!

I don’t think I will do it well. I am still learning.

(5) Agreement maxim

“Give a high value to O’s opinions.” (Leech, 2014)

“Maximize dispraise of self: Maximize agreement between self and other.” (Leech, 1983)

As its name suggests, agreement is the preferred response when responding to others’ opinions or judgments and disagreement is undesirable. Therefore, it is important that the participants are able to develop agreement on the speech acts. If there is a match between the speaker and hearer in the speech acts, each one of them will be said to be polite.

Example:

(A) Let’s have dinner together, ok?

(B) Good idea. I will wait for you at Bambu restaurant.

In this conversation, one can infer that the speakers are able to build their agreement in such a way to portray politeness toward each other.

Furthermore, there is a tendency to increase an agreement and to minimize a disagreement by declaring a regret or partial agreement when someone speaks with another. The partial agreement is an agreement followed by a partial disagreement, implicating the speaker’s disagreement toward the addressee.

Example:

(A) It is a beautiful site, isn’t it?

(B) Yeah, absolutely gorgeous (using ‘*absolutely gorgeous*’ enhances polite agreement)

Leech (2014) mentioned certain points regarding this maxim:

(1) In cases in which the hearer has to agree with a compliment as in the following situations:

- The hearer may pay a compliment and agree, as in the following example:

Gee, it is nice of you to say that.

- The hearer may respond with apparent disbelief, as in the following example:

Oh, do you really think so?

- The hearer may thank the person who gave a compliment in the following way:

Thank you. It is nice of you to say so, but...

(2) The hearer may also deflect a compliment in his reply by appreciating or reducing its power by neither agreeing nor disagreeing with it. For example:

A: I really like your outfit.

B: Oh! it is just something I picked up in a sale.

Kate: Steven is a terrific chef!

Steven: Nah.

(3) The speaker may attribute the success to luck, for example:

Well, yeah, somehow, I was lucky enough to win the first prize.

It is worth mentioning that *self*-praise is immodest. This is noticeable, for example on the television, in interviews with victorious sportsmen and women; politicians, who have won elections; and winners of prestigious prizes or awards. For example:

Well, we did a pretty good job, thanks to tremendous efforts by all the folks here.

Victory speeches often use *we* rather than *I* to emphasize collective rather than individual achievement. This helps to reduce the impression that the speaker is being boastful by attributing the achievements to him/herself (Leech, 2014).

(6) Sympathy maxim

“Give a high value on O’s feelings.” (Leech, 2014)

“Minimize antipathy between self and other: Maximize sympathy between self and other.” (Leech, 1983)

Leech (1983), with reference to this maxim, stated that the participant can maximize sympathy between the parties. Antipathy toward the participants would be considered as an impolite act. People who behave with antipathy toward others, not to mention being cynical about the other party, will be considered as people who do not know manners in society. The following are examples of expression of sympathy:

I was sorry to hear about you father.

I take a pity on hearing you didn’t pass the exam.

For this maxim, Leech (2014) stated the following:

“A constraint of sympathy (or emotive concern) is needed to explain why we give a high value to other people feelings in such speech acts as congratulations and condolences. It is polite to show others that you share their feelings: feeling sad when they have suffered misfortune, and feeling joyful when they have cause for rejoicing. Congratulations, good wishes, and condolences are all intrinsically courteous speech acts and need no mitigation.”

Examples of expressing joy:

congratulations!/well-done./Have a good time!/Enjoy your meal.

In addition, there are also certain expressions of sadness, such as:

I was so sorry to hear about your father’s death.

Moreover, asking about people’s health is another case of showing sympathy, which is similar to condolences, for example:

How is your mother? I hope she is feeling better....

In this example, making an expression more extreme, can be achieved by highlighting the degree of expression they contain, for example, by using intensifying expressions.

Examples:

Warmest congratulations!

I was so terribly sorry to hear about ...

I do hope she is feeling much better...

Have a wonderful time!

(7) Obligation (of speaker to other) maxim

“Give a high value to S’s obligation to O,” (Leech, 2014)

As far as this maxim is concerned, Leech (2014) explains the situations in which it can be used as follows: “apologies for some offense by the speaker to the hearer giving high prominence to speaker’s fault and obligation to other and the expressions of gratitude for some favor the hearer has done to the speaker as well.”

Examples:

I am (terribly) sorry./Please, excuse me./I am afraid I’ll have to leave early.

Thanks./Thank you very much./Thank you very much indeed.

(8) Obligation (of other to speaker) maxim

“Give a low value to O’s obligation to S.” (Leech, 2014)

This maxim can be observed in response to apologies, which often minimizes the fault, and in response to an expression of thanks, which often minimizes the debt.

Examples:

It is OK./Don’t worry./It was nothing.

That’s all right./You are welcome./No problem./Glad to be of help./It was a pleasure.

(9) Opinion reticence maxim

“Give a low value to S’s opinions.” (Leech, 2014)

This maxim can be observed in cases in which the speaker consults the hearer’s opinion with the assumption that the hearer has a greater understanding, more wisdom, or more experience. For example, in western countries, it is considered to be helpful in a positive sense to ask questions and express opinions in the discussion period following a lecture.

Example:

How do you find the topic?

(10) Feeling reticence maxim

“Give a low value to S’s feelings.”(Leech, 2014)

Leech (2014) associated this maxim with the corresponding negative-politeness constraint, which places a low value on one’s own feelings. With regard to this maxim, Leech (2014) referred to the following quotation from Brown and Livenson (1978): “In English one should not admit that one is feeling too bad”.

Example:

(A) *Hi, how are you?*

(B) *Oh, fine. Actually though...*

2.2.2. Politeness and classroom interaction

This paper focuses on the attitudes teachers and students have about the politeness principle during classroom interactions. It is, therefore, important to review some applications of politeness, as these pertain to EFL classrooms.

LoCastro (2012) pointed out some instances in which politeness can be implemented more effectively in the classroom. He thinks that the first step starts in the early beginning when teachers and members of the educational institution select the appropriate curriculum, textbooks, and other supportive learning materials for their taught courses and the supervised programs, and it can be implemented by teaching pragmatics as an area of language development, especially for EFL. Teaching pragmatics is important for the first step and is concerned

with “how to be polite in the [a second language].” It focuses on expressions used in everyday conversational talks without a requirement to change their grammatical forms. These expressions serve as communication strategies that can sometimes save the speakers from thinking about how to reply appropriately when needed, because the expressions are stored in memory and are ready to be used automatically.

Learning these expressions is not limited to the early stages only but can be extended to the advanced stages when more complex and advanced expressions can be taught to deal with the different situations one can encounter. Furthermore, during teaching the linguistic formulaic expressions of a second language (L2), teachers can raise students’ awareness about politeness cues, why they are important, which expression fits the situation, or when it can be used. This is similarly done when parents tell their children how to behave politely. Therefore, when students understand and distinguish the polite from the impolite behavior and understand how to maintain relationships in an L2, lessons could focus on how L2 weaves through the course of conversation to achieve the communicative goals. Accordingly, students do express their need to learn and know strategies of being polite in L2 classes so that they can have an effective and fruitful interaction.

3. METHODOLOGY

This part deals with the overall design of the study, participants, data collection tool, and the procedures taken to achieve the aims.

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study are teachers and students. A total of 22 teachers, who teach in the English Department at the College of Basic Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil, Erbil, Iran, in the academic years of 2018 and 2019 participated in this study in addition to 50 fourth year students in the English Department of the same college and university.

3.2. The tool

The tool used to collect the data for the study was a closed questionnaire prepared by the researcher. Two sets of questionnaires, one for teachers and one for students,

were designed to collect the respective attitudes and perceptions about the application of Leech’s politeness maxims during classroom interactions. Each questionnaire consisted of 22 items designed on a 5-point Likert scale, which uses values ranging from 1 to 5, covering almost all the uses of the 10 politeness maxims proposed by Leech with reference to classroom interaction between a teacher and students. The scoring for the answers was as follows: 5 = strongly agree; 4 = agree; 3 = neutral; 2 = disagree; and 1 =strongly disagree. The participants required 25 to 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. See Appendix 1 for the items of both questionnaires.

3.3. Procedure

The following procedures were followed to achieve the aims of the study:

- a theoretical background on classroom interaction and the Politeness Principle, focusing mainly on Leech’s 10 politeness maxims, were presented;
- the items for both questionnaires were designed on the bases of the applications of each maxim to achieve the content validity. Therefore, the items in the questionnaire covered almost all of the applications of the maxims’ in relation to classroom interactions;
- the questionnaires were tested on a pilot group of participants, which included 6 teachers and 15 students, to measure the reliability of the tool, during which the measurement device yielded nearly the same approximate results when utilized repeatedly under the same condition. Thus, the items of both questionnaires were verified with a known reliability score of 80;
- the questionnaires were handed out to the participants including both the teachers and students;
- the data collected were analyzed to determine the findings and draw the points of conclusion and recommendation.

4. DATA CLASSIFICATION AND DISCUSSION

In the data analysis, the focus was mainly on the 10 politeness maxims. Thus, the items of the questionnaires were decreased (merged) because the application of some of the maxims were expressed in more than one item

owing to its wide and frequent use. Therefore, the results of the items related to a single maxim were calculated together to generate an overall score and determine the general attitude toward that specific maxim. Accordingly, the data analysis was arranged in a way to help the researcher obtain an answer to the questions stated in the first part of this paper. This was achieved via analyzing

the teachers' and students' responses to the questionnaires statistically. Therefore, the overall results show that both the teachers and students have a positive attitude toward the implementation of the politeness principle in their classroom interactions, which is based on their main responses to the 'agree' and 'strongly agree' scale, as shown in Figures 1 and 2.

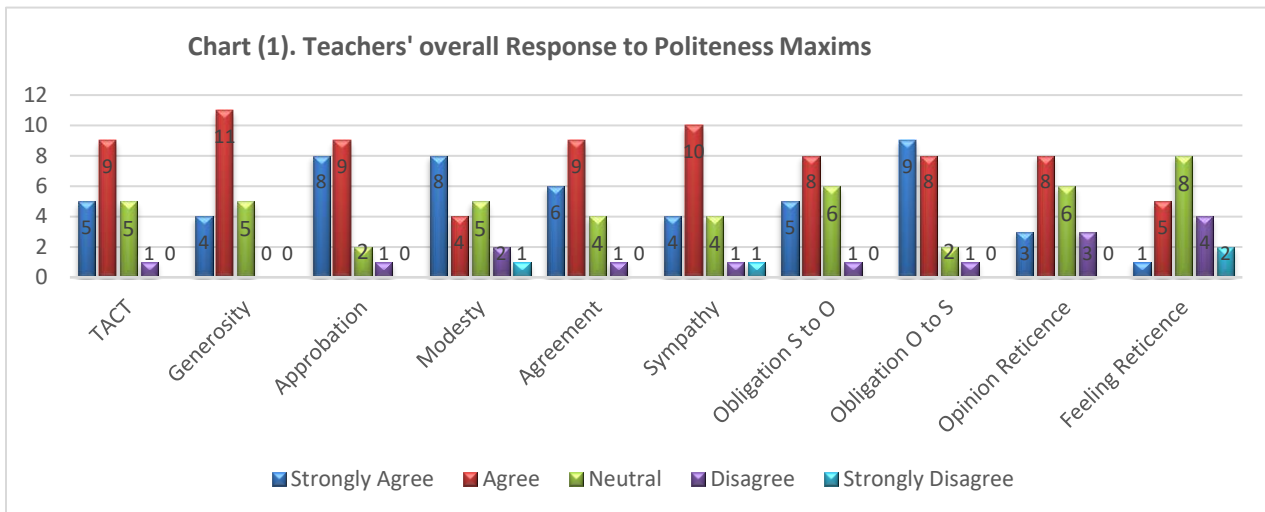


Figure 1. Teachers' overall Response to Politeness Maxims

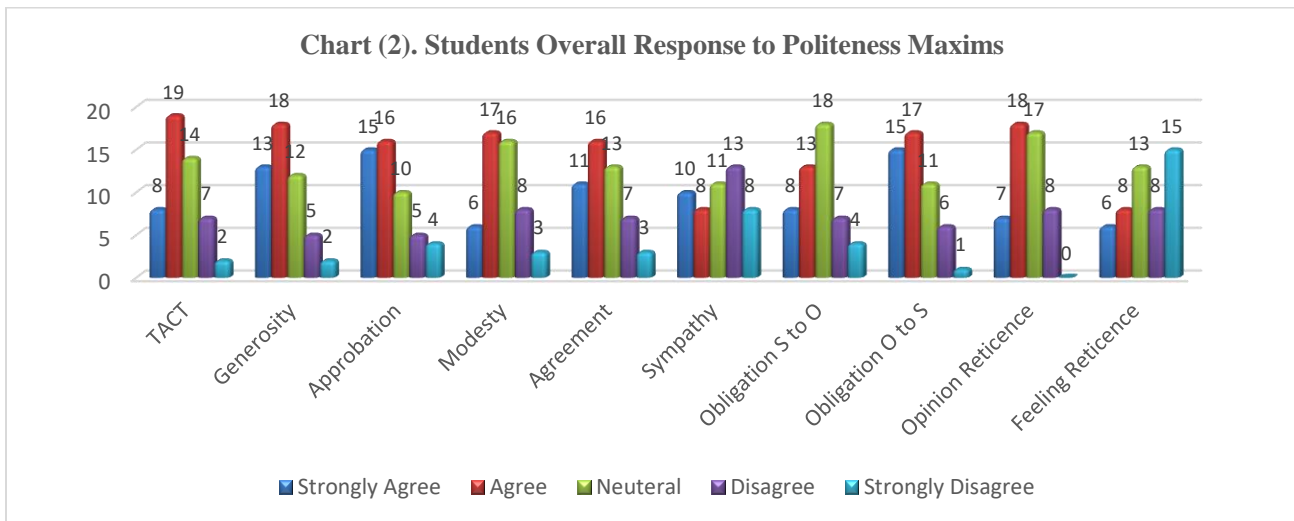


Figure 2. Students Overall Response to Politeness Maxims

From the Figures above, it is clear that the teachers' attitude toward the generosity maxim recorded the highest score, with 55% selecting the 'agree' scale,

which represents 11 of the 20 teachers in the sample. However, the students' attitude toward the tact maxim recorded the highest score, with 38% selecting the

'agree' scale, which represents 19 of the 50 students in the sample.

Moreover, the researcher attempted to analyze the results received from the respondents, i.e., the teachers and students, for each politeness maxim separately as follows:

(1) Tact maxim: this maxim is widely used in different communicative aspects in which classroom interaction can be regarded as one of them. This

maxim was expressed in item 1, 6, 12, and 20 of both questionnaires. Thus, the overall results, as given in Table 1 below, show that the participants almost have the same attitude toward the implementation of this maxim during classroom interactions. The teachers and students mostly responded with the agree option, representing 45% and 38% of the total, respectively. This indicates that the majority of the participants have a good understanding of this maxim and they usually make use of it while interacting with each other in the classroom.

Table 1: Teachers' and students' overall responses to the tact maxim

Tact maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Teachers (n = 20)	5 25%	9 45%	5 25%	1 5%	0 0%	
Students (n = 50)	8 16%	19 38%	14 28%	7 14%	2 4%	

(2) Generosity maxim: it means the speaker is offering items of assistance that the hearer is in need of, such as time, goods, money, knowledge, reward, etc. Items 2, 16, and 22 in both questionnaires were devoted to measure the participants' attitudes toward this maxim. According to the overall scores, the teachers are frequently generous with their students by sharing information and increasing the students' knowledge in the areas of their weaknesses. This may be because of

55% of the teachers have chosen the agree option in their responses, indicating their high benefit to others and showing a high level of politeness in the classroom interaction. Similarly, the students' responses to this maxim confirm that the teachers are generous with them and that they are generous when they interact with each other during class periods while doing exercises, working in groups, solving problems, etc. The details are presented in Table 2 below.

the nature of teaching, the main concern being to exchange, share, and transfer knowledge to others. Thus,

Table 2: Teachers' and students' overall responses to the generosity maxim

Generosity maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Teachers (n = 20)	4 20%	11 55%	5 25%	0 0%	0 0%	
Students (n = 50)	13 26%	18 36%	12 24%	5 10%	2 4%	

(3) Approbation maxim: generally, this maxim is used when the speaker avoids the use of unpleasant words or gestures or directing unpleasant behavior to the hearer. Thus, teachers and students can make use of the principles

of this maxim in their classroom interaction and these have been stated in items 3, 7, 13, and 17 in both questionnaires. A look at the teachers' results show that most of the teachers have a strong attitude toward

implementing the principles of this maxim during classroom interaction because the most frequently selected scale was agree, representing 45% of the total, whereas 40% of the respondents have selected strongly agree. This indicates that teachers value the students' qualities and praise them when doing an activity, taking part in the lectures, etc. Similarly, the responses of the

students were closely matched between the agree and strongly agree options, representing 32% and 30% of the responses, respectively. However, 8% of the respondents chose the "strongly disagree" scale but this proposition can represent some exceptional, personal, or rare instances that students may have faced. The details are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Teachers' and students' overall responses to the approbation maxim

Approbation maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	8 40%	9 45%	2 10%	1 5%	0 0%
	Students (n = 50)	15 30%	16 32%	10 20%	5 10%	4 8%

(4) Modesty Maxim: from its name, this maxim requires the speaker to be modest in a way by giving low value to his/her qualities. This is achieved via dispraising self or praising self to the minimum. To be modest is to behave simply and in a humble way with others in communication and interaction in the role of teacher or student. Accordingly, items 4 and 8 of the questionnaires were concerned with the measurement of the participants' attitudes toward this maxim. The teachers' responses to this maxim show that 40% of the total sample are

habitually modest with their students. In contrast, the responses of the students were closely separated between the agree and neutral scale, representing 34% and 32%, respectively. This result indicates that there are some cases in which the teachers or students may not be modest or may not implement this maxim appropriately, which may be caused by the personality of that person or the differences in their social ranks and power. Refer to Table 4 for the details.

Table 4: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Modesty Maxim

Modesty maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	8 40%	4 20%	5 25%	2 10%	1 5%
	Students (n = 50)	6 12%	17 34%	16 32%	8 16%	3 6%

(5) Agreement Maxim: this maxim was expressed in items 14, 18, and 21 in both questionnaires. It involves the extent to which a high value is given to another's opinions, interests, and ideas. This can be noted when there is a sort of agreement among communicators from different fields of life and for different purposes, with classroom interaction being the main focus here. Teachers, in their responses, show that there mostly is a kind of agreement between them and their students

because the most common option that was selected for this maxim was agree, representing 45% of the total. Moreover, a high proportion of the students, representing 32% of the total, also responded with agree. These results show that the teachers value their students' interests, needs, and ideas, which serves to improve their knowledge of and information about the topics they study, and this can be noticed among the students themselves. See Table 5 for the details.

Table 5: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Agreement Maxim

Agreement Maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	6 30%	9 45%	4 20%	1 5%	0 0%
	Students (n = 50)	11 22%	16 32%	13 26%	7 14%	3 6%

(6) Sympathy Maxim: this maxim deals with the extent to which the speaker gives value to the listener's feelings. This is specified in item 9 in both questionnaires. Following analysis of the teachers' responses, it was found that 50% responded with the agree scale. In contrast, a high proportion of the students responded with the disagree and neutral scale, representing 26% and 22% of the total, respectively. The reason behind having these differences between the teachers' and students' responses

is because of the different attitudes they have in the interpretation and understanding of this maxim. In addition to that, the teachers' duties and responsibilities are different from those of the students, for example, a student may be interested in certain things while he/she is studying but this may not be of relevance to the teacher and the subject matter, deviating from the teacher's and class policy. See the details about the responses in Table 6 below

Table 6: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Sympathy Maxim

Sympathy maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	4 20%	10 50%	4 20%	1 5%	1 5%
	Students (n = 50)	10 20%	8 16%	11 22%	13 26%	8 16%

(7) Obligation of speaker "S" to other "O": this is one of the newly added maxims to the existing ones when they were updated. This maxim is used when the speaker has an obligation to apologize to the other for using offensive expressions or when expressing words of thanks and gratitude for things the others did for the speaker. To investigate the attitude of the participants toward this maxim, items 5 and 10 in both questionnaires were devoted to it. Thus, the results obtained from the teachers' responses show that they frequently practice this maxim because the majority of the respondents, representing 40% of the total, chose the agree scale. The students mainly responded with the neutral scale, which represents 36% of the total. This difference between the teachers' and students' results highlights the different attitudes they have toward the different situations they face during classroom interaction, in addition to the individual differences that exist among the interlocutors. The details are presented in Table 7

Table 7: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Obligation (S to O) Maxim

Obligation (S to O) maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	5 25%	8 40%	6 30%	1 5%	0 0%
	Students (n = 50)	8 16%	13 26%	18 36%	7 14%	4 8%

(8) Obligation of O to S: this is the second updated maxim, which is used when the speaker gets responses from others when they express an apology, thanks, gratitude, etc. This can be observed clearly during teacher-students and student-student interactions in the classroom, and it was reflected in item 15 in the questionnaires. According to the records obtained from both sets of questionnaires, there is once again a correlation between their responses. First, teachers mainly responded with the strongly agree scale,

representing 45% of the total, in addition to the 40% who responded with the agree scale. These results indicate that although it is a newly added maxim, it is implemented by the interactors as a principle of conversation. Second, the analysis of the students' records shows a correlation with the teachers' results because most of the students selected either the agree or strongly agree scales, representing 34% and 30% of the total, respectively. Table 8 shows these results.

Table 8: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Obligation (O to S) Maxim

Obligation (O to S) maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	9 45%	8 40%	2 10%	1 5%	0 0%
	Students (n = 50)	15 30%	17 34%	11 22%	6 12%	1 2%

(9) Opinion reticence maxim: the participants' attitudes toward the implementation of this maxim was reflected their answers to item 19 in the questionnaires. This was the third newly added maxim by G. Leech to the existing politeness maxims. The main implementation of this maxim is when the speaker asks for another's wisdom, experiences, and opinions to get a better understanding, which is commonly implemented in our classes when students ask for further information about the topic being discussed, or when they ask the teacher for other

alternatives to better understand the topic or answer questions they might not be articulating. Similarly, teachers may ask students for other ways to deliver their knowledge easily. Therefore, if we refer back to the teachers' responses, the highest score was recorded for the agree scale, representing 40% of the total. In agreement, the students mostly responded with the agree and neutral options, representing 36% and 34% of the responses, respectively. For the details on the responses about this maxim, refer to Table 9.

Table 9: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Opinion Reticence Maxim

Opinion reticence maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	3 15%	8 40%	6 30%	3 15%	0 0%

Students (n = 50)	7 14%	18 36%	17 34%	8 16%	0 0%
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(10) Feeling reticence maxim: This is mainly used when the speaker expresses a positive feeling (feeling positively) even in bad or difficult situations. This is a good attitude to impart to students in terms of their feelings and reasoning because they pass through different situations of success and failure during their study period. Item 11 in both the questionnaires addressed this maxim. According to the scores, no correlation can be observed between the teachers' and students' responses toward this maxim. On the one hand,

the teachers responded mostly with the neutral scale, representing 40% of the total. On the other hand, the students responded most commonly with the strongly disagree scale, representing 30% of the total, as detailed in Table 10. The difference in these scores is because of the students' fear of failure in their study. Moreover, teachers may not positively respond to the students' failures or weaknesses as reflected in their course results so as to not let them feel inadequate, especially with regard to their achievements during their academic study.

Table 10: Teachers' and Students' Overall Responses to the Feeling Reticence Maxim

Feeling reticence maxim	Participants	Likert Scale				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Teachers (n = 20)	1 5%	5 25%	8 40%	4 20%	2 10%
	Students (n = 50)	6 12%	8 16%	13 26%	8 16%	15 30%

In the analysis of the results, one can deduce that politeness exists in classroom interactions on the basis of the positive attitudes toward the implementation of the politeness principle that were measured for the participants. This helps to create a kind of harmony between the teachers and their students on the one hand, and among the students themselves on the other hand. Therefore, it is important to implement and use politeness in the classroom discourse for 2 reasons. First, it helps the teacher to create a friendly and positive atmosphere based on the respectful relationship between the teachers and their students and among the students themselves. This will, in turn, develop the process of teaching and learning. Second, when the teacher uses polite expressions, the students automatically adopt the strategies and principles used by their teacher. This is the one point of similarity that is discussed in almost all of the previous studies conducted on politeness in classroom interactions.

When comparing the results of one maxim with other maxims, the teachers' attitudes toward the generosity maxim recorded the highest score, which is because of the principal role teachers play in the classroom. However, the students' attitudes toward the tact maxim recorded the highest score, which is because of the wide use of this maxim's implications.

Furthermore, in analyzing the maxims separately, there is a high correlation between the attitudes (a kind of balance) of the teachers and students in their responses, most of them selecting the agree and strongly agree options in the expression of their attitudes, except for the sympathy, obligation (S to O), and feeling reticence maxims. These differences can be attributed to various factors related to the nature of the teaching process, including the teacher and class policy, their interpretation, and understanding of the cases.

5. CONCLUSION

By analyzing the data, the following conclusions were derived:

- (1) both the teachers and students have positive attitudes toward the politeness principle, and this helps them with the implementation of the politeness maxims during classroom interactions;
- (2) in almost all the uses of the politeness maxims, the teachers and students responded most commonly with the agree option, which is a good indicator that the respondents have a positive attitude toward the implementation of the politeness maxims and that they

take them into consideration during classroom interactions;

(3) the teachers' highest response was toward the generosity maxim as opposed to the other maxims, whereas the tact maxim measured the highest score when compared with the other maxims for the students' attitudes;

(4) in analyzing the maxims separately, there is a high correlation between the attitudes (a kind of balance) of the teachers and students in their responses except for the sympathy, obligation, (S to O) and feeling reticence maxims;

(5) although 4 new maxims have been added recently to the existing politeness maxims and the respondents may not be intimately aware of them, the results show that they are implemented successfully during classroom interactions.

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

The positive attitudes measured for the teachers and students based on their responses toward the implementation of the politeness principle during classroom interactions, aided the researcher in proposing the following recommendations for teachers and students to aid in the development of this process.

For teachers:

It is recommended that teachers develop their knowledge about pragmatics, strengthen their communicative interactions, especially in the use of the appropriate politeness strategies, and pay attention to the social values because the teacher is the model for the class and she/he is going to be imitated by her/his students.

Teachers should provide opportunities for the students to take part in classroom interactions by giving them communicative aspects that develop their knowledge and skills in aspects used in conversation including politeness strategies. This will, in turn, develop the students' pragmatic competence.

For students:

It is important for the students to be able to present the desired image of themselves including the norms of their

personality, background, wishes, needs, and desires. At the same time, it is important to recognize another's image, as desired in social interactions, to enhance politeness and avoid impolite utterances and behaviors.

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APPENDIX

Consent Form

Dear Participants:

The questionnaire attached is the tool of a paper entitled “Teachers’ and Students’ Attitudes to the Implementation of Politeness Principle in Classroom Interaction”.

Researcher:

The Politeness Principle is a series of maxims, which Geoffrey Leech has proposed as a way of explaining how politeness operates in conversational exchanges.

The politeness principle proposed by Geoffrey Leech is applied in this paper to know teachers’ and students’ attitudes towards the implementation of politeness principle in classroom interaction between students and their teachers.

In 1983, Geoffrey Leech published his *Principles of Pragmatics* in London, offering his landmark model of the politeness principle, which has been regarded as the most appropriate for practical situations. He has categorized his politeness principle into six maxims but, later in 2014 he published his *The Pragmatics of*

Politeness in United States where he revised, updated the politeness maxims, reformulated and increased them into ten ones including: tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim, sympathy maxim, obligation (of speaker to other) maxim, obligation (of other to speaker) maxim, opinion reticence maxim, and feeling reticence maxim.

- I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet of the above paper. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and I can phase out any time without giving any reason.
- I understand that any information given by me maybe used in future reports, articles or presentations by the research team.
- I understand that my name will not be appearing in any presentation, report or Articles.
- I agree to take part in the above study

(1) Teachers’ Questionnaire

No.	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1-	Politeness is used when you interact with your students by commanding, requesting, ordering, etc.					
2-	Teachers provide help in conducting classroom activities such as: “Do you need help?”, “Can I give you a hand?”... so forth.					
3-	Teachers avoid using unpleasant words with their students.					
4-	You behave modestly when you interact with your students.					
5-	Words of apology is a part of teachers’ behavior during interaction, for instance: “I am sorry...”, “Excuse me please, ...”, etc.					
6-	Expressions like: “what about...”, “why not...” are used by teachers politely and regularly when <i>planning, promising, threatening,</i> and ...so on.					
7-	Teachers behave friendly with your students, sharing them their happiness, sadness, and other daily events by thanking, congratulating, blaming, condoling, apologizing, etc.					
8-	Words of self-praise are not used when you explain and deliver your lectures, i.e.: you behave modestly with your students during classroom interaction in general.					
9-	During interaction, you share with your students in talking about their good achievements via congratulating them, expressing condolence for their sad					

	events, or talking about their weak achievements such as: "I am sorry for your low mark", etc.
10-	The interlocutors politely apologize while behaving in an offensive manner or doing something wrong, such as: "I am really sorry", so forth.
11-	Teachers' behavior enhances students' positivity rather than negativity even when they feel bad among themselves during interaction.
12-	As a teacher, you promise or offer a reward for the student such as 'marks', 'gifts', etc. when (s)he gives the right answer, does an activity, or a project.
13-	Teachers avoid using unpleasant language such as: "you did not do correctly", instead, they may say: "you can do better if you try", so forth for students' mistakes.
14-	You, as a teacher, politely take care of students' opinion, beliefs or judgement even if they are opposite to yours or to class policy.
15-	As a teacher, you accept students' apologies via using expressions as: "That is ok", "No worries", "No problem" ...etc.
16-	Teachers are generous (open handed) with their students whenever the students are in need of help such as answering questions, giving clarifications and providing extra teaching sources and materials.
17-	While classroom interaction, you praise your students for acting out an activity, for instance: telling them "well done", "good job", "thanks", etc.
18-	Your reactions to students' compliments or disbeliefs are politely reflected.
19-	The interlocutors ask for information and give feedback, for instance: They express the extent of their understanding and ask for the misunderstanding, exchange ideas, and ask for wisdom and experience while interaction.
20-	Respectably, teachers intend to work for the students' regular interests, wants and needs.
21-	As a teacher, you do not mind when students give their own opinions in their classroom interaction.
22-	Teachers readily provide help for the students while interacting or doing a task.

(2) Students' Questionnaire

No.	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1-	While teaching, teachers politely use to show commands, in a way like an order, request, advice, or recommend to invite students to take part in the lesson.					
2-	While interacting, teachers provide help in conducting classroom activities such as: "Do you need help?", "Can I give you a hand?" ...so forth.					
3-	Teachers avoid using unpleasant words with their students. That is to say; they avoid using impolite expressions.					
4-	Teachers are modest with their students in a way that they avoid talking about their abilities, possessions, and achievements during classroom interaction.					
5-	Your teachers express their apologies in certain cases while interacting, for instance: "I am sorry...", "Excuse me please,", etc.					
6-	When <i>planning, promising, threatening</i> , and ...so on, teachers politely and regularly impose or interfere to the classroom issues, such as using the expressions: "what about...", "why not...".					

- 7- Teachers behave friendly with their students, sharing them their happiness, sadness, and other daily events by thanking, congratulating, blaming, condoling, apologizing, ...etc.
- 8- Teachers do not praise themselves when explaining and delivering lectures and they behave modestly with their students during interaction.
- 9- during interaction, teachers share with their students' good achievements via congratulating them, expressing condolence for their sad events, or talking about their weak achievements such as: "I am sorry for your low mark", etc.
- 10- The interlocutors politely apologize while behaving in an offensive manner or doing something wrong, such as: "I am really sorry", ...so forth.
- 11- Teachers avoid students having bad or negative feeling among themselves, i.e.: they enhance positivity rather than negativity by encouraging students to feel positive even in bad situations.
- 12- When a student gives the right answer, does an activity, or a project, the teacher promises or offers a reward for the student such as 'marks', 'gift', etc.
- 13- Even when students make mistakes, unpleasant language is not used by teachers such as: "you did not do correctly", instead they may say: "you can do better if you try", so forth.
- 14- Teachers, politely, take care of students' beliefs opinions or judgement even if they are opposite to teachers' beliefs or to class policy.
- 15- The interlocutors' response to apologies are in a respectable manner and they mostly accept the apologies such as "That is ok", "No worries", "No problem", etc.
- 16- Teachers are generous (open handed) with their students whenever the students are in need of help such as answering their questions, giving clarifications, providing extra teaching materials or sources ...etc. during classroom interaction.
- 17- While acting out an activity, the participants are praised by using expressions like: "well done", "good job", "thanks", etc.
- 18- Teachers react politely to students' compliments or disbeliefs.
- 19- The interlocutors ask for information and give feedback, for instance: They express the extent of their understanding and ask for the misunderstanding, exchange ideas, ask for wisdom and experience from their teachers in classroom interaction.
- 20- Politely, teachers intend to work for the students' regular interests, wants and needs.
- 21- Teachers do not mind when students give their own opinions in their classroom interaction.
- 22- Teachers readily provide help for the students while interacting, doing a task, or an activity.

Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction Among Nurses

Alaa S. Jameel^{1,2*}, Sameer S. Hamdi¹, Mohammed A. Karem¹, Abd Rahman Ahmad²

¹Department of Public Administration, Cihan University-Erbil, Erbil, Kurdistan Region- F. R. Iraq,

²Faculty of Technology Management and Business, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia Batu Pahat, Johor, Malaysia

*Corresponding author's email: alaa.salam@cihanuniversity.edu.iq

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ABSTRACT

Organizations should enhance justice in the workplace to increase the satisfaction among employees. The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of organizational justice on job satisfaction among nurses. The study cohort was composed of nurses from 2 public hospitals. A stratified sampling technique was employed to ensure better representation of samples from the 2 hospitals. A total of 184 valid questionnaires from 2 public hospitals were analyzed by structural equation modeling. The results showed that the 3 dimensions of organizational justice, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, have a positive and significant impact on the nurses' job satisfaction. Distributive justice showed a greater impact on job satisfaction than procedural justice and interactional justice. The supervisors and administrators should be provided with information on how improvement in organizational justice leads to job satisfaction and on-the-job facilitation of employee innovation. The results of this study provide a clear image for hospital administrations about the substantial role of justice in the workplace.

Keywords: Organizational justice, Job satisfaction, Distributive justice, Procedural justice; Nurses

1. INTRODUCTION

To achieve their vision, mission, and objectives, organizations should have sufficient resources such as human resources, finance, and raw materials to accomplish their tasks. Human resources play a vital role in all the sectors. Accordingly, justice in the workplace is a vital factor that can contribute to an increase in the job satisfaction (JS) of the employee.

Organizational justice (OJ), described as the ethical treatment of staff, involves fair allocation of tasks, strategy, and methods to deal with individuals at the workplace (Jameel et al., 2020). Furthermore, OJ consists of 3 main subdivisions, namely distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ), and interactional justice (IJ), which all serve as vital predictors of JS and work outcomes (Greenberg, 1987). Cases of workplace injustice create negative emotions and have adverse effects on the employees' behavior and, for that reason, the importance of improving OJ in the workplace, as a factor to evoke desirable attitude among staff, should be emphasized (Mensah et al., 2016; Thabit and Raewf, 2017). Meanwhile, organizations with low satisfaction and low OJ will suffer a high staff turnover rate, and it

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will therefore not be able to reach its institutional goals, which will lead to the creation of a culture of misunderstanding about the issues within the organization and among its employees (Ghran et al., 2019). A high degree of employee satisfaction is an essential element for the growth and efficiency of an organization. From this perspective, a management structure with members that are satisfied in the workplace will be more efficient than those with unsatisfied employees (Thabit, 2015; Raewf and Thabit, 2018; Jameel and Ahmad, 2019b; Jasim and Raewf, 2020). Most of the previous research agreed that OJ plays a vital role in improving JS and individual results. Therefore, a low level or absence of justice in the workplace will lead to a low level of employee satisfaction. However, employees who are treated equally will contribute positively to the organization in agreement with their satisfaction.

This topic has attracted the attention of many researchers over the past years (Raewf and Thabit, 2015; Bayarçelik and Findikli, 2016; Suifan et al., 2017; Mashi, 2018; Thabit & Raewf, n.d.). However, limited studies have been conducted in the Iraqi context (Ghran et al., 2019). Most of the previous studies were focused on employees of banks (Bayarçelik and Findikli, 2016; Thabit et al., 2016; Thabit and Raewf, 2018; Safdar and Liu, 2019), staff in correctional services (Lambert et al., 2019), and school employees (Thabit and Jasim, 2016, 2019; Ghran et al., 2019), with limited studies conducted among nurses (Faheem and Mahmud, 2015).

The main objective of this study was to determine the effect of the different dimensions of OJ on JS among nurses at 2 hospitals located in Erbil, Iraq.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Organizational Justice

Adams' Equity theory considers the basis of OJ and, according to this theory, the level of success and satisfaction of the employees is highly depended on the equity among individuals in the working environment (Ghran et al., 2019; Jameel et al., 2020). According to this theory, the employees usually compare their achievements in the workplace with those of other colleagues and what they receive in terms of salaries, promotions, work load, and rights in a given situation. In light of this information, OJ reflects the employees'

observation of just and fair behaviors inside the organization and the individuals' reactions to these perceptions (Karem et al., 2019). According to the literature, OJ consists of 3 fundamental dimensions.

DJ refers to the fair distribution of rewards, resources, punishment, and promotions according to specified criteria and the reactions of the employees to these distributions among them. According to Greenberg (1990), DJ is focused on equity, not equality. Lambert et al. (2019) defined equality as the equal treatment of all the employees regardless of the efforts they put into the workplace, whereas equity refers to the assessment of employees based on their input into the organizational outcomes, contrasting them to what other employees have earned in similar situations and what is perceived to be just (Jameel et al., 2020). DJ refers to the fairness of the outcomes in terms of distribution to individuals (Suifan et al., 2017). According to Mensah et al. (2016), the distribution can be monetary or nonmonetary, such as salary payments, promotions, etc., and will be recognized as fair if the results meet the individuals' expectations which, in turn, is related to their inputs (Wang et al., 2010).

PJ refers to the understanding of the justice of the institutional processes applied by the institution during decision making. According to Wang et al. (2010), PJ relates to the fairness of the process, which is related to decision making based on the outcomes.

Many staff members want the procedures used to assess distributive results to be transparent, open, and fair, regardless of the outcome (Lambert et al., 2019; Jameel et al., 2020).

The third dimension was introduced by Bies and Moag (1986) and is referred to as IJ. IJ represents the individual's understanding of the consistency of activities they experience when implementing the organizational procedures. IJ implies that the individuals receive fair treatment during resource allocation and decision making (Wang et al., 2010).

IJ refers to treatment that is honest, respectful, shows integrity, and justice during decisions involving the subordinates (Bies & Moag, 1986). In addition, according to Bies and Moag (1986), IJ could be broken down into

interpersonal justice, which refers to the treatment of individuals and subordinates with respect and dignity, and informational justice, which refers to the provision of information and honest explanations about decision making.

2.2. Job Satisfaction

JS is a positive, emotionally self-reported condition based on the assessment of a job or workplace experiences (Locke, 1976). Locke (1976) found that 7 job challenges are usually related to JS. These include the following: physically challenging environment, authentic interest in the specific job, employment that is not too stressful, equal incentives, favorable working conditions, boasting of employee self-esteem, and support from management in terms of the management of issues, provision of interesting work, and the availability of good salaries and/or promotions. According to Karem et al. (2019), JS is a multidimensional term that involves the employees' job conditions and their level of satisfaction. According to Spector (1985) and Bayarçelik and Findikli, (2016), JS refers to a positive or negative feeling and emotional assessment of the individuals regarding JS. In this regard, JS is an individual assessment of the employee satisfaction. This perception of employees can be enhanced in a positive or negative way by different factors, internal or external, in the workplace such as payment, working environment, and promotions. According to Organ (1988) and Ahmad and Jameel (2020), JS has 2 elements, namely motional and cognitive. The emotional element reflects the individual's current emotional state, whereas the cognitive element analyzes the current situation and evaluates the expectations and standards. JS is the individuals' passion for their work and their positive sense of the job after determining that the work meets their needs (Griffin et al., 2010; Jameel & Ahmad, 2019a; Massoudi et al., 2020). JS is based on the hierarchy of Maslow (1943) who described the needs of the individual and stated that the fulfillment of these needs will lead to JS. The 2-factor theory of Herzberg (1976) states that some organizational variables such as accomplishment, development, progression, appreciation, and obligation can contribute to job satisfaction.

2.3 Hypotheses Development

Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction

Individual expectations of justice in the activities of the institution reflect different favorable outcomes for staff and forecast several working conditions and behaviors (Irving et al., 2005). Accordingly, JS can be achieved by different means like promotions, payments, supervision, and the actions of peers in the workplace (Ahmad & Jameel, 2018). Moreover, justice could be a key component of the success of the organization and could have an impact on different outcomes in an organization (Irving et al., 2005). According to Colquitt et al. (2001), OJ is one of the most researched topics and is a strong predictor of JS among the employees. In addition, a meta-analysis conducted by Colquitt et al. (2001) determined that positive perceptions about organizational justice improved JS for individual employees. Therefore, we propose that a positive perception of OJ at the workplace contributes positively to JS (Ambrose et al., 2007) and that different forms of OJ improve different aspects of JS (Irving et al., 2005; Ouyang et al., 2015). According to Mashi, (2018), individuals who are treated fairly in the workplace will be more satisfied with their job. The study conducted by McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) showed that DJ has a greater impact on JS than PJ. However, according to Ghnan et al. (2019) DJ has a greater impact on JS than IJ, whereas PJ has an insignificant impact on JS. Moreover, Masterson et al. (2000) indicated that PJ has a greater impact on JS than IJ. Bayarçelik and Findikli (2016) and Lambert et al. (2019) reported that DJ and PJ have a positive impact on JS, whereas IJ had an insignificant effect on JS. A study conducted by Mashi (2018) reported that the 3 dimensions of OJ, namely DJ, PJ, and IJ, have a positive relationship with JS. The study conducted among bank employees in Pakistan by Safdar and Liu (2019) found that job satisfaction was positively impacted by DJ and PJ. However, a limited number of studies have been conducted to determine the impact of OJ on JS in Arab countries in general and in Iraq in particular (Ghnan et al., 2019). A study conducted by Suifan et al. (2017) in Jordan reported that OJ has a positive and significant effect on JS in the Jordanian context. According to the studies conducted in the field of OJ, a high justice will increase the satisfaction in the organization among the employees. However, a profound understanding of OJ will lead to JS, which in turn will lead to an increased ambition of the employees to achieve the organizational goals. A summary of previous studies are illustrated in Table 1. Based on these studies, the following hypotheses were developed for this study:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): DJ positively affects JS among nurses. Hypothesis 3 (H3): PJ positively affects JS among nurses.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): IJ positively affects JS among nurses.

Table 1: Summary of previous studies

Year	Author(s)	Type of data and research method	Theory	Method of estimation	Key findings
2007	Ambrose, Hess & Ganesan	Primary data—quantitative	None	Correlation and regression	OJ at the workplace has a positive impact on JS
2018	Mashi	Primary data—quantitative	Equity theory	Regression	individuals who are treated fairly in the workplace will be more satisfied with their job and the 3 dimensions of OJ, namely DJ, PJ and IJ have a positive impact on JS
1992	McFarlin and Sweeney	Primary data—quantitative	Contingency theory	Regression and correlation	DJ has a greater impact on JS than PJ
2019	Ghran et al.	Primary data—quantitative	Adams' Equity theory and 2-factor theory of Herzberg	Regression	DJ has a greater impact on JS than IJ, whereas PJ had an insignificant effect on JS
2000	Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor	Primary data—quantitative	Social exchange theory	Correlation and regression	PJ has a more substantial impact on JS than IJ
2016	Bayarçelik and Findikli	Primary data—quantitative	Adams' Equity theory	Regression	DJ and PJ have a positive impact on JS, whereas IJ had an insignificant effect on JS
2019	Lambert et al.	Primary data—Quantitative	None	Ordinary least squares regression	DJ and PJ have a positive impact on JS, whereas IJ had an insignificant effect on JS
2019	Safdar and Liu	Primary data—quantitative	Social exchange theory this	Correlation and regression	JS was positively impacted by DJ and PJ
2017	Suifan et al.	Primary data—quantitative	None	Multiple regression analysis	OJ has a positive and significant effect on JS in the Jordanian context
2001	Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng	Secondary data—qualitative	None	Systematic review	OJ strongly predictor of job satisfaction and improve Job satisfaction
2019	Jameel, Ahmad and Karem	Secondary data	Adams' Equity theory	Review	Proposed that the 3 dimensions of OJ have a positive and significant impact on JS

DJ: distributive justice, IJ: interactional justice, JS: job satisfaction, OJ: organizational justice, PJ: procedural justice

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sampling

A total of 148 nurses who work at 2 hospitals in Erbil, Kurdistan Region, Iraq, participated in this study. A stratified sampling technique was employed in this study to ensure an equal distribution of the participants among the 2 hospitals. A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed; only 151 were returned for a 76% response rate, and 148 of these were used for the analysis. The data collected were analyzed using SPSS Statistics software (version 25) for outliers, missing values, and Cronbach’s alpha. However, the main analysis was conducted using analysis of a moment structures (AMOS) software (version 21) to examine the model fit, model validation, reliability, measurement model, and structural model.

3.2. Questionnaire

The questionnaires consisted of 2 sections. The first section represented the demographic questions and the second section consisted of 3 independent variables (IVs) and /1 dependent variable (DV) that was adopted from previous studies. All the questions were translated from English into the Kurdish language to increase the understandability for the respondents using a “translation-back translation” process (Brislin, 1970). The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale to measure the outcomes, which ranged from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree. In this research tool that was adapted from previous studies, JS was determined by 4 items and OJ was determined by 11 items as presented in Table 2.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Analysis Process

To verify that the questioners are normally distributed, the skewness and kurtosis were tested, and, according to Byrne (2013), if the values ranged between 2 and -2, the standard error of the mean (SEM) can be used for analysis. The results met the criteria for normal distribution. Generally, the SEM is determined in 2 main steps. The first step is to evaluate the convergent validity and reliability, which is called the measurement model. The second step is to assess the analysis path, which is called the structural model (Hair et al., 2010).

4.1.1. Measurement model

4.1.1.1. Confirmatory factor analysis

According to Hair et al. (2010), the validity and reliability should be assessed by 3 factors, namely loadings, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). Table 2 illustrates that the factor loadings for all the items exceeded the recommended level, namely 0.5, as proposed by Hair et al. (2010). The lowest loading was 0.60 for JS1 and the highest was 0.88 for PJ1. However, all the CR and Cronbach alpha values were higher than the cutoff value of 0.7, which was recommended by Hair et al. (2010). Nonetheless, according to Hair et al. (2010), the minimum AVE level should be 0.6. Therefore, all the AVE values exceeded the recommended level as can be seen in Table 2 and Figure 1. Accordingly, the validity and reliability of this study were achieved.

Table 2: Validity and reliability

Construct	Items	Item-total correlation	AVE >0.5	Standardized loading	CR >0.7	Cronbach’s alpha >0.7	Source
Job satisfaction	JS1	.36	0.543	.60	0.826	.825	(Faheem & Mahmud, 2015; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010)
	JS2	.60		.77			
	JS3	.74		.86			
	JS4	.48		.69			
Distributive justice	DJ1	.70	0.649	.84	0.852	.878	(Faheem & Mahmud, 2015; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010)
	DJ2	.71		.84			
	DJ3	.70		.84			
	DJ4	.48		.69			
Procedural justice	PJ1	.77	0.705	.88	0.862	.905	(Faheem & Mahmud, 2015; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010)
	PJ2	.65		.80			
	PJ3	.71		.84			
	PJ4	.69		.83			

Table 3: Goodness-of-fit indices for the measurement model

Fit index	Acceptable level		Sources		Results		
x ² /df	≤5		(Hair et al., 2010)		1.41		
RMSEA	<.08		(B. M. (2001) Byrne, 2001)		.053		
NNFI (TLI)	≥.90		(Hair et al., 2009)		.962		
AGFI	≥.80		(Hair et al., 2010)		.870		
CFI	≥.90		(Chau, 1997)		.969		
GFI	≥.90		(Hu & Bentler, 1999)		.905		
NFI	≥.90		(Chau, 1997)		.902		
Interactional justice	IJ1	.66	0.624	.81	0.829	.825	(Faheem & Mahmud, 2015; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010)
	IJ2	.76		.87			
	IJ3	.45		.67			

AVE: average variance extracted, CR: composite reliability, DJ: distributive justice, IJ: interactional justice, JS: job satisfaction, PJ: procedural justice

4.1.1.2. Model fit

By assessing the absolute fit, the results have shown that all the criteria of the model were acceptable as shown below:

Root mean square error (RMSE)=.053, comparative fit index (CFI)=.969, goodness-of-fit indices (GFI)=.905,

and non-normed fit index (NNFI)=.962, which indicate that the model is a good fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), if the GFI is greater than 0.90 and the RMSE value is less than 0.08, the fit model meets the acceptability criteria. However, other GFI criteria also achieved the required levels as detailed in Table 3 and Figure 1.

AGFI: adjusted goodness-of-fit index, CFI: comparative fit index, GFI: goodness-of-fit indices, NFI: normed fit index, NNFI: non-normed fit index

4.1.2. Structural model

4.1.2.1. Path analysis

After achieving the model fit as mentioned, the next step was to examine the hypotheses of the study. Regression

weights were used to find the impact of the IVs on the DVs as hypothesized from the literature review. Table 4 below illustrates the regression results.

Table 4: Hypotheses test

H	DV	Path	IV	Estimate	SE	CR	p	Status
H1	JS	<---	DJ	.436	.107	4.077	***	Supported
H2	JS	<---	IJ	.247	.109	2.261	.023	Supported
H3	JS	<---	PJ	.220	.104	2.123	.001	Supported

CR: composite reliability, DJ: DJ: distributive justice, DV: dependent variable, H1: Hypothesis 1, H2: Hypothesis 2, H3: Hypothesis 3, IJ: interactional justice, IV: independent variables, PJ: procedural justice, SE:

The first hypothesis indicated that DJ had a positive and significant effect on JS among nurses at a level of $\beta = 0.436$; $p = .000$. Thus, H1 was supported. This result is supported by previous studies (Lambert et al., 2019; Ghran et al., 2019). Similarly, we predicated that IJ has a

positive effect on JS with $\beta=0.247$, $p=.023$) Thus, H2 was supported. These results are in line with the study by Ghran et al. (2019). The third hypothesis was to determine the effect of PJ on JS and, according to the result ($\beta=0.220$, $p=0.001$), H3 was supported. Similar findings were reported by Lambert et al. (2019).

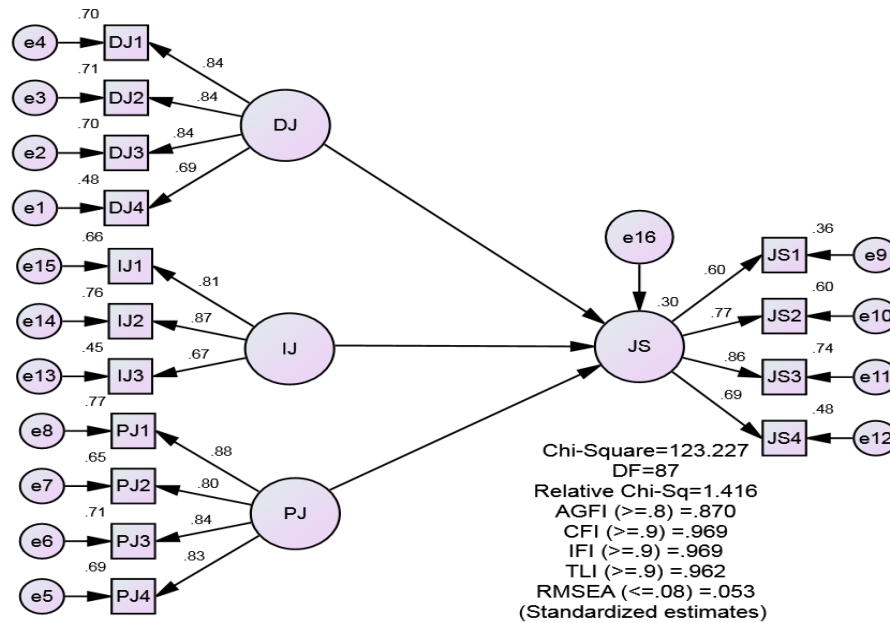


Figure 1. Structural model

5. DISCUSSION

The importance of justice in organizations has been debated for decades (e.g., Greenberg, 1987). However, it is necessary to systematically investigate its effect in developing countries, and in particular in Iraq. The current study fills this gap and empirically enriched the body of knowledge about OJ in the Iraqi setting. This study found that OJ has an effect on JS and this result is Likewise, believing that the processes in the workplace is fair will aid in perceiving a task in a more favorable light. The sense of inequality that is experienced in hospitals leads to feelings of anger and mistrust among the nurses. If an individual feels that his/her managers or supervisors in the organization or hospital treats him/her fairly, the

supported by previous studies (Mashi, 2018; Suifan et al., 2017).

Once individuals realize that both the processes and results are equal and fair, JS will be high in the workplace. Feeling appreciated for job achievements generally meets the needs of being treated equally, leading to positive feelings.

level of confidence among the individuals or nurses regarding the organization or hospital will be high. When justice exists in the hospital, nurses will feel that they are essential in the workplace. Under these circumstances, the individuals will be more committed to the workplace and this will lead to an increase in JS and efficiency among them. Conditions that contribute to JS is transparency and

equality of the payment system and in the development of a labor system. JS will be achieved if the salary is equal and fair on the basis of the type of work and personal skills. Most individuals will consciously want to earn less income if they could work anywhere they want or experience less discrimination. The key to linking what the individuals receive, in terms of wages, to job satisfaction is not determined by the total amount earned by an employee but is dependent on the employee's sense of fairness and justice within the organization. Clearly, employees who feel satisfied with the equity practices and policies of the institution will actually have more job satisfaction in the workplace. Organizations or hospitals can achieve their goals and objectives more readily with effective and efficient staff, which can be achieved with a productive and successful human resources department in the organization or hospitals. The main task of the organization or hospital is to take steps toward fairness and JS in the workplace, because it is of utmost importance to the success of the organization or hospital.

6. CONCLUSION

Sufficient training should be provided to supervisors to familiarize them with the values and pillars of justice in the workplace so that these can be implemented by the organization or hospital. At the same time, supervisors and administrators must be encouraged to communicate with the workers or nurses and to use the values and outcomes of the theory of OJ. The results of this study provide supervisors and administrators with information about how improvement in OJ can lead to an increase JS and on-the-job facilitation of employee innovation.

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Teachers' Perceptions on Adaptation of Sunrise Coursebook at Sulaymaniyah Governorate in Kurdistan Region of Iraq

Kochar Ali Saeed*

English Department, Komar University of Science and Technology, Sulaymaniyah, Kurdistan Region- F. R. Iraq

*Corresponding author's email: kochar.saeed@komar.edu.iq

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to determine if teachers employ any adaptations during their classes, and if so, what kind of adaptations are employed and how these are employed. This study sought to determine if adaptations are employed in correct and authentic ways. For this study, a qualitative method was used. The tool used in this study was a semi-structured interview. The questions of the semi-structured interview were adapted from Nguyen (2015). The study cohort was made up of teachers who were using or had used the *Sunrise* course books (levels 7, 8, and 9) in their teaching in the Sulaymaniyah Governorate in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq (KRI). The findings of this study showed that all the teachers employ adaptations in the classroom but to different degrees; some of them use only 1 or 2 types of adaptations because of the limited time they have available in their classes, whereas others apply most of the types of adaptations. Finally, the results showed that there is a positive relationship between experience and adaptation, with those teachers who had more experience employing more methods of adaptations during their classes.

Keywords: Coursebook adaptation, Sunrise coursebook, Teacher's perceptions, Textbook, Evaluation

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The importance of the English language in the global community has placed a lot of emphasis on the study thereof, especially because English has arguably become the lingua franca of global communications. It is, therefore, not surprising that English is being taught as a foreign language in many

countries. It has become one of the major subjects in many educational systems in the world, especially in private schools. Throughout the world, instructors attempt to help students keep up to date with the progress of science and technology through the medium of English. Because of the importance of the language, the Kurdistan Region of Iraq (KRI) has given special importance to English as a subject at public and private schools. The focus of this study is on the teaching of English in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq.

Knowing the importance of coursebooks in the field of language teaching and learning, most specialists have asserted that textbooks are useful and should be used in English language teaching (ELT). Tomlinson (1998) noted that some people are against the use of textbooks

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for teaching English because the content and applications are limited and do not necessarily meet the needs of the students. In contrast, some people have a more positive perception about the use of textbooks for teaching English because they feel it guides them to have a more structured approach and practical sequence of teaching the language. Although the views on the use of textbooks are multidimensional, most of the teachers prefer to have their textbooks when teaching or planning to teach. In addition, textbooks are necessary for the daily practical exercises that students need to complete during the learning process. Therefore, textbooks have become a common component of ELT (Torres & Hutchinson, 1994; Tomlinson, 1998).

1.2. Problems Statement

As mentioned in the previous section, textbooks play a vital role in the process of teaching. Every textbook, however, has its limitations, and through evaluation, researchers can identify the key areas for improvement. Hassan and Ghafor (2014) investigated the suitability of the Sunrise course at the seventh level in schools in Kurdistan's context and they found that the Sunrise course is well designed and suitable for teaching a foreign language and for the training programs at this specific level. However, the teaching and learning environment in the KRI is not well suited for the implementation of this coursebook. Sofi-Karim (2015) focused on ELT in Kurdistan in general and noted in his study that this coursebook has a few problems because it has been redeveloped based on the communicative approach but it did not develop the students' communicative skills. According to those studies, teaching from the Sunrise course for the teacher and learning from it for the students present with some difficulties.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate the problems with the Sunrise course. This study aimed to discover if teachers employ methods of adaptation during their classes. If so, the study aimed to determine what kind of adaptation methods are used and how they are employed. The main motivation for this study was to address the problems with and deficiencies of the *Sunrise*

course, as reported by some researchers (Hassan & Ghafor 2014; Sofi-Karim, 2015). Vernez et al. (2014), in their books, asserted that students' answers in national English language tests were lower than expected. For example, in 2008, the national tests for grade 9 students showed that about one-third of the students did not pass English, with grades lower than 50%. Less than 5% of the students scored higher than 85% in English language examinations. In addition, there is no study on the adaptation used for teaching using the *Sunrise* course materials.

1.4. Research Questions

This study investigated if teachers employ any adaptation methods during their classes. If they do so, it aimed to identify what kinds of adaptations they employ and how these are employed. It sought to determine if teachers employ adaptations in the correct and authentic ways. According to these aims, this study attempted to answer the following questions:

- (1) How do the teachers adapt *Sunrise*?
- (2) Is there any correlation between the participants' teaching experience and the textbook adaptations practiced?

1.5. Significance of the Study

This study investigated the perceptions of teachers on the adaptation of the *Sunrise* course. More specifically, this study was conducted with English teachers who taught or who are currently teaching English at levels 7, 8, and 9 using the *Sunrise* course.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. A Brief History of the English Language in Kurdistan

The Kurdistan Region gained autonomy in 1991, but the same Iraqi English Syllabi have been used until 2007 when the Ministry of Education in the KRI designed a new coursebook with local and international experts called *Sunrise*, but, as Sofi-Karim (2015) mentioned in his study, this new coursebook had several problems

because it was designed based on approaches that could not develop students' communicative competence. The socioeconomic and political problems in Iraq and Kurdistan did not allow the new coursebook to be an effective means of teaching English language syllabi. *Sunrise* also failed to meet the requirements of English learners in Kurdish (Sofi-Karim, 2015).

The main objective of *Sunrise* is to teach English as a foreign language (EFL) in public schools in the Regional Government of Kurdistan and to improve Kurdish students' communicative competence to a high level of accuracy and fluency. This is to ensure the success of the students in their future academic careers and to ensure their development in a wide range of areas of global interest and for employment. In the educational system in Kurdistan and Iraq, English is considered an essential subject.

2.2. Adaptation of ELT Materials and Reasons for Adaptation

According to McDonough and Shaw (2012), there is a direct and strong relationship between adapting and evaluating. This relationship can be noticed in reasons for employing adaptations and the criteria for using them. According to Rodrigues (2015), adaptation means "setting" something like a text or activity to make it more applicable and acceptable. "Adaptation cannot be totally denied of the manual and teachers must follow the curriculum offered by the institution for academic purposes" (p.115). Moreover, Allwright (1990) noted that materials should help learners to learn how to use books as resources for ideas and guide teachers to explain the purpose of the various teaching and learning activities. Allwright's perception of textbooks is that they are too rigid to be used directly as teaching material. In addition, Tomlinson (2006) said the following:

"Most materials, whether they are written for a global market, for an institution or even for a class, aim to satisfy the needs and wants of an idealized group of target learners who share similar needs and levels of proficiency No matter how good the materials are, they will not by themselves manage to cater to the different needs, wants, learning styles, attitudes, cultural norms and

experiences of individual learners." (p.1)

Researchers define adaptation in different ways. Mısırlı (2010) said that, "when instructional materials set a barrier to student learning, the teacher can adapt it to allow the learners to reach greater success. This can be seen as changing the level, context or additions of activity in order to cover the needs" (p. 5). Teachers have an important role in adaptation. Thus, they have to be aware of what they are doing and how to do it because it is vital for the process of learning as Madsen and Bowen (1978) pointed out:

"The good teacher is constantly adapting. He adapts when he adds an example not found in the book or when he telescopes an assignment by having students prepare 'only the even-numbered items.' He adapts even when he refers to an exercise covered earlier, or when he introduces a supplementary pictureWhile a conscientious author tries to anticipate questions that may be raised by his readers, the teacher can respond not merely to verbal questions . . . but even to the raised eyebrows of his students." (p. vii)

Accordingly, Sikorova (2011) identified the following 3 approaches that are applied in the use of textbooks: adhering, elaborating, and creating. Adhering considers the textbook and concludes that there will be few or no chance for adaptation. Elaborating adds more resources to the textbook lessons, whereas creating refers to the development of the units of the textbook by the teachers.

Adaptation is necessary to make textbooks suitable in different contexts. Textbooks can rarely be used without adaptation because different contexts require changes in the textbook. With regards to that, McDonough and Shaw (2003) mentioned that the purpose of adaptation is to personalize, individualize, or localize the context. Personalizing is related to the enhancement of the relevance of the content according to learners' involvement and needs. Individualizing refers to the consideration of the individual learning styles of students and when working in groups. Localizing considers the geographical location of the group that is being taught because a textbook that can be used effectively in one country like Iran, for example, might not be effective when used in the teaching of groups in a different country like Russia. Furthermore, modernizing was added to the

list of adaptations by Madsen and Bowen (1987, cited in McDonough & Shaw, 2003), which refers to the updating of textbooks because outdated materials may be misleading and contain incorrect information. When adapting textbooks, the needs and interests of the learners should be considered. In light of that, learners should also be consulted to specify what they want to be added or to know what is lacking during the process of designing the curriculum (Allwright, 1981).

There are different reasons offered for adaptation as investigated by several scholars. Nation and Macalister (2010), for instance, considered adaptation as a conservative top-down pedagogy and mentioned some reasons for adaptations:

- (1) The coursebook does not include all the activities that the teacher has used successfully before.
- (2) The coursebook material does not fit comfortably into the time available for the course.
- (3) The coursebook contains content that is unsuitable for the learners' level of proficiency or age.
- (4) The coursebook does not include all the language items, skills, ideas, discourse, or strategies that the learners need.
- (5) The coursebook does not apply principles that the teacher feels should be applied (p. 161).

Two important factors for the success of the learning process were suggested by Sheikhzadeh Marand (2011), which are the effectiveness in accomplishing the purpose of the course and the suitability of the materials for the learners' comfort with and knowledge of the materials. Therefore, teachers should not simply be at the service of the content of textbooks; that is, the role of the teacher is not just to present the content of printed materials, but to transform the materials so as to enhance the understanding of the subject matter. Cunningsworth (1984) warned teachers that textbooks are good servants but poor masters. Cunningsworth (1984) asserted that teachers whose objectives are enshrined in finishing the textbook are servants of the textbook. Therefore, Sheikhzadeh Marand (2001) maintained that the teachers' aim should be to focus on "what students need to learn" (p. 553). Teachers need to free themselves from the confines of the classroom to recognize the purpose for which the students will use the language after they have learned it (Sheikhzade Marand, 2001).

There is a need to have well-defined adaptation objectives for adoption or adaptation of materials that can motivate students to learn (Islam & Mares, 2003). In order to obtain appropriate criteria, materials should be adapted according to McDonough and Shaw's (2003) list of objectives: personalize, individualize, localize, and modernize. This list was further expanded by Islam and Mares (2003) to include the following: adding real choice, accommodating all sensory styles of learners, providing more learner autonomy, promoting a higher level of cognitive skills, and making the input of language more accessible and engaging.

Finding a mismatch between the teaching materials and the needs and objectives of the students and curriculum promotes a need for the adaptation of existing materials (McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Cunningsworth, 1995). Classroom materials require adaptation in a structured way to express the needs within certain contexts of teaching, to enhance the acquisition of skills required for a second language, and to adapt to teaching practices. Regardless of the above-mentioned conditions, selecting materials may result in failure. A careful study should be carried out before changing the existing programs that are employed. Whenever information can be collected, program designers should utilize it.

There are a lot of reasons for adaptation as proposed by McDonough and Shaw (2012), which are listed below:

- Not enough grammar coverage in general.
- Not enough practice of grammar points of particular difficulty for these learners.
- The communicative focus means that grammar is presented unsystematically.
- Reading passages contain too much unknown vocabulary.
- Comprehension questions are too easy because the answers can be lifted directly from the text with no real understanding.
- Listening passages are not authentic because they sound too much like written material being read out.
- Not enough guidance on pronunciation.
- Subject matter inappropriate for learners of a specific age and intellectual level.
- Photographs and other illustrative material are not culturally acceptable.

- The amount of material is too much or too little to cover in the time allocated to lessons.
- No guidance for teachers on handling group work and role-play activities with a large class.
- Dialogs too formal and not representative of everyday speech.
- Audio material difficult to use because of problems related to the room size and technical equipment.
- Too much or too little variety in the activities.
- Vocabulary list and a key to the exercises would be helpful.
- Accompanying tests needed.

2.3. Types of Adaptation in ELT materials

Five different types of adaptations are suggested by McDonough and Shaw (2012).

2.3.1. Addition

Addition means adding something to the coursebook. It could be done in 2 ways, namely qualitatively or quantitatively. Teachers can add an entirely different exercise to the book, or they can just expand what is already in the coursebook.

Quantitative addition is achieved by the technique of extending. For example, the materials contain exercises in pronunciation of minimal pairs (bit/ bet, hat/hate, ship/chip) but do not contain enough examples of the difficulties for learners with a particular pronunciation. Japanese speakers may need more “l/r” exercises, Arabic speakers more “p/b”, Spanish speakers more “b/v”, Kurdish speakers more “s/θ” or “z/ ð”, and so forth.

Qualitative addition is achieved by the technique of expanding. For example, if there is insufficient coverage of the skill of listening, the reading passage provided may also be paralleled by the provision of listening comprehension material, using the same vocabulary and ideas, but presented through a different medium, making sure that it is authentic in terms of the spoken language.

It is worth pointing out that additions do not always have to be made at the end of something. A new facet of material or methodology can be introduced before it appears in the framework of the coursebook. For example, a teacher may prepare the ground for an exercise

in an aspect of grammar or communicative function as required by the syllabus through a “warm-up” exercise that encourages the learners to talk about themselves and their everyday lives.

2.3.2. Deletion/Omission

Deletion is the complete opposite of addition. Teachers or instructors can delete qualitatively or quantitatively. The teacher may eliminate the whole part of an exercise or just delete some of them.

Subtracting is to reduce the length of material, as in subtracting from it. For example, in the example used for pronunciation exercises about minimal pairs, the exercises contain too much general material. Because the students all have the same mother tongue and do not make certain errors, many of the exercises are inappropriate. Arabic speakers, for example, will be unlikely to have much difficulty with the “l/r” distinction.

The changes are greater if the material is not only subtracted but also, what we shall term, abridged. For example, some section materials contain a discussion section at the end of each unit. However, our learners are not really proficient enough to attempt this adequately, because they are not fluent in the use of the language structures that they have been taught. The syllabus and its subsequent examination do not leave room for this kind of training.

2.3.3. Modification/Changing

Modification simply means making some changes in different areas of the materials such as in the linguistics, assessment system, exercises, and so forth. "It can be subdivided under two related headings. The first of these is rewriting, when some of the linguistic content needs modification; the second is restructuring, which applies to classroom management" (p.73).

Rewriting: Currently, the most frequently stated reason for changing the focus of the study materials is for it to be made “more communicative.” This challenge is voiced in many teaching situations in which the textbooks are deemed insufficient for catering to the students' linguistic and learning needs.

Restructuring: For many teachers who are required to

follow a coursebook, changes in the structuring of the class are sometimes the only kind of adaptation possible. For example, the materials may contain role-play activities for groups of a certain size. The logistics of managing a large class (especially if they all have the same L1) are complex from many points of view, and it will probably be necessary to assign 1 role to a number of pupils at the same time.

2.3.4. Simplification

Simplification implies making materials more comprehensible and less complicated. If the material seems to be too difficult or complex for the learner to comprehend, the material can be simplified to better suit the needs of the learners and to help them to achieve their goal more readily. McDonough and Shaw (2012,) mentioned some examples for simplification:

- (1) Sentence structure: sentence length is reduced, or a complex sentence is rewritten as a number of simpler ones, for example, by the replacement of relative pronouns by nouns and pronouns followed by the main verb.
- (2) Lexical content: to control the number of new vocabulary items according to previous concepts, which have already been learned.
- (3) Grammatical structures: for instance, passives are converted to actives, simple past tense to simple present, and reported speech to direct speech.

2.3.5. Rearrangement or Reordering

Rearrangement refers to rearranging the sequence or order of some parts of a textbook. The teacher may reorder something in the textbook to match the learner's aims or to provide them with some information before the introduction of new information to increase understanding. Reordering of material is appropriate in the following kinds of situations: materials typically present "the future" by terms such as "will" and "going to." However, for many learners, certainly at the intermediate level and above, it is helpful to show the relationship between the time reference and the grammatical tense in a more accurate way. In this example, we would probably wish to include the simple

present and the present continuous as part of the notion of "futurity," perhaps by using a sentence such as, "Next term begins on 9 September" or "She retires in 2015" as illustrations.

In addition, reordering can include separating items of content from each other as well as regrouping these and putting different items together. An obvious example is a lesson on a particular language function believed to contain too many new grammar points for the current proficiency level of the learners.

Adaptation can be employed in external or internal sources; it can include changes to the coursebook or the addition of some parts from other sources. Adaptation is necessary for the following reasons: localizing, personalizing, or individualizing the textbook. As mentioned previously, adaptation can be done by using some techniques like adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, or reordering. In addition, adaptation can be done in any part of the textbook such as for language practice, texts, skills, and classroom management.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

An interview was used in this study to collect data from participants as part of survey. Brown and Rodgers (2002) said that, "Surveys are any procedures used to gather and describe the characteristics, attitudes, views, opinions and so forth of students, teachers, administrators or any other people who are important to a study" (p. 142).

3.2. The Context of the Study

For this study, the *Sunrise* coursebook was used. It was designed specifically for KRI students and published by Macmillan. This coursebook has been in use in Kurdistan since 2007. It contains 12 different levels of books, namely level 1 to level 12. For each level there is a student book, activity book, teachers' book, and a CD for audio; for the first few levels, flashcards are also included. Three *Sunrise* course levels in the basic school were chosen for this study. These levels were chosen because the researcher had taught these levels and was fully aware of what the levels are about.

3.3. Participants

The participants of this study were teachers who have taught or who are presently teaching from the *Sunrise* coursebooks (levels 7, 8, and 9). The participants were from the Sulaymaniyah Governorate in KRI. Teachers from the Sulaymaniyah Governorate were chosen for this study because it is the most populated Governorate in Kurdistan. During the time the data were collected, the country was going through some economic and political problems, and because of this, the students were not at schools and were not able to participate in the study.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

3.4.1. Semi-structured interview

The semi-structured interview was adapted from Nguyen (2015) (Appendix A). Some questions were deleted from the original interview questions because they were not applicable to the *Sunrise* coursebook. A semi-structured interview method was chosen because, in this kind of interview, the questions are more open and new ideas are allowed to be added during the interviews. The interview consisted of the following 9 categories: the first one was the overall evaluation of the course, the second one was about the organization and structure, the third was on the activities, the fourth was on the vocabulary and grammar, the fifth was on the language level, the sixth one was on the supporting resources, the seventh one was on the practical considerations, the eighth one was on the physical appearance and content pages, and the last one was on adaptation. For each category, there were some different questions.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

In order to collect the data, a permission letter was received from the general Directorate of Sulaymaniyah education. Then the interviews with the 20 teachers were done online. In the first step, they signed a consent form (Appendix B) and sent it back to the researcher. A Skype call was then used and it was explained to them that it was an audio-recorded interview. The questions were asked one by one to the teachers. The audio-recorded interview was done by using the Camtasia studio 9 program for recording.

3.6. Data Analysis

The qualitative data were collected from the interviews with the English teachers. Content analysis was used. First, the interviews were transcribed, and then the data from the interviews were analyzed. Similar answers that were given by different people, which represented the most common responses, were grouped.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Adaptation

The questions started with general questions, which was then transformed into specific questions. This was followed by some general questions about the *Sunrise* coursebook and then the adaptation methods used in the classroom. The questions were as follows: "Do you do any adaptation in your classes?", "What do you usually adapt?", "How do you do those adaptations?". Based on the answers to those questions, the teachers were divided into 3 groups. Group 1 comprised teachers who had 1 and 2 years of experience, group 2 comprised those who had 3 to 6 years of experience, and group 3 comprised those who had more than 6 years of experience. Four of the teachers had 1 or 2 years of experience. These 4 teachers did not adapt very often, and they only deleted some parts because of time constraints that did not allow them to finish on time.

The second group were those teachers who had between 3 and 6 years of experience; there were 8 teachers. They employed almost all the types of adaptation, they focused on important parts first and simplified them, and they added some more examples or exercises whenever their students needed these. As they explained during the interview, they had done some modifications just to allow their students to understand better. Teacher 10 said that, "Sometime I simplify the activities to let my students understand them better." The last group, who had more than 6 years of experience, included 8 teachers. Their teaching experiences ranged between 6 and 18 years. They only employed 2 types of adaptations. The first one was reordering because they started with explaining grammar parts before continuing to other parts. In addition, they deleted some parts because of time, and from their experience, they have learned that those parts are not important for their students.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This research, by utilizing some specific criteria, attempted to identify if teachers employ any methods of adaptation during their classes when they teach from the *Sunrise* course (levels of 7, 8, and 9). If they do, the aim was to identify what kind of adaptations are employed and how they are employed. It sought to investigate if teachers employ adaptation in correct and authentic ways. This study was based on 2 research questions.

Based on the results, it can be deduced that the teachers employ adaptation during teaching but to different degrees, with some of them only employing 1 or 2 types of adaptations mostly because of the limited time they have in their class. However, other more experienced teachers employ almost all kinds of adaptations. The results show that teachers who have less than 2 years of experience, did not employ adaptation to any significant extent, but when they did, they only deleted some parts because of time constraints. Furthermore, teachers who have 3 to 6 years of experience focus on the important parts first and simplify it if it is needed before continuing to other parts, and they add some more examples or exercises whenever their students need it. However, teachers who have more than 6 years of experience only employ 2 types of adaptations. The first one is reordering because they start with explaining the grammar parts first before continuing with the other parts. Also, they delete some parts because of time constraints, and, as a part of their experiences, they have learned that those parts are not important for their students. It shows that there is a correlation between experiences and adaptation.

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Appendix A: Teacher's Semi-Structured Interview

Appendix B: Teacher's Consent Form for Interview

Semi-structured Interview Background information

Gender: Female Male

Age:

Years of experience:

Levels you have taught or you are teaching: 7 8 9

Degree: Masters Where _____ Bachelors Where _____

Diplomas Where _____ Other _____

I. Overall evaluation

1. What do you think about *Sunrise* course book?
2. What problems do you have when you use this textbook?
3. Does it encourage your students to study English more? Does it suit the learning and teaching context in your school?
4. To what extent does it help you fulfill your duty and save time to prepare lessons?

II. Organization and structure

1. Are the organization of each lesson and the linkage among lessons good to help you introduce the lesson to your students and get them to review language knowledge easily?
2. Is there any suggestions for improvements of its organization and linkage?

III. Activities

1. What do you think about activities and tasks in the textbook? Is there a diversity of activities and tasks? Are they closely related to real life? Do they tend to develop all language skills? How about the instructions? Are they clear enough for learners to understand?
2. Do you think anything needs to be improved?

IV. Vocabulary and Grammar

1. What do you think about vocabulary and grammar introduced in the textbook? Are they suitable and familiar to learners?
2. Do you think anything needs to be improved?

V. Language level

1. What do you think about language introduced in the textbook? Is it suitable at this level? Is it authentic and close to real life?
2. Do you think anything needs to be improved?

VI. Supporting resources

1. What do you think about the supporting materials? Do you think they adequately support the teacher in the preparation, instruction and evaluation processes? Why?
2. Does the teacher's book help the teachers in preparing the lesson planning?
3. Do you think anything needs to be improved?

VII. Practical considerations, physical appearance and content pages

1. What are your opinions about the physical appearance of the textbook? This includes the attractiveness of the cover sheets, size, paper quality, and artwork.
2. Are the topics interesting and suitable for your pupils?
3. Do you think anything needs to be improved?

VIII. Adaptation

- 1- Do you do any adaptation in your classes? What do you usually adapt? How do you do those adaptations?

Appendix B: Teacher's Consent Form for Interview

Consent form for interview

Research Title: Teachers' Perspective towards Evaluation and Adaptation of *Sunrise coursebook* at Sulaymaniyah Governorate in Iraqi Kurdistan

Researcher: Kochar Ali Saeed, Foreign Language Education Department, *Eastern Mediterranean University*

Instructions:

I am a master's student, I am conducting a study on evaluation and adaptation of *Sunrise coursebook (levels 7, 8, and 9)*.

Dear participants,

This interview is designed to collect your opinions about *Sunrise coursebook (levels 7, 8, and 9)*. The textbook will be evaluated in terms of its physical appearance, content and impacts on users.

It is absolutely essential that you express your views realistically. Participation in this interview is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any stage in this study without giving any reason. Your interview will be audio-recorded. The data collected from you will be very valuable in recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook.

Your identity and individual responses in this interview will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for purposes of the study only.

Signature:

Date:

If you have any queries or wish to know more, please feel free to contact me or my Supervisor:

Researcher

Kochar Ali Saeed
Kochar.ku@gmail.com
00905338425949

Supervisor

Assist. Prof. Dr. İlkay Gilanlioglu
ilkay.gilanlioglu@emu.edu.tr
00905428633434