

THE TEACHING OF ARABIC  
IN THE FACULTY OF ISLAMIC STUDIES  
IN THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MALAYSIA

A THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
IN  
TEACHING OF ARABIC AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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List of Symbols Used for Transliteration of Arabic Texts \* ✱

Consonants

Arabic	Symbol	Arabic	Symbol	Arabic	Symbol
ء	'	ز	z	ق	q
ب	b	س	s	ك	k
ت	t	ش	sh	ل	l
ث	th	ص	ṣ	م	m
ج	j	ض	ḍ	ن	n
ح	ḥ	ط	ṭ	هـ	h
خ	kh	ظ	ẓ	و	w
د	d	ع	c	ي	y
ذ	dh	غ	gh		
ر	r	ف	f		

Vowels and Diphthongs

Long Vowels		Short Vowels		Diphthongs	
اَ	ā	اِ	a	اَو	aw
وُ	ū	اُ	u	اَي	ay
يَ	ī	اِ	i		

- \* 1. These symbols are adapted from the Encyclopaedia of Islam (1960).  
 2. The transliterations are done according to reading.

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with the teaching and learning of Arabic as a second or a foreign language in Malaysia in general and in the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia in particular. Its main purpose is to evaluate the existing Arabic program in the Faculty, and to provide some suggestions for its improvement.

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. Chapter one provides some background to the teaching and learning of Arabic in Malaysia. The historical development of religious teaching and learning institutions in Malaysia, and the teaching and learning of Arabic in the existing Arabic and religious institutions in Malaysia are discussed. In addition, this first chapter also discusses the role and the status of Arabic in Malaysia in order to lay the ground for understanding the actual needs for Arabic in Malaysia.

Chapters two and three are concerned with the review of the literature in second and foreign language program design. They discuss the factors involved in SL teaching and learning, the general framework to be used in designing SL program, methods and approaches for specifying goals and objectives for such program, and the syllabuses and teaching methodologies for SL teaching and learning. At the end of chapter three, general criteria for the design and evaluation of Arabic programs are described.

Chapter four is concerned with the teaching and learning of Arabic to non-native speakers. It focuses on the historical development in TASL, issues and problems in TASL, and the teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. In addition, this chapter defines the research problem, scope of the study, hypothesis, and the research methods followed.

Chapters five, six and seven are concerned with the description, analysis and discussions of the results. The results reveal that the

existing Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies is not compatible with the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty itself. It is found that the major components of the existing program, namely objectives, syllabus content and teaching methodologies, are not compatible with the present stated goal of the program. The prescription and the design of the program components do not seem to comply with general principles for SL program design. In the light of these conditions, suggestions are provided for the improvement of the Arabic program in the Faculty. These suggestions include some important areas for further research.

## CHAPTER ONE

### BACKGROUND OF THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ARABIC IN MALAYSIA

#### 1.1 Historical Background of the Religious Teaching Institutions in Malaysia.

There is no clear evidence when exactly the teaching and learning of Arabic began in Malaysia. It is, however, presumed that it began immediately after the arrival of Islam in the Malayan Peninsula in the beginning of the fourteenth or fifteenth century A.D. (Meilink-Roelofs 1970 and Abdul-Latif 1980). Being the new religion for Malays, the indigenous population of <sup>the</sup> Malayan Peninsula, Islam naturally propagated the teaching of Islamic knowledge among Malays through the available media including the native language. However, since it was at its beginning stage and, furthermore, the very nature of Islam, Arabic was, and will always be, the indispensable element incorporated in the course of teaching Islam. Arabic has been viewed, from the very beginning, as the language without which the true and the core of Islamic revelations could never be satisfactorily attained. It is, therefore evidently true to believe that the purpose of the teaching and learning of Arabic in Malaya during this period had no other purpose than the comprehension of the Islamic teaching.

The earliest form of the teaching and learning of Arabic in Malaysia was carried out in the form of a circle system called Halqah. In this system, the teacher, normally called 'Tok Guru', and the learners sit

on the floor and together form a circle or a semi-circle. The teaching and learning in this system normally takes place either in the teacher's house, or in a mosque or in a 'surau', the place where muslims perform their five prayers in group but not the Friday prayer. This typical Islamic traditional way of teaching and learning has its root in the earliest days of Islam. It spread throughout the Malayan Peninsula and exists until the present day.

In the early twentieth century, Halqah evolved and became known as the system of Pondok which means "little hut". In this semi-institutionalized system, little huts were built by parents around the teacher's house for their sons and daughters to stay during their studies (Said 1983:17 and Şālī ḥ 1984:7).

The establishment of this system was mainly due to the efforts of the individual teachers who had graduated from the Halqah system in Arab countries and whose life was devoted to the teaching of Islam. The system of Pondok flourished throughout the Malayan Peninsula especially in the states of Kedah, Kelantan and Trengganu. Some of the most well-known of them are Pondok Tok Kenali in Kelantan, Pondok Sarang Semut in Kedah and Pondok Bukit Payong in Trengganu (Sundram 1982).

The establishment of the system of Pondok was eventually followed by the full-institutionalization of the teaching and learning of Islamic knowledge including Arabic. The institutions which carried out the task of teaching religious and Arabic subjects were known as Sekolah Uqama (religious school), or Sekolah Arab (Arabic school) or Madrasah (Arabic word for school). Among the earliest schools of this type were Madrasah Haji Taib in the state of Johor, Madrasah Muhammadiyah

in the state of Kelantan, Maktab Mahmud in the state of Kedah and Sekolah Ugama Sultan Zainal Abidin in the state of Trengganu (Abd Latif 1982). Unlike the system of Halqah and Pondok, these schools were founded and aided by the state government and run by the Department of Islamic Affairs.

Until 1950s the effort of teaching and learning of Islamic disciplines including Arabic was confined to those of individuals and state governments without any involvement or contribution from the Federal Government of Malaysia. It was only in 1961, with the introduction of the Education Act 1961, that the Federal Government began to initiate its involvement. However, the real significance of the Federal Government's involvement and contribution in this area of teaching can be seen in 1970s particularly with the establishment of the Islamic Division in the Ministry of Education of Malaysia in 1974. In 1977 the Ministry of Education introduced another type of religious school known as the National Islamic Secondary School which was put under the management of the Islamic Education Division in the Ministry of Education. By 1987 there were 28 schools of this type in Malaysia.

At the present time, students graduating from religious schools in Malaysia enjoy a variety of opportunities for higher education. There are three local universities which provide these opportunities. The universities in question are: the National University of Malaysia, the University of Malaya, and the International Islamic University. In addition, these students can also pursue their higher education in the Middle-Eastern universities such as the University of al-Azhar and the University of Ain Shams in Egypt, the University of 'Umm



ul-Qurā and the University of King °Abd ul-°Azīz in Saudi Arabia. These opportunities are very much wider by comparison to the opportunities students had before 1970. At that time, there were only two local higher institutions, namely: the Islamic College of Malaya and Islamic Institute of Nilam Puri, which could accommodate a very limited number of students. In addition, the number of the Middle-Eastern Universities which could provide places for them was very small not to mention the limited sources of financial support they had in order to pursue their studies in these universities. Between the early twentieth century and the year of Malaysian independence in 1957, the opportunity for higher education seemed to be very much restricted to those students with strong personal financial resources. During that period, there was no higher institution in the country. Hence, students who wished to pursue their higher education had to go to Cairo or Mecca at their own expenses.

To this extent, it is clear that the present development of the teaching institution for Islamic knowledge and Arabic in Malaysia has been very impressive. However, the focal question in education is not the institutionalization and the number of institutions themselves, but the role and the effect of these and others in promoting the success in teaching and learning of Arabic. On the basis of this question, the following account will focus on the major elements involved in the process of teaching and learning Arabic in Malaysia.

## 1.2 The Teaching of Arabic in Malaysia.

Based on the development of Arabic and religious institutions in Malaysia the nature of the teaching and learning of Arabic in this country can be classified into four categories:

- 1- The teaching and learning of Arabic in the Halqah system.
- 2- The teaching and learning of Arabic in Arabic Schools.
- 3- The teaching and learning of Arabic in the National Islamic Secondary Schools.
- 4- The teaching and learning of Arabic in higher institutions.

### 1.2.1 The Teaching of Arabic in the Halqah System

The teaching and learning of Arabic in the system of Halqah which includes the system of Pondok is the oldest form of Arabic institutions in Malaysia. The available written information on this system, however, is very scarce. Describing education in Malaysia during the pre-British period, Wilson ( 1967:74) and Ibn Abd. Kadir ( 1970: 37,55 ) mention that education during this time took place in the home and mosque and it emphasized the reading of the Qur'ān, moral teaching, religious knowledge and Malay. Apart from this scanty and general account, information on descriptions of this system can be gathered from the observation of this system which is still in existence.

The type of teaching and learning in this system falls into three types; the teaching and learning for children, which usually takes place in the home and mosque and which focuses on reading the Qur'ān and basic knowledge of Islam, the teaching and learning for adolescents which takes place in Pondok and concentrates on the teaching of Islamic knowledge and Arabic, and, finally, the teaching

and learning for adults which normally takes place in the mosque and focuses on Islamic knowledge and Arabic.

The teaching and learning of Arabic in this system focuses on Arabic grammar and morphology ( النحو والصرف ) which are taught by means of rules explanation through the medium of the native language. The teaching of Arabic rules normally takes place in the morning after Fajr prayer. The teacher, first, reads the text accurately, line by line, and then translates it into Malay to the learners. The reading and translation are then followed by direct and detailed explanation in Malay. The aim of these activities is to enable learners to vowel the text and to take notes of the meaning and the explanation of words, phrases and sentences. One of the peculiar methods of teaching followed in this system is the emphasis on studying Arabic pronouns. The teacher normally marks every pronoun in the text and explains what and where the pronouns refer to in the text ( مراجع الضمائر ). In the evening, students normally spend their time reviewing the texts studied in the morning by reading them aloud to practice correct reading and also by reading them silently in order to understand and to memorize the texts.

It is observed from the activities described above that the main objective of teaching Arabic in the Halqah system is to impart Arabic grammatical and morphological knowledge. Moreover, the students' task is not only to understand the rules but also to be able to accurately read the texts which contain the rules from their memory. Thus, students' achievement is normally measured by assessing the reading quality and the quantity of texts they have memorized (Ahmad, 1984/85).

The textbooks used for the teaching of Arabic are mainly grammar and morphology books such as matn ul-<sup>u</sup>jrūmiyyah ( متن الأجرومية ), matn ul-<sup>l</sup>alfiyyah li bni mālik ( متن ألفية لابن مالك ), matn ul-<sup>c</sup>izzi ( متن العزى ), sharḥ ubni <sup>°</sup>aqīl ( شرح ابن عقيل ), shudhūr udh-dhahab ( شذور الذهب ). In addition to these, there are other types of Arabic texts read in the Halqah system. These types of texts, such as interpretation of the Qur'an and Hadith ( تفاسير القرآن وشرح الأحاديث ), and the books in Islamic law ( كتب الفقه الإسلامي ), however, are intended for teaching Islamic knowledge. Nevertheless, the reading of these types of text provides students with a degree of exposure to Arabic. Moreover, the teacher normally discusses and examines his students understanding of Arabic rules while reading and teaching those religious texts.

The success rate of Halqah system in producing students with a good command of Arabic is extremely limited. The system is only of benefit for a small number of students who have a considerable degree of intelligence and have great devotion to learning Arabic. Moreover, the Arabic ability of those students, who could be regarded as successful students, is limited to reading only. In most cases, these successful students can read only those texts that they have already read and learned from the teacher.

### 1.2.2 The Teaching of Arabic in Arabic Schools

The type of schools included in this category are those known as Madrasah, Sekolah Arab, and Sekolah Uqama which were established in the early twentieth century by the state department of Islamic affairs.

The teaching in this type of schools starts mostly with adolescents aged from thirteen years, beginning with one or two years of studies in remove class ( **الصف الإعدادي** ), to three years for lower secondary class ( **الصف المتوسط** ) and four years of studies for upper or higher secondary class ( **الصف الثانوي** ). The system adopted in this type of school , ranging from curriculum to teaching methodology, is identical to that used for teaching Arabic for native-speakers in schools in Arab countries. Among the reasons behind this adaptation is to meet the recognition of the Middle-Eastern universities, especially the University of al-'azhar in Cairo, for students who graduate from these schools so that they may pursue their higher education in those universities. This type of school receives much help and support in the form of materials and textbooks, teachers and finance from Arab countries, especially Egypt.

The subjects taught in this type of school are mostly religious together with the Arabic language. The medium of instruction is mainly Arabic. As far as the textbooks are concerned, they are all written in Arabic and brought mostly from Arab countries. As regards the teaching of Arabic, it is divided into grammar, reading, writing and dictation. These are taught separately by Arab and Malay teachers by means of the target language. The use of native language in these schools is confined to a supporting role. Thus, the teaching of Arabic in these schools can be equated, to a considerable degree, to the teaching of that subject for Arab students in Arab countries.

Before 1960 this type of school was very popular and enjoyed good reputation among Malay society. They were regarded as the most

successful religious institutions in Malaysia in producing students with a good command of religious knowledge and Arabic. Hence, the majority of Malays involved in the profession of the teaching of religious subjects and Arabic in Malaysia, at present, are the products of this type of schools. However, by 1960 the high reputation and popularity of these schools began to decrease gradually due to the changes in the school system and the change of attitude among members of Malay society. These changes were mainly brought about by the process of the national education policy in Malaysia which began with the Abdul Razak Report of 1956. In the process of nationalization in Malaysia, many of these Arabic schools were transformed into the system which resembles to the system of the National Islamic Secondary School whose curriculum incorporates more secular subjects and where the medium of instruction is the native language. The small number of Arabic schools which still maintain the old system became less effective and unable of competing with the new schools which can provide students with more opportunities for higher education and with a wider variety of jobs opportunities.

### 1.2.3 The Teaching of Arabic in The National Islamic Secondary Schools

These are the National Islamic Secondary Schools which were introduced in 1977 and the Religious and Arabic Schools whose system were transformed into the system of the National Islamic Secondary Schools. The birth of these schools, as previously described, was very much caused by the process of nationalization in Malaysia which began a year before the independence of Malaysia in 1957. The government's aims to promote unity, justice and prosperity among the

multiracial citizens of Malaysia throughout the educational system led to the introduction of the Education Act of 1961. The aims of this act are: to establish a national system of education and to develop progressively the educational system in which the national language is the main medium of instruction at all school levels.

With regards to religious education, the Education Act 1961, section 36(1), stipulates that one of the aims of Islamic Religious Education is to create a disciplined society with high moral values ( Tun Abdul Razak Report 1956, The Abdul Rahman Talib Education Review 1960 and Mahathir Report 1985 ).

Consequently, this general education policy influenced the teaching of Arabic in the National Islamic Secondary Schools in particular and in the other types of religious schools in general. At present, the curriculum for these schools has more secular subjects than the religious ones and their main medium of instruction is the Malay language. The role of Arabic as a medium of instruction is confined to the teaching of Arabic while the teaching of religious subjects is carried out in Malay. Furthermore, in many cases, the teaching of Arabic is also conducted in Malay.

Regarding the period of study in these schools, it starts with adolescents aged thirteen years , beginning with three years of studying for lower secondary level to four years of studying for upper secondary level. The time allocated for the teaching of Arabic is two hundred and forty minutes which are divided into six lessons per week. As regards textbooks, they are; al-Jādidu fil-Lughat il-<sup>c</sup>Arabiyyah ( **الجديد في اللغة العربية** ), al-<sup>c</sup>Arabiyyah vol.2 ( **العربية - الجزء الثاني** ) and al-Lughat ul-<sup>c</sup>Arabiyyat ul-Muyassarah ( **اللغة العربية المبسرة** ) for the lower secondary level and al-Lughat

ul-<sup>c</sup>Arabiyyah ( اللغة العربية ), al-<sup>c</sup>Arabiyyatu li n-Nāshi'īn vol.4, ( العربية للناشئين الجزء الرابع ) an-Nahw ul-Wādiḥu volumes 1,2 and 3 ( النحو الواضح الجزء الأول والثاني والثالث ), and al-Balāghat ul-Wādiḥah ( البلاغة الواضحة ) for the upper secondary level.

As far as the teaching methodology is concerned, the kind of method adopted in these schools is similar to the method used in the Arabic schools where lessons of grammar, reading writing and dictation are taught separately by means of explanation of rules and translation of vocabulary. The only difference between the method used in these schools and that of the Arabic schools lies in the use of Malay language whose use in the new schools is becoming more frequent and normal.

Irrespective of the methodology, the change of the curriculum in these schools has a very profound effect on the teaching and learning of Arabic. Public opinion expressed through the media and the intellectual discussions in seminars and conferences at the national level show great dissatisfaction with the present achievement in Arabic among students graduating from these schools. In spite of this no serious attempts have been made to improve this situation, neither at the school level, nor at the university level.



#### 1.2.4 The Teaching of Arabic in Higher Institutions

The kind of higher education opportunities open to students graduating from Arabic and Religious schools of the second and the third categories referred to earlier are determined by the nature of the curriculum at the school level. Thus, as mentioned earlier, the opportunity of higher education for students graduating from the Arabic schools before 1960 was restricted to studies in religious and Arabic subjects provided by the Middle-Eastern universities and two local universities. On the other hand, students graduating from religious schools of the third category enjoy greater opportunities for higher education. These students have better opportunities than students graduating from the other Arabic schools as well as all other graduates of other types of schools in Malaysia. Hence, apart from Arabic and religious studies in the local and in the Middle-Eastern universities, they may also pursue their higher education in other fields of study including science and technology at local and overseas universities.

As mentioned earlier, before 1970, there were two religious higher institutions in Malaysia namely, the Islamic College of Malaya and the Islamic Institute of Nilam Puri. These institutions were purely Islamic institutions where the textbooks and the subjects taught in these institutions were either religious or Arabic. Furthermore, Arabic was the only medium of instruction used in teaching.

In the early 1970s, due to the government's policy which promotes national education for a better economy and education for Malays, the Islamic College of Malaya was transformed into the Faculty of Islamic Studies and attached to the National University of Malaysia which was

established in 1970. Later, the Islamic Institute of Nilam Puri was also transformed into the Islamic Academy and attached to the University of Malaya. In the early 1980s the International Islamic University was established. At present, these three local universities provide most opportunities required by the religious school's graduates for their higher education. Among the three universities, the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia, which consists of five departments, namely: the Department of Shari'ah, the Department of 'Usul ud-Din and Falsafah, the Department of Qur'an and Sunnah, the Department of Da'wah and the Department of Arabic Studies and Islamic Civilization, provides the largest number of places for those students with an annual intake of 250-300 students.

The nature of teaching and learning of Arabic in these universities varies in some respects. In the International Islamic University, the teaching of Arabic is carried out according to the students' experience in learning Arabic. At present, Arabic is taught in this university for beginners and intermediate students. The textbooks used are series of 'al-'Arabiyyatu li n-nashi'in which adopt mainly the Audio-Lingual Method and the Direct Method in language teaching. In the Islamic Academy of the University of Malaya, the teaching of Arabic begins at the advanced level focusing on the teaching of grammatical and morphological rules. The main textbooks used are 'awdah ul-masalik fi sharhi l'alfiyyati bni malik ( أوضاع المسالك في شرح الألفية ابن مالك ) and Shadhā l-Urf ( شذا العرف ). The act of teaching is carried out in the classroom by means of reading and explaining what is written in both texts for students. Apart from grammar and morphology, which represent the major content of the

syllabuses, the syllabuses also includes some, but not a great deal of reading and conversation lessons. In addition, it is important to state that, in the Academy, Arabic is the medium used in the teaching of Arabic and other religious subjects which represent most of components of the whole curriculum.

Similar to that of Islamic Academy, the teaching of Arabic in the Islamic Faculty of the National University of Malaysia is also intended for students at the advanced level in Arabic. Grammar and morphology represent the major components of the syllabuses.

In addition to the universities mentioned above, Arabic is also taught in the Religious College of Sultan Zainal Abidin ( Kolej Ugama Sultan Zainal Abidin 'KUZA') which was established in 1981. The teaching of Arabic in KUZA is intended for students at the intermediate and advanced levels. Similar to Islamic Academy, Arabic is used as the main medium of instruction in teaching the Arabic language and religious courses. However, the teaching approach adopted by KUZA is identical to that used in the Faculty of Islamic Studies and in the Islamic Academy.

Irrespective of what has been happening in those local higher institutions, there is almost an agreement among the members of the Malay society, including local scholars, that the present achievement of the university graduates in Arabic is far from satisfactory. The majority of those graduates are incapable of reading and writing, not to mention speaking, except with great difficulty. This poor level of mastery has decreased public confidence in their ability to perform their duty within the Malay society .

In conclusion, the present manifestation of the poor achievement in Arabic among university graduates suggests that the Arabic programs in these universities are in great need of thorough evaluation.

### 1.3 The Role and the Status of Arabic in Malaysia

Arabic began to play its role in Malay society from the beginning of the fourteenth or fifteenth century when Islam was assumed to have reached the indigenous population in Malayan Peninsula. The obvious role of Arabic during this period was to facilitate the understanding of Islam for the indigenous population. Apart from this purpose, however, there was no account of the other tasks performed through Arabic within this period, though there were some indications that Arabic was also needed to serve Malay merchants to interact with Arab merchants in their business dealing.

At present, it is observed that the role of Arabic in Malaysia can be attributed to Malay community and the needs of this community for understanding Islamic teaching. Although, since the independence of Malaysia in 1957, the Malaysian population consists of about fifty percent of non-Malays, Arabic remains to play a major role within the Malay community which represents the other half of Malaysian population. Within the Malay community Arabic is regarded as a sacred language. People acquiring it are accorded the highest esteem. Furthermore, it is believed to be the sole medium through which the essence of Islamic teaching can be obtained. Arabic is always associated with Islam and therefore people acquiring Arabic are believed to have a better knowledge of Islam than people who do not acquire it.

Irrespective of the status of Arabic within the Malay community, the need for Arabic at present time, as said earlier, remains in the area of understanding Islamic teaching. The role of Arabic as a medium of communication within the community and the world at large is hardly evident. At the national level, the Malay language which is the national language of Malaysia, plays a major part in every aspect of communication, whereas English is used to a very large extent for the purpose of international communication. This includes business and trade with Arab and Non-Arab countries. In the national labor market the need for Arabic is confined only to jobs that are related to Islamic affairs such as teaching and religious office.

At present the need of <sup>the</sup> Malay community for Arabic for religious purposes is compounded by two divergent factors. Firstly, the growing size of the Islamic religious literature available in Malay and Indonesian languages seems to have reduced, to some extent, the role of Arabic as a medium of understanding religion. Secondly, however, the spread of Islamic awareness among members of Malay community has caused the demand for Arabic to increase in such a pattern that has never been seen before. This is manifested in the increasing number of students enrolled in religious schools every year and the increasing demand of the educated Malay adults for learning Arabic.

Despite all of that, the place of Arabic in Malaysian education policy is rather obscure. The Malaysian education act of 1960 does not contain any clear policy regarding Arabic. In the act, however, Arabic is presumably assumed to fall under the general aim of the Islamic Religious Education which aims at creating a disciplined society with high moral values ( The Abdul Razak Report 1956, The Abdul Rahman Talib Education Review 1960 and Mahathir Report 1985).

This implies that Arabic is a mere component of the Islamic religious education in Malaysia and it is to be taught in order to help students understand religious teaching.

At the implementation level, Arabic is taught at both school and university levels in Malaysia. However, since the policy of Islamic education is concerned with Muslim students only, the teaching of Arabic is carried out only in schools and university faculties where almost all students are Malays. Thus, at the school level, Arabic is taught mainly in religious secondary schools namely; Arabic and Religious Secondary Schools and the National Islamic Secondary Schools, and at the university level, it is taught in religious faculties which focus their teaching on Islamic disciplines.

The role of Arabic within the educational system of those religious teaching institutions depends very much on the extent to which it is used in the teaching and learning of religious subjects. In most of the schools, religious subjects are taught in Malay language and Arabic has no other role apart from being a mere subject required to pass examinations. At the upper secondary level, however, both Arabic and Malay are commonly used in the teaching and learning of some religious subjects. The use of both languages, at this level, and the availability of materials in both languages, in addition to the choice open for students to answer their examination papers in either Malay or Arabic, however, have significantly reduced the students' dependence on Arabic as a language necessary for studying religious subjects. In addition to the upper secondary level, Arabic is used also as a medium of religious teaching and learning at the lower secondary level in some religious and Arabic schools, including the National Islamic Secondary Schools, which introduce a special Arabic

or Religious Studies Certificate for their students.

It is obvious from the above descriptions that the role of Arabic in Religious Secondary Schools in general depends to a great extent on the degree of emphasis put upon the teaching of religious subjects by a particular school. It is also clear that there is a need for students of Arabic in some schools to learn religious subjects by means of Arabic. Although the majority of school students does not rely very much on Arabic in learning religious subjects at school level, their need for Arabic becomes crucial whenever they wish to pursue their higher education in Islamic studies which are the most available option open to them at the university level. This is because, at this level, Arabic is used extensively in the teaching and learning of religious subjects.

As said earlier, there are three local universities which provide the opportunity in Islamic studies for students graduating from the religious type secondary schools in Malaysia. However the use of Arabic in these universities is determined not only by the nature of subjects these universities offer but also by the policies adopted by each of them. Hence, the use of Arabic in teaching and learning Islamic disciplines in the International Islamic University of Malaysia is constrained by the University's policy to use English as the main medium of instruction. Similarly, the teaching and learning of Islamic disciplines in the National University of Malaysia is restricted by the University's policy to promote <sup>the</sup> Malay language as a national academic language. In contrast, however, the Islamic Academy of the University of Malaya is the only university where the use of Arabic in teaching and learning Islamic disciplines does not seem to be affected by such policies.

In addition to religious and Arabic schools and the universities mentioned above, Arabic is also taught in government boarding schools and language teaching centers in most of the higher education institutions in Malaysia. Arabic in these institutions, however, is an elective subject and is taught as a foreign language for beginners only.

In summary, the role and the need of Arabic in Malaysia can be outlined as follows:

1- The role of Arabic in Malaysia is confined within the Malay society only. In Malay society, Arabic serves as an important language for religious purposes such as reciting the Qur'an and Hadith and understanding Islamic teaching. Although Islamic teaching can be acquired through Malay language, the recent resurgence of Islamic awareness among members of Malay society, particularly educated Malays, has increased the demand for learning Arabic. This is due to their belief that the essence of Islamic teaching can only be obtained by means of Arabic. Furthermore, Arabic is regarded as a sacred language within Malay society.

2- The role of Arabic as a medium of national and international communication is hardly in evidence in Malaysia. Similarly, the need for Arabic in the national labour market is restricted to serving Islamic affairs of the Malay community only.

3- In the Malaysian educational system, Arabic is a component of Islamic religious education. In government boarding schools and language centers at universities and colleges, Arabic is an elective subject and is taught for absolute beginners only. In Arabic and religious schools and Islamic faculty, academy and university, Arabic is a compulsory subject. Apart from being a



compulsory subject, Arabic is also used as a medium of instruction in teaching Islamic disciplines particularly at high secondary and university levels.

4-The role and the status of Arabic in Malaysia suggests that developing Arabic reading skill is mostly needed by Malay society. The need for developing other Arabic skills is relevant only to the requirements for studying Islamic disciplines at religious schools and universities.

## CHAPTER TWO

### MODELS AND THE DESIGN OF SECOND AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

#### 2.1 Models of Second and Foreign Language Teaching and learning

It is generally agreed that language teaching is not merely concerned with the linguistic content or surely with the grammatical aspect of the language. It is also agreed that teaching a language successfully requires more than knowing how to plan a lesson and how to manipulate the use of variety of language activities, exercises and drills. In other words, the view that equates language teaching and learning with the linguistic content and methodology and the belief that linguistics and psychology are the sole disciplines that contribute to language teaching and learning are inadequate and no longer valid ( see e.g.Campbell, 1980; Spolsky, 1980; and Kaplan, 1980,).

This raises the first fundamental question in language teaching and learning: what discipline or rather disciplines should be the basis for language teaching?. This issue is of an enormous importance in language teaching and entails ample discussion among applied linguists. Between 1960 and 1970 the growing awareness among many applied linguists that linguistics and even linguistics and psychology can no longer be expected to provide adequate solutions to the problems that arise in language teaching has led them to conclude that language teaching requires active participation from other language sciences (e.g. sociology and anthropology) besides linguistics and psychology (see, Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens 1964; Mackey 1965; and Corder 1973.).

As an attempt to devise a useful framework for the theory of language

teaching, Campbell (1980:7) describes language teaching in terms of three roles: theoretician, mediator and practitioner. Assigning the role of mediator to applied linguistics, he found that in second language pedagogy the relationship with linguistics alone is insufficient (see Figure 1) and therefore suggests that other language sciences such as psychology, sociology and anthropology should be included (see Figure 2).

Figure 1: Campbell's model of the relationship between theory and practice I.

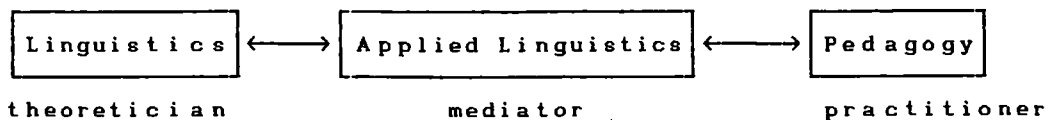
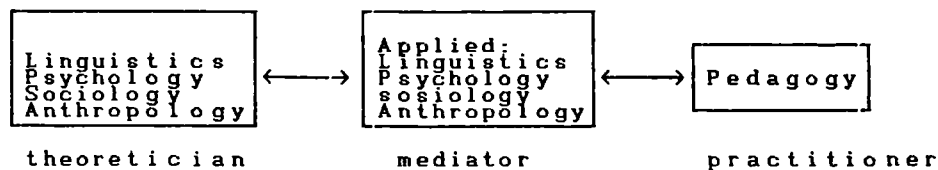


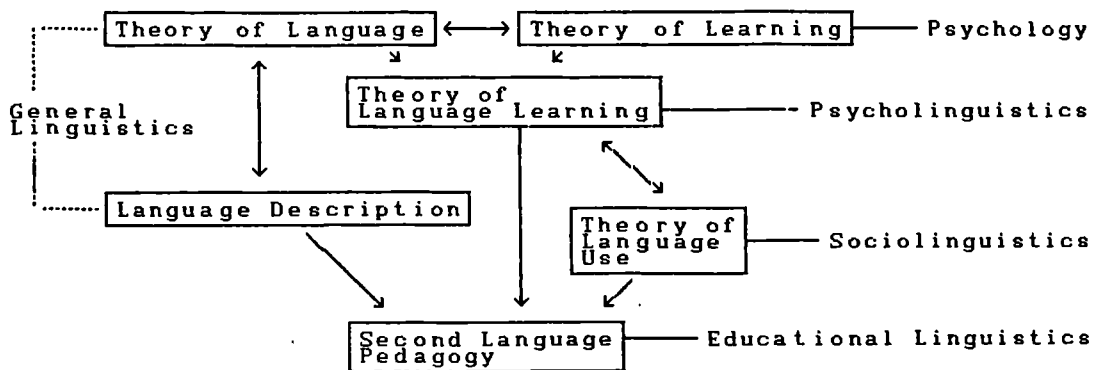
Figure 2: Campbell's model of the relationship between theory and practice II.



Similar to Campbell, Spolsky (1978 and 1980:7) also agrees that linguistics alone is inadequate as a basis for language teaching and even linguistics and psychology are insufficient. According to him, language teaching or second language pedagogy has three main sources: language description, a theory of language learning and a theory of language use. These three derive their necessary theoretical foundations from four major disciplines: (1) psycho-linguistics for the theory of language learning which is also derived from (2) a theory of learning provided by psychology, (3) general linguistics for language description and (4) sociolinguistics for the theory of

language use. These four disciplines, according to Spolsky, come together in dealing with the problem of language education and thus constitute a problem-oriented discipline which he calls 'educational linguistics', and which others have called 'applied linguistics' ( see Figure 3 ).

Figure 3: Spolsky's educational linguistics model.

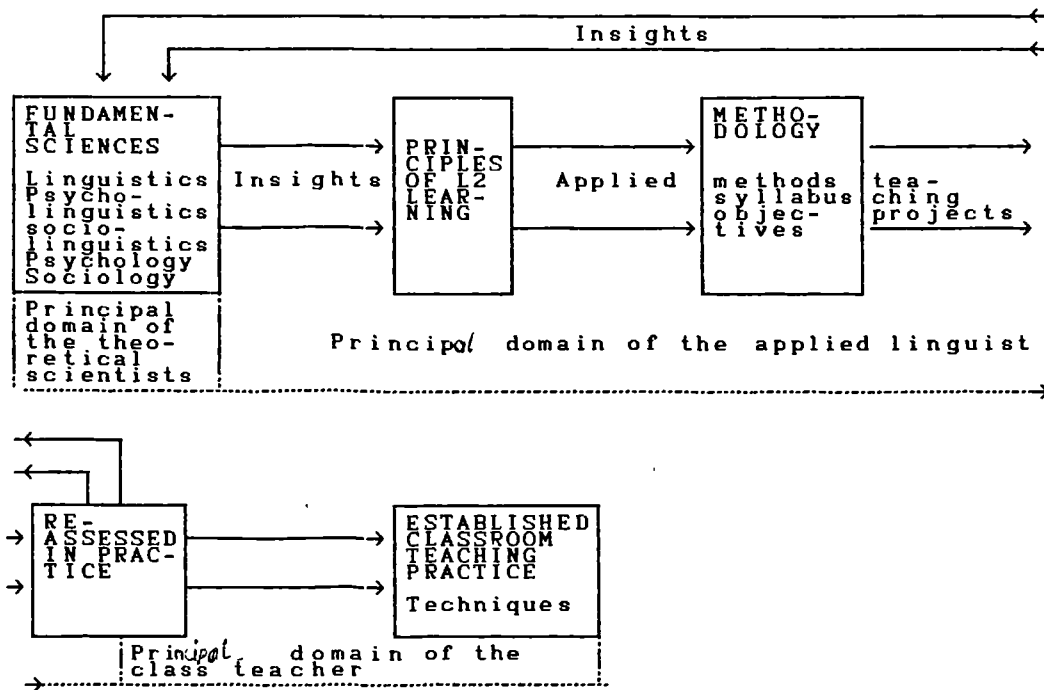


It is clear from Campbell and Spolsky's models that language teaching is more than linguistics and psychology. Both models, especially Spolsky's model, clearly display the main components of a language teaching theory and the specific role that each discipline performs in relation to these components. Nevertheless, both models do not explicitly show the relationships between those language sciences and the methodology of language teaching and other matters constituting the substance of pedagogy. (Stern 1983:39).

Ingram (1980:42) offers a similar list of disciplines and shows the task of theoretician, applied linguist, and practitioner in language teaching. But, unlike Campbell and Spolsky, she shows in greater detail the functions of the applied linguist and the relative distribution of tasks among the applied linguist and the class teacher. Furthermore she includes some of the missing features

related to the substance of pedagogy founded in Campbell and Spolsky's models (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Ingram's model for the development of language teaching practice.



However, irrespective of the question of accuracy of Ingram's model<sup>1</sup>, the question whether the model is sufficient to serve as a general conceptual framework for language teaching remains open.

The fact that language teaching is a complex issue which is concerned not only with pedagogical substances such as method, syllabus and material and with its relationships to language sciences is overwhelming. Spolsky (1980:72), for example, admits that his model (see Figure 3) leaves out the practicalities and pressures of the world in which language education takes place. Other applied

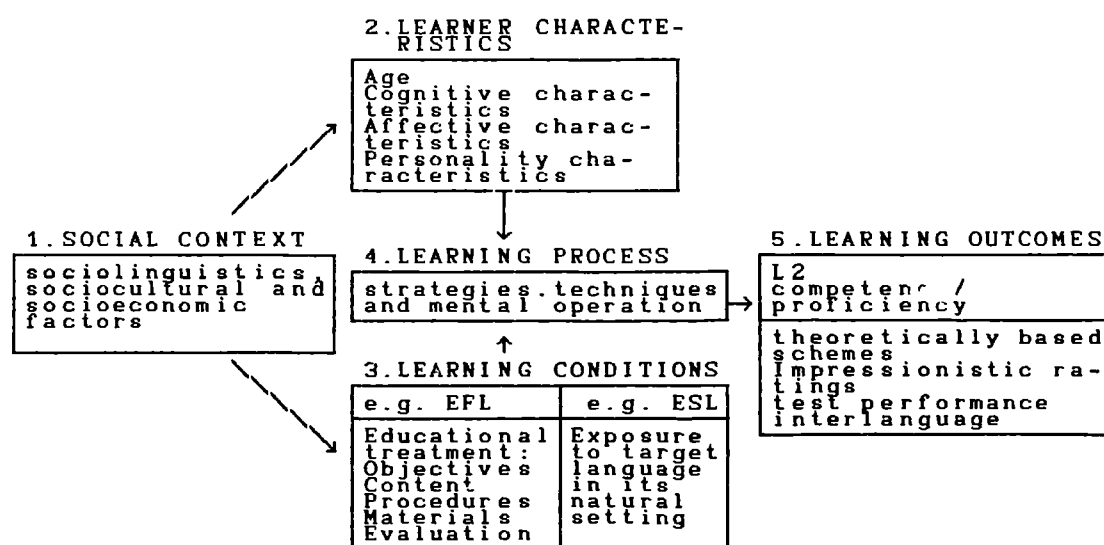
<sup>1</sup> According to Stern (1983:39), Ingram's model contains two obvious flaws. First, the role assigned to the practitioner is very limited compared to the role allocated to the applied linguist. Second, the notion that methodology and practice are ultimately and exclusively derived from theoretical sciences is open to question.

linguists such as Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) and Corder (1973), in particular, warned that there are other factors besides the language sciences which have to be taken into consideration in understanding language teaching, such as social, political and economic realities.

The importance of other factors besides language sciences and methodology involved in language teaching and learning are well accounted. Researchers lay emphasis on somewhat different but complementary features. On the one hand, Schumann (1978), for example, provides a comprehensive taxonomy of social and psychological factors that influence language learning such as social, affective, personality, cognitive, biological, aptitude, personal, input, and instructional. On the other hand, Mackey (1970), Strevens (1978), and Tucker (1978) stress that language teaching cannot be considered apart from social, cultural and political factors which determine language policies and which create conditions for the implementation of a language program.

As an attempt to map the major factors involved in language teaching and learning, Stern (1983:338) produces a diagram which he regards as an uncontroversial synthesis representing the consensus among different investigators on the main factors that play a role in language learning (see Figure 5).

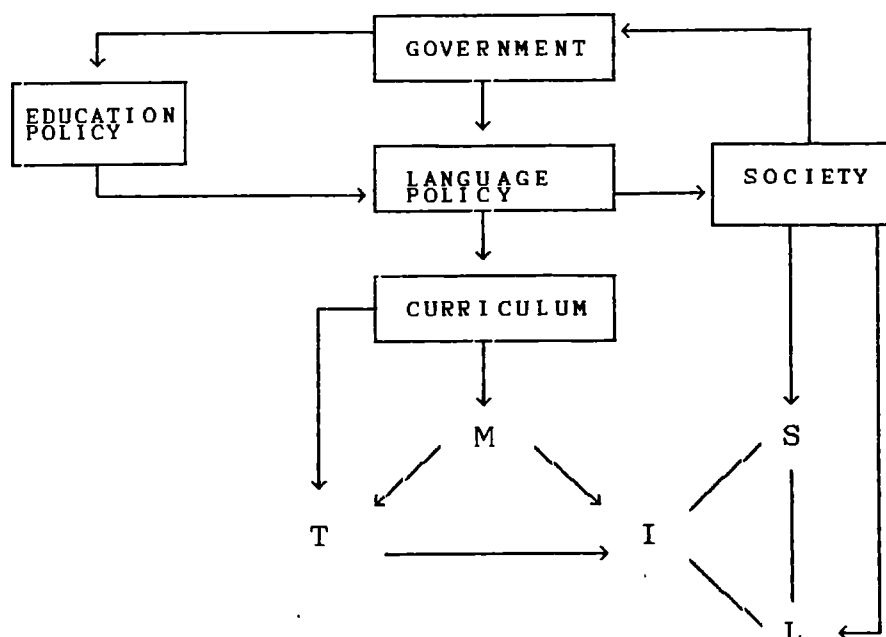
Figure 5: Framework for examination of second language learning. (Stern, 1983:338)



In this diagram, Stern distinguishes five sets of variables, three of which, namely: social context, learner characteristics and learning conditions, are represented as determiners of the learning process (the fourth variable) and through it of the learning outcome (the fifth variable).

Bearing in mind the importance of these factors, many attempts have been made to produce a more acceptable language teaching and learning model which gives reasonable weight for these factors in understanding language teaching. Examples of such models are : Mackey's interaction model of language learning, teaching and policy (see Figure 6), Strevens model of language learning and language teaching process (see Figure 7), and Stern's teaching-learning model (see Figure 8) (Mackey, 1970: xii, Strevens, 1973, and Stern, 1983:500).

Figure 6: Mackey's instruction model of language learning/teaching and policy.



M=method and material variables:

T=texts, tapes, films.

I=instruction variables: what the learner gets.

S=sociocultural variables: what the environment does.

L=learner variables: what the learner does.



Figure 7: Strevens's model of the language learning/ language teaching process.

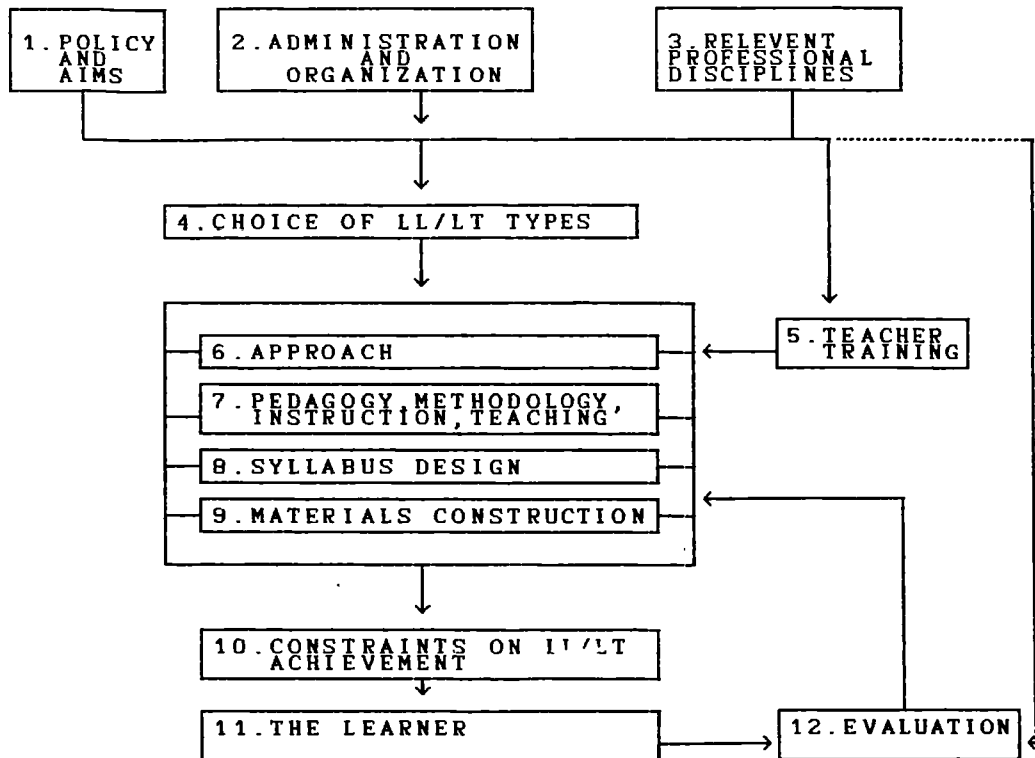
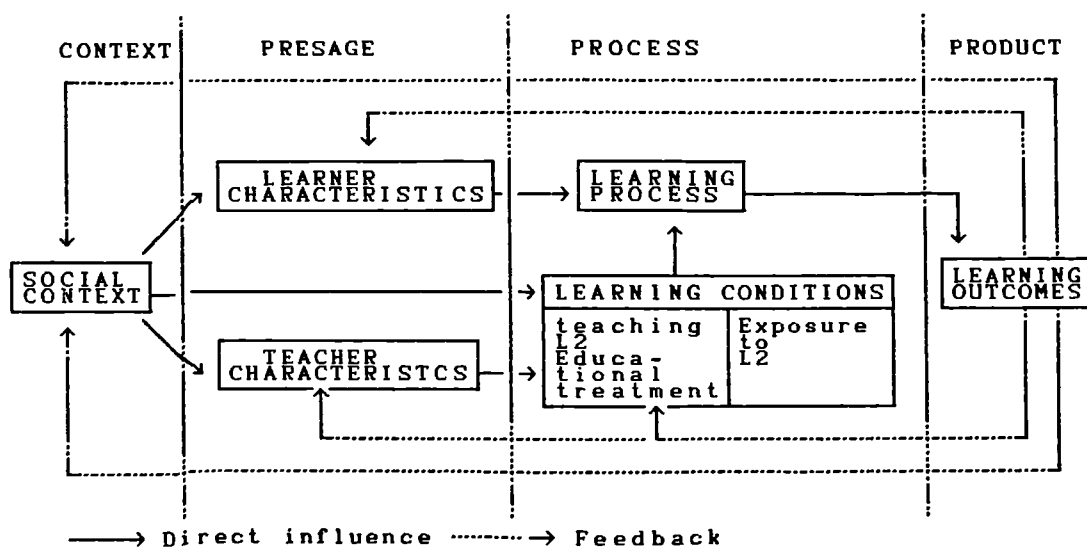


Figure 8: Stern's teaching-learning model.



The above models and the discussion so far clearly show the complex nature of language teaching which encompasses issues and factors such as social, cultural, political, linguistics, psycho – linguistics as well as curricular and instructional dimensions. Awareness of the importance of giving enough consideration towards issues as such in designing a language program has led some applied linguists such as Yalden (1983), Allen (1984) and Tollefson (1989), to regard the second language acquisition models developed by applied linguists such as Swain (1977), Krashen (1976, 1978) and Schumann (1978) as vague and inadequate because they limit themselves to a single aspect of a complex subject, inferring that that aspect alone is all that matters.

The rejection of second language acquisition (SLA) models which focus only on <sup>the</sup> methodological aspect of language teaching has brought language program design into its new development phase. This new phase has been characterized by its recognition of other main factors besides methodology in designing a language teaching program, and more significantly it has been brought into a close contact with the study of curriculum in education.

Although the study of education, as expressed by Stern (1983) is perhaps the closest to language pedagogy, yet it is probably the least recognized and the most neglected. The importance of its contribution to language program design is relatively recently

recognized and was long overdue. This circumstance, according to Rodgers (1989:26) ( see also White, 1988), is due to two primary causes:

There has been a tendency to regard language learning, even formal school-based language learning , as different in kind from learning in all other disciplinary areas. ...As well, second language teaching has been typically defined as a kind of applied linguistics rather than as a kind of education ".

The main contribution of education to language teaching is found in the study of curriculum where three models, which represent the main trends in curriculum development, have been identified.

The first model, which represents the traditional approach in curriculum development, is known as Means and Ends Model.<sup>2</sup> This model which was originated by the work of the well-known curriculum developer Tyler (1949) and later further developed by Taba (1962), assumes seven steps which a course designer must work through to develop subject matter courses. These steps are as follows: (see Ibid:12).

- 1.Diagnosis of needs.
- 2.Formulation of objectives.
- 3.Selection of content.
- 4.Organization of content.
- 5.Selection of learning experiences.
- 6.Organization of learning experiences.
- 7.Determination of what to evaluate, and the means to evaluate.

The second model is Process Curriculum which is associated with Stenhouse (1975). Unlike Objectives model, a process-based curriculum is viewed in terms of procedures rather than content, behavioral outcomes or measurable product. It is thus concerned with the

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<sup>2</sup>According to White , this model is also known as Objectives Model and sometimes called Rational Planning Model ' on the ground that it is rational to specify the ends of an activity before engaging in it' (Tyler and Richards 1979:64), (see White, 1988:26).

implemented rather than the planned curriculum (Bartlett and Butler 1985, cited in Nunan, 1988b:14). According to Stenhouse (1975), a curriculum should consist of three major parts: planning, empirical study and justification. Each of these consists of subsidiary parts as set out in Figure 9 below.

Figure 9 : Major elements in a generalised curriculum model

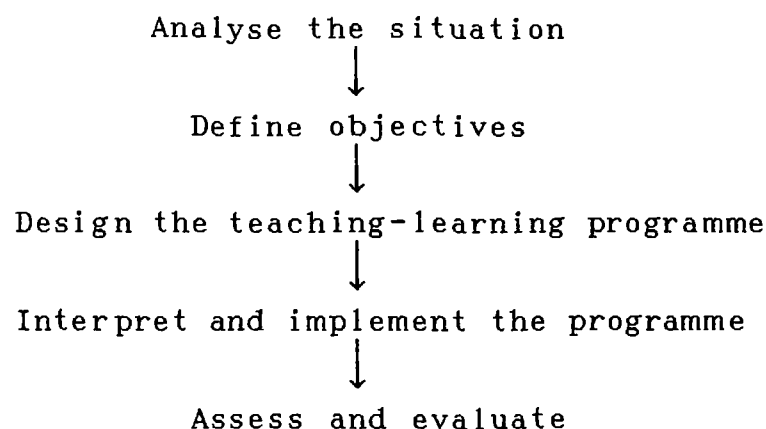
<p><b>A. Planning consists of:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Principles for the selection of content - what is to be learned and taught.</li> <li>2. Principles for the development of a teaching strategy - how it is to be learned and taught.</li> <li>3. Principles for the making of decisions about sequence.</li> <li>4. Principles on which to diagnose the strengths and weakness of individual students and differentiate the general principles 1;2 and 3 above to meet individual cases.</li> </ol>
<p><b>B. In empirical study:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Principles on which to study and evaluate the progress of students.</li> <li>2. Principles on which to study and evaluate the progress of teachers,</li> <li>3. Guidance as to the feasibility of implementing the curriculum in varying school contexts, pupils contexts, environments and peer group situations.</li> <li>4. Information about the variability of effects in differing contexts and on different pupils and an understanding of the causes of the variation.</li> </ol>
<p><b>C. In relation to justification:</b></p> <p>A formulation of the aim or intention of the curriculum which is accessible to critical scrutiny.</p>

(cited in Nunan, 1988b:13)

The third model is the Situational Model proposed by Skilbeck (1984a). This model is also known as Curriculum Renewal model, since, according to White (1988), it begins by acknowledging existing practice. This model has its basis in cultural analysis and begins with an analysis and appraisal of the school situation itself. The

summary of Skilbeck's situational model is set out in Figure 10 below (Skilbeck, 1984a:231).

Figure 10: A summary of Skilbeck's situational model.



These three models and curriculum studies, in general, in relation to language teaching have had a considerable influence on the trends in language teaching design since 1970s. This is manifested in the works of applied linguists such as Shaw (1975), Yalden (1983 and 1987), Richards (1984b), Breen and Candlin (1980) Nunan (1988a and 1988b) and Dubin and Olstain (1986).

It is observed from the works of these applied linguists and others that the influence of education in their works stretches out from the level of philosophy to the level of designing. The systematic approach in curriculum development which includes stages such as planning, implementation, and evaluation is found to be more convincing in handling problems arose in language teaching. This phenomenon has shifted the focus of language teaching from content and procedures to design and it has put the language teaching profession into the broad educational context.

In conclusion, there are two important aspects that have to be considered, as far as language program design is concerned. The first aspect is related to the nature of language teaching itself. Since language teaching involves an interaction of a multiplicity of factors and interdisciplinary in nature, it is incumbent upon any language program designer to be fully aware of these and not to limit his concerns to the mere content and the presentation of teaching materials in his language program design. This, however, does not necessarily mean that all those factors have to be equally treated, but they simply have to be worked out within the constraints and the available resources. The other aspect that has to be considered in language program design is concerned with the general framework in undertaking the designing task. It seems convincing that the systematic approach in curriculum development could provide a better solution for the problems of language teaching than the framework of method could. To work through the planning phase which considers factors such as social, cultural, political as well as institutional before the definition of goal and objectives, then to the selection and the organization of content, and then to the development of techniques and procedures and so on so forth, could cover most of the important elements involved in language teaching and more importantly provide a realistic approach to the problems encountered by the language teaching profession.

## 2.2 A General Framework for Second and Foreign Language Program Design

If one could observe any given language program, one could find out, in some cases, that that program basically suffers from two detrimental aspects. First, it concentrates its whole concerns and efforts narrowly on one or two aspects of language teaching and learning, mostly on content and methodology, at the expense of others such as teacher and learner factors and the various types of program constraints. Second, it may be implemented without rigorous planning, not to mention the fact that many language programs have never been evaluated. In other words, most of the existing second language programs are insufficient with respect to their treatment of factors involved in language teaching and learning and they are unsystematic in nature. These two shortcomings which characterize most of the second language programs are undoubtedly among the main factors that contribute to the failure of most of these programs.

As is obvious from previous discussions (see pp. 21-33 ), the importance of giving due consideration to the multitude of factors involved in language teaching and learning has been the main concern among applied linguists over a number of years in the 1970s. This concern has shifted attention in language teaching from content and procedure to design. This change, in turn, has brought into language teaching a more systematic and reliable approach in coping with language teaching and learning problems (see, Clark, 1987; White 1988; and Nunan, 1988a and 1988b).

The change of emphasis from content and methodology to design, which has its root in curriculum theories, has put language teaching into a broad perspective of education. Thus, curriculum, as opposed to second language acquisition models, has become the main framework in

second language program design.

In curriculum development, the work of Tyler (1949), provides the basic guidelines for most curriculum developers. Tyler asserts that the development of any curriculum for any subject whatsoever must be based on consideration of four fundamental questions. These are as follows:

- 1- What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- 2- What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
- 3- How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
- 4- How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Taba (1961) has interpreted and transformed Tyler's four fundamental questions in curriculum development into a list of seven important elements in curriculum design ( see, p. 30 ). Taba's list and Tyler's fundamental questions, despite criticisms<sup>3</sup>, have acquired a great deal of significance in the field of curriculum development.

In the field of language teaching, the influence of curriculum approach in designing second or foreign language program can be clearly observed from the works of scholars such as Richards (1984a & b), Allen (1984), Shaw (1975), Yalden (1983 and 1987), Dubin and Olshtain (1986) and Nunan (1988a&b).

Taking curriculum as his framework, Richards (1984a&b, 1985) outlines the essential stages that have to be worked out in designing a language program and asserts that the efficiency of a language program very much depends upon how well these stages have been carried out. These stages are as follows:

- 1- determining the needs a particular group of learners have for English instruction.

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The curriculum model outlined by Tyler and Taba has been criticized for its linear approach which proceeds from the first stage of objectives definition to the final stage of evaluation.( for further discussion on this issue, see, Lawton, 1973: and Nunan, 1988).



- 2- developing objectives for a language course that will meet those needs.
- 3- selecting teaching and learning activities and experiences that will enable these needs to be realized.
- 4- evaluating the outcome.

Shaw's (1975:73) 'objectives model' for foreign language curriculum development also consists of elements which are similar to those outlined by Richards (1984 a&b, 1985).

In addition, Allen (1984:61-2) recognizes at least six aspects in curriculum analysis. These levels and the detailed description of each of them are described by Allen as follows:

1.Concept formulation. The level at which we establish general principles of second language education, including our concept of what constitutes second language (L2) proficiency and the role of language in society.

2.Administrative decision-making. The level at which we determine a practical course of action, given a particular set of social, political and financial constraints, thereby establishing the general objectives for an educational program.

3.Syllabus planning. The level at which we define the specific objectives for a program. We do this by compiling inventories of items to be taught, planning timetables and points of contact with other subjects on the curriculum, and establishing basic principles of selection and grading.

4.Material design. The level at which we create texts, games, exercises, simulations, 'authentic' practice and other activities which provide the context within which teaching and learning take place. Material design may or may not involve a publication phase, depending on the nature of the material or the size of the population at which it is aimed.

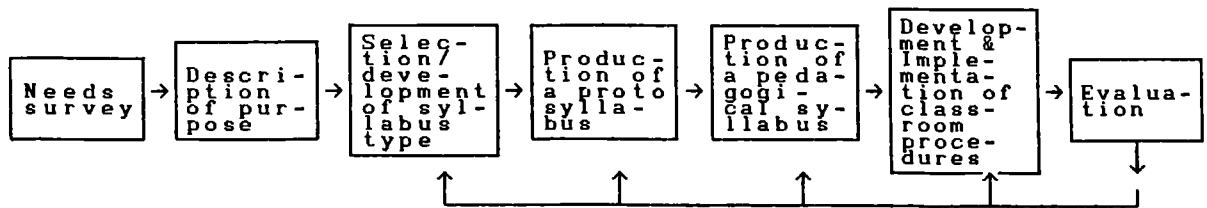
5.Classroom activity. The level at which an individual teacher presents, interprets and adapts a given set of materials to fit the needs of a particular student group. Since material design and classroom activity are particularly closely related, it is often convenient to group them together under the general heading of 'methodology'.

6.Evaluation. The point at which we establish procedures which will

enable us to test the validity of our decision at any one of the previous five levels.

Yalden (1983) produces a figure of the stages in language program development. In her figure she recognizes eight stages, including a recycling stage, in language program development (see Figure 11 below).

Figure 11: Yalden's Language program Development.



(Yalden, 1983)

The models of language program development presented above clearly demonstrate the new emphasis in language teaching. All of these models, with the inclusion of needs consideration and evaluation as two other essential elements besides language content and methodology, have put language teaching into a new perspective which is realistic and inevitably has a greater potential in dealing with language teaching problems than the framework of method has.

The inclusion of needs consideration as an important prerequisite to the development of other phases in developing a language program could provide a firm and strong basis for any decision made at each level of the program. Evaluation, on the other hand, could serve as a vital agent in providing feedback for each level of the program for change and modification.

Finally, on the basis of what has been mentioned, it can be suggested that the broad view of language teaching which is adopted by each of the language program models presented above could accommodate the

needs of most second language programs for a systematic and comprehensive approach in second language program design. Hence, any one of the models could lend itself as a useful general framework for a language program designer. However, it must be noted that the efficiency of any program depends mostly on how well each of the levels of the model is carried out and how well each of them is adapted to suit the needs or requirements of an individual nation or institution or both.

### 2.3 Language Policy and the Design of the Goals

It can be seen from previous discussions (see pp. 34-38 ) that curriculum approaches to program development could satisfy the needs of a second language program for systematic and impartial framework for dealing with language teaching and learning problems. This is simply because curriculum<sup>4</sup>, by virtue of its comprehensive nature, makes language program designers fully aware of the essential elements of a program and allows them to systematically work through each of them while giving due consideration to factors which affect teaching and learning.

However, though working systematically through each phase of the curriculum is imperative, the scope or depth of the treatment of one phase in comparison to another depends completely on the judgments of an individual designer which are influenced and determined by particular problems and constraints. This is obvious in view of multitude of factors involved in language teaching and learning and the absence of homogeneity in variables such as social, political, physical and financial resources, not to mention the learner himself.

Among curriculum phases, the first phase which involves consideration of needs which, in turn, leads to the definition of program's goal, aims and objectives<sup>5</sup>, is often taken for granted. This normally

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<sup>4</sup>The discussions of 'A General Framework for Second and Foreign Language Program Design' (pp. 34-38 ) demonstrates that curriculum consists of needs survey, goal and objectives, content, methodology, and evaluation. A definition which includes these essential elements and other related elements , or rather factors, is provided by Robertson (1971:564) 'The curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of school and community through classroom instruction and related program (e.g. field trips, library programs, work experience education, guidance and extra-classroom activities)'.  
<sup>5</sup>There is a great confusion in the use of the terms goal, aim, and

results in producing inappropriate and unrealistic goals, aims and objectives. Since goals, aims and objectives determine the decisions on the choice of content, teaching and learning strategies and the shape of evaluation, the aspects of the program which are based on inappropriate or false goals would inevitably be distorted. Thus, a thorough investigation into factors which determine goals, aims and objectives is indispensable for the purpose of producing a program which is practically sound.

Thus, the initial task that has to be resolved before defining goals, aims, and objectives of a program is to identify and then analyze those relevant factors. Dubin and Olshtain (1986:5 and Olshtain (1989) suggest that the vital preparatory stage that has to be carried out before initiating any program is to provide the answers for the key questions of any program. These questions are as follows:

- 1-who are the learners?
- 2-who are the teachers?,
- 3-why is the program necessary?
- 4-where will the program be implemented?
- 4-how will the program be implemented?

According to them, the answers to these questions will serve as the basis upon which program's policy and goals will be established. In order to provide the answers to those questions, a thorough analysis of the societal factors is necessary. These societal factors are: the

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objective. Some writers may have used goal, aim and objective interchangeably to denote the same meaning while some others may have used them differently. In addition, there are writers who confine themselves to use only one of them, but using specification words such as 'long term', 'short term', 'terminal' and 'intermediate' to signify the different levels of the adopted term. In view of this matter, the terms in question, for the purpose of clarification, are used to signify three different levels of purposes. The general level of purposes is signified by 'goal', the more specific level of purposes is signified by 'aim' and the most specific of them is signified by 'objective'. In the absence of either the first or the second level, which is frequent in many cases, anyone of the terms, either goal or aim will be used.

language setting, patterns of language use in society, group and individual attitudes toward language and the political, national and economic considerations ( Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:5-18).

An analysis of societal factors as suggested by Dubin and Olshtain may give a clear picture of language needs and use in a society. The language needs and uses are important ingredients for language policy-making. The fact that language policy, which is the high-level decision, not only has a considerable influence in shaping the goal or the policy of a language program but also has a direct impact on second language teaching instruction makes such an analysis very crucial ( see, Judd 1981 and 1989, Richards 1979, Tucker 1977, Kachru 1976, and Noss 1971). Moreover, language policy may need to be reviewed in response to changes occurring in society. Furthermore, an institution such as a university, a private college or a school may be allowed to devise its own separate language policy.

Thus, in view of the importance of the above societal factors in formulating goal and policy of the program, the following are some of the societal factors mentioned earlier.

#### **a- The Language Setting.**

The term language setting refers to the "totality of communication roles" in any speech community (Gumperz 1971). The language setting of any given speech community can be established from the study of the "language situation" of a given country. A detailed description of language situation ( Fishman 1972), which refers to a set of factors that includes who (ages, socio-economic classes, ethnic and regional groups, etc) speaks (with what level of proficiency) what language varieties ( social and regional dialects, registers,

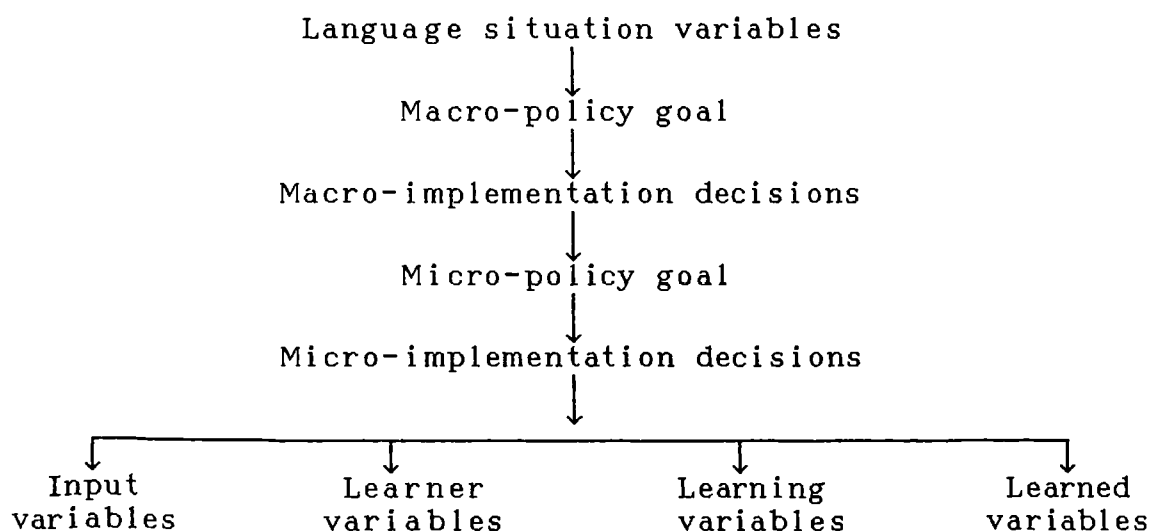
autonomous language) to whom (ages, socio-economic classes, ethnic and regional groups, etc.), for what purposes (e.g. business and trade, religion, education, government activity), would provide the setting from which the communicative roles of the language can be defined.

Thus, there is a need to carry out an in-depth study of the entire language situation to provide information about the whole of what Gumperz (1972) calls "matrix of communication" of a given country prior to decision-making in language planning. In this respect, Prator (1975, cited in Olshtain, 1979: 47) stated

One of the basic concepts of the survey (that is the survey of language situation), then, was the recognition that the language situation of a country should be studied in its totality and that any success in defining the role of one language in a given setting should help define that all of the languages used in the same setting.

As far as the language program is concerned, a clear understanding of language setting on the part of the program planners is vital since it suggests the degree of support that the learner and the learning process have from society (Dubin and Olshtain 1986). In line with this, Tollefson (1989) demonstrates how language situation variables which affect the decisions made at both macro and micro levels of language planning finally project their influences on language acquisition variables namely; input, learner, learning and learned variables (see Figure 12).

Figure 12: The role of language planning in second language acquisition



(Tollefson 1989)

In addition, Judd (1989), asserts that the language situation in any given country undoubtedly influences motivation and purposes for learning a particular language. He therefore suggests that categories of language use should be related directly to the design of language curricular and materials.

In relation to this, Judd criticizes the dichotomy of language situation represented by the terms "English as a second language" (ESL) and "English as a foreign language" (EFL) as being too simple and vague. He proposes an addition of two other intermediate categories of language setting along the continuum of ESL and EFL. These two categories are "English as an additional language" (EAL) and "English as a language of wider communication" (ELWC). While admitting the fact that not every country or every educational institution can be neatly labelled by anyone of the categories, he demonstrates how the categories as such enable language program



planners to make decisions not only about the goal of the program but also about the choice of content and the skills required for each of the categories.

The previous discussion shows the significance of language setting in language planning at both national and local authorities. An analysis of a language situation which provides the description of the role of the target language and the roles that all other languages fulfill in the local community, would be an invaluable source of data for program planners to understand the wider context of the program. This, in turn, helps them to produce a language program which is appropriate, realistic and compatible with the setting.

#### b- Patterns of Language Use in Society.

An analysis of language situation in a given country would provide program planners with the whole "matrix of communication" of that particular country. On the basis of this provision, they could easily define the kind of setting, either second language (SL) or foreign language (FL) or at some point in the continuum, they have for their language program. However, in order to produce an appropriate program, the definition of the setting alone is not sufficient. In addition to the definition of language setting, program planners need to evaluate the extent to which target language is needed in the society.

According to Olshtain (1989:49), societal needs for the target language must be defined on the basis of the objective and practical ways in which the members of the community need to use that language. He suggests that the societal needs of target language for one particular setting can only be defined by investigating the role of

the target language in important areas of the setting. These areas, as outlined by Olshtain are as follows:<sup>6</sup>

- 1- The role of the target language in education.
- 2- The role of the target language in the labour market.
- 3- The role of the target language in the process of modernization.
- 4- The role of the target language in administration.
- 5- The social status of the target language.
- 6- The degree of 'spread' throughout the social system.

The areas listed above are crucial in any setting. Therefore, an investigation of the role of the target language in these areas is important, especially when the target language is a language of wider communication (LWC), which is the focus of Olshtain's discussions. However, one may have to vary the degree of one's attention toward each of these areas or other areas may have to be included in the investigation depending on the special circumstances of the setting.

An obvious area which is closely relevant to the discussion of the role of target language in any setting is the education area. Olshtain (Ibid) and Dubin and Olshtain (1986) suggest that the role of language in education must be investigated from three points of view:

- 1- The degree to which the individual learner needs to use the language as a medium of instruction in order to further his/her education.
- 2- The degree to which the target language functions as the language of study, although it is not the medium of instruction in the school system.
- 3- The overall effectiveness of instruction of the target language within the school system.

It can be observed that the three points of view outlined by Dubin

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<sup>6</sup>Olshtain focuses specifically on the role of English as language of wider communication (ELWC). Hence, the main areas he outlined are relevant to ELWC setting in particular. However, Since these areas represent the main important areas of any given country, an investigation into the role of any target language in such areas is undoubtedly an essential step prior to program design.

and Olshtain could provide a strong foundation for an investigation of the role of target language in education. Analyzing the use of the target language in the whole educational institutions in the country by examining the medium of instruction, the subjects, the textbooks and other teaching materials, would provide the true role of the target language in education of that particular country. Thus, the definition of the role of the target language, whether it is the medium of instruction of all or some of the subjects or whether it is the language of study<sup>7</sup> or others, can be made (Ibid).

Once the role of the target language in education has been established, it is important to evaluate the effectiveness of the existing language program before making any decision about the policy of the program. This, according to Dubin and Olshtain, is necessary since policy, usually, has to be made in order to change the existing program, perhaps to make it more responsive to actual societal needs. The precise role of the target language in education can be identified by an investigation based on the three points of view outlined by Dubin and Olshtain as above (see, p. 45 ). However, it must be noted that, since such an investigation is meant to serve policy-making regarding the program policy and since the policy-making itself is intended, in many cases, for reviewing the existing language program, it is unacceptable to confine the scope of investigation to the role of the target language as such while ignoring other important factors which constrain the policy. These factors are: the teachers, the learners, and the availability and

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<sup>7</sup>The terms 'language of study' refers to 'the degree to which the learners depend on their knowledge of 'English' in order to get access to the subject matter of their interest' (Dubin and Olshtain 1986:10).

type of non-human resources which represent the pragmatic constraints of the program.

Johnson (1989:17) talks about pragmatic constraints of the program that could come from both outside and within the curriculum. The prime examples of pragmatic constraints which come from outside the curriculum are time and money and those which come from within the curriculum include knowledge, skills and attitude which participants possess and which constrain their ability to perform their role.

About the role of pragmatic constraints in program planning, Johnson says 'Where policy determines what counts as a successful learning outcome, pragmatic constraints determine whether those learning outcomes can be achieved' (Ibid:15). In view of these circumstances, he suggests that it is important to reconcile what is desirable (policy) with what is acceptable and possible (pragmatic) for the purpose of producing a coherent language curriculum.

It is important to emphasize that detailed descriptions of the role of the target language in a particular setting which can be provided by an investigation into important areas of the setting, when combined with consideration of pragmatic constraints of the program, would form a strong basis for the development of an appropriate and a practical program.

#### c- Group and Individual Attitudes.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986:13,14) recognize two distinct types of attitudes. These are: (1) group attitudes which refers to attitudes towards the TL, the people who speak it and the culture which it represents, and (2) individual attitudes which refer to attitudes towards the learning and acquisition process itself, its relevance to

individually perceived needs, its efficacy as represented by the teachers, the materials and the school system as a whole.

Attitudes as one of the basic components of motivation play an important role in second language acquisition (see Gardner and Lambert, 1972). According to Dubin and Olshtain (Ibid:14)

Positive attitudes towards the language will reflect a high regard and appreciation of both the language and the culture it represents. Positive attitudes towards the acquisition process will reflect high personal motivation for learning the language,...A combination of positive group attitudes towards the language with positive individual attitudes towards the process is believed to bring about the best results in terms of language acquisition.

Obviously, negative group and individual attitudes can be detrimental to the success of the language program. Hence, it is important for program planners to have at least a general picture of learners attitudes of both kinds prior to decision-making in language policy. The obvious task of program planners regarding this matter is to design a program which could develop positive attitudes towards learning the TL. In this respect, the first task that has to be carried out is to identify the source or sources of negative attitudes within the existing program itself. This is crucial for the purpose mentioned and it has to be the focus of program planners attention since such source or sources of negative attitudes are within their domain while other sources which come from outside the program such as historical, political and national trends which mold group attitudes towards TL are beyond program planners control.

#### d- Political, National, and Economic Considerations.

Political, national and economic considerations are other important elements that have to be carefully considered prior to decision-making in second or foreign language program design. These

considerations are often closely interlaced with each other and can even be viewed as one composite element (Dubin and Olshtain , 1986). However, since anyone of these considerations may prevail over another, it is wise to give each of them a separate account.

Viewed at the highest level, 'political considerations ', according to Olshtain (1989:54), ' have to do with a particular regime in power, and how it views the question of language in general and the (target language) in particular'. Thus, at the lower level, to widen the scope of political considerations defined by Olshtain, they have to do with school, college, and particularly university administrators and how language policy made at the highest level affects their language policy and the separate view they have regarding the use of language or languages in education. It must be noted that the inclusion of local authorities' view into political considerations is vital, since it may influence the implementation of policy made at the highest level, and not to mention that some of them, such as university administrators in particular, may be given full authority to have their own separate language policy.

National considerations are defined as a sequence of states moving from ethnic group to nationality (Fishman, 1968). Thus, they are particularly relevant to nations which are still in the process of nationalism. In this process, a country may have to promote the use of one particular language in order to unite the ethnic groups within the community. In this respect, it is important to investigate the effect that such promotion has upon the use of other languages and the target language in particular.

Economic considerations can be related to three aspects, namely; technology, economy and scientific activities. A strong relationship

between the target language and these three aspects would provide a strong economic basis for government to promote its studies and for learners to learn the target language. Conversely, the absence of economic justification for learning it, would inevitably decrease the amount of support from the government to promote its learning, and the interest of learners to learn it. Another aspect of economic considerations that has to be taken into account when policy is made is the economic limitations which are usually represented by the shortages of funds (Olshtain, 1989:54).

The above account explicitly demonstrates the influence of political, national and economic considerations upon the provision of second language learning, the process of learning itself, and the policy of the second language program. Thus, it is important to include such considerations in the list of investigations which should be carried out before policy making.

The discussions of the language setting, patterns of language use, group and individual attitudes towards language, and political, national and economic considerations above clearly demonstrate the significance of these factors in language program design. A thorough investigation of these societal factors would present the program planners with a vivid picture of the social, cultural, and political contexts within which the second language program will take place. A clear understanding of such contexts would help second language program planners to produce a program which is compatible with the needs of the society. Thus, an investigation into such factors is an important prerequisite to the development of any second language program. However, it must be noted that though the data collected from an investigation of such factors would be adequate for the

purpose of designing the goal, the policy and even the objective of the second language program, program planners may find that there is a need to have more information about some important elements of the program, such as the teachers and the learners, especially when they begin to design the objectives of the program and to decide the choice of content and methodology for the program. On the basis of this, the following section will clarify other sources of objectives design and how the design of these objectives should be made.



## 2.4 The Design of SL Program Objectives

It is mentioned earlier (see, p. 40 ) that "goal" refers to broad and general purposes of a program, whereas "objective" refers to the most specific purposes of the program. Thus, while goal, which is the main concern of program planners at curriculum level, provides statements of general policies of the program, objective, which is their concern at syllabus level, interprets these general policies into detailed descriptions of the content of the program (see, Dubin and Olshtain, 1986:54). Referring "aim" to general purposes and "objective" to the most specific purposes of language program, Widdowson (1983:7) describes aim as "the purposes to which learning will be put after the end of the course" and objectives as "pedagogic intentions of a particular course of study to be achieved within the period of that course and in principle measurable by some assessment device at the end of the course".

The above descriptions and Widdowson's definitions of aim and objectives demonstrate the intrinsic relationship between the terms 'goal,' 'aim' and 'objective', and, therefore, it must be noted that the discussions under this heading are relevant to goal as well as objectives design. Goal has considerable influence on shaping the objectives, and objectives, on the other hand, should be compatible with the goal.

In most second language programs, objectives are essential elements included in the design of the program. Thus, although there are occasions when the goal of the program is not clearly stated, which is most common in programs which are not part of a public educational system (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986), there is hardly any program without a statement of objectives.

Objectives are regarded as "signposts" which guide both teachers and learners in their course of teaching and learning. Moreover, learners assessment and program evaluation are greatly facilitated by means of objectives which are normally defined in terms which are measurable. These advantages, which are articulated by proponents of behavioral objectives such as Mager (1990), Steiner (1975), and Gronlund (1981), have gained behavioral objectives an establishment in most educational programs including second language programs.

Despite this, however, behavioral objectives are by no means free from criticism. Stenhouse (1975) has compiled arguments for and against behavioral objectives. Those arguments are also listed by Nunan (1988a:67-8) as follows:

List A- Arguments against the use of performance objectives.

- 1 It is easiest to write objectives for trivial learning behaviors, therefore the really important outcomes of education will be under-emphasized.
- 2 Pre-specifying explicit objectives prevents the teacher from taking advantage of instructional opportunities unexpectedly occurring in the classroom.
- 3 There are important educational outcomes (such as changing community values, parental attitudes) besides pupils behavior changes.
- 4 There is something dehumanizing about an approach which implies behavior which can be objectively measured.
- 5 It is undemocratic to plan in advance precisely how the learner should behave after instruction.
- 6 Teachers rarely specify their goals in terms of measurable learner behavior.
- 7 In certain subject areas such as the humanities it is difficult to identify measurable learner behavior.
- 8 If most educational goals were stated precisely , they would generally be revealed as innocuous.
- 9 Measurability implies accountability: teachers might be judged solely on their ability to produce results in learners.

List B- Arguments countering those in List A.

- 1 While opportunism is welcome, it should always be justified in terms of its contribution to the attainment of worthwhile objectives.
- 2 Sophisticated measuring instruments are being developed to assess many complicated human behaviors in a refined fashion.
- 3 Teachers should be taught how to specify objectives.
- 4 Much of what is taught in schools is indefensible.

- 5 Teachers should be assessed on their ability to bring about desirable changes in learners.
- 6 Certain subject specialists need to work harder than others to identify appropriate learner behaviors.
- 7 It is undemocratic not to let a learner know what he is going to get out of the educational system.
- 8 All modifications in personnel or external agencies should be justified in terms of their contribution towards the promotion of desired pupils behaviors.
- 9 Explicit objectives make it far easier for educators to attend to important instructional outcomes by exposing the trivial which is often lurking below the high-flown.

It is obvious that the weight of the arguments is in favour of behavioral objectives. Thus, it is not strange that Eisner (1972) and Stenhouse (1975), two of the foremost critics against behavioral objectives, admit that "behavioral objectives have a part to play, though necessarily a limited one" (Taylor and Richards 1979:71).

As far as second language (SL) and foreign language (FL) programs are concerned, the importance of defining objectives has been duly valued in the works of applied linguists as Van Ek (1975), Wilkins (1976), Richterich and Chancerel (1980), Munby (1978), Trim, Richterich, Van Ek, and Eilkins (1980), Widdowson (1983), Yalden (1983), Dubin and Olshtain (1986), Nunan (1988a&b) and many others. Moreover, Stenhouse (1975) thinks that language teaching is one area which could benefit from performance objectives. Apart from the fact that the definition of objectives is crucial in providing clear direction in teaching and learning, the other factor which makes it indispensable in any educational programs, especially SL and FL programs, is due to the institutionalization of education itself. Institutional variables, such as financial consideration, time, and teachers population which condition the ability of an institution make the definition of objectives inevitable. Furthermore, an institution in any way or form has to set a specific level of education with which it proposes to offer. Hence, the setting of objectives in an institution is

practically unavoidable.

Having realized the crucial place of objectives in an educational institution, it is imperative to know the considerations which form the foundations upon which the design of objectives is based. In addition, it is also imperative to know the way or ways objectives may be stated.

In SL and FL program design, the important step that has to be carried out prior to the definition of objectives is to conduct a "needs" survey. Needs survey, better known as "needs analysis", which refers to "techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design" (Nunan, 1988a:13), is now viewed by most of contemporary applied linguists as an initial step in syllabus design (see, examples: Clark, 1978, Yalden, 1983, Trim, 1980). In this respect, Brindley (1989:63) notes that "It is now widely accepted as a principle of program design that needs analysis is a vital prerequisite to the specification of language learning objectives ". The rationale behind the need for such a survey is that the information provided by the survey could be used to serve many purposes such as to obtain wider input into the content, design and implementation of a language program, to develop goals, objectives and content, and to provide data for reviewing and evaluating an existing program (see, Richards 1984, and Nunan 1988a&b). However, it must be realized that the extent of the use of needs analysis depends on the type of information it is set to collect. Thus, it is important, beforehand, to have a clear understanding of the type of data or information required.

In needs analysis, the discussions about data are mainly associated with "learners needs". According to Strevens (1980:26) learners'

needs are conventionally analyzed in relation to one or more of the following:

1. Topic or subject of specialization.
2. Ultimate purposes for use of the language, especially as between 'for studying' and 'for occupation'.
3. Extent of restriction upon a) language content b) skills required ('reading only', 'understanding speech', etc.).
4. Initial and terminal level of attainment.
5. Instructional format (learning time available, intensity, class size, cost limit, any examination or other external criterion to be met, etc. ).

In later developments of needs analysis, more elements have been included. Explaining the scope of needs analysis in models developed by Trim (1973), Van Ek (1975) and Richterich (1973) (see also, Richterich and Chancerel, 1977), Trim (1980:63) notes:

needs analysis comes to mean the whole cluster of techniques which lead to an understanding of the parameters of the learning situations: ego, fellow learners, teacher(s), administrators, course writers, producers, social agencies, career expectations and job satisfaction, social dynamics, learners type and resource analysis are relevant factors in addition to the original predicted communication behaviour.

In further developments of needs analysis, more emphasis has been given to the learners as individuals. Thus, learners become the main source of information in needs analysis. Learners' needs are then interpreted not only in terms of what they need to do with the language once they have learned it, but also in terms of what they need to do in order to actually acquire the language (Widdowson, 1979 and 1983). Moreover, with the advance of humanistic approaches in education, which are concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner, learners perceptions about what they should be learning and how they should be learning it (Nunan, 1988a:20), have further widened the scope of learners needs. In this context, Brindley (1989:63) says

needs analysis, then, means much more than the definition of target language behaviour: it means trying to identify and take into account a multiplicity of affective and cognitive variables which effect learning, such as learners attitudes,

motivations, awareness, personality, wants expectations and learning styles.

The above account demonstrates the comprehensive nature of learners' needs. Learners' needs have been viewed not only in terms of 'what', which refers to the product of learning, but also in terms of 'how' which indicates the process of learning itself. More significantly, learners' perceptions regarding both 'what' and 'how' are now regarded as an invaluable input in syllabus design. The psychological basis underlying this new impetus is, perhaps, as put forwards by Bowers (1980:67) " that a student will learn best what he wants to learn, less well what he only needs to learn, less well still what he neither wants nor needs to learn ".

However, even if we accept the above statement for granted and without denying the significance of this approach in syllabus design, there are problems surrounding the application of learner-centered approach as such. An obvious problem of the learner-centered approach in needs analysis is that it has a great demand on the part of the teacher. In this context, Stevens (1980:17) warns that

the desirable goal of learner-centered education has a paradox at his heart: namely, that the greater attention to the needs of the learner ineluctably requires greater sensitivity and understanding, broader technical, pedagogical capability and thus a more comprehensive background of teaching and experience, on the part of the teacher.

It is, in fact, not only teacher's knowledge, experience and qualification which stand in the way of learner-centered education, but also the number of teachers available together with their motivation and attitude towards language teaching, in general, and towards such approach in particular. In addition, institutional constraints such as finance, time, number of students, and not to

mention students cultural background, motivation and attitude, are important factors which determine the practical side of learner-centered approach in needs analysis.

In view of the above circumstances, it is important for language program planners to know about the source of objectives, not only in terms of what is ideally required, but more importantly in terms of what is practically useful. This is simply because it is inconceivable that a good and appropriate syllabus can be produced without considering practical factors, while knowing what is ideal is important in establishing what is practical. Thus, for the purpose of producing an appropriate and practical syllabus, it is practical factors, such as language policy made at both national and local levels, societal expectations and needs, available resources and program constraints, that need to be considered as the main basis for SL or FL program design. This main basis, in turn, will determine whether or not a learner-centered approach may be applied, or, if it is applicable, the extent to which such an approach needs to be applied.

Another important question in relation to objective design concerns the way or ways in which objectives can be stated. In this respect, Tyler<sup>(1949:44-47)</sup> suggested that there were four ways of stating these objectives:

1. Specify the thing that the teacher or instructor is to do.
2. Specify course content (topics, concepts, generalizations etc.).
3. Specify generalized patterns of behaviour (e.g. 'to develop critical thinking').
4. Specify the kinds of behaviour which learners will be able to exhibit after instruction.

Favoring the fourth of the ways listed above, Tyler criticizes the specification of objectives in terms of what the teacher is to do on the grounds that teacher activity is not the ultimate purpose of an

educational program. He also regards the listing of content as unsatisfactory because such lists give no indication of what learners are to do with such content. As for the third, he feels that the specification is rather vague (Ibid), (see also, Nunan, 1988).

As far as the specification of objectives in terms of learners terminal behavior is concerned, Tyler (Ibid) asserts that the objectives statement should be clear and precise in such a way that an independent observer could recognize such behavior. For this reason, most syllabus planners who advocate the use of performance objectives suggest that they should contain at least three components, namely, behavior, conditions and standards (Mager,1970). According to Steiner (1975), performance objectives should state four elements which would provide a detailed guide to the learner, the teacher and the tester. These elements are:

1. What the student will do (e.g. write an essay, answer five questions orally).
2. Under what conditions (e.g. in class without notes, in an individual conference with teacher).
3. Within what time (e.g. 40 minutes, 5 minutes, no time limit).
4. To what level of mastery (e.g. must include 5 pertinent ideas each supported with specific documentation; must have good paragraph and essay construction: must contain no more than 5 errors of grammar, punctuation or spelling;...).

Despite detailed description of learner's performance as outlined by Steiner above, the fact remains that the specification of objectives of this kind focuses entirely on learner's learning outcomes or the expected products of instruction. It obviously does not make explicit the content of instruction, nor does it contain any indications about how instruction was carried out. Thus, its main concern is to serve the assessment of teaching and learning outcomes rather than teaching and learning themselves.

On the basis of these circumstances, recent developments in SL and FL



teaching have put more emphasis on teaching and learning process in objectives design. Thus, in addition to performance objectives, process objectives, which describe activities designed to develop the skills needed to carry out the product objectives (Nunan, 1988a), have been included in objectives design (see, examples, Hobbs, 1986, and Prabhu, 1987). In this context, Nunan (1988a:71) argues that "any comprehensive syllabus needs to specify both process and product objectives". This is, perhaps, because there are problems in specifying objectives in terms of language activities alone. An obvious problem is that "the rational is not always clear ( in other words, the link between the instructional goal and the classroom objectives are not always explicit) " ( Ibid:63). Furthermore, it is difficult to assess learners achievement on the basis of classroom or language activities in the absence of predetermined outcomes ( Taylor and Richards, 1979:74, and White, 1988:35).

However, irrespective of difficulties involved in specifying objectives in terms of activities, the question arises whether there is a need or, if there is, whether it is beneficial to specify activities as objectives together with product objectives. In situations when teacher proof syllabus is needed, which is common in SL and FL programs, it is obviously recommended to have specification as such in order to ensure the compatibility between product and means exist. However, the specification of activities as objectives would mean imposing a limit upon the choice of means. In addition, it also binds teachers and learners strictly to activities by which their outcomes are yet to be proved. Moreover, the specification of activities as objectives would probably mislead teachers and learners to assume the completion of activities itself as instructional goals.

Thus, it is wise, for the purpose of enriching the means of achieving the expected product, to deal with the question of the teaching/learning process not in terms of objectives but in terms of choice of means by which the program's objectives are to be realized. In this manner, performance or product objectives will present themselves as guides not only to the assessment of outcomes, but also to the selection of teaching and learning activities as well as syllabus content.

## CHAPTER THREE

### LANGUAGE SYLLABUSES, TEACHING METHODOLOGIES AND GENERAL CRITERIA FOR DESIGNING AND EVALUATING ARABIC PROGRAMS

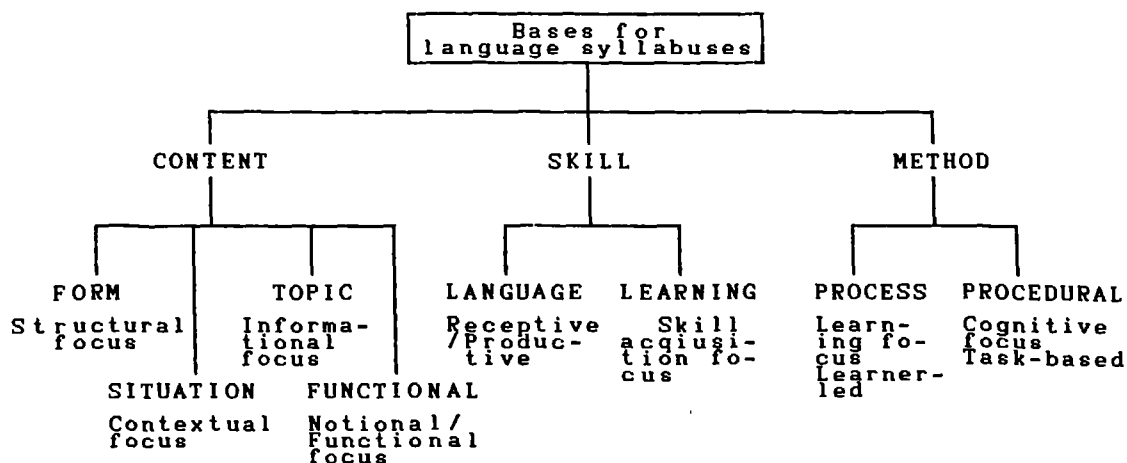
#### 3.1 Language Syllabus: Bases

In any language teaching program, syllabus, whatever form it takes, is an important document needed at least for the guidance of teachers and for students' assessment. In addition, the highly complex nature of language, which makes teaching all of the syllabus at the same time impossible, together with the limitation of time and program resources, have further enhanced the syllabus existence and enriched its value in the program (Allen, 1984:65 and Brumfit, 1984b:76). Furthermore, according to Yalden (1984:14 and 1987:26) a syllabus is required in order to achieve efficiency of two kinds: pragmatic efficiency (economy of time and money), and pedagogical efficiency (economy in the management of the learning process).

Having realized the importance of a syllabus in language program, it is imperative to know what constitutes a language syllabus. In this respect, it is important to review the types of language syllabuses available at present. Language syllabuses, depending on the bases on which they are constructed, can be classified into three main categories: content-based, skills-based and method-based syllabuses. A content-based syllabus is constructed on the basis of content which is linguistic, situational, topical, or functional/notional. A skills-based syllabus is constructed on the basis of language skills which include receptive skills (i.e. reading and listening), and productive skills (i.e. writing and speaking). Skills-based syllabus could also be constructed on the basis of the process by which skills are acquired. Method-based syllabus is designed on the basis of

either the process by which language is learned or the task by which the acquisition of language system unconsciously occurs. These main types of language syllabuses are shown by White (1988) as follows:

Figure 13: Bases for language syllabus design



(White, 1988)

It is observed from the types of language syllabuses that there are choices of elements which can be included as a component or components of a language syllabus. Thus, the initial task of a syllabus designer is to decide which of these elements will be the component or components of his syllabus, and, if there are more than one component, in what proportion or with what emphasis.

According to Yalden (1983:44) "decisions of this sort are generally made on the basis of a theory of what it is to know a second language." In other words, the choice of elements made by a syllabus designer should be theoretically justified. However, as pointed out by White (1988:110) "theory-driven practice can be unworkable because practice is so complex". Thus, in view of these circumstances, it is important to consider both theory and practice in deciding the choice of syllabus type, elements and the proportion of these elements in

syllabus. In addition, the feasibility of applying any particular type of syllabus cannot be interpreted in its general terms without relating it to a situation or an institution concerned. This is simply because what seems to be generally workable may not be workable in any situation, and what is workable in one situation may not be workable in another. Thus, it is important to examine the practicality of the chosen syllabus against situational and institutional variables and constraints such as program's resources, policy and aims, in addition to its practicality in general terms.

Having outlined the main principles in deciding the choice of syllabuses, it is worthwhile to have a closer look at the available types of language syllabuses in relation to these principles.

### 3.1.1 Process-Based Syllabus

There are two types of process-based syllabus: the process syllabus and the task-based syllabus.

The process or 'Negotiated syllabus' is associated with Breen and Candlin. Candlin (1987) and Breen (1984) both repudiate predesigned syllabus on the basis that such a syllabus is inevitably and continually reinterpreted by both teachers and learners. In addition, they say that there is always disparity between intention and reality. On these bases, they suggest that syllabus should not be pre-defined and imposed upon learners but must be continually produced and modified in negotiation with learners as teaching and learning are in progress.

According to Breen (1987:116), the process syllabus focuses upon three processes:

1. Communicating.
2. Learning.

3.The purposeful social activity of teaching and learning in a classroom.

Thus, Breen continues, "it is primarily a syllabus which addresses the decisions which have to be made and the working procedures which have to be undertaken for language learning in group. It assumes that the third process...will be the means through which communicating and learning can be achieved " (Ibid), (see, also. Breen and Candlin, 1980, Breen, 1984, Candlin, 1984, and Candlin and Murphy, (eds.) 1987). In summary, process syllabus is a syllabus which is concerned with the question of 'how' rather than 'what' and it is 'learner-led' rather than 'teacher-led'.

Without detailing the problems which may arise in applying such a syllabus ( see, Kouraogo, 1987, and White, 1988), it is obvious that institutional constraints such as teachers' qualification and population, learners' population, time limit, and assessment system will be the main obstacles which stand in the way of its recommendation.

With regard to Task-based or procedural syllabus, it is "a syllabus which is organized around tasks, rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary" (Richards, Platt, and Weber 1985:289). The rationale behind such specification is psychological rather than linguistic. According to Prabhu (1987:1-2), the principle architect for Bangalore/Madras Communicational Teaching Project (CTP) which was introduced in India in 1979, "teaching should be concerned with creating conditions for coping with meaning in the classroom, to the exclusion of any deliberate regulation of the development of grammatical competence or mere simulation of language behaviour". Furthermore, according to Prabhu, " if the desired form of knowledge (grammatical form) was such that it could operate subconsciously, it

was best for it to develop subconsciously as well" (Ibid, 14-15).

In applying this view, Prabhu uses three types of tasks in his CTP project. They are as follows:(Prabhu:1987:46-7)

- 1- Information -gap activity, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another- or from one form or another, or from one place to another-generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language.
- 2- Reasoning-gap activity, which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning or a perception of relationships or patterns.
- 3- Opinion-gap activity, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation.

By means of these tasks learners will be engaged in thinking processes which are aimed at completing the tasks. In addition, by consciously focusing on meaning in order to complete the tasks it is hoped that grammatical system will be developed subconsciously in the learner ( see Figure 14 below for the summary of CTP model).

Figure 14: Summary of CTP model

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Task	→ Learner' cognitive process →	Task completion
Conscious	Meaning-building	Meanings understood or conveyed
Unconscious	System-building	Grammatical system developed

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(White, 1988)

Like the process syllabus, the task-based or procedural syllabus is a syllabus focuses on learning. It is the process of learning which is central not the learning of language itself (White, 1988:103). However, it differs from the process syllabus in its pre-defined tasks.

As can be discerned from the nature of the task-based syllabus, it is

difficult to assess learners achievement on the basis of process because its focus is exclusively on learning processes and there is little or no attempt to relate these processes to outcomes (Nunan, 1988a:44). In addition, the fact that the task-based syllabus relies solely on subconscious strategies in developing learners grammatical system, will inevitably require a great amount of time. Furthermore, it is rather skeptical that adult learners, especially those whose aim is language accuracy, would tolerate such<sup>a</sup> proposal. Thus, these problems and others (see, Greenwood, 1985, Nunan, 1988, and White, 1988) would surely limit the feasibility of the task-based syllabus.

### 3.1.2 Content-Based Syllabus

Content-based syllabus is a syllabus which is designed on the basis of content. Thus, it includes the structural syllabus which is traditionally designed on the basis of linguistic content, the situational syllabus designed on the basis of language situations, the topical syllabus designed on the basis of topics or subjects, and the notional-functional syllabus designed on the basis of notions such as time, space, obligation etc. and on the basis of categories of communicative functions such as invitations, suggestions, apologies, etc. ( White, 1988, Dubin and Olshtain, 1986).

Among the types of content-based syllabuses mentioned above, the structural syllabus is the most frequently adopted in most SL and FL programs. The structural syllabus mostly consists of two components: a list of linguistic structures and a list of words. These lists are derived from the description of language provided by descriptive linguistics. This syllabus assumes that language is a system made up of discrete grammatical, phonological, and morphological items. It



further assumes that learning a language entails learning this system by means of gradual accumulation of its composite items. Thus, linguistic items are organized in such a way that they can be taught and learned gradually and systematically ( see, example, Wilkins, 1976, Yalden, 1983 and 1987, Dubin and Olshtain, 1986, White, 1988, and Nunan, 1988a&b).

Without describing the syllabus concerned any further, the literature on the subject shows that this type of syllabus, despite being widely adopted, is theoretically lacking and unjustified. The basic criticism of structural syllabus lies in the fact that it equates grammatical rules with knowing a language. In this way, it misrepresents the nature of language itself since grammar is only a single aspect of the complex phenomenon of language. Knowing a language is now being viewed not only as knowing its grammatical rules but also as knowing the meaning it contains and knowing its rules of use (see, e.g. Halliday, 1973, Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, Brumfit and Johnson, 1979, and Johnson, 1982). In addition, the structural syllabus has been criticized on the grounds of its treatment of lexis and grammar which are presented in isolation, the passive role it attributes to learners, its failure to relate teaching and learning with outside world, and so forth ( see e.g. Kress, 1976, and Johnson, 1982 ).

In view of these and other possible shortcomings, an effort has been made to either replace structural syllabus with other types of syllabuses such as the process syllabus and the task based syllabus or to modify it to be more theoretically sound and pedagogically more attractive as in other types of content-based syllabuses.

The earliest effort was made by contextualizing the presentation of

lexis and grammar. In Hornby's (1959:66) so-called 'situational' method for example, classroom situations, such as real objects and activities, were used to demonstrate the meaning of a new language item.

In a later developments, the contextualization of language teaching has been extended from classroom situations into outside situations. Thus, 'situation' in 'situational syllabus' refers to the contexts in which language and behavior occur in the 'real world' (White, 1988). The situational syllabus, ideally, attempts to provide the learner with the knowledge and skills he would require in social situations. Thus, this type of syllabus attempts to specify these situations by asking when and where the learner needs the target language. On this basis, a situational syllabus takes the setting of the use of language, the type of interaction involved, and linguistic forms, as dependent on the situation. In this way series of situations will form the main organizing principle in a situational syllabus (Bell, 1981, and White, 1988)

As can be observed from the above descriptions, the situational syllabus adopts real world situations as its main focus. This focus, however, has caused a number of problems. Among these problems, as argued by Bell(1981:54-55) and White(1988:62-63),are:

- 1- It is difficult to predict accurately the whole situations.
- 2- there is no strong relationship between situation and the language used in it except for highly ritualized language use.
- 3- a situational syllabus can be defined with varying degrees of precision or generality and the more broadly the category is defined the less useful it is likely to be.
- 4- there is the danger that the situation will be so special and the language so situation specific that the content will have relevance only to a limited number of students.

In addition to these problems, the situational syllabus has been criticized for providing only a restricted range of language which is

covered in the situations. This means that the situational syllabus emphasizes, according to White (Ibid), "getting things done rather than learning the language system". Furthermore, according to Yalden (1983:38) "the absence of functional component from the situational syllabus is one of the major limiting factors to its capacity to meet the claims that have been made for it, in terms of preparing learners for real life situation" (see also, Wilkins, 1976:15-18).

Despite those problems and criticisms, it must be noted that, similar to the fact that grammar is an important aspect of language and thus needs to be included in a language syllabus, situation is also a useful means, not only for providing context for the presentation and the practice of grammatical items but also for language exposure to the learners. In addition, a situation can be used as means to generate classroom activities such as role-play and simulation.

Another type of syllabus which focuses on context in which language and behavior occur is topic-based syllabus. The topic-based syllabus advocates learning the language through exposure to content and therefore, its main focus is what is being talked or written about, or in other words, the content assumed under a topic.

There are two justifications for focusing on topic. First, topic can be used as a means to introduce, illustrate or to broaden the content or knowledge of other subjects in curriculum (Abbot, 1987). Second, it can improve learners motivation towards language learning by providing direct link between the study of language with the study of other subjects (Fein and Baldwin, 1986).

In a topic-based syllabus, topic, instead of linguistics, is the main organizing principle. Topics are selected and ordered according to criteria such as pedagogic merit, affective consideration,

practicality, and depth of treatment (see, Fein and Baldwin, 1986 and Reynolds, 1981). In addition, since language exposure is its main focus, the content or the language input must be significant and comprehensible to the learners.

There are problems in topic-based syllabuses. These problems mainly arise from the concept of 'topic' itself. At the very beginning topics are defined by meaning, and meaning, as expressed by White (1988:65), "is a notoriously slippery concept to work with". Furthermore, White continues, "topics can be thought of in varying degrees of generality, some so general as to be meaningless. By contrast topics can be limited to things which are so minutely particular that it becomes difficult to decide whether the focus is on topic or vocabulary" (see also, Shaw, 1977).

It is obvious that the problems described above would certainly limit the effect and the use the topic has in teaching and learning. However, the fact remains that topic is a useful means of providing language input to the learners as well as a means of improving their language learning motivation. Thus, it is wise to consider topic as another element to be included in language syllabus.

The last type of content-based syllabus is notional-functional syllabus. The first development of this syllabus can be traced to the Council of Europe Project in 1973 (see also, Van EK, 1975, and Van EK and Alexander, 1977).

The notional or functional or notional-functional syllabus takes the desired communicative capacity as its starting point. Thus it is concerned with the question of what it is people communicate through language (Wilkins, 1976:18). According to Bell (1981:15) and Yalden (1983:43) what people communicate through language is meaning. Thus, according

to this approach, language is a system of meaning rather than form and therefore, learning a language consists of learning how to mean. On the basis of this, the notional-functional approach tries to seek correlation between form and function, but defines the link as being between the forms of the language available to the user and the meaning he wishes to express (Bell,1981:55).

In this approach three categories of meaning have been identified. They are semantico-grammatical such as time, quantity and space, modal or modality such as certainty and commitment, and communicative function such as judgment, suasion and argument (see, Wilkins, 1976). According to Wilkins (Ibid), a fully notional syllabus covers all these three categories. However, in most syllabuses of this type, communicative functions which are selected and determined on the basis of learners communicative needs and further defined in terms of objective are the main organizing principle (see e.g. Bell, 1982, Johnson, 1982, Yalden, 1983 and 1987, and Nunan, 1988).

The Notional-functional syllabus, as is the case with the above mentioned types of language syllabuses, is by no means free from criticisms. Brumfit (1981) argues that notional-functional syllabus has not addressed the question of learning theory, and that it is therefore difficult to see the grounds on which it proposes the reorientation of second language teaching. In this respect, Brumfit

(Ibid:91) says

whatever criteria we use (in syllabus design)...principles of organization must be answerable to a view of how language is learned. It is on the basis of a view of language learning that systematizability and motivation are seen as important criteria for the selection and ordering of items"

In addition, Widdowson (1990:130) who is skeptical about the communicative value of the notional-functional syllabus says

"notional/functional syllabus is of itself no more communicative than

is a 'structural' one". In addition to these remarks, the notional-functional syllabus encounters a variety of problems which mainly arise from the adoption of meaning, notion and function, as its main organizing principles (see e.g. Johnson, 1977, Widdowson, 1979, Paulston, 1981, Bell, 1982, Yalden, 1983, Breen, 1987, and White, 1988).

Despite remarks and problems, the notional-functional syllabus has significant contributions to both language teaching and syllabus designing. In teaching, it emphasizes the importance of approaching the meaning of the form rather than teaching form for its own sake. In syllabus, it has enriched its components by the inclusion of function which, in turn, relates language teaching directly to the communicative purposes of the learners.

Studying the nature of each type of the content-based syllabuses described above, it can be concluded that there is no single content-based syllabus which can be fully justified in terms of both theory and practice. However, each of them, by their own individual merits, has at least an appealing contribution to syllabus design. Thus, it could be suggested that it is best to exploit the positive features of each of them in designing a language syllabus. In adopting this approach in syllabus design, the design of the suggested language syllabus will consider each of these elements (i.e. form, situation, topic, notion, and function) in accordance with their individual value. Furthermore, the focus of the syllabus, which can be varied in the continuum of form to function, will be firstly determined by the aim of the program and secondly and importantly by program resources and constraints.

Before pursuing in any further detail ~~about~~ the model suggested, it is

worthwhile to examine the other two types of syllabuses: skills-based and hybrid syllabuses. However, it must be noted beforehand that the hybrid syllabus is not included in White's classification of language syllabuses (see diagram 13, p. 63 ). This is simply because his classification is based on types of syllabus elements as separate items. A hybrid syllabus, however, is a syllabus which incorporates and integrates more than one type of syllabus elements.

### 3.1.3 Skills-Based and Hybrid Syllabuses

Initially, it must be noted that all language programs, whatever approach or syllabus they adopt, are aimed at developing a certain level of language achievement in terms of skill or skills. However, apart from the fact that each type of syllabus has its own individual goal in terms of levels and types of skills, they differ in defining the means by which a skill or skills can be learned.

The previous account of language syllabuses shows that there are a variety of ways in which language skills can be achieved. However, as can be observed, the syllabuses which have been previously described have only dealt with the question of language skills indirectly and implicitly rather than directly and explicitly. That is to say, those syllabuses have dealt with the means of acquiring language skills not language skills themselves and that the specification of those syllabuses is defined in terms of form, or situation, or function etc, not in terms of skills: reading, listening, writing, or speaking.

Another way of approaching language skills in the language syllabus is to link the syllabus directly and explicitly to those skills. The skills-based syllabus, which adopts this approach, is defined in

terms of specific language skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking) to be achieved at the end of the course. Thus, this syllabus consists of sets of skill objectives which are divided into long term and interim objectives (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986, and White, 1988). The specification of interim objectives is traditionally made in terms of the actual selected materials that need to be covered in the course. Furthermore, in a recent development of skills-based syllabus, it is suggested that cognitive skills (e.g. understanding, expressing, interpreting, extracting, recognizing, indicating ), which underlie the process of encoding and decoding the language messages, could be used as another basis of defining the interim objectives (see, Widdowson, 1979 and 1983, Munby, 1978, Yalden, 1983 and White, 1987).

In the skills-based syllabus, the specification of skills in terms of interim and long terms objectives is made according to the purposes of learning the target language. Thus, a careful assessment of learners need for the target language in terms of present and future expectations is a vital prerequisite before such specification is made. On the basis of this assessment, the selection of the four skills and the degree of emphasis upon selected skills are determined (Dubin and Olshtain, Ibid).

As can be observed from the above description, the skills-based syllabus attempts to relate language teaching directly to the course's end product. This attempt, however, faces acute problems especially in organizing interim products systematically. The specification of interim objectives in terms of selected material to be covered in the course means disorganization of the treatment of skills. If these interim objectives are defined in terms of cognitive



skills, it is hardly possible to produce a logical order for the sequence of cognitive skills (White, 1988:70-73).

From the discussion on the skills-based syllabus and other types of syllabuses, it can be synthesized that each of these syllabuses is inadequate either in terms of focus or organization or both. On the basis of these circumstances, it is believed that the best solution to these problems is to vary the focus of the syllabus and to include both what can be and cannot be systematically organized. Thus, the result of this proposal would be a hybrid syllabus which includes elements from two or more types of syllabuses.

Bearing in mind the need to vary the syllabus focus, attempts have been made to combine the various aspects of language, especially structure and function, and to incorporate these aspects into a single syllabus. The results of these attempts are syllabus models which demonstrate various combinations of these aspects (see, Yalden, 1983 and White, 1988:79). Among these models are 'structures and functions' which is proposed by Brumfit (1981), 'variable focus' which is proposed by Allen (1983 and 1984), and 'proportional syllabus' which is proposed by Yalden (1983 and 1987) (see Figures, 15, 16 and 17 below).

Figure 15: Structures and functions.

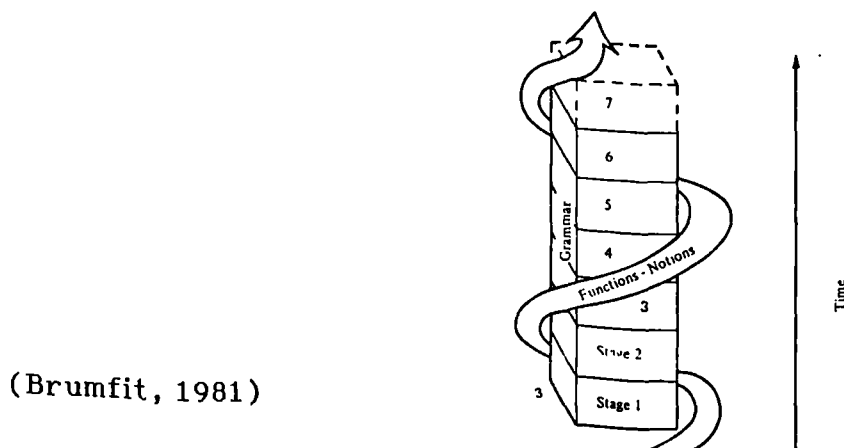
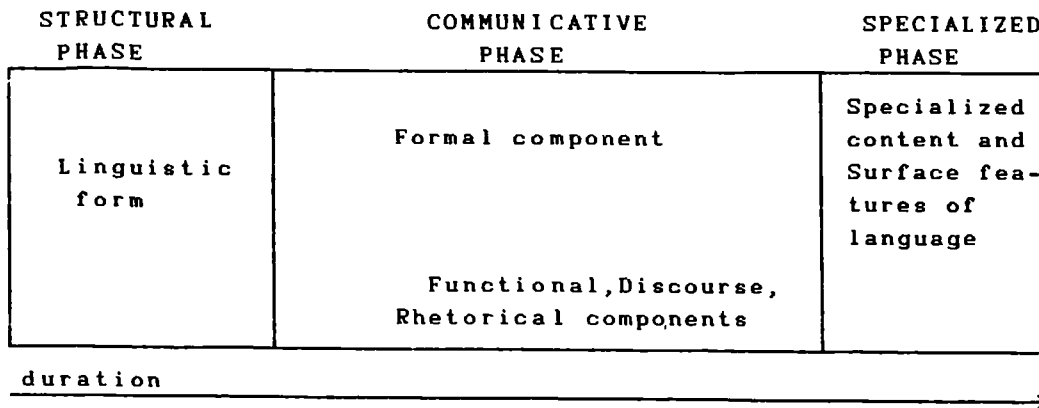


Figure 16: Three levels of communicative competence in second language education.

LEVEL 1 STRUCTURAL	LEVEL 2 FUNCTIONAL	LEVEL 3 INSTRUMENTAL
Focus on language (formal features) a) structural control b) materials simplified structurally c) mainly structural practice	Focus on language (discourse features) a) discourse control b) materials simplified functionally c) mainly discourse practice	Focus on the use of language a) situational or topic control b) authentic language c) free practice

(Allen, 1980)

Figure 17: The propotional syllabus.



(Yalden, 1983)

A hybrid syllabus... , as can be observed from the above examples, offers a convincing solution to the question of focus and organization. In varying their focuses, they propose the teaching and learning of what can be systematically organized ( i.e. structures ) as well as what cannot be systematically organized (i.e. function, themes, situation, and skills). In this way, hybrid syllabuses attempt to develop both grammatical and communicative competences in

the learners. In addition, they are easy to be evaluated in practice since they are defined in terms of content or product. Needless to say that hybrid syllabuses, are theoretically and practically justified ( see, Content-Based Syllabuses, pp. 67-74 and Skills-Based syllabuses, pp. 74-76 ). However, in order to be fully practically justified, it is imperative to decide the choice of these syllabuses on the basis of the program's aim and resources, and particularly the program's constraints such as teachers' and learners' ability, attitudes and motivation, time limitation and so forth.

In conclusion, it must be noted that though a theoretical basis is important in deciding the syllabus choice, in the end, however, it is the practical basis which ultimately determines such a choice ( see, The Design of SL program's Objectives, pp. 52-61 ). Thus, a syllabus which is designed totally on the basis of learning processes and a syllabus which does not relate to specific learning outcomes would basically be incompatible with practice. This is simply because syllabus organization and outcome assessment are two essential requirements in any teaching institution. In addition, Practical demands vary in terms of both type and degree according to the available program's resources and constraints. Thus, in circumstances where teachers' ability, academic quality, teaching training, and attitudes and motivations are at stake, for example, language syllabus, does not only have to be defined in terms of explicit objectives and content but also in terms of explicit language activities and procedures to be followed in teaching. This example shows that despite the fact that it is best to find a balance between theory and practice, practice, in many occasions, always prevailed upon theory. Thus, in circumstances where the balance between theory

and practice can not be properly adjusted, it is important to emphasize the principle of compatibility between syllabus and programs' resources and constraints.

### 3.2 Teaching Methodologies

Language teaching and learning, as previously demonstrated (see pp.21- 33), go further beyond the questions of content, product, and teaching methodologies. On the basis of this, a comprehensive framework of curriculum or syllabus design has been proposed to replace the framework of method which seems to be inadequate and incapable of dealing with the questions which arise around language teaching and learning. Furthermore, the search for an ideal method has so far been deemed to failure. As Yalden (1987:83) asserts "the notion of a single language teaching method, applicable to all educational contexts, and to all groups of learners, has been rejected".

Such conditions raise two fundamental questions in the discussion of method or teaching methodology. The first is: what is the place of method or methodology in syllabus design? The second is: what method or methods are likely to be appropriate and applicable to one particular situation or institution?

Before attempting to answer these questions, it is crucial to make clear the significance of the terms 'method' and 'methodology'. Method and methodology are frequently and interchangeably used to refer to theories about the nature of language and learning and their implications in language teaching and learning practice. In this definition a method would include approach, certain beliefs or assumptions about the nature of language and learning, design, which specifies the relationship of the beliefs to both the form and function of instructional materials and activities in instructional settings, and procedure, which comprises the classroom techniques and practices that are consequences of particular approach and design

(Richards, 1985). Despite this definition, however, both terms are frequently used to refer to only part of the whole definition of language activities, teaching procedures and techniques. On the basis of the definition and usage, and for the purpose of the present discussion, it is convenient to distinguish between method and methodology by referring to the whole object as method and by referring to part of it as methodology.

In language syllabus design, the notion of method seems to be embedded in the specification of syllabus content, product and process. This is clear since the choice of syllabus items either as content or as product and even as process, presupposes certain theories of the nature of language and learning. The grammatical syllabus, for example, assumes that language is a system made up of discrete linguistic units and therefore learning a language entails internalizing this system by the process of gradual accumulation of such units. On the other hand, the functional syllabus assumes that language is a system of meaning and therefore language learning means learning how to mean with language in actual communication (see, Wilkins, 1976, Bell, 1981, Yalden, 1987).

Furthermore, as theories or beliefs about the nature of language and learning are implicit in the syllabus items, these items and their organizations further imply certain methodologies in their teaching. Thus, the grammatical syllabus dictates methods which focus on teaching and learning grammar explicitly by means of activities such as explanation, analysis, translation and mechanical drills. The functional syllabus, on the other hand, suggests the kind of teaching and learning which focuses on meaning of forms, functions by means of authentic samples of language relevant to learners needs and by means

of communicative activities such as simulation and role-playing.

On the basis of the above account, it seems plausible to assume that the need for incorporating methodology in the framework of language syllabus design would simply disappear. However, the question is whether the selection of syllabus items and their organization alone is sufficient to determine their methodological implications. According to Widdowson (1990:129-130), though syllabus type and its organization may carry implications about what activities might effectively be promoted as consistent with the syllabus rationale, such implications, however, may not be clear to the teachers. Only the teachers who are sensitive and well acquainted with the underlying principles of such selection and organization would use methodologies which are compatible with the selected syllabus.

In view of the above circumstance and in view of the fact that there is a great number of language teachers who are lacking in knowledge about language and learning theories, the definition of teaching methodologies in terms of activities, procedures, and techniques, in addition to the definition of objectives, syllabus content and its organization, need to be included in language syllabus. Furthermore, such a need becomes more immediate to the teachers in the absence of compatible materials.

As far as the selection of methodology or methodologies is concerned, it should be consistent with the selected syllabus in the first place. Secondly and more importantly, the selected methodology or methodologies should be evaluated in terms of their perceived effectiveness in actualizing the eventual aims of the program.

The discussion of language syllabus elements (see, pp. 62-81) suggests that a hybrid syllabus would fulfill the need of most SL and

FL programs for a syllabus which is theoretically and practically justified. In a hybrid syllabus, grammar and function are two features which are normally included. The question is, what are the methodologies which can achieve the aims of teaching? Before answering this question, it is important to note that the aim of teaching grammar is not entirely to help learners to internalize this feature for its own sake so that learners are able to recognize, analyze and produce it. However, what is important in teaching grammar is to help learners to use and exploit their grammatical knowledge in their reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Similarly, the aim of teaching language functions is not to help learners to internalize these functions as an absolute knowledge, but to use this knowledge in their communication. Thus, the aim of teaching grammar and functions, in short, is to help learners to communicate in the target language by means of their knowledge about the grammar and functions of that particular target language.

Bearing this aim in mind, the teaching of grammar and functions can be linked directly to the language in use. This initially implies that grammar and function are not to be presented as isolated items without contexts which demonstrate their actual use and the relationship between them and other features of language. Such a link also implies that the selection of language activities and practices for teaching and learning can be the one which focuses on both helping learners to internalize grammar and functions as well as helping them to realize their knowledge about these items in real communication.

The presentation of grammar and functions in such contexts and the use of such language activities and practices would not only be



compatible with the aim of teaching grammar and functions, but also would avoid the possibility of learners' failure to activate their grammatical competence in their communication and the possibility of their failure to communicate accurately (cf. Widdowson, 1984 and 1990).

In addition to grammar and function, a hybrid syllabus could incorporate items such as situation and topic as resources for teaching and learning. Situations and topics do not only provide the contexts for the teaching and learning of grammar and function, but also as important resources whereby learners may subconsciously acquire what cannot be consciously taught or learned in the classroom. In this way the methodology will not depend entirely on conscious strategy in teaching and learning, but it is supported by subconscious learning on the part of learners.

It can be concluded that the specification of teaching methodology in terms of activities, procedures and techniques is vital in language syllabus design. This specification has to be consistent not only with the syllabus content but also with the actual aim of teaching and learning such content. Thus, methodology can include presentation, in which content is presented in contexts, and practice and product, by which content is internalized and produced by learners in real communication. In addition, methodology can also focus on subconscious learning by exposing learners to extensive samples of language through the use of topics and situations.

### 3.3 General Criteria for Designing and Evaluating Arabic Programs

In the light of the earlier discussion ( pp.21-84 ), the effort to develop or to innovate a SL or FL program can be based on the comprehensive framework of curriculum development. In such a framework the following areas are considered as necessary elements of a SL or FL program:

- 1.Goal formulation.
- 2.Objectives and syllabus.
- 3.Teaching Methodologies.
- 4.Evaluation.

The first principle that needs to be adhered to in dealing with these four components is the principle or the criterion of 'COMPATIBILITY'. Objectives and syllabus can be compatible with goal, evaluation can be compatible with objectives, syllabus and goal, and methodology can be compatible with objectives and syllabus.

#### a- Goal Formulation

This includes goal statement and context analysis. The formulation of goal statement can be based on context analysis. In this way the goal statement can be compatible with the results of context analysis.

Contexts can be classified into two types:national contexts and local or institutional contexts. National contexts comprise:

- 1-Definition of language setting (see pp.41-44).
- 2-Patterns of language use in society (see pp.44-47).
- 3-Group attitudes towards TL (see pp.47-48).
- 4-Political, national and economic considerations (see pp.48-50).

Institutional contexts comprise:

- 1-Status of the TL in the institution.
- 2-Role of the TL in the institution.
- 3-Group and individual attitude towards TL.
- 4-Available resources and constraints.

Investigation into these contexts can form the basis for the formulation of new aims and the evaluation of the present.

#### **b- Objectives and Syllabus.**

Objectives and syllabus in the first place can be consistent with the goal. The design of objectives and syllabus should be based on sound principles.

Objectives have to be measurable for the purpose of evaluation or assessment. Therefore, they can best be designed in terms of learners behavior. The design of objectives in terms of learners behaviors can consist of:

- i- behavior.
- ii- condition.
- iii- standard.

Syllabus is to be selected on the basis of goals and objectives. Therefore, syllabus has to be compatible with both goals and Objectives. Furthermore, syllabus selection should be justifiable in terms of theory and practice. Syllabus content can be ordered and organized according to a sound theory or to theories of learning. In circumstances where teachers are not well-informed of theories and where appropriate materials are not available, the syllabus can contain not only the definition of objectives and content but also the definition of methodologies.

#### **c- Teaching Methodologies.**

Teaching methodologies can be compatible with syllabus, objectives and aims. Methodologies may not focus only on presentation but also on practice and production of language as communication. Methodology can focus on both aspects of conscious and subconscious learning.

**d- Evaluation.**

Evaluation in the sense of the assessment of learning outcomes can be based on objectives and aims. The assessment of learners achievement may not be made solely on the basis of what they successfully internalized but more importantly on the basis of their success in manipulating what has been internalized in communication.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ARABIC

#### 4.1 The Historical Development of Teaching Arabic to Non-Native Speakers

The diffusion of Arabic outside <sup>the</sup> Arabian Peninsula is mainly due to Islam. Though some foreign traders presumably learned Arabic for business purposes before the Islamic period, these traders were too few to compare with millions of non-Arabs who, after the emergence of Islam and particularly in the second century of the Islamic period, not only learned Arabic but adopted it as their own language.

As stated earlier, the relationship between Arabic and Islamic religion is so natural and strong that not only did Arabic spread by means of Islam but also the preservation of Arabic and its development depend, to a great extent, on Islam. Thus, the earliest effort in Arabic language studies, that is, to collect samples of Arabic and to compile them in manuscripts, were influenced and motivated by Islam. This effort and the following efforts such as that inaugurated by al-Khalīl 'Ibn 'Ahmad ( **الخليل بن أحمد** ) who studied the phonic system of Arabic and introduced the first Arabic dictionary, Mu<sup>c</sup>jam ul-<sup>c</sup>Ain ( **معجم العين** ), aimed, among others, at providing the proof and evidence for words, phrases and sentences used by the Qur'an as Arabic, as well as shedding light on the meaning of these elements of the Qur'an.

Furthermore, the writing of Arabic grammar itself was intended to prevent the widespread of mistakes that occurred in reciting the Qur'an (see, e.g. Daif, ( **ضيف** ) 1963 and 1968, Amīn ( **أمين** ), 1965 and aT-Tantāwiy ( **طنطاوي** ), 1973.) Therefore Arabic studies, particularly in the first and the second centuries of the Islamic

period, came into existence because of Islam and for the purposes of serving Islamic studies. In this respect, it is important to emphasize that it is significant to understand the relationship between Arabic studies and Islam and Islamic studies as such in understanding why Muslims, in particular, and some non-Muslims learn Arabic.

Although non-Arabs in the early centuries of the Islamic period learned Arabic for the purpose of understanding Islam, the way they learned this language, however, remained obscure. Thus, it can only be assumed that they had learned or rather acquired it 'naturally' by means of everyday interaction and by means of their studies of Islamic knowledge. In addition, it can also be assumed that they built up their Arabic repertoire through memorizing verses of the Qur'ān, Hadīth, and certain poems. This is highly possible since memorization was and has been an important Islamic method in learning. Memorizing Qur'ān and Hadīth, in particular, and memorizing Arabic poems, in general, are highly regarded activities in Islamic teaching and learning tradition at all times.

In addition to natural interaction and memorization, it can also be assumed that they might have learned Arabic grammar from Arab linguists and philologists in teaching sessions held in the mosques. However, their learning of grammar represents only a small part of their learning activities and the purpose of this learning was presumably to provide control over their language use or to gain specialized knowledge of Arabic. This is obvious since it was known that, as said earlier, the purpose of writing Arabic grammar was to prevent mistakes, particularly, in reciting the Qur'ān and Hadīth, and there was no indication that grammar was taught and learned for

the purpose of learning or acquiring Arabic. In addition, grammar, in this period, was a highly specialized subject. In summary, it can be said that the acquisition of Arabic during the early centuries of the Islamic period occurred not so much as the result of teaching but as the result of the process of Arabization or rather the process of Islamization.

The process of Islamization which later evolved into the process of Arabization remained, for most of the Islamic period, the important and perhaps even the sole way by which non-Arabs learned Arabic. It was only when Islam reached distant parts of the world and only when Arabs could no longer afford to spread themselves in all Muslim countries, that teaching as opposed to the above processes became inevitable and necessary. It is observed that the teaching of Islamic knowledge and Arabic in those regions was carried out by Arab 'missionaries' (du<sup>c</sup>at) who either immigrated to or spent a span of their life in those regions, and also by native Muslims who learned Islamic knowledge and Arabic from Arab du<sup>c</sup>at in their own countries or from Arab scholars in Mecca and later in Cairo.

The way Arabic was learned and taught to non-Arab Muslims in their own countries and in Arab countries, however, remained unaccounted for. Nevertheless, according to al-Hadīdiy (undated:46) Arabic was taught and learned for most periods and even in the twentieth century by means of two ways: (1) imitation and natural interaction with Arab and (2) internalizing Arabic grammar through activities such as presentation of Arabic grammar, listening and repetition. Thus, it can be assumed that those native Muslims who travelled to Arab countries acquired and learned Arabic by both methods mentioned above, and those native Muslims who remained in their own countries

learned Arabic mainly by internalizing grammar. In addition, since the teaching and learning of Arabic for Muslims was not isolated from the teaching of Islamic knowledge, it could be safely assumed that the reading of Islamic knowledge played a vital supporting role in the teaching and learning of Arabic in both circumstances.

Despite the fact that Arabic was learned and taught to non-Arabs from the early age of Islam, the notion of teaching Arabic to non-Arabs (ta<sup>c</sup>līm<sup>c</sup>ul-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyati li-ghair il-<sup>c</sup>arab) remained unknown in the profession of teaching Arabic until the middle of the twentieth century A.D. Until then, in fact until now for the most Arabic programs in non-Arab countries, Arabic was taught and learned by non-Arabs in the same way it was taught and learned by native Arab speakers. In the early 1950s the real search for a new approach in teaching Arabic for non-Arabs or for foreigners (li l-<sup>c</sup>ajānib) began under the auspices of the Ministry of Education of the Arab Republic of Egypt (Ibid, 74).

The search for a new approach in teaching of Arabic for non-Arabs which was initiated by Egypt produced a number of positive activities in the development of Arabic teaching profession. Some of these are (for details, see Ibid):

- 1.The Madrid Conference which was held at the Arabic Institute of Madrid for Islamic Studies in september 1959.
- 2.Teaching of Arabic by radio which was launched by Radio Cairo in 1964.
- 3.The introduction of classes for foreigners in the Ministry of Teaching for Higher Education in Egypt in 1960.
- 4.The experiment of Arabic classes at the University of Melbourne in Australia from 1963 to 1965.

These activities, though far from adequate, marked important turning point in the field of teaching Arabic for non-Arabs. The following decades of this century, beginning in the late 1970s, witnessed the



ever growing concern with the teaching of Arabic for non-Arabic speakers (ta<sup>c</sup>līm ul-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyati li-ghair in-nātiqīna bi-hā), as the term now being frequently used. This phenomenon is even more evident with the establishment of a few institutions for teaching Arabic to non-Arabic speakers in Arab countries, in particular, and with the number of conferences, workshops and seminars in the teaching of Arabic for non-Arabic speakers.

Among the important institutions or colleges which deal specifically with teaching Arabic for non-Arabic speakers are: the Khartoum International Institute, in Sudan, for training Arabic language teachers to non-Arabic speakers, the Bou-Rgiba Institute in Tunis, the units for teaching of Arabic at the Universities of Alexandria and Cairo, The Arabic language Institute at King Saud University in Riyadh, the Arabic language Institute at the Islamic University of Imam Muhammad bin Saud in Madina, and the Department for Arabic Language Teaching and the Department of Pedagogy at the Institute of Umm al-Qura.

With respect to conferences, workshops and seminars, some of these are as follows:

1. The workshop which was held in Damascus in 1973, under the auspices and supervision of UNESCO.
2. The First International (conference) on Teaching Arabic to Non-native Speakers which was held in Riyadh in March 1978. The lectures and seminars at this conference revolved around the following topics:
  - a. materials and methods.
  - b. teacher selection and training.
  - c. successful learners' characteristics.
  - d. learning problems and difficulties.
  - e. teaching aids.
3. The workshop on Specialized Books for Teaching Arabic for Non-Native Speakers held in Rabat, Morocco, in march 1980.
4. Workshops on Teaching of Arabic for Non-native Speakers held in

Qatar in 1981 and 1982, in Medina in 1981, in Amman, Jordan, in 1978, and in Malaysia in 1983.

5. Conference on 'Teaching and translating Arabic: Issues and Prospects ' which was held in London at the School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) in December 1991.

In addition to work carried out at institutions, colleges, conferences, seminars and workshops, a number of textbooks for teaching of Arabic for non-Native speakers were also published.

Among them are: al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshī'īn ( العربية لساكنين ), which consists of six volumes, al-kitāb ul-'asāsiy ( الكتاب الأساسي ), which is at present available in two volumes, al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu li l-hayāti ( العربية للحياة ), which is available in four volumes, al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu, 'aṣwātuhā wa ḥurūfuhā ( العربية أصواتها وحروفها ), ta<sup>C</sup>līm ul-lughat il-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyati li-ghair il-<sup>C</sup>arab ( تعليم اللغة العربية لغير العرب ), etc..

Furthermore, the search for new approaches to teaching Arabic to non-native speakers in late 1970s and in 1980s of this century was also reinforced with a number of studies. Three main categories of these studies are:

- a. Contrastive studies (see, Greis, 1963, Rammuny, 1976, Qafisha, 1970, and al-Khatīb, 1983).
- b. Error analysis (see, Sāsi and al-Shawāshī, 1981. Sīni and al-'Amīn, 1982, Awwad, 1983, and Arabic Institute of the University of 'Umm ul-Qura, 1984).
- c. Arabic learners' problems ( see, Khoury, 1961, Sāmi, 1964, Kara, 1976, and Ta<sup>C</sup>īmāh, 1982).

Teaching Arabic for non-native speakers in the second half of this century emerged as a new major concern in the field of Arabic teaching in general. This concern demonstrated the growing awareness among those involved in the field of Arabic teaching that teaching Arabic for non-native speakers could no longer be dealt within the

scope of teaching Arabic for native speakers, and that the acquisition and learning of Arabic among non-Arabs could no longer depend on the processes of Islamization and Arabization.

This concern is long overdue in view of the fact that Arabic was learned by non-Arabs from the early age of Islam, and in view of the fact that the demand for learning Arabic, especially by non-Arab muslims, was enormous at all times. Thus, it is clear that the efforts made in this field until the present time are insufficient to cope with the problems which encounter the teaching and learning of Arabic among non-Arabs. These problems inevitably detriment the acquisition and the learning among them and therefore need to be carefully identified. The following section is devoted to the discussion of such problems.

#### 4.2 Issues and Problems in Teaching Arabic to Non-Native Speakers

As seen in the previous discussion, the terms 'teaching of Arabic to non-Arabs, foreigners or non-native speakers' have been widely used in the field of Arabic teaching only in the last two decades of this century. Thus, the development achieved so far in teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers is very limited compared with the development achieved in the field of teaching of English or other modern European languages.

There are two crucial factors which account for the limited achievement in the field of teaching Arabic to non-native speakers. First, the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers developed after the development of such teaching in the teaching of European languages especially English. Second, any developments in the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers initiated by scholars, either Arabs or non-Arabs, who are educated or influenced by western approaches in the teaching of western languages, are not welcome by the traditional Arabic teachers or scholars.

The first factor above is self-explanatory. As for the second, it is known that traditional Arabic scholars, perhaps due to their negative attitudes and perception towards western knowledge and disciplines, sometimes find that it is difficult to accept findings and developments in the field of applied linguistics and even in general linguistics studies, since both disciplines originated and developed in the west and by western scholars. As far as western scholars of Arabic are concerned, they are considered by most traditional Arabic scholars as having no authority to work or even to speak about Arabic. Consequently, most of the traditional Arab scholars refrain

from taking part in studies in applied linguistics and general linguistics, and leave such studies to be carried out by western scholars of Arabic and a very small number of Arabic teachers. This significantly affects the development of teaching Arabic in general. Thus, most Arabic programs, whether they are for Arabic speakers or non-native speakers, until the present day rely completely on the traditional approach in teaching and learning, and most of the Arabic teachers, having no background knowledge in theories of language teaching and learning, depend in their teaching entirely on personal experiences and their Arabic linguistic knowledge.

It can be gathered from what has been mentioned that the negative attitude of the traditional Arabic scholars towards western disciplines such as general linguistics and applied linguistics and others such as psychology, sociology and anthropology represents the main obstacle in the development of the teaching of Arabic, particularly, to non-native speakers. Unless this attitude is changed, the state of Arabic teaching and learning will remain as it is relying solely and unduly on a traditional approach which is now generally regarded by most applied linguists as being incapable of dealing with multidimensional nature of language teaching and learning.

The problem of attitude which significantly impairs or at least decreases the speed of the development of Arabic teaching, has left the profession with numerous unresolved problems. Ta<sup>C</sup>īmāh ( طعيمة ) (1990), who benefits from studies of problems of teaching and learning SL in general, and from conferences and seminars in teaching and learning of Arabic to non-native speakers, outlines eight major

categories of problems in teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers.

These categories are (Ibid:20):

1. linguistics.
2. Syllabuses and teaching methodologies.
3. Teaching materials and text books.
4. Assessment.
5. Administration of the program.
6. Teachers.
7. Teaching aids.
8. Scientific research.

The categories of problems outlined by Ta<sup>C</sup>īmāh above are by no means exclusively specific to the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers. They are obviously universal categories of problems of language teaching in general. However, since the development of the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers is yet in its infancy and the effort which has been carried out in this field, at present, is fairly limited and still mostly at the theoretical level, those categories of problems manifest themselves more profoundly in the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers. Furthermore, <sup>C</sup>Abd ul-Halīm (عبد الحليم) (1982:151-2) maintains that the teaching of Arabic in general, unlike the teaching of other languages especially English, has been carried out without making due reference to results and findings from research, experiments and scientific studies carried out in the field of language teaching and learning.

In order to exemplify some of the problems encountered in the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers, reference will now be made to discussions and working papers presented in the conference on 'Teaching and Translating Arabic: Issues and Prospect' which was held at <sup>the</sup> School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) in London in December 1991. From the conference, it is found that, despite the diversity of aims in teaching and learning of Arabic in Europe, most Arabic programs which have been designed for non-native speakers in

European countries such as Germany, Denmark, Holland and also Great Britain (for Great Britain, see also, Campbell, 1986) still rely on structural syllabuses and the grammar translation method. This particular circumstance which is more obvious in some African, Asian, and even Arab countries demonstrates four most problematic issues in teaching Arabic to non-native speakers.

Firstly, the development of research and studies in SL teaching and learning have nothing but only little influence on the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers. As this phenomenon is evident in Europe, the countries wherein such development has occurred, such phenomenon manifests itself more evidently in African, Asian and even in Arab countries.

Secondly, the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers has been carried out mostly by traditional Arabic teachers who are not well informed of the development in SL teaching and learning and therefore rely solely on their individual experiences and traditional approaches in their teaching. This is obvious since most of Arabic teachers particularly those who work in muslim countries have been equipped mostly with Arabic linguistic knowledge and Arabic literature. Furthermore, most of these teachers have no training, not even traditional training, as Arabic teachers. Thus, they rely solely on their individual experience in learning Arabic and on the way Arabic was taught to them. In addition, since these teachers are normally involved not only in teaching Arabic but also in teaching Arabic literature and Islamic disciplines, their interest and opportunity in developing their skills as Arabic teachers are significantly constrained.

Thirdly, the development of Arabic programs for non-native speakers

has not taken into account the diversity of needs and objectives in teaching and learning when designing its syllabuses and selecting its teaching methodologies. Most Arabic programs adopt structural syllabuses and the grammar translation method as their means of achieving different aims in learning Arabic. Furthermore, these programs normally treat all four language skills in equal proportion and emphasis, irrespective of the time available and the needs of learners in terms of those skills.

Finally, the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers has focused mostly on teaching Arabic grammar and its morphology. The teaching of grammar and morphology has been made equivalent to the teaching of Arabic itself. That is to say that teaching and learning Arabic means teaching and learning Arabic grammar and its morphology.

In addition, the teaching of Arabic grammar and its morphology is the most typical problem in Arabic teaching in general. According to aR-Rājihīy (الراجحي) (1990), the grammatical content of syllabuses in schools is the main cause of the lack of interest and motivation in learning Arabic. This, according to him, is obvious since the rate of students' failure in this subject is almost the highest of all by comparison with any subjects. The main reason which accounts for this situation is that grammar (النحو), a branch of Arabic studies, is made equivalent to the teaching of grammar (تعليم النحو). Thus, grammar is taught by means of the same approach and method used by Arab grammarians in their studies and analyses. Furthermore, in many cases, grammar itself becomes the target of teaching and learning because it is easy to memorize rules and impart them to students.

To illustrate some of the problems encountered in teaching Arabic grammar, aR-Rājihīy (Ibid:4-5), who examined grammatical syllabuses



of some secondary schools in some Arab countries, found that the problems in teaching Arabic grammar include:

1. People who are responsible for designing grammatical syllabus adopt Arabic grammar books as their prime resources. They select what they want from these books and put it in their syllabuses without any modifications. In normal cases, they either refer to old Arabic grammar books which are full of a variety of notes and comments or to the concise version of newly written Arabic grammar books which contain mistakes. In both cases, grammatical items are taken as if they are items or units of teaching.
2. The selection of grammatical topics in syllabuses is made without considering the learners' language abilities and knowledge. This is due to the fact that serious studies in this field are almost non-existent in the Arab world. In addition, most syllabus designers do not make any effort to benefit from available studies in applied linguistics and even from their own experiences in designing their syllabuses.
3. The Arabic language is lacking in terms of studies and research on word and structure paradigms. Furthermore, syllabus designers themselves do not make use of their own knowledge and abilities for identifying the most useful and the most frequent words and structures in designing their syllabuses. Consequently, the selection of vocabulary and structures is made at random without any scientific criteria.
4. In teaching, grammatical points are first introduced with unauthentic texts and then presented in isolated sentences. Thus, the teaching is lacking in active activities and is isolated from the real world.
5. Most grammatical exercises and drills adopted are too mechanistic. The purpose of adopting such exercises and drills is to provide practice of items being taught so that learners will finally be able to give the right responses to such exercises and drills. As a direct consequence of such practice, most learners are able to respond satisfactorily to the same pattern of questions but fail to express themselves freely, correctly and accurately whether in spoken and in written language.
6. Grammatical items are organized in a linear format and without

adhering to any specific criteria.

The teaching of the grammar of Arabic to non-native speakers, is no better than the teaching of grammar to native speakers. The same problems described above manifest themselves in the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers despite recent studies carried out in that particular field (Ibid:6), ( for the description of other examples see e.g. <sup>c</sup>Abd ul-lāh ( عبد الله ), 1948, Hakīm ( حكيم ), 1966, and Muḥammad Tāhā ( محمد طه ), 1982.).

The problems of teaching Arabic to non-native speakers seem to arise from the fact that such teaching has been carried out without scientific guidelines and appropriate bases. Due to a variety of factors mentioned throughout this discussion, most Arabic programs which are designed for non-native speakers have been developed in isolation from research in SL teaching and learning. Thus, in view of this fact, it is obvious that scientific guidelines and appropriate bases are very much needed in Arabic teaching, particularly in teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers. Since such guidelines and such bases have been the main concerns of SL research, it is necessary for the teaching of Arabic to benefit from the findings of such research.

One of the main developments in SL research which could contribute to the efforts to improve the present condition of teaching and learning of Arabic to non-native speakers is found in studies of curriculum development which focus on the design aspect of SL program . In SL program design, curriculum framework which includes elements such as goals and objectives, syllabus content, teaching methodologies, and evaluation ( see pp.21-38), is found to be more convincing than the method framework in dealing with issues and problems encountered in

SL teaching and learning. In relation to Arabic, the comprehensive nature of curriculum framework enables us to deal with most types of problems that arise in teaching and learning of Arabic to non-native speakers. In addition, such problems which may arise at any level of curriculum development can be tackled systematically and interactively by means of curriculum framework.

Furthermore, the curriculum's requirement for a clear definition of goals and objectives of a program would provide clear guidelines for the development of subsequent elements in a language curriculum. The definition of goals and objectives of a program which is based on thorough analyses of learners' needs, on analysis of socio-political and institutional contexts for which a program is planned and on other variables such as program resources and constraints would inevitably lead to the development of a program which is realistic and appropriate.

A clear definition of goals and objectives as well as studies and analyses of resources are greatly needed in the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers. This is obvious, since many such programs, due to the lack of studies and analyses of goals and objectives resources, have vague and inappropriate goals and objectives. One particular evidence is the adoption of the structural syllabus and grammar-translation method in many Arabic programs in Europe, Asia, Africa, and even in the Arab countries. Furthermore, the notions which signify the variety of purposes in teaching and learning Arabic ( e.g. specific purposes (SP), academic purposes (AP) ) and the notion which signifies different status of the TL ( e.g. second language (SL), foreign language (FL), additional language (AL) ) remain relatively unknown to many Arabic teachers. In view of these

circumstances, it is obvious that the scientific approach in designing goals and objectives of a language program advocated by curriculum frameworks is an appealing solution.

It is worthwhile to summarize once more some of the important points made throughout this discussion.

1- The teaching Arabic to non-native speakers is fairly new. Therefore, the achievements in this field are limited and far from being adequate to deal with the existing problems.

2- There are two reasons which delay the development of teaching of Arabic to non-natives speakers and therefore limit the achievements of this development: (1) the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers developed after the development of teaching modern languages to foreigners, and (2) The negative attitudes of traditional Arabic scholars towards western disciplines and towards western oriented scholars.

3- Most Arabic programs, whether they are designed for natives speakers or for non-native speakers, have been developed in isolation from studies in SL teaching and learning. Therefore, most Arabic teachers rely entirely on the traditional approach and individual experiences in teaching. Consequently, there are enormous amounts of unresolved problems in Arabic teaching in general. These problems can be found in many aspects of Arabic teaching and learning, from research in Arabic linguistics to the problems of syllabus and teaching methodologies.

4- The problems in teaching and learning Arabic to non-native speakers can not be solved by means of traditional approaches and teaching experiences. It is necessary for teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers to benefit from the findings in SL research. One

way of approaching the problems in teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers may be by adopting the 'curriculum framework '. Curriculum frameworks do not only allow us to solve most of the problems encountered in language teaching and learning in a systematic way and an integrated manner, but also provide a strong basis for the development of levels of SL curriculum by means of a scientific approach in the definition program's goals and objectives ( see pp. 21-87).

#### 4.3 The Teaching of Arabic in the Faculty of Islamic Studies

The Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia was established in May 1970. The foundation of this Faculty, however, is related to the Islamic College of Malaya (ICM) which was established in February 1955. The ICM was set up to fulfill the Malayan Muslim Community's ambition to see a higher Islamic educational institution in the country. By 1968 the Malaysian Ministry of Education agreed to upgrade the ICM into a university. When the National University of Malaysia was established, the ICM was put under the authority of this university as one of its faculties and it was called the Faculty of Islamic Studies ( Fakulti pengajian Islam, 1990/91).

The main aim of setting up this Faculty is to provide high Islamic education opportunities for graduates of Arabic and Religious Schools who cannot afford to pursue such an education in Middle Eastern universities. Hence, this Faculty which comprises five different departments (see p. 13) provides the students with opportunities to study an extensive range of Islamic and Arabic subjects identical to those normally provided by a Middle Eastern university. Study in the Faculty of Islamic Studies normally takes a minimum period of four years for the Bachelor's degree of Arts in Islamic Studies. During this period, the student has to take and succeed in at least 47 courses in order to get a degree. At least 36 of these are religious courses including Arabic. The total number of Arabic courses offered in the Faculty is seven; five are compulsory. A more detailed picture concerning the nature of the Islamic and Arabic courses offered in the Faculty is exemplified in the tables 1 and 2 below.

Table 1: Number of Islamic courses, including Arabic, offered to first and second year students.

subject's status	number offered	number required
compulsory	16	16
complementary	11	6

Table 2: Number of Islamic and Arabic courses offered to third and fourth year students.

Departments	Subjects Offered	Minimun Requirement
Arabic Studies	31	14
Sharī <sup>c</sup> ah	33	14
Da <sup>c</sup> wah	16	14
'Usūlu <sup>d</sup> ddīn	32	14
Qur'ān & Sunnah	19	14

The teaching and learning of Islamic and Arabic courses in the Faculty is carried out mainly in Arabic and Malay. This is due to (1) the fact that Islamic and Arabic original sources and references are mainly written in Arabic and (2) the Malaysian National Education Policy promotes the use of Malay language as the main medium of instruction in the University. In addition to Arabic and Malay, English is also used particularly in comparative studies.

Despite the use of Malay and English, Arabic remains an important language in the Faculty. The number of Islamic and Arabic subjects which are required from students during their course of studies

indicates that the role of Arabic as a language of studying Islamic and Arabic subjects in the Faculty is very significant.

Arabic is an important subject taught in the Faculty. From 1970 until 1983, three Arabic courses were offered. From the academic year 1983/1984, the number of Arabic courses offered in the Faculty was increased to five courses and in the academic year 1990/1991, they were increased to seven.

Despite the nature of studies in the Faculty and the increase in the number of Arabic courses offered in the Faculty, the standard of Arabic among most of the graduates is deplorable and extremely low. Most of them are handicaps in all language skills including reading which is, presumably, the most important skill needed in their study. This phenomenon suggests that the present Arabic program seems to have failed to produce a satisfactory result. Thus, the general objective of producing students who can conduct their own research and studies from original Arabic sources has yet to be attained (Fakulti Pengajian Islam, 1990;p. 59 ).

There are many factors that can account for the failure of the existing Arabic program in the Faculty. The following are some of these factors:

#### a. The Lack of Appropriate Teaching Materials

The teaching of Arabic in the Faculty depends mostly on textbooks which contain merely Arabic rules either grammar, morphology or rhetoric. In the 1970s and early the 1980s the Arabic program used comprehensive grammar, morphology and rhetoric books such as *sharḥ ubni ʿaqīl* ( شرح ابن عقيل ), *hāshiyat uṣ-ṣabbān ʿalā sharḥil-ʾashmūniy* ( حاشية الصبان على شرح الأشموني ), *shadh al-ʿurfi* ( شذا العرف ) and *'al-ʾīdah fī ʿulūm il-balāghah*



( الإيضاح في علوم البلاغة ). From 1983 until now, the grammar, morphology and rhetoric books used in the program are comparatively less comprehensive and more concise than the books mentioned above ( see Document Analysis ).

Other types of textbooks which are currently used in the program are book 4 and 5 of the series of 'al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu l in-nāshi'in ( العربية للناشئين ) and textbooks which contain selected Arabic texts from the Qur'an, Hadith, Arabic poems and prose. In spite of these textbooks, however, Arabic rules are the main focus in teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty.

#### b. Divergent aims and assumptions

Irrespective of the stated goal of the Arabic program, Arabic lecturers and teachers have been preoccupied with divergent assumption which equates learning Arabic with nothing but learning Arabic grammar, morphology and rhetoric. They also assume that graduates of Arabic and religious schools have not only been equipped with appropriate level of Arabic skills required for learning Islamic knowledge at the university level but also with enough basic knowledge about Arabic rules.

Thus, based on these false assumptions, they believe that their main task in teaching Arabic is to impart more comprehensive knowledge 'about' Arabic. Hence, they believe that students should know Arabic rules as detailed as possible and they should be able to give detailed parsing ( الإعراب ). Moreover, for some teachers, students should also be able to present different grammarian views about the rules.

Thus, the teaching of Arabic in the Faculty, for many Arabic lecturers and teachers, should be carried out in the same way other subjects are taught at the university level.

#### c. Teacher Factors

The teachers involved in the teaching of Arabic in the Faculty are not qualified to teach Arabic. Although their level of mastery in Arabic is good, since they are holding, at least, a Bachelor degree from Arab countries, none of them, however, was

properly trained in teaching Arabic as a foreign language (TAFL). Furthermore, most of them do not even hold a degree in Arabic Studies but degrees in other Islamic Studies such as 'Uṣūl ud-dīn and Sharīḥ. Therefore, in carrying out their teaching tasks, they totally depend on the teaching syllabuses and the materials available and teach their students in almost the same way as they themselves were taught in Arab countries.

In addition, the number of the full time Arabic teachers is comparatively too small to successfully manage five Arabic courses and a large number of students involved in the program. In the academic year 1989/90, for example, the number of the full-time Arabic teachers was 9, whereas the number of students involved was 1643 ( see table 3 below ).

Table 3: Arabic courses and students involved in the academic year 1989/1990.

Arabic Courses	Number of Students
Arabic I	358
Arabic II	401
Arabic III	343
Arabic IV	212
Arabic V	329

Due to such a circumstance and to the financial restrictions, the Faculty has been forced to employ a great number of part time teachers in every academic session. The number of such teachers has increased enormously since the academic year 1988/1989 ( see, table 4 below ).

Table 4: Number of part-time teachers of Arabic employed in the Faculty.

Semesters	Academic sessions		
	1988/1989	1989/1990	1990/1991
Semester I	11	16	25
Semester II	3	10	not available

The extensive employment of part-time teachers creates other problems adding to the already existing problems of teaching Arabic in the Faculty.

The teacher training opportunities and the teachers motivation are two other missing elements in the Faculty's Arabic program. With respect to training, there is hardly any opportunities for them to get proper training in TAFL. This is partly due to the absence of the local experts in the field concerned and partly due to the lack of professionalism in the Arabic teaching profession in the Faculty in particular and in Malaysia, in general. The full-time teachers in the Faculty are not put on the lecturer scale and therefore no special allocation for further studies is made for them. This fact, among others, reduces the teachers' interest in developing their professional skills.

Similar to Arabic teachers, Arabic lecturers who teach Arabic literature as well as Arabic language and who are responsible for designing Arabic syllabuses and coordinating the Arabic courses in the Faculty are professionally handicapped in TAFL. These lecturers whose specialization is Arabic linguistics and literature are practically uninformed with regards to theories of language teaching and learning and development of second language studies and research. Thus, based only on their learning and teaching experiences, they produced Arabic syllabuses which are extremely similar to those found in Middle Eastern Universities which contain merely rules and language analysis.

#### **d. Student Factors**

The majority of students in the Faculty have been characterized by their poor level of mastery of Arabic and their lack of motivation to learn it.

Regarding the level of mastery among them, a survey conducted in the Faculty showed that the majority of the new students possessed only 500 to 1000 Arabic words which comprise nouns, verbs and particles ( Khalid, 1990: 11 ). This amount is considerably small by comparison to the amount of words that they were expected to have learnt after finishing their high school (i.e. 5000 words). In addition, though there is no proficiency

test given at the Faculty, experience and teachers views show that the majority of the new students are handicapped in their abilities to read, to write and not to mention to listen and to speak in Arabic. In sum, it can be said that the new students enrolled in the Faculty are not adequately equipped with basic Arabic skills which are required for studying Islamic courses at the university level.

The low level of proficiency in Arabic has consequently causes the students great deal of difficulties to successfully follow Arabic and Islamic lessons and hence forces them to rely completely on their memory as their only strategy in learning Arabic as well as learning other Islamic subjects. Furthermore, the low level of proficiency in Arabic has demotivated learners' interest in learning Arabic.

There are other factors which can be attributed to the failure of the Arabic program in the Faculty and also to the low standard of Arabic among most of the Faculty's graduates. In fact, the teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty of Islamic Studies is surrounded by most of the factors which impair second or foreign language learning ( see e.g. Strevens, 1980 and Allwright, 1986 ). However, it is observed that the main problem in teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty is that the Arabic program was designed mostly on the basis of learning and teaching experiences of the traditional Arabic lecturers and teachers and not on the basis of the results of research in SLL and SLT. Thus, the product of such basis is an Arabic program whose major components are inappropriate and are theoretically unsound.

#### 4.4 The Problem

As discussed earlier, ( see, pp. 105-111 ) the present conditions of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies do not encourage the learning and hence do not help to improve the standard of Arabic among students. The decline of the standard of Arabic among the Faculty's graduates, as reflected in the local media and seminars requires the program to prove its own existence and often its justification.

The teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty is compounded with all sort of detrimental factors and unfavorable conditions. Inappropriate and unsound components of the Arabic program, however, is found to be the main cause of the failure of the program in achieving its goal. It is highly conceivable that solutions to the problem can be found by conducting a thorough investigation and evaluation of the major elements of the program: teaching syllabuses, teaching methodologies and teaching materials.

#### 4.5 Scope of the Study

The present study focuses on three major components of the Faculty's Arabic program: the syllabus, the teaching materials and the teaching methodologies. Since these three components are mutually dependent, it is, therefore, important to establish a clear distinction between them.

Bearing in mind the wider application of the term syllabus ( see, e.g. Dubin, and Olshtain, 1986, and Candlin, 1984 ), syllabus, or rather syllabus design, is here adopted to refer to the process by which linguistic content is selected and organized ( see, e.g.

Wilkins, 1976 and Rodgers, 1989 ). In this definition, the term syllabus concerns not only the question of what is to be taught (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, notion, function etc.), but also the question of why any particular content is to be taught ( i.e. the rationale, the goal and the objective. of the program). Thus, the discussion about syllabus will necessarily include not only the discussion about syllabus content and its organization but also the discussion about needs, program's goal and objective as well as program's outcome.

While 'syllabus' refers to the questions of "what" and "why", the term 'teaching methodology' is adopted here to refer to the question of "how" ( i.e.the procedures and activities that will be used to teach the content of the syllabus ), ( Richards, 1985 ). Finally, the term 'teaching materials' is adopted here to refer to any form of instructional materials ( e.g., textbook, note, audio visual, computer display, etc. ) used in the language program.

This study attempts to evaluate the existing Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies with the aim of addressing the question of compatibility within its main components. It is intended to see whether the major components of the program are in consonance with each other and whether those components are in agreement with the actual needs for Arabic in the Faculty in particular and with the actual needs for Arabic in Malay society in general. The investigation is also intended to provide an adequate amount of data for decision-making about the existing program. Thus, this evaluation has a summative as well as formative role.

Adopting the general framework of Daniel Stufflebeam's Context,

Input, Process and Product (CIPP) model ( Stufflebeam, et al, 1979 ), this evaluation consists of four major aspects; the context evaluation, the input, the process and the product evaluation.

### 1. Context Evaluation

Context evaluation is aimed at gathering information concerning the needs for Arabic in the Faculty and in Malay society at large. The purpose of this evaluation is to help decision-makers to review or to make appropriate adjustments or changes in the goal and objectives of the existing program. The evaluation at this stage, has a formative role in the sense that it provides decision-makers with data for reviewing the stated goal and objectives, and it also has a summative role in which it questions the compatibility of both of them with the actual needs ( see, Ibid ).

Concerning the needs for Arabic in this evaluation, it is important to note that the term 'needs' is adopted here to refer to its fairly restricted sense. The needs for Arabic in Malay society refers to the needs which are derived and understood from the actual role, the function and the status of Arabic in Malay society. The information and the data concerning this type of needs have been described earlier ( see pp. 15-20 ).

The needs for Arabic in the Faculty of Islamic Studies refers to the needs derived and understood from the requirement of Arabic in teaching and learning of Arabic and religious subjects in the Faculty.( see Chapter Five ).

### 2. Input Evaluation

The term 'input', here, refers to any kind of human and physical resources which is available in the program. Thus, it includes items such as time, classroom, teacher, finance, teaching material, teaching aid, teaching syllabus. Input evaluation has two purposes. Firstly, it aims at describing the quantity and the quality of the available resources for the purpose of providing decision-makers with adequate information for determining how to

utilize these resources to meet the program's goal and objectives. Secondly, it aims at examining the current syllabuses and teaching materials in order to outline the cause or causes of their failure in meeting the stated program's goal and objectives. In addition, the examination is also intended to measure the extent to which both of them are compatible with the stated goal and objectives and with the actual needs.

### 3. Process Evaluation

Process evaluation is meant, firstly, to give a comprehensive picture regarding the teaching methodologies adopted by Arabic teachers involved in the Faculty. The relevant data were collected by means of classroom observation interviews and discussion. In addition, the data concerning teaching methodologies were based on analyzing teaching materials used in the program.

Finally, the data concerned were evaluated against the stated goal and objective and the actual needs in order to see the degree of their compatibility.

### 4. Product Evaluation

Unlike the usual product evaluation, this evaluation does not include any form of mastery or proficiency tests. It, instead, focuses on gathering views and perceptions concerning the Arabic abilities of the Faculty's students as well as the general outcomes of the existing program. In addition, students views concerning the Arabic program contribution to their Arabic standard and ability were collected.

It is hoped that a product evaluation of this kind is sufficient to provide evidence for the success or the failure of the existing program in meeting its goal, objective as well as in fulfilling the actual needs for Arabic.

Besides syllabus content, teaching materials and teaching methodologies, the present study also includes analysis of the needs

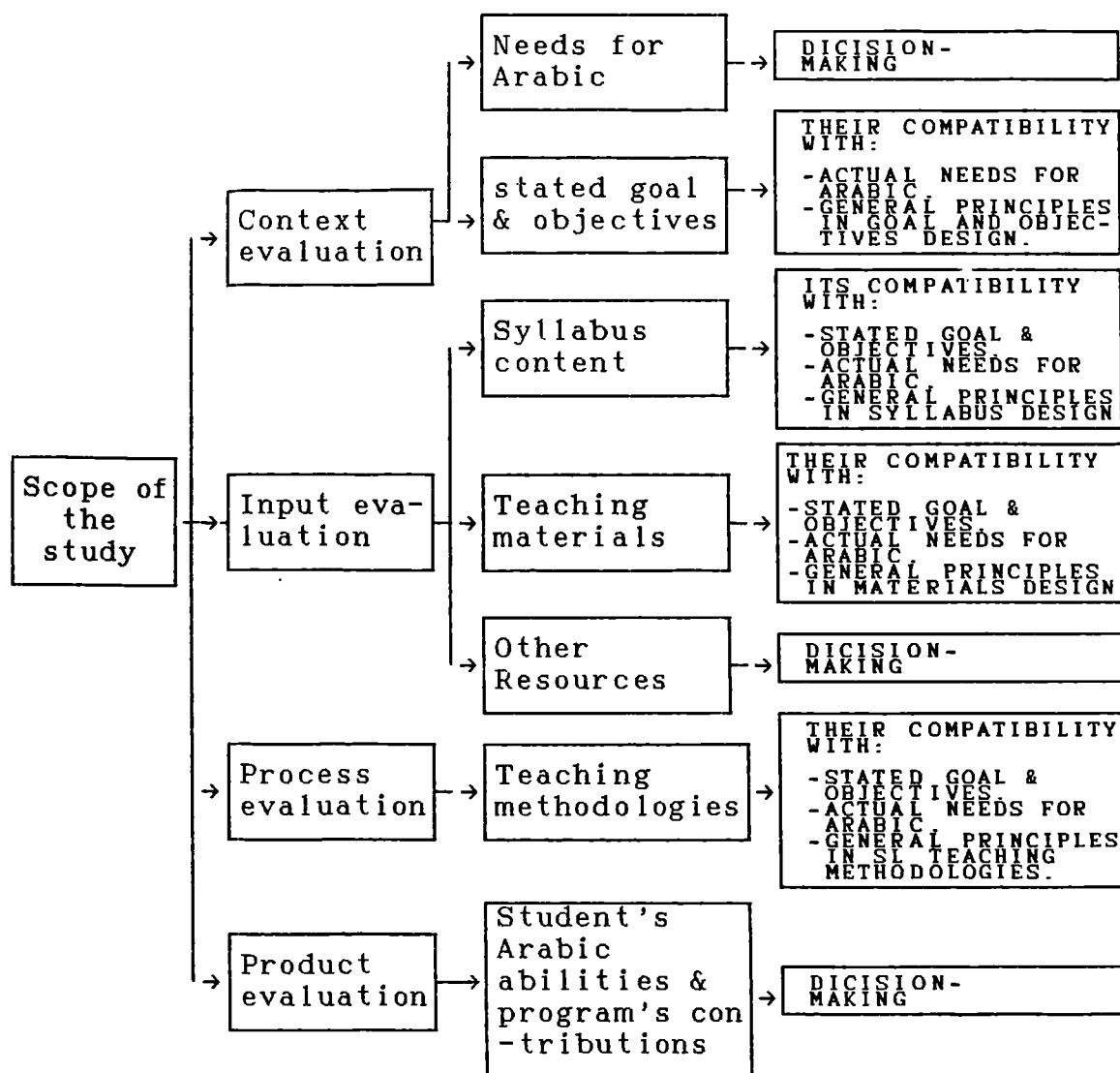


and resources as well as the general description of the program's product. This is merely because the study is aimed at having both summative and formative value. Needs and resources analysis can provide an invaluable information for decision-making, while the general description of the program's outcomes may be of great value in summative evaluation.

Thus, the study sets out to provide useful information for decision making and to measure the degree of compatibility of the current program with the actual needs and the stated goal and objective. In order to further investigate the usefulness of the current program the major components of the program which consist of objectives, syllabus content, teaching materials and teaching methodology are evaluated against general principles in designing the areas concerned based on literature on the teaching of modern languages.

The scope, aspects and roles of the present study are illustrated in Figure 18 below.

Figure 18: The scope, aspects and roles of the study.



The type of the evaluation adopted in this study is not based on any specific approach in second or foreign language teaching but mainly on an analysis of local needs, the program's goal and objectives and on some general principles in designing course objectives, syllabus content, teaching materials and teaching methodology. This is because the kind and the amount of the available data on which the selection

of any particular approach may be based are inadequate since no systematic study has so far been conducted on the program concerned. Thus, it is hoped that, besides providing the program with suggestions and proposals for its improvement, this study will also provide a sufficient amount of data for further research.

#### 4.6 Questions and Hypothesis

The present study is concerned with the following three main questions. They are:

- a) Is the existing Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies compatible with the actual needs for Arabic in the Faculty and in Malay society?
- b) Are the syllabus content, the teaching materials, and the teaching methodology adopted in the program compatible with the stated goal and objectives?
- c) To what extent do the goal and objectives, the syllabus content, the teaching materials and the teaching methodologies adopted in the program conform to general principles in designing such components for SL or FL program?

On the basis of these questions it is hypothesized that the poor level of achievement in Arabic among the majority of the Faculty's students is due to the fact that (1) the existing Arabic program is not compatible with the actual needs of Arabic, and (2) the syllabus content, the teaching materials and the teaching methodology adopted in the program are not compatible with the program's goal and objectives. In addition it is also hypothesized that it is also due to the fact that the existing program was badly designed.

#### 4.7 Focus and Purposes

The field work for this study was carried out at the Faculty of Islamic Studies in the National University of Malaysia in February, March and April 1991. The work aims at investigating the following elements of the Faculty's Arabic program.

- 1- The needs for Arabic in relation to the requirements for studying Arabic and religious subjects in the Faculty of Islamic Studies.
- 2- The goal and objectives as shown in the official documents and as described by Arabic teachers, syllabus designers and Faculty administrators.
- 3- The syllabus content as in the official documents and observed from teaching materials.
- 4- The teaching materials used in the program.
- 5- The teaching methodologies adopted by Arabic teachers as described by the teachers themselves and as observed in the classroom.
- 6- Program resources as described by teachers and administrators and as found to be available.
- 7- Students achievement as indicated by the students themselves and by the teachers who teach Arabic and religious subjects in the Faculty.
- 8- The program's achievement of its stated goal as indicated by students and teachers of Arabic and religious subjects in the Faculty.
- 9- The contribution of the existing Arabic program to student's standard in Arabic as perceived by the Faculty students.

The purposes of this study are:

- 1- Assessing the extent to which the program is consistent with its own goal and objectives.
- 2- Assessing the extent to which the program is consistent with the actual needs for Arabic.
- 3- Assessing, in general, the degree of success or failure of the

program with respect to its product as perceived by the parties involved in the program.

4- Assessing the extent to which the program is consistent with general principles in designing SL or FL program.

5- Providing data for decision-making and subsequent studies.

#### 4.8 Methods and Instruments

In order to achieve the above purposes, this study, firstly, gathers relevant information for the purpose of providing a comprehensive description of the program in question. The collected data is analyzed and then compared to each other in such a manner to demonstrate the degree of compatibility between the major components of the program. The analysis and the comparison is also intended to show the degree of the success of the program in achieving its own goals and objectives and in serving the actual needs for Arabic.

The data on the goals and objectives, syllabus content, teaching materials and teaching methodologies is compared against general principles of SL or FL program design. This is done in order to further investigate the usefulness of the program.

Three main techniques were used in this study: questionnaires, classroom observations and documents analysis. Other techniques such as interviews and peer discussion were also used to supplement the data required.

The design of these techniques are based on the key questions formed on the basis of scope, focus and purposes of the study. The key questions are illustrated in Figure 19 below.

Figure 19: Aspects and key questions.

Types of evaluation	Aspects of study	Investigation key questions
C O N T E X T	NEEDS FOR ARABIC	1-What are the Arabic requirements in teaching and learning Arabic subjects in the Faculty of Islamic studies?
	PROGRAM GOAL & OBJECTIVES	1-What are the stated goal and objectives of the program? 2-How the objectives of the program were designed and stated in the documents? 3-To what extent does the design of the program objectives confirm to the general principles in objectives design? 4-To what extent do the stated goal and objectives compatible with the needs for Arabic in the Faculty and in Malay society?
I N P U T	SYLLABUS CONTENT	1-What is the content of the present syllabuses in the program? 2-To what extent does the content of the present syllabuses compatible with the stated goal and objectives? 3-To what extent does the design of this content confirm to general principles in syllabus content design? 4-To what extent does this content compatible with the actual needs for Arabic?
	TEACHING MATERIALS	1-What are the teaching materials used in the existing program? 2-To what extent do these materials compatible with the stated goal and objectives? 3-To what extent do these teaching materials in coherent with principles in SL material design? 4-To what extent do these materials compatible with the actual needs for Arabic?
	OTHER RESOURCES	1-What are the available resources of the program?
P R O C E S S	TEACHING METHODOLOGIES	1-What are the teaching methodologies adopted in the program? 2-To what extent do these methodologies compatible with the stated goal and objectives? 3-To what extent do these methodologies confirm to general principles in SL or FL teaching and learning? 4-To what extent do these methodologies compatible to the actual needs for Arabic?
P R O D U C T	STUDENTS ACHIEVEMENT AND PROGRAM CONTRIBUTIONS	1-What is the general description of the standard of Arabic among the Faculty student? 2-To what extent does the existing Arabic program contribute to the standard of Arabic among the Faculty students?

## CHAPTER FIVE

### QUESTIONNAIRES

#### 5.1 Introduction

Two types of questionnaires have been used in this study: teachers' questionnaires and learners' questionnaires. The teachers' questionnaires consist of three sections. Section A identifies the department to which teachers are attached, academic qualifications that the teachers currently hold, and the kind of institutions which conferred those qualifications. Section B is concerned with the use of languages, particularly Arabic, in the teaching of religious and Arabic subjects in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Section C enquires the teachers' views regarding their students abilities in Arabic and the achievement of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies (see, Appendix A).

The learners' questionnaires consist of two sections. Section A, includes learners' profiles such as their year of study and their department. Section B, is about learners's views and perceptions regarding their own abilities in Arabic, their benefits from Arabic courses and the achievement of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies ( see Appendix B)

#### 5.2 Purposes, Techniques and Procedures

The two questionnaires were used mainly for obtaining two types of information namely: the students needs for Arabic in relation to their Arabic and religious studies in the Faculty of Islamic Studies, and a general description of student's abilities in Arabic. In addition, teacher's and learner's views about the degree of success or failure of the Arabic program in the Faculty and learners views

about their own benefit from the program were also collected. Thus, the main purposes of the questionnaires were (1) to assess students actual needs for Arabic in studying Arabic and religious subjects in the Faculty and (2) to evaluate the achievement of Arabic program in that Faculty.

The data concerning students need for Arabic were collected only from Arabic and religious teachers. These teachers or rather lecturers are those who teach religious and Arabic content courses other than Arabic courses. The data were not collected from teachers who teach Arabic language courses only or from students because, on their own, these teachers obviously could not provide the kind of data required. As for the students, their statements and views regarding the subject were ignored because it is impractical, at present, to base the objectives of any courses in the Faculty of Islamic Studies on the student's views or wishes. This is due to (1) the lack of linguistic and methodological awareness on the part of learners and (2) the lack of resources and the financial and cultural constraints both at the University and in Malaysia as a whole.

Data concerning students' benefit from the Arabic program were collected only from students. The data concerning student abilities in Arabic and the data of the achievements of the program were collected not only from students but also from Arabic and religious teachers. This is because, although these teachers were not involved directly with Arabic program, they were, however, in close contact with the students who were the product of the program.

As far as the questionnaire's design is concerned, the first draft of the questionnaires was prepared in English, translated into Malay and then tested with thirty students and fourteen lecturers of the



Faculty of Islamic Studies in Malaysia. On the basis of feedback from students, teachers and colleagues from the Department of Quantitative of the National University of Malaysia, both, the content and the design of teachers' and learners' questionnaires were finalized and written in Malay. The translation of both questionnaires into English are attached in Appendices A and B.

Seven hundred and twenty copies of questionnaires were distributed to Students at the Faculty during their learning sessions. One hundred and eighty copies were distributed to each year of studies. The total of learners questionnaires which were returned was 501 ( i.e. 69.6% of the total numbers of questionnaires distributed). As for teachers' questionnaires, 61 questionnaires were distributed and 48 (i.e. 78.7% ) were returned ( see table 5 below).

table 5: Learners Questionnaires: distributed and returned.

years of study	distributed Qs	returned Qs	%
I	180	102	57
II	180	108	60
III	180	141	78.3
IV	180	150	83.3
total	720	501	69.6

Qs.= questionnaires.

### 5.3 Subjects

The subjects were 48 teachers of religious and Arabic courses and 501 students of the Faculty of Islamic Studies. The 48 teachers represented 78.7% of the 61 active teachers of the Faculty, in academic year 1990/91, and the 501 students represented 39.5% of the

1267 students in the Faculty in the same academic year. The 48 teachers were from five different departments, ( see table 6).

Table 6: The distribution of teacher samples.

departments	no.of active teachers	no.of teacher samples	%
-Shariah	19	13	68.4
-Usuluddin	13	12	92.3
-Arabic	12	10	83.3
-Da <sup>c</sup> wah	10	8	80
-Qur'an	7	5	71.4
total	61	48	78.7

All of the teacher samples hold at least M.A. degrees in Islamic or Arabic Studies and 18 (i.e. 37.5% ) of them hold Ph. D. degrees in the same field from local universities (e.g. the National University of Malaysia and the University of Malaya), Middle Eastern universities (e.g. the University of 'al-Azhar, and the University of Ain Shams ), and from Western universities (e.g. the University of St.Andrews and the University of Temple). At B.A. level, however, none of the teachers graduated from any Western University ( see table 7).

Table 7: Teachers : academic qualification.

types of universities	B.A.		M.A.		Ph.D.	
	samples	%	samples	%	samples	%
local	23	47.9	14	29.2	3	6.3
Middle East	25	52.1	20	41.6	7	14.6
West	-	0	14	29.2	8	16.7
total	48	100	48	100	18	37.5

The 501 students who returned the questionnaires represent 69.6% of the initial total number of students sampled. All were selected based on stratified and random sampling. The 720 students who represented 56.9% of the total students population in academic year 1990/91 were first selected on the basis of years of study; 180 students were then selected at random for each year. The random sampling of the third and fourth year students, however, was made only after considering departments in which they studied and the size of student population in each department ( see tables 8 and 9 ).

Table 8: Student samples with respect to years of study and population.

years of study	student population	no. in sample	%
I	274	102	37.2
II	357	108	30.3
III	338	141	41.7
IV	298	149	50
total	1267	501	39.5

Table 9: Student samples with respect to their departments.

departments	third year			fourth year		
	population	samples	%	population	samples	%
-Shariah	103	39	37.9	94	45	47.9
-Usuluddin	84	35	41.7	74	39	52.7
-Arabic	57	31	54.9	52	23	44.2
-Da <sup>c</sup> wah	46	12	26.1	38	20	52.6
-Qur'an	48	24	50	40	22	55
total	338	141	41.7	298	149	50

Seven Arabic language courses are offered in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Five of these courses ( i.e. PZ 1952, PZ 1942, PZ 2922, PZ 2932 and PZ 3912) are compulsory. The two other courses ( i.e. PV 3913 and PV 3923) are substitute courses. In the second semester of the 1990/91 session,( i.e. when this study was carried out) more than 90% of student samples studied or were actually studying at least two of those courses. Most of second year students studied two Arabic courses and were actually studying two more courses, while most of third and fourth year students studied four or five courses and some of them were actually studying their fifth Arabic course ( see tables 10 and 11).

Table 10: Background of student sampled (1)

Arabic courses	s t u d e n t s a m p l e s							
	First year		second year		third year		fourth year	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
PZ 1952	99	97.1	107	99.1	131	92.9	148	99.3
PZ 1942	95	93.1	107	99.1	131	92.9	148	99.3
PZ 2922	-	-	104	96.3	139	98.6	148	99.3
PZ 2932	-	-	106	98.1	140	99.3	148	99.3
PZ 3912	-	-	-	-	125	88.7	148	99.3
PV 3913	-	-	-	-	135	95.7	84	56.4
PV 3923	-	-	-	-	135	95.7	76	51

Table 11: Background of student sampled (2)

Arabic courses	student samples	percentages of total samples
PZ 1952	488	97.4%
PZ 1942	481	96%
PZ 2922	391	78%
PZ 2932	394	78.6%
PZ 3912	273	54.5%
PV 3913	219	43.7%
PV 3923	211	42.1%

#### 5.4 Problems and Limitations

In general, the teachers and students responses to the questionnaires were very good in the sense that all of the questions were well answered by both teachers and students. The number of missing answers was too small to affect any of the given results. However, the number of the questionnaires returned by teachers and students was slightly lower than expected. It was hoped that about 80% of the total number of the teacher population and about 40% of the total number of the student population would respond to the questionnaires. The actual number of questionnaires returned by teachers and students was 78.7% and 39.5% respectively. Furthermore, the amount of questionnaires returned by some student's strata was also less than the target amount for each stratum which was 40%. Hence, the amount of questionnaires returned from first and second year students was 37.2% and 30.3% respectively, and the amount of those returned from third year students of the Department of Da<sup>C</sup>wah and the Department of Sh<sup>h</sup>ariah was, 26.1% and 37.9% respectively.

Despite the low rate of return of questionnaires, the size of the obtained samples was big enough to represent to populations sizes (see tables 12 and 13).

Table 12: samples and populations: ratios (1)

strata	samples sizes	populations sizes	ratios
-Arabic and rel teachers.	48	61	1 : 1.3
-students of the Faculty.	501	1267	1 : 2.5
-first year students	102	274	1 : 2.7
-second year students	108	357	1 : 3.3
-third year students	141	338	1 : 2.4
-fourth year students	149	298	1 : 2

Table 13: Samples and populations : ratios (2)

departments/ years of study	samples sizes	populations sizes	ratios
-Arabic/ III	31	57	1 : 1.8
-S' ariah/ III	39	103	1 : 2.6
-Usuluddin/ III	35	84	1 : 2.4
-Da <sup>c</sup> wah/ III	12	46	1 : 3.8
-Qur'an/ III	24	48	1 : 2
-Arabic/ IV	23	52	1 : 2.3
-S' ariah/ IV	45	94	1 : 2.1
-Usuluddin/ IV	39	74	1 : 1.9
-Da <sup>c</sup> wah/ IV	20	38	1 : 1.9
-Qur'an/ IV	22	40	1 : 1.8

The limitations of the use of the data obtained by means of questionnaires in this study were not due to the sample sizes but to the types of data gathered from the samples.( pp. 122-124 ). On the basis of the purposes and the types of data previously described, the implications and the limitations of the use of the data obtained by

means of the questionnaires in this research can be outlined as follows:

1- The students' needs for Arabic were viewed only in terms of Arabic requirements in teaching and learning of Arabic and religious subjects in the Faculty as stated and perceived by Arabic and religious courses teachers only. Thus, the data concerning the needs for Arabic do not reflect, in any way, students' views regarding their own needs.

2- The data concerning the needs for Arabic which were obtained by means of teachers questionnaires are among other important inputs used for designing goals and objectives of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Furthermore, the data were used as a basis for evaluating the stated goals and objectives of the current Arabic program at the Faculty and for evaluating the program as a whole.

3- The data concerning the students Arabic abilities were based only on views and assessments from teachers and students themselves. The objective was not to provide detailed and comprehensive analysis for students levels of proficiency in Arabic but to demonstrate the students' general abilities in Arabic which reflect the degree of success or failure of Arabic program in the Faculty.

4- Views and opinions concerning the contributions of the current Arabic program to the students' standard of Arabic and concerning the degree of success or failure of the program were taken into consideration in evaluating the achievement of the program.

### 5.5 Analysis

The analysis of the data obtained by means of questionnaires was carried out by means of simple statistical calculations such as frequencies, percentages and ratios. Such calculations were considered appropriate for the purposes of this study ( see pp.122-124). In addition, the data do not contain variables which require more complex statistical analysis.

Although there are comparisons of results between different groups of samples, these comparisons, however, are not intended to assess the significance of differences between or within these groups. Frequencies, percentages or ratios suggest the validity and the significance of the results.

The analysis of the questionnaires data is classified according to type of the data collected. There are data about the needs for Arabic which were obtained from teachers' questionnaires, data about students' abilities in Arabic which were obtained from both teachers' and learners' questionnaires, and data about the attainment of the current Arabic program, some of which were obtained from both teachers' and learners' questionnaires and the rest were obtained from learners' questionnaires only.

## 5.6 Results

On the basis of the types of the data mentioned above, the results of the questionnaires analysis are explained under three headings: the needs for Arabic, the students' abilities in Arabic, and the program achievement

### 5.6.1 The Needs for Arabic

The needs for Arabic here refer to the requirements of Arabic in teaching and learning of religious and Arabic courses in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Thus, the term 'needs' refers to its fairly restricted sense ( see 114 ).

The results of students' needs for Arabic in their Arabic and religious studies can be described as follows:



a- The Importance of Arabic

It seems that Arabic is of the same importance , if not 'more important' than Malay, in the teaching and learning of Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. An average of 46.69% of teachers' answers describe Arabic as 'equally important' to Malay with regard to undertaking Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty. Only 16.3% of teachers who teach Departmental Courses, 23.1% of those who teach Faculty Courses, and 26.3% of those who teach Complementary Courses, stated that Arabic is 'less important' than Malay. The average of the answers which describe Arabic as 'less important' than Malay is only 21.9% ( see table 14).

Table 14: The importance of Arabic compared to Malay.

types of courses	MI		EI		LI		NI	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
Departmental	14	32.5	22	51.2	7	16.3	0	0
Faculty	9	34.6	11	42.3	6	23.1	0	0
Complementary	5	26.3	9	47.4	5	26.3	0	0
total	28	93.4	42	140.9	18	65.7	0	0
averages	9.3	31.1	14	46.96	6	21.9	0	0

MI = more important.                      NI = not important.  
 EI = equally important.                freq.= frequency.  
 LE = less important.

Nevertheless, the average of 31.1% of the answers which describe Arabic as 'more important' than Malay emphasized the importance of Arabic over Malay in Arabic and Religious Studies in the Faculty.

The importance of Arabic in comparison with English is more evident than Malay. The average percentage of answers which describe Arabic as 'more important' than English is 57%, while the average percentage of answers which describe Arabic as less important than English is

only 2.26% ( see table 15).

Table 15: The importance of Arabic compared to English.

types of courses	MI		EI		LI		NI	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
Departmental	21	47.7	20	45.5	3	6.8	0	0
Faculty	17	65.4	9	34.6	0	0	0	0
Complementary	11	57.9	8	42.1	0	0	0	0
total	49	171	37	122.2	3	6.8	0	0
averages	16.3	57	12.3	40.7	3	2.26	0	0

MI = more important.                      NI = not important.  
 EI = equally important.                  freq.= frequency.  
 LE = less important.

**b. The Amount of Arabic Required in Religious Studies**

Teachers were asked to assess the amount of Arabic normally required in the teaching and learning of each type of their courses. The results show that an average of 34.7% suggest that the amount of Arabic required is between 26 to 50%. However, the average answers which describe the Arabic requirement of 51% or more is 48.9%. This includes 24.1% which describes the Arabic requirement to be between 51 to 75%, and 24.8% responses which describe the Arabic requirement between 76 to 100%. The average answers which describe the Arabic requirement of 25% or less is only 16.4% ( see table 16 )

Table 16: The Arabic requirement in teaching of Arabic and religious courses.

types of courses	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
Departmental	5	11.4	19	43.1	9	20.5	11	25
Faculty	3	11.5	9	34.6	8	30.8	6	23.1
Complementary	5	26.3	5	26.3	4	21.1	5	26.3
total	13	49.2	33	104	21	72.4	22	74.4
averages	4.3	16.4	11	34.7	7	24.1	7.3	24.8

freq. = frequency.

The distributions of the figures in table 17 show that the amount of Arabic required in one type of courses differs from the amount of Arabic required in another. In spite of this, the amount of Arabic required in the teaching and learning of each types of the courses is very significant.

Regarding the individual Arabic skills which are actually required in undertaking Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty, the results show that reading is the most important skill of all, while listening, which is found to be far less important than reading, is slightly more important than speaking and writing. The average percentage of the answers which describe the requirement of 51% or more for reading is 78%, while the average percentages of answers which describe the requirement of the same amount for listening, speaking and writing are 28.6%, 21.9% and 20.3 %, respectively ( see tables 17, 18, 19, and 20 ).

Table 17: The actual requirements of skills in Arabic and religious courses

types of courses	reading%		writing%		listening%		speaking%	
	0-25%	51-100%	0-25%	51-100%	0-25%	51-100%	0-25%	51-100%
Departmental	6.8	79.6	56.8	27.2	54.5	25	63.6	20.5
Faculty	7.7	80.8	53.9	23.1	38.5	34.6	50	34.6
Complementary	15.8	73.6	73.7	10.6	63.2	26.3	63.2	10.5
total %	30.3	234	184.4	60.9	156.2	85.9	176.8	65.6
averages %	10.1	78	61.5	20.3	52.1	28.6	58.9	21.9

Table 18: The actual requirements of skills in Departmental Courses.

types of skills	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
reading	3	6.8	6	13.6	16	36.4	19	43.2
writing	25	56.8	7	15.9	6	13.6	6	13.6
listening	24	54.5	9	20.5	3	6.8	8	18.2
speaking	28	63.6	7	15.9	5	11.4	4	9.1

Table 19: The actual requirements of skills in Faculty Courses.

types of skills	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
reading	2	7.7	3	11.5	8	30.8	13	50
writing	14	53.9	6	23	4	15.4	2	7.7
listening	10	38.5	7	26.9	3	11.5	6	23.1
speaking	13	50	4	15.4	5	19.2	4	15.4

Table 20: The actual requirements of skills in Complementary Courses.

types of skills	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
reading	3	15.8	2	10.5	7	36.8	7	36.8
writing	14	73.7	3	15.7	1	5.3	1	5.3
listening	12	63.2	2	10.5	2	10.5	3	15.8
speaking	12	63.2	5	26.3	0	0	2	10.5

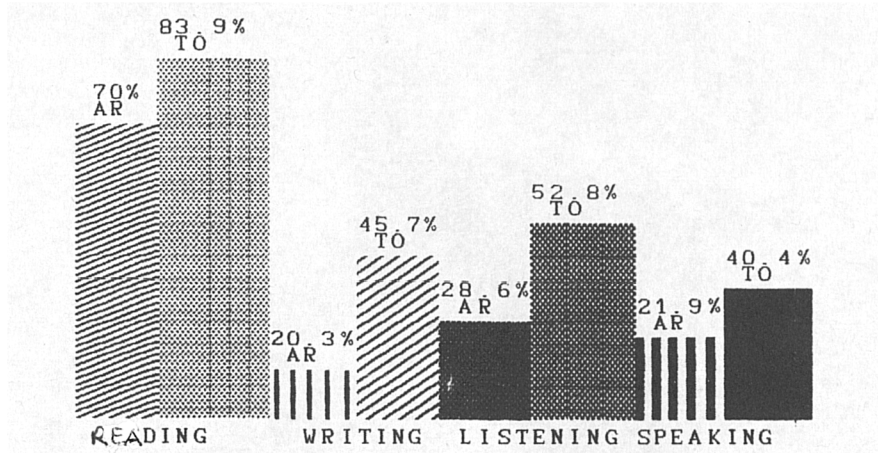
According to teachers' opinions, the amounts of each individual Arabic skill normally required in the teaching and learning of each type of the courses are much less than what teachers intended to impose on the learners ( see tables 18, 19, and 20 compared with tables 22, 23 and 24, below, respectively.).

In comparison with the average percentages which describe the requirement of 51% or more for each individual Arabic skill in the teaching and learning of each type of the courses, the average percentages which describe teachers opinions about the subject have considerably increased ( compare table 17 above with table 21 below and see Figure 20).

Table 21: Teachers' opinions about the requirements of skills in Arabic and religious courses

types of courses	reading%		writing%		listening%		speaking%	
	0-25%	51-100%	0-25%	51-100%	0-25%	51-100%	0-25%	51-100%
Departmental	2.3	86.3	6	47.8	15.9	50	18.2	40.9
Faculty	0	92.3	3.8	57.7	7.7	61.5	11.5	53.9
Complementary	5.3	73.7	21	31.6	15.8	46.8	21	26.4
total %	7.6	251.9	30.8	137.1	39.4	158.3	50.7	121.2
averages %	2.5	83.9	10.3	45.7	13.1	52.8	16.9	40.4

Figure 20: Arabic Skills: the actual requirements and teachers' opinions.



AR : actual requirement. TO : teachers' opinions.

Table 22: The amount of skills required in Departmental Courses.

types of skills	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
reading	1	2.3	5	11.4	15	34	23	52.3
writing	6	13.6	17	38.6	12	27.3	9	20.5
listening	7	15.9	15	34.1	12	27.3	10	22.7
speaking	8	18.2	18	40.9	11	25	7	15.9

Table 23: The amount of skills required in Faculty Courses.

types of skills	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
reading	0	0	2	7.7	10	38.5	14	53.8
writing	1	3.8	10	38.5	9	34.6	6	23.1
listening	2	7.7	8	30.8	9	34.6	7	26.9
speaking	3	11.5	9	34.6	10	38.5	4	15.4

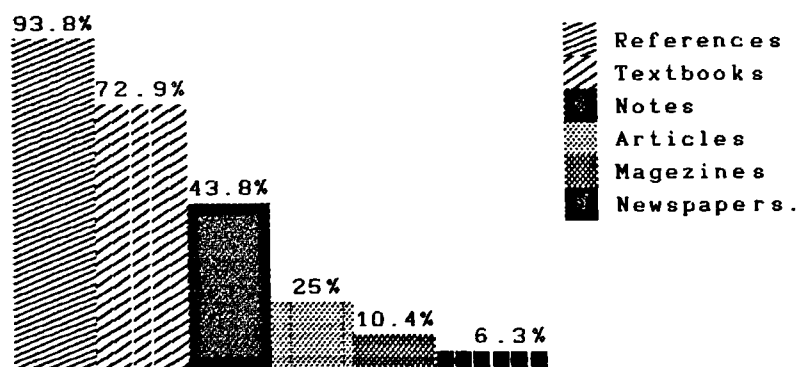
Table 24: The amounts of skills required in Complementary Courses

types of skills	0-25%		26-50%		51-75%		76-100%	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
reading	1	5.3	4	21	6	31.6	8	42.1
writing	4	21	9	47.4	5	26.3	1	5.3
listening	3	15.8	9	47.4	5	26.3	2	10.5
speaking	4	21	10	52.6	4	21.1	1	5.3

c. Reading materials

There are six types of Arabic reading materials required from students in their Arabic and Religious Studies in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. These are textbooks, references, notes, articles, magazines and newspapers. However, the requirements of reading each of these materials differ between teachers. Most of the teachers agree that they require their students to read Arabic references and textbooks, while less than half of the teachers sampled agree that they require their students to read the other materials ( see, Figure 21).

Figure 21: Types of Arabic reading materials required.



Reading the types of Arabic materials mentioned seems to be

important. Despite the fact that not all teachers require their students to read all types of those materials, the majority, however, believe that the reading of those materials, except articles, is 'very important' or 'important' in undertaking their courses (see, table 25 ).

Table 25: The importance of reading Arabic materials

Arabic materials	VI		I		LI		NI	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
references	33	68.8	13	27.1	2	4.2	0	0
textbooks	31	64.6	12	25	5	10.4	0	0
notes	10	20.8	16	33.3	22	45.8	0	0
articles	3	6.3	18	37.5	27	56.3	0	0
magezines	12	25	35	72.9	0	0	1	2.1
newspapers	13	27.1	33	68.7	2	4.2	0	0
total	102	212.6	127	264.5	58	102.9	1	2.1
averages	17	35.4	21.2	44.08	9.6	17	0.16	0.35

VI= very important. LI= less important. freq= frequency.  
I = important. NI= not important.

Table 25 shows that an average of 35.4% of teachers see reading the types of material mentioned above as 'very important' and an average of 44.08% see it as 'important'. The total average of 80.2% of teachers who see reading those types of materials as 'very important' and 'important' clearly show the importance of the matter discussed here in Arabic and religious studies in the Faculty.

#### d. Types of Writing

Four types of Arabic writing required from students in their Arabic and Religious Studies are: articles, reports, examination' answers



and notes. The exact requirements of writing in Arabic varies between teachers. It can be seen that 43.8 % of teachers agree that they require their students to write their examination' answers in Arabic. Teachers who agree that they require their students to write notes, articles and reports are only 22.9%, 14.6% and 4.2%, respectively (see table 26 ). As shown in table 26, the ratio between teachers who agree and between those who do not agree that they required their students to write in Arabic is 1 : 3.7.

Table 26: Types of Arabic writing (1)

types of writing	agree		disagree	
	freq.	%	freq.	%
E.A	21	43.8	27	56.3
notes.	11	22.9	37	77.1
articles.	7	14.6	41	85.4
reports.	2	4.2	46	95.8
total	41	85.5	151	314.6
averages	10.3	21.3	37.8	78.7

E.A = examination's answers

Teachers who require their students to write in Arabic, do so with different degrees of regularity. An average of 58.4% of the teachers require their students to write in Arabic 'very frequently' and 'frequently'. Thus, an average of 41.6% say that they 'seldom' or 'very seldom' require their students to write in Arabic ( see table 27).

Table 27: Types of Arabic writing (2)

types of writing	VF		F		S		VS	
	freq.	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
E.A	7	33.3	8	38.1	6	28.6	0	0
notes.	8	72.7	2	18.2	1	9.1	0	0
articles.	1	14.3	4	57.1	1	14.3	1	14.3
reports.	0	0	0	0	2	100	0	0
total	16	120.3	14	113.4	10	152	1	14.3
averages	4	30.1	3.5	28.3	2.5	38	0.25	3.6

VF= very frequent. S = seldom. E.A= examination's answers  
 F = frequent. VS= very seldom.

Similar to the question of regularity, teachers who require their students to write in Arabic agree that each type of writing, in Arabic, has different degrees of importance in undertaking their courses. An average of 64.5% of the teachers describe writing in Arabic as 'very important' or 'important' ( see table 28).

Table 28: Types of Arabic writing (3)

types of writing	VI		I		LI		NI	
	freq.	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
E.A	12	57.1	7	33.3	2	9.5	0	0
notes.	1	9.1	8	72.7	2	18.2	0	0
articles.	2	28.6	4	57.1	1	14.3	0	0
reports.	0	0	0	0	2	100	0	0
total	15	94.8	19	163.1	7	142	0	0
averages	3.8	23.7	4.8	40.8	1.8	35.5	0	0

VI= very important. LI= less important. freq= frequency.  
 I = important. NI= not important. E.A= examination's answers

### e- Listening

The learning of Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty of Islamic Studies also requires students to have Arabic listening ability. Most of lecturers and tutors speak Arabic during lectures and tutorials sessions. However, the degree of regularity in their use of Arabic as a spoken medium in their lectures and tutorials is invariably different. The percentage of teachers who say that they speak Arabic in lecture halls and tutorial rooms, 'very frequently' and 'frequently' are only 29.2% and 41.7%, respectively, while the percentage of those who say that they 'seldom' and 'very seldom' speak Arabic in those places are 70.8% and 58.3%, respectively ( see, table 29 ).

Table 29: Teachers' use of Arabic in their speak.

places	VF		F		S		VS	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
lecture halls	8	16.7	6	12.5	32	66.7	2	4.1
tutorial rooms	9	18.8	11	22.9	27	56.2	1	2.1
total	17	35.5	17	35.4	59	122.9	3	6.2
averages	8.5	17.8	8.5	17.7	29.5	61.5	1.5	3.1

VF= very frequent. S = seldom. E.A= examination's answers  
 F = frequent. VS= very seldom.

Despite the actual use of Arabic by teachers in their speaking, most of the teachers agree that it is important for their students to listen to Arabic either from their lecturers, or tutors or their friends and colleagues, in their course of studies in the Faculty. The results show that the percentage of teacher samples who believe that it is 'very important' and 'important' for their students to listen to Arabic from their lecturers, tutors and their friends and colleagues are 89.6%, 93.8% and 81.2%, respectively ( see table 30 ).

Table 30: The importance of some listening inputs.

listening inputs	VI		I		LI		NI	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
lectures	23	47.9	20	41.7	3	6.2	2	4.2
tutorials	21	43.8	24	50	2	4.2	1	2
students' talks	17	35.4	22	45.8	7	14.6	2	4.2
total	61	127.1	66	137.5	12	25	5	10.4
averages	20.3	42.4	22	45.8	4	8.3	1.7	3.5

VI= very important. LI= less important. freq= frequency.  
 I = important. NI= not important.

#### f- Speaking

The discussion in this section does not demonstrate the requirement of speaking in Arabic in the Faculty. However, based on teachers observations, the results show the actual use of Arabic by the Faculty students in their conversations in their learning environments. Most of the teachers believe that the students of the Faculty 'seldom' use Arabic when they communicate with Arabic and religious teachers and they 'never' use it with friends and colleagues inside and outside their classrooms. Only 21.8% and 2.1% of the teachers say that they observe their students 'very frequently' and 'frequently' use Arabic when they speak with their Arabic teachers and religious teachers, respectively. In addition, none of the teachers say that their students use Arabic 'very frequently' or 'frequently' in their interaction with their friends and colleagues inside and outside the classrooms. Nonetheless, 4.2% of them say that their students 'frequently' use Arabic in their interaction with students' groups ( see table 31 ).

Table 31: Students' use of Arabic in their communication.

parties	VF		F		S		N		missing values
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	
AT	1	2.2	9	19.6	33	71.7	3	6.5	2
RT	0	0	1	2.1	31	65.9	15	31.9	1
F.I.C	0	0	0	0	23	48.9	24	51.1	1
F.O.C	0	0	0	0	22	46.8	25	53.2	1
SG	0	0	2	4.2	22	46.8	23	48.9	1

VF= very frequent. S = seldom. N = never.  
 F = frequent. VS= very seldom. AT= Arabic teachers.  
 RT= religious. SG= students groups.  
 F.I.C= friends in the classrooms.  
 F.O.C= friends outside the classrooms.

#### 5.6.1.1 Conclusions

The needs for Arabic in relation to Arabic and religious studies in the Faculty of Islamic Studies can be outlined as follows:

1- Arabic is one of the most important languages used in the teaching and learning of Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. In comparison with the other main languages (i.e. Malay and English ), Arabic is 'equally important' as Malay and 'more important' than English for the majority of the teachers. Moreover, the number of the teachers who consider Arabic as 'more important' than Malay is more than the number of those who consider Malay as 'more important' than Arabic.

2- The amount of Arabic required in the teaching and learning of Departmental, Faculty and Complementary Courses is very significant. The number of the teachers who describe the Arabic requirement of 51% or more is greater than the number of those who describe the Arabic requirement of 26% to 50% and the number of those who describe the Arabic requirement of 25% or less. Moreover, the number of those who describe the Arabic requirement of 26% to 50% is greater than the number of those who describe the Arabic requirement as 25% or less.

3- The teaching and learning of Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty requires students to carry out reading, listening, speaking and writing activities in Arabic. However, reading is found to be the most important activity of all. Listening which is far less important than reading is second in importance, while writing and speaking are the least important of all.

4- According to teachers opinions, the actual proportions of each individual Arabic skill required in the teaching and learning of Arabic and religious courses in the Faculty are far less than what they wish their students to do.

5- In reading, students are required to read Arabic references, textbooks, notes, articles, magazines and newspapers. Most of the teachers require their students to read references and textbooks, many of them require their students to read notes, and only some of them require their students to read the rest. Despite the actual requirements, the majority of teachers, however, responded that reading these materials is 'important' in their courses.

6- In writing, students are required to write examination' answers, notes, articles and reports in Arabic. Writing examinations' answers is the most important, writing notes is second in importance, while writing report is the least important of all. The majority of the teachers who require their students to write in Arabic say that they 'frequently' require their students to write in Arabic and that writing in Arabic is 'important' in undertaking their courses.

7- In listening, students are required to listen to lectures and tutorials in Arabic. Although the majority of the teachers 'seldom' use Arabic in their lectures and tutorials, the number of those who 'frequently' speak Arabic in their lectures and tutorials, in particular, is significantly high. Moreover, despite the actual listening requirements, most teachers agree

that it is important for their students to listen to Arabic from their lecturers, tutors, and friends and colleagues during their course of studies in the Faculty.

8- Most of the teachers believe that students 'seldom' use Arabic in their communication with their Arabic and religious teachers and they never used it when they speak to their friends and colleagues.

## 5.6.2 The Students Abilities in Arabic

### a- General

Students were asked to give opinions about their own abilities in Arabic. About 57.4% of them describe it as 'modest', 30.2% of them describe it as 'poor', 6.4% of them describe it as 'good', 5.6% of them described it as 'very poor' and only 0.4% of them describe it as 'very good'. Cross-tabulations of students' ability by students' years of study and by departments in which they study also show similar patterns ( see tables 32 and 33 ).

Table 32: Arabic ability by years of study.

years of study	VG		G		M		P		VP	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	6	5.9	59	58.4	34	33.7	2	2
second	0	0	5	4.6	57	52.8	36	33.3	10	9.3
third	1	0.7	16	11.3	86	61	34	24.1	4	2.8
fourth	1	0.7	5	3.3	85	56.7	47	31.3	12	8
total	2	0.4	32	6.4	287	57.4	151	30.2	28	5.6

VG = very good. P = poor.  
 G = good. VP= very poor.  
 M = modest.



Table 33: Arabic ability by departments and non-department.

DEPARTS. & NON-DEPAR- TMENTAL	v. good		good		modest		poor		v. poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
ARABIC	1	1.9	10	18.5	38	70.4	5	9.3	0	0
USULUDDIN	0	0	2	2.7	41	55.4	26	35.1	5	6.8
SHARI <sup>C</sup> AH	0	0	5	6	48	57.1	26	31	5	6
QUR'AN	0	0	3	6.5	27	58.7	14	30.4	2	4.3
DA <sup>C</sup> WAH	1	3.1	1	3.1	17	53.1	9	28.1	4	12.5
NON-DEP- ARTMENTAL	0	0	11	5.2	116	52.2	71	33.8	12	5.7
total	2	0.4	32	6.4	287	57.4	151	30.2	28	5.6

Tables 32 and 33 show that the majority of students see their ability as 'modest' while a very significant number of them, with the exception of students of the Department of Arabic Studies, who see their Arabic ability as 'poor' and 'very poor'.

Teachers' opinions about their students ability in Arabic are very much the same. About 44.8% of teachers who have experience in teaching the first year students describe the Arabic ability of the first year students as 'modest', 24.1% of them describe it as 'poor', 27.6% of them describe it as 'very poor', and 3.4% of them describe it as 'very good'. Teachers who have experience in teaching fourth year students have almost similar opinions about their students ability in Arabic. About 55.9% of them describe it as 'modest', 26.5% of them describe it as 'poor', 11.7% of them describe it as 'good', and 5.9% of them describe it as 'very poor' (see table 34 ).

Table 34: Teachers opinions about their students general ability in Arabic.

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v. poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	1	3.4	0	0	13	44.8	7	24.1	8	27.6
second	0	0	0	0	18	52.9	9	26.5	7	20.6
third	0	0	1	2.4	26	61.9	11	26.2	4	9.5
fourth	0	0	4	11.7	19	55.9	9	26.5	2	5.9

Table 34 shows that the majority of the teachers described their students Arabic ability as 'modest', while a significant number of them describe it as 'poor' and 'very poor'.

#### b- Arabic reading ability

Regarding reading ability, 70.1% of student samples describe their Arabic reading ability as 'modest', 21.4% of them describe it as 'poor', 6% of them describe it as 'good', 2.2% of them describe it as 'very poor', and 0.1% of them describe it as 'very good'. Cross-tabulations of students reading ability in Arabic by years of study and by departments also indicate that the majority of students from each year of studies and from each department describe their reading ability as 'modest' and a significant number of them describe it as 'poor'. However, the number of students from Arabic department who describe their reading ability as 'good' is slightly higher than the number of them who describe their reading ability as 'poor' ( see tables 35 and 36 ).

Table 35: Reading ability by years of study.

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	3	3	74	73.3	23	22.8	1	1
second	1	0.9	3	2.8	69	63.9	33	30.6	2	1.9
third	0	0	14	9.9	97	68.8	25	17.7	5	3.5
fourth	0	0	10	6.7	110	73.8	26	17.4	3	2
total	1	0.2	30	6	350	70.1	107	21.4	11	2.2

Table 36: Reading ability by departments and non-department.

DEPARTS & NON-DEPARTMENTAL	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
ARABIC	0	0	8	14.8	40	74.1	6	11	1	0
USULUDDIN	0	0	4	5.4	53	71.6	17	23	0	0
SHARI <sup>C</sup> AH	0	0	7	8.3	63	75	12	14.3	2	2.4
QUR'AN	0	0	5	10.9	30	65.2	8	17.4	3	6.5
DA <sup>C</sup> WAH	0	0	0	0	20	64.5	8	25.8	3	9.7
NON-DEPARTMENTAL	1	0.5	6	2.9	144	68.6	56	26.7	3	1.4
total	1	0.2	30	6	350	70.1	107	21.4	11	2.2

The majority of the teachers believe that the reading ability of students in each year of study is 'modest' and a significant number of them believe it is 'poor'. However, the number of teachers who describe the reading ability of the fourth year students as 'good' is slightly higher than the number of them who describe it as 'poor' ( see table 37 )

Table 37: Teachers opinions about their students' reading ability in Arabic.

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v. poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	1	3.6	14	50	8	28.6	5	17.8
second	0	0	0	0	22	64.7	7	20.6	5	14.7
third	0	0	2	4.8	29	69.1	8	19	3	7.1
fourth	0	0	7	20.5	21	61.8	4	11.8	2	5.9

In addition to general reading ability in Arabic, teachers and students themselves were also asked to assess students' reading ability in reading Arabic references and textbooks.

About 93.8% of the teachers believe that most of the students cannot read Arabic references with good comprehension without depending on dictionary, 64.6% of them believe that most of the students cannot read Arabic references with good comprehension even with the aid of dictionary and 93.8% of them believe that most of the students have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic references. Similar patterns of the results are also observed in the students' assessments of their own reading ability in reading Arabic references with reference to statements similar to those given to the teachers. The percentages of students who believe with the first and the second statements are 89% and 56.8%, respectively, while the percentage of those who agree with the third statement is 90.6% ( see table 38 ).

Table 38: Students ability in reading Arabic references.

reading conditions	subjects	agree		diasgree		not sure	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq	%
good comprehension without dictionary.	teachers	0	0	45	93.8	3	6.3
	students	42	8.4	446	89	13	2.6
good comprehension with dictionary.	teachers	14	29.2	31	64.6	3	6.3
	students	201	40.2	284	56.8	15	3
with great difficulties	teachers	45	93.8	0	0	3	6.3
	students	454	90.6	37	7.4	10	2

In reading Arabic textbooks, similar statements were presented to teachers and students. The results show that 83.3% of teachers and 85% of students samples disagree with the statement of the first type, and 87.5% of teachers and 87.6% of students agreed with the statement of the third type. Regarding the statement of the second type, the percentages of teachers and students who disagree with it are 58.3% and 47.2%, respectively ( see table 39 ).

Table 39: Students ability in reading Arabic textbooks.

reading conditions	subjects	agree		disagree		not sure	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq	%
good comprehension without dictionary.	teachers	4	8.3	40	83.3	4	8.3
	students	60	12	425	85	15	3
good comprehension with dictionary.	teachers	18	37.5	28	58.3	2	4.2
	students	251	50.2	236	47.2	10	2.6
with great difficulties	teachers	42	87.5	2	4.2	3	6.3
	students	438	87.6	53	10.6	9	1.8

To illustrate further the students' Arabic reading ability, teachers

were asked whether their students completely rely on the dictionary when reading and whether their students need more than dictionaries to help them in reading Arabic. These questions were also asked to students. The results show that 87.5% of the teachers and 82.2% of the students agree with the first question and 93.8% of the teachers and 92.8% of the students agree with the second ( see table 40 ).

Table 40: The need for dictionary and others in reading Arabic.

reading conditions	subjects	agree		disagree		not sure	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
complete reliance on dictionary	teachers	42	87.5	3	6.3	3	6.3
	students	412	82.2	84	16.8	5	1
need other than dictionary.	teachers	45	93.8	1	2.1	2	4.2
	students	465	92.8	28	5.6	8	1.6

### c- Arabic Writing ability

The students' own assessments of their Arabic writing ability show that 45.9% of the students describe it as 'modest', 39.9% describe it as 'poor', 7.4% describe it as 'very poor', while the students who describe it as 'very good' and 'good' are only 0.4% and 6.4%, respectively. Cross-tabulations of students writing ability by years of study and departments ( with the exception of the fourth year students and the students of the Departments of Usul ud-din, ash-Shari<sup>C</sup>ah and ad-Da<sup>C</sup>wah ), also demonstrate almost similar patterns. The results for the forth year students and students of the Departments of Usul ud-din, ash-Shari<sup>C</sup>ah, and ad-Da<sup>C</sup>wah, however, show that the percentages of students who describe their Arabic

writing ability as 'poor' are greater than others ( see tables 41 and 42 ).

Table 41: Writing ability by years of study.

year of studies	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	13	12.9	60	59.4	27	26.7	1	1
second	1	0.9	10	9.3	51	47.2	38	35.2	8	7.4
third	0	0	8	5.7	68	48.2	54	38.3	11	7.8
fourth	1	0.7	1	0.7	50	33.6	80	53.7	17	11.4
total	2	0.4	32	6.4	229	45.9	199	39.9	37	7.4

Table 42: Writing ability by departments and non-department.

DEPARTS. & NON-DEPARTMENTAL	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
ARABIC	1	1.9	2	3.7	32	59.3	18	33.3	1	1.9
USULUDDIN	0	0	1	1.4	27	26.5	36	48.6	10	13.5
SHARI <sup>C</sup> AH	0	0	5	6	28	33.3	45	53.6	6	7.1
QUR'AN	0	0	0	0	20	43.5	19	41.3	7	15.2
DA <sup>C</sup> WAH	0	0	1	3.2	10	32.3	16	50	3	9.4
NON-DEPARTMENTAL	1	0.5	23	11	112	53.3	65	31	9	4.3
total	2	0.4	32	6.4	229	45.9	199	39.9	37	7.4

Unlike students' assessment, the teachers' assessment of their students Arabic ability shows that the percentages of teachers, except those who teach fourth year students, who describe their students Arabic writing ability as 'poor' are greater than the percentages of those who describe it as 'modest' and 'very poor'. Moreover, none of them describe it as either 'very good' or 'good'. The results obtained from teachers who teach fourth year students, differ from those obtained from other teachers and in contrast with

the results obtained from the fourth year students themselves, show that 53.1% of these teachers describe their students Arabic writing ability as 'modest' while the percentage of those who describe it as 'poor' is 34.4% ( see table 43 ).

Table 43: Teachers' opinions about the students' writing ability in Arabic.

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	0	0	6	22.2	13	48.2	8	29.6
second	0	0	0	0	11	33.3	13	39.4	9	27.3
third	0	0	0	0	16	41	16	41	7	17.9
fourth	0	0	0	0	17	53.1	11	34.4	4	12.5

Further results regarding students Arabic writing ability show that 76.6% of the students believe that they cannot write a reasonable length of a paragraph about any academic topics that they have learned in Arabic without making many mistakes, 84% of them believe that they cannot write, in Arabic, about every days topics reasonably well, 23.7% of them believe that they have no confidence to write about anything in Arabic, and 88.6% of them believe that they can write in Arabic but by making many mistakes.

Teachers opinions regarding Arabic writing ability of most of their students with respect to similar statements show similar patterns of results. However, there is a significant number of teachers who are not sure about Arabic writing ability of most of their students with respect to those writing conditions (see table 44).



Table 44: Students' Arabic writing abilities

writing conditions	subjects	agree		disagree		not sure	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
writing I	teachers	5	10.4	28	58.3	15	31.3
	students	90	18.0	383	76.6	27	5.4
writing II	teachers	1	2.1	28	58.3	19	39.6
	students	55	11.0	419	84.0	25	5.0
writing III	teachers	14	29.2	17	35.4	17	35.4
	students	118	23.7	344	69.1	36	7.2
writing IV	teachers	35	72.9	3	6.3	10	20.8
	students	442	88.6	41	8.2	16	3.2

writing I = can write a reasonable length of paragraph about any academic topics...without making many mistakes.

writing II = can write about every days topics with reasonably well.

writing III = have no confidence to write what so ever in Arabic.

writing IV = can write in Arabic, but makes many mistakes.

#### d- Arabic Speaking Ability

Regarding general Arabic speaking ability of the students, the percentage of students who describe their Arabic speaking ability as 'poor' is greater than the percentages of those who describe it as others. The percentages of those who describe their writing ability as 'very good' and 'good' are only 0.2% and 2.8%, respectively. Moreover, cross-tabulations of Arabic writing ability by years of study and by departments, show that only the first year students and students of the Department of Arabic studies have percentage of student samples who describe their speaking ability as 'modest' greater than the percentage of those who describe it as 'poor' and others ( see tables 45 and 46).

Table 45: Arabic speaking ability by years of study.

year of studies	v. good		good		modest		poor		v. poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	4	4.0	49	48.5	46	45.5	2	2
second	0	0	4	3.7	40	37.0	54	50.0	10	9.3
third	0	0	3	2.1	51	36.2	68	48.2	19	13.5
fourth	1	0.7	3	2.0	42	28.2	71	47.7	32	21.5
total	1	0.2	14	2.8	182	36.5	239	47.9	63	12.6

Table 46: Arabic speaking ability by departments and non-department.

DEPARTS & NON-DEPART-MENTAL.	v. good		good		modest		poor		v. poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
ARABIC	1	1.9	2	3.7	28	51.9	18	33.3	5	9.3
USULUDDIN	0	0	0	0	22	29.7	37	50.0	15	20.3
SHARI <sup>C</sup> AH	0	0	2	2.4	23	27.4	45	53.6	14	16.7
QUR'AN	0	0	1	2.2	14	30.4	20	43.5	11	23.9
DA <sup>C</sup> WAH	0	0	1	3.2	6	19.4	18	58.1	6	19.4
NON-DEPART-MENTAL	0	0	8	3.8	89	42.4	101	48.1	12	5.7
total	1	0.2	14	2.8	182	36.5	239	47.9	63	12.6

Similarly, teachers' opinion regarding their students' speaking ability in Arabic shows that the percentage of teachers who describe Arabic speaking ability of students of each year of studies as 'poor' is greater than the percentage of those who describe it as 'modest' and much greater than those who describe it as others (see table 47 below).

Table 47: Teachers opinions about their students' Arabic speaking ability.

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	0	0	5	17.9	15	53.6	8	28.5
second	0	0	0	0	11	33.3	11	33.3	11	33.3
third	0	0	0	0	14	35.0	16	40.0	10	25.0
fourth	0	0	1	3	13	39.4	14	42.4	5	15.2

Results concerning students' Arabic speaking ability show that 22.2% of students believe that they have no confidence to speak about anything what so ever in Arabic, 31.8% of them see that they cannot ask questions orally, in Arabic, about subjects that they have previously learned them in Arabic, and 63.7% of them see that they cannot discuss orally, in Arabic, about topics that they have known very well.

Teachers are less optimistic than students. The teachers' opinions about Arabic speaking ability of most of their students show that the percentages of teachers who agree with the second and the third speaking conditions mentioned above are 58.3% and 72.9%, respectively, while the percentage who disagree with the first reading condition, as above, is 22.9% ( see table 48).

Table 48: Students' Arabic speaking abilities.

speaking conditions	subjects	agree		disagree		not sure	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
speaking I	teachers	11	22.9	24	50.0	13	27.1
	students	111	22.2	361	72.3	27	5.4
speaking II	teachers	8	16.7	28	58.3	12	25.0
	students	302	60.4	159	31.8	39	7.8
speaking III	teachers	4	8.3	35	72.9	9	18.8
	students	143	28.7	317	63.7	38	7.6

speaking I = ...have no confidence to speak Arabic.

speaking II = ...can ask questions in Arabic...

speaking III = ...can discuss in Arabic...

#### e- Arabic Listening Ability

As far as Arabic listening ability of the students is concerned, the majority of students describe it as 'modest'. However, the percentages of those who describe their Arabic listening ability as 'poor' and 'very poor' are 21.8% and 2.2%, respectively, while the percentages of those who describe it as 'very good' and 'good' are only 0.4% and 9.6%, respectively. Moreover, cross-tabulations of listening ability by years of study and by departments show that only the Department Arabic has percentage of students who describe their

Arabic listening ability as 'good' greater than the percentage of those who describe it as 'poor' ( see tables 49 and 50 ).

Table 49: Arabic listening ability by years of study

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	13	12.9	69	68.3	18	17.8	1	1.0
second	1	0.9	8	7.4	69	63.9	25	23.1	5	4.6
third	1	0.7	15	10.6	91	64.5	31	22.0	3	2.1
fourth	0	0	12	8.1	100	67.1	35	23.5	2	1.3
total	2	0.4	48	9.6	329	65.9	109	21.8	11	2.2

Table 50: Arabic listening ability by departments and non-department.

DEPARTS & NON-DEPARTMENTAL	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
ARABIC	0	0	11	20.4	36	66.7	7	13.0	0	0
USULUDDIN	0	0	5	6.8	51	68.9	18	24.3	0	0
SHARI <sup>C</sup> AH	1	1.2	4	4.8	61	72.6	15	17.9	3	3.6
QUR'AN	0	0	4	8.7	28	60.9	14	30.4	0	0
DA <sup>C</sup> WAH	0	0	2	6.5	15	48.4	12	38.7	2	6.5
NON-DEPARTMENTAL.	1	0.5	22	10.5	138	65.7	43	20.5	6	2.9
total	2	0.4	48	9.6	329	65.9	109	21.8	11	2.2

Teachers opinions about their students' Arabic listening ability show the same patterns. The majority of teachers who teach students from different years of study, describe their students' Arabic listening ability as 'modest', while the percentage of those who describe it as 'poor' is much greater than those who describe it as 'good' or as 'very good' ( see table 51 ).

Table 51: Teachers' opinions about students' Arabic listening ability.

years of study	v. good		good		modest		poor		v.poor	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	0	0	0	0	11	39.3	10	35.7	7	25.0
second	0	0	1	3.0	17	51.5	8	24.2	7	21.2
third	0	0	1	2.5	28	70.0	7	17.5	4	10.0
fourth	0	0	3	9.0	23	69.7	5	15.2	2	6.1

The students' listening abilities in Arabic show that only 36.4% of students agree that they could understand most of the content of lectures that being delivered in Arabic, while the the percentages of those who could understand a small portion and less than half of the content of such lectures are 51.9% and 41.9%, respectively. Similarly, teachers' opinions regarding the ability of most of their students with respect to the same listening conditions show that the percentages of teachers who agree with the first, the second, and the third listening conditions are 27.1%, 41.7% and 37.5%, respectively ( see table 52 )

Table 52: Students' Listening abilities in Arabic.

listening conditions	subjects	agree		disagree		not sure	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq	%
listening I	teachers	13	27.1	18	37.5	17	35.4
	students	182	36.4	296	59.2	22	4.4
listening II	teachers	20	41.7	14	29.2	14	29.2
	students	259	51.9	236	47.3	4	0.4
listening III	teachers	18	37.5	14	29.2	16	33.3
	students	209	41.9	267	53.5	23	4.6

listening I = ...could understand most of the content of lectures...  
 listening II = ...could understand a small portion of the content...  
 listening III = ...could undertand less than half of the content...

### 5.6.2.1 Conclusions

Arabic abilities of students of the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia can be summarized as follows:

1- The Arabic ability of the majority of the Faculty' students, in general, is 'modest'. However, the number of those who are 'poor' and 'very poor' in Arabic is very significant. The number of students who have good ability in Arabic is very insignificant.

2- With respect to reading, listening, writing and speaking, the abilities of the majority of the students in reading and listening are 'modest', and the abilities of the majority of them in writing and speaking are 'poor'. The number of students who are 'poor' in reading and listening is very significant. The number of those who are 'good' in each of those skills is very insignificant.

3- In reading, despite the fact that the ability of the majority of the students is 'modest', most students have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic references and textbooks. Moreover, most of them rely completely on dictionaries and most of them need more than just dictionaries to help them to comprehend most of Arabic texts that they are required to read.

4- In listening, despite the fact that the ability of the majority of the students is 'modest', the percentage of those who could understand a small portion and less than half of the content of lectures delivered in Arabic, is higher than the percentage of those who could understand most of the content of such lectures.

5- In writing, most of the students could not write, in Arabic, a reasonable length of a paragraph about any academic topics that they have previously learned in Arabic without making many mistakes. Most of them could not write, in Arabic, about every days topics with reasonably well, and most of them could express themselves, in writing, in Arabic, but by making many mistakes. Furthermore, the results indicate that a significant number of

students who have no confidence to write what so ever in Arabic.

6. In speaking, a significant number of students who have no confidence to speak about what so ever in Arabic and also a significant number of those who could not asked question orally, in Arabic, about subjects that they have previously learned in Arabic. Moreover, the majority of the students could not discuss orally, in Arabic, . . . topics that they have already known them very well.



### 5.6.3 The Program Achievements

#### a. Students' Benefits from the Program

The percentages of students who describe the contributions of the current Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies to their standards of reading, writing listening and speaking, in Arabic, as 'so many' and as 'many' are less than 30%, while the percentages of those who describe it as 'little', 'very little' and as 'none' are more than 70% ( see table 53 ).

Table 53: The contribution of the program to students standards in Arabic

Arabic skills	so many		many		little		very little		none	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
reading	12	2.4	133	26.7	266	53.3	86	17.2	2	0.4
writing	7	1.4	105	21.0	213	42.6	150	30.0	25	5.0
listening	11	2.2	125	25.1	276	55.3	78	15.6	9	1.8
speaking	3	0.6	62	12.5	214	43.1	166	33.4	52	10.5

Furthermore, cross-tabulations of reading, writing, listening, and speaking by years of study ( see tables 54, 55, 56, and 57 ) indicate that the percentage of students in each year of studies who describe the contributions of the program to their standards of reading, writing, listening and speaking, in Arabic, as 'little' is much higher than the percentage of those who describe it as 'many'.

Table 54: Contribution in reading by years of study.

years of study	so many		many		little		very little		none	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	3	3.0	31	31.0	47	47.0	19	19.0	0	0
second	1	0.9	19	17.6	55	50.9	32	26.9	1	0.9
third	7	5.0	47	33.3	75	53.2	12	8.5	0	0
fourth	1	0.7	36	24.0	89	59.3	23	15.3	1	0.7

Table 55: Contribution in writing by years of study.

years of study	so many		many		little		very little		none	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	6	5.9	32	31.7	51	50.5	12	11.9	0	0
second	1	0.9	34	31.5	52	48.1	19	17.6	2	1.9
third	0	0	28	19.9	62	44.0	46	32.6	5	3.5
fourth	0	0	11	7.3	48	32.0	73	48.7	18	12

Table 56: Contribution in listening by years of study.

years of study	so many		many		little		very little		none	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	6	6.0	29	29.0	54	54.0	10	10.0	1	1.0
second	1	0.9	28	25.9	67	62.0	10	9.3	2	1.9
third	4	2.8	43	30.5	66	46.8	26	18.4	2	1.4
fourth	0	0	25	16.7	89	59.3	32	21.3	4	2.7

Table 57: Contribution in speaking by years of study.

years of study	so many		many		little		very little		none	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
first	3	3.0	16	16.2	60	60.6	19	19.2	1	1.0
second	0	0	29	26.6	50	46.3	25	23.1	4	3.7
third	0	0	14	10.0	60	42.9	64	45.7	12	8.6
fourth	0	0	3	2.0	44	29.3	68	45.3	35	23.3

Tables 55 and 57 show that the percentage of students from fourth year who describe the contributions of the program to their standard of writing and speaking, in Arabic, as 'very little' are even higher than the percentage of those who describe it as 'little'.

b- The Program Attainments of its Goal

The goal of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies is " to produce students with Arabic abilities that enable them to successfully conduct their own researches by referring to original Arabic sources". The students' assessment of the attainments of the program in relation to its goal shows that 63.3% of students describe the program as 'less successful' and 24.4% of them describe it as 'unsuccessful'. The percentage of those who describe the program as 'very successful' and 'successful' are only 0.8% and 10%, respectively. Cross-tabulations of program attainments by years of study also show the same patterns of results ( see table 58).

Table 58: The program attainment by years of study.

years of study	very successful		successful		less successful		unsuccessful		not sure	
	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
first	1	1.0	13	12.9	67	66.3	17	16.8	3	3.0
second	2	1.9	12	11.1	71	65.7	23	21.3	0	0
third	1	0.7	17	12.1	94	66.7	29	20.6	0	0
fourth	0	0	8	5.3	86	57.3	53	35.3	3	2.0
total	4	0.8	50	10.0	318	63.3	122	24.4	6	1.2

Similar to the patterns of the results obtained from students, the teachers' assessment regarding the program achievement of its goal shows that the percentage of teachers who describe it as 'very

successful', 'successful', 'less successful', and 'unsuccessful' are 0%, 4.2%, 77%, and 16.7%, respectively. The percentage of those who are 'not sure' about it is 2.1%.

#### 5.6.3.1 Conclusions

The achievements of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies can be summarized as follows:

- 1- The contributions of the program to Arabic standard of reading, writing, listening and speaking of the majority of students is little and insignificant.
- 2- The number of students who describe the contribution of the program to their standards of Arabic in reading, writing, listening, and speaking as very little is far greater than the number of those who described it as many.
- 3- The majority of students and teachers believe that the Arabic program in the Faculty is less successful in achieving its own stated goal.
- 4- A significant number of students and teachers believe that the program is unsuccessful in achieving its goal. The number of those who believe that the program is successful is insignificant.

## CHAPTER SIX

### DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

#### 6.1 Introduction

Three types of documents were analyzed. The first is ' Student's Guide 1990-91 ' ( Buku Panduan Pra Siswazah 1990-91). This document contains statements about goal, objectives, courses and courses' contents of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies.

The second type of the documents is Arabic teaching materials used in teaching Arabic courses, particularly, in the second semester of academic session 1990-91 ( see Figure 22 ).

Figure 22: Teaching materials and Arabic courses.

Arabic courses	teaching materials
Arabic I (PZ 1952)	ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية - العربية للناشئين الجزء الرابع
Arabic II (PZ 1942)	ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية - العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس
Arabic IV (PZ 2922)	- ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية النصوص المختارة للصف الأول اللغة العربية للصف الثاني ، البلاغة
Arabic V (PZ 3912)	unnamed teachers notes ( منكرات )

The four Arabic courses listed in Figure 22 are compulsory. Another Arabic compulsory course which was not on offer in that semester is Arabic III (PZ 2932). The teaching materials normally used for the teaching of this course are those used in the teaching of Arabic IV. However, the contents of the both courses are different.

In addition to these, there are two substitutional Arabic courses taught in the Faculty ( i.e. Arabic VI (PV3913) and Arabic VII (PV3923) ). Only those who are exempted from taking two of English courses are required to take these two Arabic courses. The teaching

materials used for these courses were not analyzed because this study focuses mainly on the five compulsory courses. Moreover, there were difficulties in getting materials used for the courses. Firstly, these two courses were only recently introduced in the Faculty and secondly, their teaching is administered by five different departments in the Faculty. Each department selects, based on the syllabus guides, materials which contain different topics or subjects for the courses. Nevertheless, the description of the content of these two courses can be found in the analysis of ' Students' Guide 1990-91 '. In addition, a sample of an examination paper for Arabic VI used with students from the Department of Arabic Studies and Islamic Civilization is also included in this analysis.

The final type of the documents are examination papers for different Arabic courses, (i.e. Arabic I, II, III, IV, V, and Arabic VI ).

## **6.2 Purposes and Techniques.**

Document analysis in this research aims at (1) the description of goal and objectives of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies, (2) the description of the content of the courses in the program and (3) the description of teaching methodology or methodologies dictated by the program. In addition, the analysis aims at demonstrating the relationship between the materials and the relationship between the courses.

The analysis was carried out by means of lists of questions derived from principles in SL and FL syllabus design ( see, The Design of SL program Objectives pp. 40-53, Language Syllabuses and Teaching

Methodologies, pp. 54-85, and also, Cunningsworth, 1989 ). The lists of these questions are as follows:

a- goal and objectives.

- 1- what are the goals and objectives of the program?
- 2- what type of objectives are they?
- 3- In what way the objectives are stated?
- 4- how are the objectives stated?

b- syllabus content.

- 1- what aspects of the language system are taught?
- 2- what kind of Arabic is taught?
- 3- what language skills are taught?
- 4- on what bases is the content selected?
- 5- how is the content organized?

c- teaching methodologies.

- 1- what are the underlying characteristics of the approach to language teaching?
- 2- Is the learning process assumed to be inductive, or deductive or both?
- 3- how are the new language items presented?
- 4- what types of language practices and production are used?

### 6.3 Implications and Limitations of the Results

The implications and the limitations of the use of the results obtained by means of this analysis can be outlined as follows:

- 1- The analysis provides descriptions of the goals, objectives, courses and courses' content of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. In addition, it describes the teaching methodologies dictated by the program and demonstrates the relationships between goals, objectives, syllabus content and teaching methodologies, the relationships between different Arabic courses, and the relationships between different documents.

2- The various descriptions mentioned above are based wholly on the available documents. Thus, these descriptions reflect more about the potential aspects of the program than the actual aspects of the program. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the results obtained from document analysis together with the results obtained from classroom observation and interviews in order to get a clear picture of the program.

#### 6.4 Results

Document analysis can be presented under three headings: the goals and objectives, the syllabus content, and the teaching methodologies.

##### 6.4.1 Goals and Objectives.

The statement of goal and objectives of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies is found in 'Student's Guide 1990-91' ( Fakulti Pengajian Islam 1990-91 ). According to this document, the goal of the program is ' to produce students with Arabic abilities that enable them to successfully conduct their own research by referring to original Arabic sources '. To achieve this goal, seven Arabic courses are offered by the Faculty ( see p. 168 ).

In the syllabuses of these courses, objectives of each course are set in terms of teacher's behaviors and in terms of contents or subjects matter. That is to say, the objectives are stated with reference to what teacher should do and what is to be taught or learned. The statement of objectives does not include any indication whatsoever to what students should be able to do at the end of the course. To illustrate the points made here, the following are translations of



objectives of four of the Arabic courses offered by the Faculty  
( Fakulti Pengajian Islam 1990-91 ).

i- Arabic I (PZ1952)

'This course is aimed at training students to comprehend Arabic texts and to teach them the following grammatical topics:

الجملة الإسمية ، الجملة العنقودية ، المعرب والمبني ، علامة الإعراب  
الأصلية والفرعية ، الأسماء الستة ، إعراب المثني وجمع المذكر السالم والمؤنث السالم  
النكرة والمعرفة ، اسم الإشارة ، اسم الموصول ، أوزان الثلاثي والرابعي والخماسي والسداسي

In addition, this course will also cover selected texts from the Qur'an, Hadith and Arabic poetry.

ii- Arabic III (PZ2932)

'This course is the continuation of Arabic II. This course is aimed at training students to comprehend selected Arabic texts and to teach them the following grammatical topics:

المفعول المطلق  
المفعول فيه ، المفعول له ، النعت ، الإضافة ، الاستثناء ، الحال ، التمييز  
حكم الأفعال عند إسنادها إلى الضمائر ، إعراب الفعل المضارع ، عوامل الجزم والنصب  
تنثية الاسم وجمعه

This course will introduce students with ' أسلوب التشبيه ' and its types. Furthermore, this course will study selected texts from the Qur'an, Hadith and Arabic poetry. Finally, this course will translate portions of selected articles from Arabic into Malay and vice versa, orally and in writing.'

iii- Arabic V (PZ3912)

' This course will study the following topics:

- i- المحسنات ، الجناس ، الطباق ، المقابلة ، أسلوب المدح والذم
- ii- التعريف بالمعاجم العربية
- iii- الأعداد

iv- selected texts of Arabic poems and prose from early Islamic period and Umayyad period.

In addition, students will also be trained to summarize Arabic texts '

iv- Arabic VII (PV3923)

' This course is aimed at providing students with more skills in using classical Islamic sources while improving their Arabic abilities. This aim will be achieved by training students to read and to comprehend Arabic classical texts from various aspects of Islamic disciplines such as العقيدة - الفقه - الحديث - الحضارة الإسلامية - الرئاسة

It is observed from the above illustrations and from the syllabuses of three other Arabic courses that the objectives of these courses can be categorized as illustrated in Figure 23 below.

Figure 23: Categories of objectives for Arabic courses in the Faculty.

courses' objectives	Arabic courses in the Faculty						
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
i- teaching grammar and morphology.	y	y	y	y	y	n	n
ii- teaching rhetorical rules.	n	n	y	y	y	n	n
iii- studying texts from Qur'an, Hadith, and poetry.	y	y	y	y	n	n	n
iv- studying Islamic classical text from various Islamic disciplines.	n	n	n	n	n	y	y
v- translating Arabic texts into Malay and vice versa.	n	n	y	y	n	n	n
vi- writing essays in Arabic	n	n	n	y	n	n	n
vii- summary exercises	n	n	n	n	y	n	n
viii- Introducing Arabic lexicography.	n	n	n	n	y	n	n
ix- teaching selected poems and prose from early Islamic and Umayyad periods	n	n	n	n	y	n	n

y= yes. n= no.

The above descriptions of the objectives are based entirely on what is written in 'Students' Guides 1990-91'. Examination of teaching materials and samples of examinations papers of those Arabic courses, however, show that while not all of the objectives listed in Figure 23 above are found in those documents, there are categories of other objectives found in those documents. In addition, the way the statements of the other categories of objectives are made is

different from the way the statements of objectives in 'Students' Guides 1990-91 'are made.

There is no indication for ' studying texts from Qur'an, Hadith and poems ' in materials and examination papers for Arabic I and II, there is no indication for ' writing essays in Arabic ' in the relevant materials for Arabic IV, and there are no indications for ' summary exercises ' and ' teaching selected poems...' in the relevant materials for Arabic V. In Arabic III and IV translation is focused only on translating Arabic text into Malay and not the reverse.

There are also found lists of other objectives from 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah li n-nāshī'īn, 'al-juz' ur-rābi<sup>C</sup>, and from 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah li n-nāshī'īn, 'al-juz' ul-khāmis which are used in teaching Arabic I and II, respectively. These objectives are classified into six categories namely:

- 1- listening and speaking abilities ( فهم السمع والتعبير الشفهي ).
- 2- reading ( القراءة ).
- 3- summary ( التلخيص ).
- 4- writing ( التعبير التحريري ).
- 5- vocabulary and language usage ( المفردات والاستعمال اللغوي ).
- 6- grammar ( قواعد )

Each of these objectives contains detailed descriptions made in terms of learners behavior. However, the statements which describe these objectives do not indicate conditions under which the learner will perform. Moreover, the standards of the target behaviors, which indicate how well the learner is to perform, are vaguely described. Below are examples of the statements of objectives taken from

⋮

'al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah li n-nāshī'īn, 'al-juz' ul-khāmīs currently used in teaching Arabic II.

a- listening and speaking abilities.

- 1- an ability to give answers to questions which require concise and complete answers.
- 2- an ability to ask questions and to discuss by means of questions which require concise and complete answers.
- 3- an ability to express oneself, orally, by using many of those basic Arabic expressions.
- 4- an ability to retrieve and to summarize text orally, after listening and reading it few times.
- 5- an ability to speak, for a period between five to ten minutes, about topics which have been studied or about everyday topics that relevant to students life, with or without preparation.

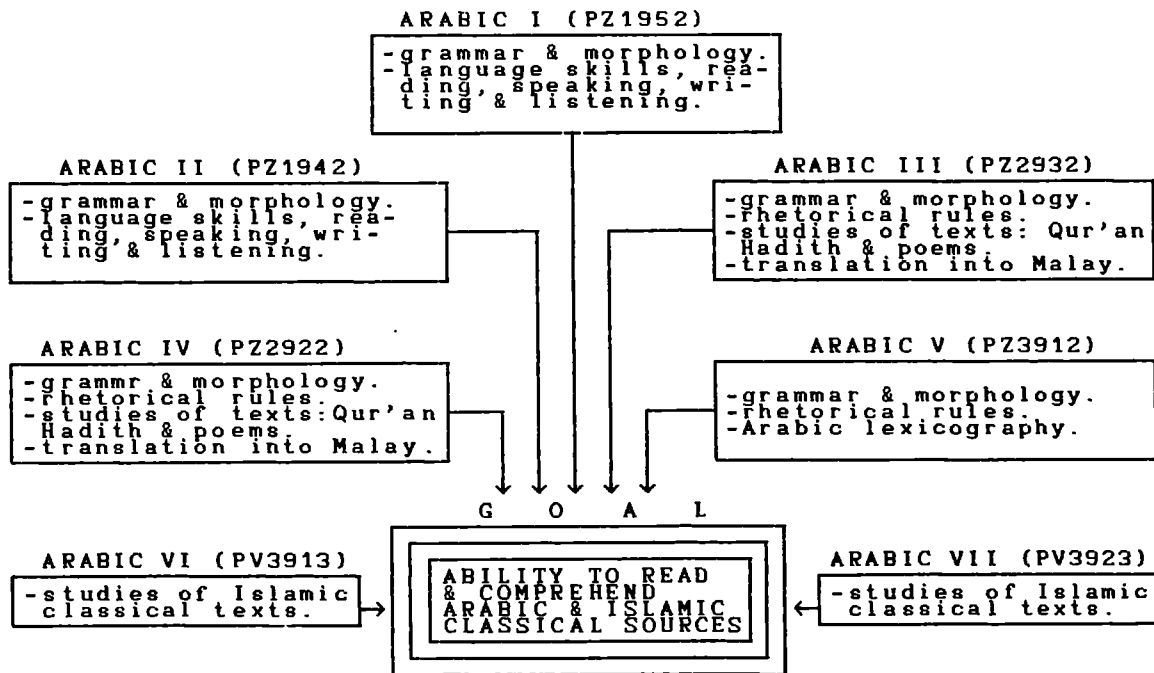
( Sīniy, <sup>c</sup>Abd ul-<sup>c</sup>Azīz, and Husain, 1983 )

The descriptions of objectives of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies can be summarized as follows:

Firstly, the statements of objectives written in the available documents are made in three terms. The first and the second are 'teachers behavior' and 'content' or 'subject', respectively. In either terms, the question of what the learners are to achieve at the end of a course or courses is not clear. The final term is 'learners behaviors'. The statements of objectives written in this term do indicate the learners terminal behaviors. However, these statements do not indicate conditions under which learners are to perform. Moreover, the descriptions of standard behavior in these statements are too general. An accurate specification of conditions and standards are two important ingredients in objectives setting ( see, The Design of SL Program Objectives, pp. 52-61 ).

Finally, the goal of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies which can be succinctly describes as ' ability to read and to comprehend Arabic and Islamic classical sources' is pursued by various sets of objectives found in seven different Arabic courses ( see Figure 24 ).

Figure 24 : The relationship between different Arabic courses, objectives and goal.



#### 6.4.2 Syllabus Content

The content of syllabuses of Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies can be categorized into the following three categories:

- 1- Arabic rules: grammatical, morphological and rhetorical rules of Arabic.
- 2- Arabic skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening.
- 3- Texts studies: different texts from Qur'an, Hadīth, Arabic poems and prose, and texts from various aspects of Islamic disciplines such as <sup>C</sup>aqīdah, 'usūl ul-fiqh, at-tafsīr, 'al-hadārat ul-'islāmiyyah and the study of Arabic lexicography.

Grammatical and morphological rules are taught in all five Arabic compulsory courses. These rules are the main components of the first four of the courses. In Arabic V, however, only rules under the topic of 'al-'a<sup>C</sup>dād ( الأعداد ) are taught.

The criteria used in selecting grammatical and morphological topics to be taught throughout different courses are not clear. What is clear, however, is that the course designer, by his own individual taste and judgment, has chosen those selected topics from Arabic grammar books ( see pp. 171-175).

Similar to the selection of grammatical and morphological content, the grading and the sequence of these contents within one course and between different courses, in general, do not reflect levels of complexities and difficulties of contents and courses. The grading and the sequence of grammatical and morphological content within one course and between different courses are almost identical to the treatment of such contents in *mulakhkhaṣ qawā'id il-'arabiyyah* which is currently used in teaching grammar and morphology for all Arabic courses.

Mulakhkhas... is a grammar book. Therefore, like other Arabic grammar books, it organizes its content virtually in terms of grammatical and morphological topics such as **المبتدأ والخبر ، الفاعل ، المفعول ، الإضافة ...**

و نائب الفاعل ، كان وأخواتها ، إن وأخواتها ، النعت ، البدل ، حروف الجر ، الإضافة ... and so on<sup>and</sup> so forth. Topics are, thus, ordered linearly as analyzed language items not as units for language teaching or learning.

Rhetorical rules are taught in Arabic III, IV, and particularly Arabic V. Some of the rhetorical topics are selected from classical rhetorical books such as 'asrar ul-balaghah ( **أسرار البلاغة** ), and jamharat ul-balaghah ( **جمهرة البلاغة** ) and distributed in the three Arabic courses mentioned above. However, similar to the case of grammar and morphology, the criteria used in selecting rhetorical topics is also unclear. The selected topics, namely **المحسنات ، الجناس**

**، الطباق ، المقابلة ،** and **أسلوب المدح والنم** , are those familiar Arabic rhetorical topics which are normally taught in the teaching and learning of Arabic rhetoric.

Similar to the grading of grammar and morphology, the grading of the selected rhetorical topics does not consistently reflect levels of the complexity of the topics. The order of those topics within one and in different courses simply follows the way such topics are normally introduced in Arabic rhetorical books.

The teaching of skills is focused on only in Arabic I and II. This is projected by the materials used in the teaching of the two courses rather by the syllabuses designed for them ( see Goals and Objectives, pp. 171- 176 ). The materials used for teaching Arabic I and II, other than mulakhkhas., which is used for teaching grammar and morphology, are 'al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshi'īn, vol. 4

and 'al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah li n-nāshi'īn, vol. 5, respectively.

The two textbooks mentioned are designed for teaching and training foreign students with Arabic skills ( i.e. speaking, reading, writing and listening ). The first book focuses on speaking and writing more than other skills, while the second book emphasizes reading more than the others.

The textbook used for Arabic I contains five sections, each of which includes six units of lessons. The first five units of each section are used to gradually present new lessons while the sixth units of the sections are used to revise lessons already introduced in the first five units. The lessons in this textbook are introduced by means of 25 written texts, 18 of which are reading texts, 6 are dialogues and one is simulation text. Furthermore, each text is followed by sixteen exercises which are aimed at different types of objectives. The exercises can be grouped into five types as follows:

- 1- grammatical drills ( تدريبات نحوية ).
- 2- meaning exercises ( تدريبات دلالية ).
- 3- communicative and speaking exercises ( تدريبات اتصالية وتعبيرية ).
- 4- comprehension exercises ( تدريبات استيعابية ).
- 5- writing exercises ( تدريبات كتابية ).

The selection of materials used in this textbook is based on what is covered in the previous series of 'al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah li n-nāshi'īn (i.e. volumes, I, II, and III, which are not used in the program ). Furthermore, the texts which are used in the textbook are selected from topics which are relevant to Islamic life and culture.

'Al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah li n-nāshi'īn, vol. 4, is aimed at upgrading the standard of Arabic of students who have already covered the earlier volumes of the book. The written texts and the exercises



in the book are graded and introduced gradually in terms of their complexity and difficulty.

With regards to 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah... Vol. 5' which is used for teaching Arabic II, the book, similar to the previous one, also contains five sections which includes six units of lessons for each of them. However, in this book, each unit is introduced by a reading passage. The reading passages which introduce the first five units of each section are used for intensive reading while the passages which introduce the sixth units of each section are used for extensive reading.

The book also contains five types of exercises in each unit. These exercises are:

- i- comprehension ( الاستيعاب و الفهم ).
- ii- speaking and writing ( التعبير ).
- iii- vocabulary and language usage ( المفردات والتعبيرات )
- iv- language structure ( التراكيب ).
- v- grammar ( قواعد النحو ).

The 30 reading passages used in the book are selected from various topics such as Islamic culture ( الثقافة الإسلامية ), social and school life ( الموضوعات الاجتماعية والمدرسية ), modern literature ( الموضوعات الأدبية ), and muslim biographies ( الشخصيات الإسلامية ). The passages are graded and introduced according to length, complexity of language and structures, and depth of the coverage of topic. The exercises are also graded in terms of their complexities from simple to more complex exercises.

Finally, the texts can be classified into three types. Firstly, selected texts from the Qur'an, Hadith, and Arabic poems and prose. This type is used in Arabic III and IV. Secondly, selected Arabic

texts from various aspects of Islamic disciplines such as Islamic theology and Islamic civilization. This type is used in Arabic VI and VII. Finally, Arabic lexicography which is in Arabic V.

The study of Arabic lexicography is not a language study. Its aim is to provide students with knowledge about this subject as well as to train them to use some of the important Arabic dictionaries such as 'al-munjid ( المنجد ) 'al-mu<sup>c</sup>jam ul-wasīt ( المعجم الوسيط ) and lisān ul-<sup>c</sup>arab ( لسان العرب ). Thus, the content of this study includes topics such as follows:

- Introduction to Arabic dictionaries ( التعريف بالمعاجم العربية ).
- The functions of dictionaries ( وظائف المعجم ).
- Types of Arabic dictionaries ( أنواع المعاجم العربية ).
- 'Al- munjid, content and its organization ( المنجد ماياته ونظامه ).

As for texts in Arabic III and IV, they are selected randomly from the Qur'an, Hadith, and from modern Arabic poems and prose. The texts are ungraded; they are only grouped into texts types. For example, the following is the content of 'an-nuṣūṣ ul-mukhtārah, li ṣ-ṣaff il'awwal, which is used for Arabic IV.

- The holy Qur'an ( القرآن الكريم ).
  - i- وحدانية الله
  - ii- طريق السعادة
  - iii- نصائح و عظات
- Hadith of the prophet ( الأحاديث النبوية ).
  - i- من الهدى النبوي
  - ii- بعض الأدعية المختارة
  - iii- طريق السعادة - خطبة للرسول عليه الصلاة والسلام
- Arabic poems ( الشعر العربي ).
  - i- العلم في الإسلام
  - ii- مسلمون

- Arabic prose ( النثر العربي ).

i- مع الحياة

ii- واجب الشباب المسلم

The book also contains sections which explain the meaning of vocabulary or phrases. Furthermore, each unit has a section which explains the main contents and another section which contains comprehension questions. The comprehension questions for each text, however, are not graded from simple to more complex. For example, the following is a lists of comprehension questions for waḥdāniyyat ul-lah ( وحدانية الله ), the first topic in 'an-nuṣuṣ ul-mukhtārah li ṣ-ṣaff il-'awwal used in Arabic IV.

- i- لما خص الله سبحانه ( الخيل و البغال و الحمير ) بعد أن قال تعالى ( و الأنعام خلقها لكم فيها دماء و منافع و منها تأكلون ) ؟
- ii- لماذا خص الجمال بوقت عودة الأنعام في مرعاها وقت خروجها إلى المرعى ؟
- iii- وجه : كيف يكون تسخير الليل و النهار و الشمس و القمر ؟ و ما القائدة التي تعود علينا من هذا التسخير ؟
- iv- سخر الله لنا البحر ، فما الفوائد التي تعود علينا منه ؟
- v- ما الحكمة في أن الله جعل في الأرض رواسي ؟
- vi- ما معنى المراد من السقاهم في قوله تعالى ( أفمن يخلق كمن لا يخلق أفلا تذكرون ) ؟

As for the texts which are taught in Arabic VI and VII, they are classical Arabic texts selected from various Islamic disciplines. In Arabic VI the texts are selected from disciplines such as follows:

- فلسفة الإسلام
- أصول الفقه
- تفسير
- سيرة الرسول
- الدعوة

and in Arabic VII, they are selected from:

- العقيدة

- الفقه
- الحديث
- الحضارة الإسلامية
- الرئاسة

As for grading, these texts are virtually ungraded but merely grouped in terms of subject matters.

The contents of Arabic syllabuses in the Faculty of Islamic Studies can be summarized as follows:

Firstly, there are three distinct types of contents found in the program: rules, skills and texts which include, mostly, classical texts and also a small portion of modern texts. In addition, there is also a purely subject matter content in Arabic V (i.e. lexicography).

Secondly, The three types of contents mentioned above are distributed in seven different Arabic courses. Arabic I and II contain rules (i.e. grammar and morphology) and skills. The content for teaching skills in Arabic I emphasizes teaching speaking and writing more than listening and reading while the same type of content in Arabic II emphasizes reading more than the other skills.

Arabic III, IV and V contain rules (i.e. grammar, morphology and rhetoric ), selected texts from Qur'an, Hadith, poems and prose. Finally, Arabic VI and VII contain classical texts from various Islamic disciplines.

The selection of grammatical, morphological, rhetorical and textual content of the courses is based on designer's personal taste and tradition. The organization of the content within one and different courses is also made on the same bases. Thus, the various courses offered by the Faculty do not reflect differences in standard or level in Arabic but merely different contents.

In contrast, however, there are parts of the contents of Arabic I and II which reflect the difference in standard of Arabic. The selection and the organization of the content for teaching different skills in both courses are made on the basis of what has been previously taught as well as on the basis of the complexity and the difficulty of the content selected.

### 6.4.3 The Teaching Methodologies

Based on the contents of the courses and the teaching materials used in the Arabic program (see, Goals and Objectives, pp. 171-176 and Syllabus Content, pp. 177-184 ), the description of the teaching methodologies dictated by the program can be presented under three main headings: the teaching of rules ( i.e. grammar, morphology and rhetoric), the teaching of skills and the teaching of texts.

#### a- The Teaching of Arabic Rules

There are three types of rules taught in the program: grammar, morphology and rhetoric. The teaching of grammar and morphology in the relevant courses are carried out by using, mostly, *Mulakhkhas*...and also the two volumes of 'al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshī'īn namely, 4 and 5, for some of the grammatical and morphological content of Arabic I and II.

*Mulakhkhas*..., as its name indicates, is a concise grammar book. Thus, like other Arabic grammar books, it presents language in the form of analytical items together with definitions and explanations of those language items. The presentation of language items in *Mulakhkhas*...dictates only and purely cognitive approach in teaching and learning. The rules are presented explicitly and deductively by means of definitions, isolated examples and other explicit explanations. The way in which language is presented in *Mulakhkhas* and the methodology dictated by this book can be observed from the summary of the presentation of some of the rules of 'al-mubtada' ( **المبتدأ** ) in that book as below.

المبتدأ اسم مرفوع يقترن في أول الجملة ، مثل ( الذهب معدن ) ... المبتدأ يكون : اسما معربا كما في الأمثلة السابقة أو اسما مبنيًا أو مصدرا مؤولا من أن والفعل المبتدأ يأتي دائما في أول الجملة غير أنه ... الأصل في المبتدأ أن يكون معرفة ... وقد يقع المبتدأ نكرة في الحالات الآتية ... يحذف عادة المبتدأ من العناوين ، ويحذف أيضا إذا كان الخبر مصدرا نائبا عن فعله ... قد يتأخر المبتدأ عن الخبر ...

(from Ni<sup>C</sup>mah, undated, pp.27-29).

Unlike Mulakhkhas, both volumes of 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah... contain not only rules but also structure. Structures are graded and presented gradually in the books by means of various types of simplified texts ( see, Syllabus Contents pp. 177 -184 ). In addition, the books also contain various types of controlled exercises for practicing the new structures presented. In the teacher's books, teachers are requested to do the exercises by asking individual students and also group of students to do them orally in the classroom ('al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshi'īn, kitāb ul-mu<sup>C</sup>allim, volumes 4 and 5). Thus, this would suggest that the books adapt a behaviorist approach in teaching structures.

Grammatical and morphological rules are presented at the end of each unit. The rules are derived from the structures presented and practiced earlier in the unit. The presentation of new rules is carried out by means of isolated examples taken from the text introduced earlier in the unit. However, in the teacher's books, it is maintained that teachers should use an inductive approach in teaching the rules.

Following the examples, there are a brief explanations of the rules. Unlike Mulakhkhas, the rules which are introduced in the both volumes of 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah...are confined to those basic and fundamental grammatical and morphological rules only. Moreover, rules are also accompanied by drills and exercises.

Rhetorical rules are the last type of rules taught in the program. The content and organization in 'al-lughat ul-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu..., a rhetorical textbook used in Arabic IV, suggest a purely subject matter study. The book aims at imparting knowledge about rhetoric to the learners. This objective is indicated clearly by the types of questions at the end of each topic. The following are examples of questions in 'al-majaz ( المجاز ).

- ١ - عرف الحقيقة اللغوية و اذكر أقسامها مع الشرح و التمثيل؟
- ٢ - عرف المجاز اللغوي و اذكر أقسامه مع الشرح و التمثيل؟
- ٣ - عرف المجاز المرسل ثم وضع الفرق بينه و بين الاستعارة
- ٤ - للمجاز المرسل علاقات متعددة اذكر ثلاثا من هذا العلاقات مع توضيح إجابتك بالأمثلة؟
- ٥ - بين المجاز المرسل و علاقته فيما يلي؟
- ٦ - من علاقات المجاز المرسل ( الجزئية ) وضع هذه العلاقة ثم اذكر شروطها؟

( From a'l-lughat ul-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah...'al-balaghah p. 11).

The content of a rhetorical topic in the book which includes definitions, examples, examples analysis, classification etc. dictates only an explicit and deductive approaches in teaching. Furthermore, the complexity of the subject and its content perhaps, requires an extensive use of translation in teaching.

#### b- The Teaching of Arabic Skills

The teaching of skills in the program is carried out by using books 4 and 5 of 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshī'īn. Both books adopt a mixture of various techniques and methods in teaching different skills.



Based on the content of learners books and also on the teacher's instructions in teacher's books, the description of techniques and methods of teaching skills adopted by the books can be made as follows:

Firstly, both volumes of 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah, particularly book 5, contain some features of the Reading Method. This is indicated by the fact that book 4 uses 16 reading passages to introduce 16 out of 25 units, while book 5 introduces each unit with a reading passage. Moreover, in book 5, it is stated that the reading passages aim at intensive as well as extensive reading. It is also stated in both books that developing ability in silent reading as well as reading aloud are among the objectives.

Secondly, the books, particularly book 4, contains features of the Audio-Lingual approach in language teaching. This is indicated by the use pictures in both books, and dialogues in book 4. In the teacher's book, teachers are advised to use audio as well as visual instruments such as objects, cards, the overhead projector, and tapes in their teaching. Moreover, techniques and procedures suggested by the teacher's books for teaching a reading passage are those of Audio-Lingual techniques and procedures. The techniques and procedures suggested by the books in teaching a reading passage begin with listening to the tape or teacher's reading with the books closed, followed by direct comprehension questions, silent reading, other comprehension questions, and reading aloud by individual and groups of learners. Verbal repetition of texts and as well as structures, which is also found in the books, is a distinct feature of the Audio-Lingual Method.

Thirdly, in addition to the features of two distinct methods explained above, the books also adapt some Direct Method techniques in teaching. This is suggested by the fact that, in the teacher's books, teachers are asked to refrain from using translation except in extreme circumstances. Instead of translation, teachers are asked to use other explanatory methods such as using objects and physical movements.

Finally, there are also some communicative activities in the books. Prior to reading any passages in the books, teachers are advised to ask questions relevant to the passages to stimulate oral production. In book 5, there are activities which give learners opportunities to express themselves freely within specified topics, in speaking and writing.

In addition to the various features mentioned above, the books also contain explicit explanations of rules at the end of each unit. Explicit rules explanation is a peculiar technique of the Grammar-Translation Method.

It can be concluded that the series of 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu... adopts an eclectic Approach in teaching skills. The eclectic Approach adopted by the books combines different techniques and procedures from various types of methods in language teaching. However, it must be noted that most of the techniques and procedures adopted by the books are those which characterize traditional language teaching methods ( i.e. the Reading Method, the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, and the Direct Method).

### c- The Teaching of Arabic Texts

Based on the types of texts taught in the program, the description of the teaching methodologies dictated by the relevant documents are as follows ( see Introduction, p. 168 and Syllabus Contents,pp. 177 -184 ):

Firstly, the teaching of selected texts from the Qur'an, Hadith, and poems and prose in Arabic III and IV. In the teaching of this type of texts, the content of 'a-nusus ul-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah... which is used for Arabic IV indicates that the texts are intended for extensive rather than intensive reading. This is demonstrated by the fact that some of the texts are very long and also by the fact that each text is accompanied by only one type of exercise namely, comprehension questions. The absence of any pedagogical relationship between different texts in the book also suggests that the objective of teaching and learning of those texts is purely subject matter ( i.e. to understand the content of the texts ).

However, the book also focuses on teaching vocabulary and phrases. Vocabulary and phrases in the book are explained explicitly by means of synonyms, antonyms and sentences. Nevertheless, the teaching of vocabulary and phrases in the book is aimed only at helping students to understand the texts.

In addition to the techniques of teaching mentioned above, the types of questions contained in the samples of examination papers for the both courses also indicate that translation and reading aloud are two other techniques used in teaching texts. In the examinations, students are required to translate the texts into Malay and to vowel the texts.

Secondly, the teaching of the selected classical texts from the various aspects of Islamic disciplines in Arabic VI and VII. The teaching techniques and the focus of teaching this type of texts are similar to those which are associated with the teaching of texts from Qur'an and Hadith.

In addition, there is a traditional focus on the technique used in the teaching of texts in Arabic VI and VII. A sample examination paper from Arabic VI indicates that teachers concentrate on analyzing Arabic pronouns (الضمائر ومراجع الضمائر) in their teaching. The teaching of Arabic which focus on analyzing pronouns in the text is a remnant of the traditional techniques normally used by Islamic traditional teachers in Malaysia. In relation to this, it must be noted that the teachers who currently teach Arabic VI and VII, are not Arabic teachers. They are lecturers in other Islamic disciplines and are primarily the products of the local and Middle Eastern traditional approach in teaching Islamic disciplines.

## 6.5 Conclusions

The goal and objectives, the syllabus content and the teaching methodologies of the program can be summarized as follows:

1- The goal of the Arabic program in the Faculty is to enable students to read and comprehend Islamic classical sources written in Arabic. This goal is pursued by different sets of objectives which are spread through the content of seven Arabic courses.

2- There are three main objectives pursued by seven Arabic courses. These are (1) to impart grammatical, morphological and rhetorical knowledge to the learners, (2) to expose the learners to, mostly, classical and also modern Arabic texts from various types of Islamic disciplines, and (3) to teach the four language skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing.

The organization of the first and the second objectives within one and in different courses does not reflect different levels of objectives or courses. The organization of the third objective above reflects different levels and also different focuses of the objectives and courses.

The objectives of the different skills set for Arabic I are lower in standard than those which are set for Arabic II. The set of objectives in Arabic I emphasizes speaking and writing more than reading and listening, while the set of objectives in Arabic II emphasizes on reading more than other skills.

3- The statement of objectives of different courses are made in terms of teacher's behavior, content or subject and learner's behavior. The statement of objectives for the studies of Arabic rules and the study of Arabic texts are made in terms of teachers' behavior and content. The statements of objectives for teaching skills are made in terms of learners' behaviors.

The objectives which are stated in terms of teachers' behavior and language content do not make any reference to what learners should be able to do after following the course. In contrast, the objectives which are made in terms of learners behavior do indicate the learners target behaviors. However, the conditions in which learners are to perform are not stated in the

statements, while the definition of standards of behaviors in the statement are very general.

4- Similar to the objectives, there are three main types of contents: the content for teaching rules, the content for teaching texts and the content for teaching skills.

The content for rules, namely grammar, morphology and rhetoric, are selected from topics which are normally found in Arabic grammar, morphology and rhetoric books. The selection of these type of contents seems to be based on the course designer personal taste. Furthermore, the organization of the selected rules within one and in different courses does not reflect different levels or standards of rules but simply follows the way in which such rules are ordered in Arabic grammar, morphology and rhetoric books.

The contents for teaching texts are also selected and organized according to course designer's individual taste. Thus, different texts and courses indicate only the differences in content but not in standard or level of texts or courses. The content for teaching skills is selected and organized on the basis of what has been introduced in the earlier books of 'al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nashi'in and also on the basis of the complexity of the selected content. Thus, the content for teaching skills which is given in Arabic I are lower in standard by comparison with the content given in Arabic II.

5- The available teaching documents suggest that the teaching of Arabic in the program follows the Grammar-Translation Method and also by an eclectic Approach. Grammar-translation Method is used in the teaching of rules namely, grammar, morphology and rhetoric and also in the teaching texts, while an eclectic Approach is used in the teaching the four skills.

The relevant materials for teaching rules and texts suggest that rules and texts should be taught explicitly and deductively. Thus, rules is to be taught by means of definitions, isolated examples and direct explanations and texts are to be taught by direct explanation including translation. Hence, the focuses of teaching rules are terminologies and language analysis and the focuses of teaching texts are texts' comprehension and

translation. In addition, the teaching of texts by non-Arabic teachers in the Faculty was also carried out by means of a traditional Arabic teaching method which focuses on vowing the texts (التشكيل) and analyzing Arabic pronouns in the texts (الضمائر ومراجع الضمائر).

As for the teaching of skills, the materials used in teaching these skills suggest the use of various techniques and procedures. The techniques and procedures dictated by these materials are a mixture of techniques and procedures derived mainly from various types of structural methods namely the Reading Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Direct Method, and also the Grammar-Translation Method.

6- Despite the stated goal of the program, the document analysis of the program's objectives, the syllabus content and the teaching methodologies demonstrates that the program is projected towards many divergent aims and goals. The materials used in the program aim mainly at imparting students with knowledge about rules and about various religious and Arabic subjects rather than focusing on developing students' skills in reading Arabic texts. Moreover, irrespective of the stated goal, other Arabic skills, listening, writing and, particularly, speaking, are also emphasized in Arabic I and II.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, INTERVIEWS AND OTHER INSTRUMENTS

#### 7.1 Classroom Observation

##### 7.1.1 Purposes, Techniques and Procedures

It must be mentioned that the main purpose of classroom observations in this study is to provide a general description of teaching methodologies adopted by Arabic teachers in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. A general description of the teaching methodologies adopted in the Faculty is sufficient to evaluate the Arabic program in that Faculty. In addition, such a description would also be a modest and an appropriate objective to pursue in conducting any initial study on a program such as that of the Faculty of Islamic Studies.

The teachers and learners' behavior, both verbal and non-verbal, were observed, recorded and interpreted. The actual sequence of behavior was maintained in order to demonstrate the actual procedures followed by teachers in their teaching. However, behavioral categories were not selected and defined in advance and the recording of teachers and learners' behavior was not coded; they were explained descriptively because the purpose of the observation was to get a general picture of the teaching methodologies adopted in the Faculty, and not to evaluate certain patterns of behavior (see, e.g. Flanders, 1960, Jarvis, 1968, Clark, 1969 and Allwright, 1988 ).

The recording of teachers and learners' behavior was carried out simultaneously as the teaching was in progress and the recorded behaviors were rewritten with the aid of recorded tapes used to accompany classrooms observations ( see Problems and Limitations, p. 198 ). In addition to the teachers and learners' behavior, other



important information such as number, subject, date, time and duration of observations, classrooms environment, the topic of the lessons and the materials used in the classrooms was also observed and recorded. The teachers who accepted to be observed were consulted in person about their teaching schedules and about the lessons they had yet to teach. Then, on the basis of information gathered from the teachers, decisions about the choice of classes and lessons to be observed were made.

Although the teachers were consulted about their teaching schedules, they, however, were not told about the choice of classes and lessons to be observed until ten to thirty minutes before the teaching. However, in order to ease the tension of teachers and to ensure normality in teaching, they were advised in advance that the purpose of observation was not to evaluate their individual practice but to describe the methodologies they used in teaching. In addition, they were guaranteed confidentiality. At the end of each observation, each teacher was asked about the extent to which his or her teaching for that particular lesson differed from their previous teaching. They were also asked how satisfied they were with their own performance.

### 7.1.2 Subjects

The total number of observations was 17. They involved 11 Arabic teachers, 7 males and 4 females, teaching 19 periods of lessons for 16 hours and 50 minutes. Six teachers (B, G, M, I, Z, and N) were observed twice while 5 teachers (IM, SH, BS, D, and MAS), were observed only once. Each observation lasted between 50-60 minutes with the exception of observation number (8) which was 45 minutes, the observation (3) which<sup>is</sup> 100 minutes and the observation (16) which

was 120 minutes. The eleven teachers who were observed were full-time Arabic teachers.

There were 15 groups of students involved in the observations, 10 of which were second year students and the rest were first year students. Each group consists of 10-15 students. The groups of second year students, except group A1, who had already taken three Arabic courses, were studying Arabic IV (PZ 2922). Group A1 was repeating Arabic I (PZ1952). The groups of first year students were studying their second Arabic course in the Faculty (PZ1942) ( see Figure 25 and Appendix C).

Figure 25: Classroom Observations "subjects 'I' ".

Date	Times	Number of observations	teachers	STUDENTS		
				Years	Groups	Number
4/3/91	9:05-9:55am	one	G	Second	B1	14
	11:00-11:50am	two	D	First	A1	13
	2:00-3:40pm	three	B	Second	D4	14
5/3/91	9:05-10:00am	four	M	Second	D3	14
	11:05-12:05am	five	N	First	D1	13
	2:00-2:50pm	six	I	Second	B2	13
6/3/91	11:00-11:50am	seven	I	Second	C1	14
7/3/91	12:15-1:00pm	eight	Z	Second	E4	15
	2:05-3:00pm	nine	IM	Second	A1	10
8/3/91	2:30-3:20pm	ten	B	Second	D4	13
	4:30-5:25pm	eleven	N	First	A3	14
11/3/91	9:05-9:55am	twelve	G	Second	B1	14
	2:00-3:00pm	thirteen	M	Second	A4	14
12/3/91	3:05-3:55pm	fourteen	BS	First	D4	14
13/3/91	11:00-12:00am	fifteen	Z	Second	E2	13
	2:00-4:00pm	sixteen	MAS	Second	F4	11
14/3/91	9:10-10:00am	seventeen	SH	Second	B3	12

Three distinct Arabic lessons were observed: grammar and morphology ( النحو والصرف ), reading comprehension ( القراءة ) and Arabic rhetoric ( البلاغة ). The selection of these lessons was determined by the time at which the observations were carried out. Furthermore, the

availability of each lesson determined the number of observations ( see Figure 26 ).

Figure 26: Classroom Observations "subject 'II' " .

Teachers /Arabic courses	'TOPICS OF ARABIC LESSONS		
	Grammar & Morphology	Reading Comprehension	Arabic Rhetoric
PZ <sup>B/</sup> 2922	-	وحدانية الله ، وحدانية الله	-
BS/ PZ 1942	نائب الفاعل و بناء المجهول	تاريخ المدائن	-
D/ PZ 1942	نائب الفاعل وبناء المجهول	-	-
PZ <sup>G/</sup> 2922	النعته - النعت	-	-
PZ <sup>I/</sup> 2922	-	نصائح لقمان	القرينة
PZ <sup>IM/</sup> 1952	إسناد الضمائر	خديجة بنت خويلد	-
PZ <sup>M/</sup> 2922	-	نصائح لقمان - وحدانية الله	-
PZ <sup>MAS/</sup> 2922	-	العلم في الإسلام - مسلمون مع الحياة - واجب الشباب المسلم	-
PZ <sup>N/</sup> 1942	نائب الفاعل وبناء المجهول	عمرو ابن العاص - إبياس القاضي	-
PZ <sup>SH/</sup> 2922	-	-	المجاز المرسل
PZ <sup>Z/</sup> 2922	المقصود و المنقوص والممدود	-	الحقيقة والمجاز المرسل

### 7.1.3 Problems and Limitations

The following problems were encountered at the experimental stage of this study:

- 1- Two full-time Arabic teachers were reluctant to give their approval for observation.
- 2- Three teachers whose teaching was observed only once were reluctant to accept a second observation.
- 3- A teacher did not allow his teaching to be tape recorded.
- 4- Since each teacher had his or her own rate of progress in

completing their syllabuses, it was difficult to observe the teaching of the same lesson taught by different teachers for a satisfactory number of observations ( see Figure 26 above ).

The implications and the limitations of the use of the data obtained from classroom observations can be outlined as follow:

- 1- The data are aimed at general description of normal teaching practices of Arabic teachers of the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia. In other words, the data are used to describe how the teaching of Arabic was normally carried out by Arabic teachers in the Faculty.
- 2- Teachers' and learners' behaviors comprised in the data were not minutely coded, therefore they are not adequate or suitable to be used for pursuing other purposes such as for analyzing classroom interactions.
- 3- Teachers and learners' behaviors were not selected in advance and the recording of those behaviors was carried out by means of the researcher's own descriptions. Thus, the data are not suitable for pursuing purposes such as evaluating certain patterns of teachers or learners' behaviors, or comparing teachers practices with any particular models of teaching methodologies, or comparing two or more teaching methodologies.
- 4- The data obtained from classroom observations are only part of the whole data which describe the teaching methodologies used in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Other sources of such description can be found in documents' analysis and interviews. Thus, in order to get a full picture of the methodologies adopted by Arabic teachers in the program, all of those related data should be considered ( Chapters Five and Six ).

#### 7.1.4 Analysis

Since the data collected by means of classroom observations do not contain any numerical scores, the analysis of these data was carried out descriptively. The behavior of each teacher was summarized to show the methodology or methodologies used. The summaries of teachers practices were classified into three categories: the teaching of grammar and morphology, the teaching of reading comprehension and the teaching of Arabic rhetoric, and then compared with each other within the same category in order to highlight similarities and differences in practice between different teachers who taught the same lesson. In addition, comparison between teachers practices of the same category but from different courses was also made to show the effect of the syllabuses and teaching materials on teachers practices.

As far as learners' behaviors are concerned, the same type of previous analysis was made. The summaries and the classification of behaviors of learners followed the summaries and the classification of teachers behaviors. However, the behavior comparison between groups of learners was not emphasized unless it had significant relationships with the types of teachers practices. For example, students are found to be more active in the classroom when teachers allowed and encouraged them to respond in Malay instead of Arabic.

Finally, three essential components of classroom practice, namely: presentation, practice and production, were applied, accordingly, in describing and commenting teachers and learners behaviors (see, e.g. Cunningsworth, 1989).

### 7.1.5 Results

This section is concerned with the descriptions of and comments on the teaching methodologies used by the teachers observed. Detailed descriptions and comments about these methodologies can be found in Appendix C.

#### 7.1.5.1 Classroom Environment and Teaching Aids

Most of the classrooms observed were of relatively the same size. The maximum capacity for these rooms is about sixteen students. Each room is equipped with either a white board or a black board attached on the wall at the front of the class. A small desk and a chair are provided for teachers at the front of each of these classrooms facing about sixteen chairs with a writing board attached at the front of each of them

Most of the teachers involved in the classroom observation remained seated on their chairs for most of the time in their teaching. Similarly, most of them did not use the white or black board at all. Some of them, namely those who used white or black board in their teaching, used them very occasionally.

Tape recorders, videos and an audio language laboratory are also provided for the teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty. However, at the time the observation was carried out, none of the teachers involved in the teaching of Arabic in the Faculty had used any of them.

#### 7.1.5.2 Teaching Grammar and Morphology

The total number of classes observed for teaching Arabic grammar and morphology is seven. These involved six different teachers who were

teaching four different topics of grammar lessons from three different courses (see, figure 27 and Appendix C)

Figure 27: Teaching grammar and morphology.

TEACHERS	topics of lessons	Arabic courses	NO. OF OBSERVATIONS	teaching materials
G	النعته	Arabic IV	one & twelve	ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية
Z	المقصود و المنقوص و الممدود	Arabic IV	fifteen	ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية
BS	نائب الفاعل و بناء المجهول	Arabic II	fourteen	العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس
D			two	
N			five	
IM	إسناد الضمائر	Arabic I	nine	العربية للناشئين الجزء الرابع

a- Arabic IV (PZ2922)

The teaching of an-na<sup>c</sup>t and the description of the teaching of 'al-maqsūr wa l-manqūs wa l-mamdūd can be summarized from two teachers (G and Z) as follows:

1- Grammatical items ( i.e. definitions and rules) were presented deductively and explicitly. The teachers introduced their lessons by giving definitions and rules and then explained them, by means of examples, using both Arabic and Malay. The presentation and the explanation were read directly from the textbook.

2- Only isolated sentences and examples were used in exemplifying and explaining the rules. Furthermore, most of those examples were from the textbook. Some of those examples which were used are such as " جاء الرجل الفاضل، جاء الرجل الفاضل أخوه - القاهرة مدينة عظيمة، جاء الفتى "

" دخلت الملهى - اتكأت على العصا .

3- Grammatical terminology and sentence parsing were constantly emphasized. Examples of those grammatical terminologies are

النعته الحقيقي، النعته السببي، تابع، متبوع اسم معرب، ألف لازمة، التعتذر، الثقل

مرفوع بضمه ظاهرة، مرفوع بضمه مقدره . As for sentence's

parsing, the examples of these are ' الفاضل نعته حقيقي مرفوع بضمه

ظاهرة في آخره لأنه تابع لمتبوعه وهو الرجل for the parsing of 'الفاضل'  
الفتى فاعل مرفوع بضمه مقدره في آخره  
in 'جاء الرجل الفاضل' and 'منع من ظهورها للتعذر'  
of 'الفتى' in 'جاء الفتى'.

4- The main objectives pursued by the teachers were learners' comprehension of the definitions and rules, and their ability to reproduce definitions, rules and examples and to carry out correct and complete parsing of sentences. Thus, teacher G repeatedly explained definitions, rules and examples in both observations, while teacher Z did not only explain them but requested each of the learners to repeat definitions and sentence parsing in the classroom.

5- Both teachers spent most of the classroom periods in presenting and explaining rules. There was no free production of language on the part of learners and there was no specific time allocated for rule practice. The only form of practice was the construction of isolated examples and the repetition of rules and parsing for memorization.

6- Both teachers did not encourage learners active involvement in the classroom. The learners involvement was confined to activities such as constructing isolated examples for the given rules and reading and repeating definitions and sentence parsing for memorization.

#### b- Arabic II (PZ1942)

The teaching of nā'ib ul-fā'il wa binā' ul-majhūl can be summarized from three teachers (D, BS and N) as follows:

1- The presentation of the lesson was carried out deductively and explicitly. The lesson was introduced with definitions and rules which were then explained by means of isolated examples. In addition, though some examples of the use of rules were in the text associated with the lesson, two teachers (D, and N) did not refer to these examples when presenting the rules. One teacher (BS) introduced the rules and did ask her students to identify those related examples from the text after explaining the rules.

2- Rules, definitions and the given examples were the focus of the lesson. They were read accurately either by teachers or



students, and then explained explicitly by the teachers. Two teachers (D and N), for example, did explicitly ask their students to memorize the definitions and rules. In addition, grammatical terminology and sentence parsing were equally stressed by all teachers.

3- Some rule practice was introduced by two teachers (D and N), e.g. transforming 'active' sentences into 'passive' sentences and vice versa. However, all these practices which can be found in the textbook were too mechanical and thus, they did not allow or encourage students to produce language freely and creatively. Moreover, the objective of the teachers, regarding those practices, did not go beyond completing them. Despite this, two teachers (D and N) carried out most of the tasks required in the rules practice in the classrooms.

4- Student participation in the classrooms was a passive one. Student groups D1 and A1 spent most of their classroom periods on activities such as taking notes, listening to the teacher, and reading definitions and examples aloud to the class. Moreover, in sentences' transformation practices, both groups of students, particularly group D1, depended mostly on the teacher to provide the correct transformation of the sentences. Although there were some discussions observed from students group A1, these discussions, which were carried out both in Malay and Arabic, however, focused entirely on the comprehension of definitions and rules.

#### c- Arabic I (PZ1952)

Only one teacher (IM) taught Arabic I. He taught ten second year students who took the subject for the second time having failed it once. The teaching, or rather the practice of 'isnād uḍ-ḍamā'ir was part of his teaching which was recorded in observation number nine ( see Appendix C). From this practice, it was observed that:

1- The teacher depended entirely on the passage provided in the textbook for the practice of Arabic pronouns.

2- In guiding students to do the transformation of the passage, (i.e. to transform the passage into identical passages containing

different types of Arabic pronouns) rules were explained explicitly and grammatical terminologies and sentence parsing were constantly stressed by the teacher.

3- Most of the students needed to be guided individually in order to respond. Most of them failed to respond correctly without teacher's guidance.

### 7.1.5.3 Teaching Reading Comprehension

There were 10 classes observed for teaching reading comprehension. Six of them, (i.e. nos. 3, 4, 7, 10, 13, and 16) were in Arabic IV, three of them (i.e. nos. 5, 11 and 14) were in Arabic II, one (i.e. no. 9), was in Arabic I. Observations 5, 9, and 14, included grammar and reading comprehension

These observations involved 7 different teachers. The illustrations of the teachers who taught lessons for reading comprehension, the topics of lessons, the teaching materials, and other relevant information can be seen in Figure 28 below ( see also Appendix C).

Figure 28: Teaching reading comprehension

TEACHERS	topics of lessons	Arabic courses	NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS	teaching materials
B	وحدانية الله - وحدانية الله	IV	three & ten.	النصوص المختارة للصف الأول
M	وحدانية الله نصائح لقمان	IV	four & thirteen	النصوص المختارة للصف الأول
I	نصائح لقمان	IV	seven	النصوص المختارة ...
MAS	العلم في الإسلام مسلمون - مع الحياة - واجب الشباب المسلم	IV	sixteen	النصوص المختارة للصف الأول
N	إياس القاضي القائد عمرو ابن العاص	II	five & eleven	العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس
BS	تاريخ المدارس	II	fourteen	للناشئين الجزء الخامس
IM	خديجة بنت خويلد	I	nine	... للناشئين الجزء الرابع

a- Arabic IV (PZ2922)

The practices of the four teachers ( see Figure 28 above ) in teaching Arabic texts can be described as follows:

- 1- Texts, including summaries of the content and comprehension questions, were read aloud by teachers and students, except one teacher (I) who only himself read the text, and then explained it in detail to the students. While reading the texts, language accuracy which focuses on correct articulation of consonants and on correct pronunciation of words including vowel endings constantly maintained and stressed by all teachers. Consequently, rules and parsing were frequently reminded and explained by the teachers.
- 2- Silent reading was not used by anyone of the teachers and students were frequently asked direct questions such as 'fahimtum?' immediately after texts were explained.
- 3- Texts were explicitly explained by the teachers. Some teachers (MAS and B) explained the texts firstly in Arabic and then in Malay, one teacher (M) explained them in Arabic only while another teacher (I) explained them mostly in Malay. The explanation and the translation of the texts was carried out paragraph by paragraph and in case of one teacher (MAS) sentence by sentence.
- 4- Different methods were used in explaining word meaning. Some teachers (B and MAS) used synonyms, antonyms and translation, one teacher (M) refrained from using translation and used other means such as synonyms, antonyms and explanation in the target language, while another teacher (M) mainly used translation.
- 5- The discussion of comprehension questions and answers was carried out orally. Teachers, however, carried out most of the tasks required in answering these questions. Two teachers (MAS and B) did not only explain the questions and gave the answers but also translated them into Malay. Moreover, one teacher (B) wrote the answers on white board for students to copy. Another teacher (M) guided students to provide the correct answers in Arabic but mostly failed to get them respond correctly; he

finally explained the answers orally in Arabic only. One teacher (I) was successful in getting students to provide the correct answers in Malay.

6- The teachers presented only those questions which were provided by the textbook. None of the teachers provided his own questions which could possibly and gradually be used to lead students to answer the given questions.

7- Most of the students, except students in group C1 whose teacher allowed and encouraged them to discuss the text in Malay, were inactive and dependent on their teachers. Apart from enquiring about the meaning of difficult words, phrases and sentences, and providing answers with teachers help, most of their activities took the form of listening to the teacher, taking notes, copying the answers and reading aloud.

b- Arabic II (PZ1942) and Arabic I (PZ1952)

The teaching of reading comprehension by teachers N, BS, and IM can be described in summary as follows:

1- Texts including comprehension questions were read aloud either by students only or by the teacher only or by both teacher and students. In all cases, accuracy was emphasized and maintained by all the teachers. Apart from reading aloud, one teacher (N) also asked the students to read the text silently before giving them chances to ask any questions or asking them to answer comprehension questions.

2- The texts were not wholly explained by the teachers but explained according to questions arisen from students. One teacher (BS), however, did explain the meaning of a paragraph of the text, sentence by sentence, in Arabic. In addition, teacher BS also asked and guided the students to translate passages from Arabic into Malay.

3- Translation was sometimes used by the teachers in explaining the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. One teacher (N), for example, asked the students to translate the answers of comprehension questions from Malay into Arabic. Some other methods which were mainly used by the teachers in explaining the

vocabulary were synonyms, antonyms, derivative words and linguistic contexts.

4- Comprehension questions were discussed orally in the classroom. Teachers, however, provided most of the answers to the most of the questions except those right and wrong questions. One teacher (N), for example, provided most of the answers in both Arabic and Malay; another teacher (IM) constructed isolated sentences for most of the words given in sentence construction practice.

5- All of the comprehension question were from the textbooks, and none of the teachers presented other questions of his or her own, which could offer students further chances of language practice and production.

6- Students were passive in the classroom. Most of the students spent most of their lesson periods on activities such as taking notes, reading aloud, listening to their teachers and repeating answers after them.

#### 7.1.5.4 Teaching Arabic Rhetoric

The teaching of Arabic rhetoric was observed from three teachers. Two of them (SH and Z), taught 'al-ḥaqīqatu wa l-majāz ul-mursal ( الحقيقة والمجاز المرسل ) and one teacher (I) taught 'al-qarīnah ( القرينة ). The textbook used was 'al-lughat ul-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li s-saff ith-thāniy, 'al-balāghah ( اللغة العربية للصف الثاني ، البلاغة ).

The teaching of Arabic rhetoric by the teachers mentioned can be described in summary as follows:

- 1- The presentation was carried out explicitly by the teachers. The teachers read definitions, rules, examples and the explanation of each of these items from the textbook and explained them to their students in Malay and Arabic.
- 2- The teachers explained and translated everything in the texts. In addition, other examples from local contexts were also used by the teachers in explanations.
- 3- The teachers focused only on the presentation of the subjects. No language practice or production were introduced. Thus, Most students spent their classroom periods listening to the teacher and taking notes. Apart from listening to the teacher and taking notes students group E4 also repeated individually, and in chorus, the definitions after the teacher for memorization.
- 4- The teachers explicitly asked their students to memorize the given definitions and their corresponding examples. One teacher (Z) for example, made his students repeat definitions after him in order to memorize them in the classroom.

#### 7.1.6 Conclusions

The teaching methodologies currently practiced by Arabic teachers in the Faculty can be summarized as follows:

##### a- Teaching Arabic Grammar and Morphology

- 1- Presentation was the main focus of Arabic teachers who taught

grammar and morphology. In Arabic IV, there was almost no time spent for rule practice and production, while in Arabic II, there was some rule practice carried out by the teachers as if they were examples explaining the use of the rules. This is both obvious and to be expected since teachers, instead of students, carried out most of the tasks.

2- The presentation of rules and definitions was carried out deductively and explicitly. Only isolated examples were used to explain rules and definitions. Although authentic texts were provided, in Arabic I and II, for the introduction of new grammatical items, these texts, however, were not referred to in rules presentation. Malay was used extensively in explaining definitions, rules and examples.

3- The focus on presentation shows that the teachers assumed that their main task was to ensure students comprehension of the given definitions, rules, and examples. Moreover, it also demonstrates that the items mentioned and the rule practice were done by the teachers as if they themselves were the target of the lesson. Many teachers explicitly reminded their students to memorize definitions, rules and the relevant examples.

4- The focus on presentation, and the absence of rule practice and free production considerably limited students' participation in the lessons and thus, led them to be passive. Apart from constructing isolated examples and transforming sentences, with the teacher's help, most of the students spent their class periods on activities such as listening to the teacher, taking notes and reading aloud.

5- Grammatical terminology and sentence parsing were constantly stressed by most of the teachers especially those who taught Arabic IV. In addition, the amount of definitions and rules presented in Arabic IV was more than the amount of definitions and rules presented in Arabic I and II.

#### **b- Teaching Reading Comprehension**

1- The teachers main focus in teaching reading comprehension was on comprehension of the texts and the students ability to give correct answers to comprehension questions. Thus, most of the

teachers, especially those who taught Arabic IV, explained the texts and comprehension questions and answers to their students in details in Malay or Arabic or both. Some of the teachers who taught Arabic I and II, however, did not explain the texts wholly, because the texts with which they dealt were minutely voweled and easy for students to comprehend.

2- The objective pursued by the teachers as shown by their teaching did not go beyond the completion of the lessons. The texts and the comprehension questions that accompany them were the only target of teaching and students were not allowed, let alone encouraged, to relate the lessons to the real world.

3- The teachers depended entirely on the textbooks. Moreover, for many teachers, the comprehension of the texts was the main objective, and thus texts' discussion and language practices were secondary and frequently skipped. A teacher who taught four long passages in two hours, for example, skipped three sets of comprehension questions. Most of the teachers who taught Arabic I and II skipped some of the language exercises provided in the textbooks.

4- Reading aloud was a method used by all teachers. Only one teacher instructed her students to read the texts silently before discussing comprehension questions. Thus, language accuracy which focuses on correct pronunciation of words including word endings and detailed sentence parsing was constantly stressed and emphasized by all the teachers.

5- Although translation was used indiscriminately by most of the teachers, other methods such as the use of synonyms, antonyms, derivative words and the use of linguistic contexts, such as sentences and examples, were also used by many teachers.

6- Student involvement in classroom activities was relatively a passive one. Students who followed lessons from Arabic I and II, due to the type and the number of language activities provided, were slightly more active than students who followed lessons from Arabic IV. In addition, students who were allowed to use Malay in their responses were the most active of all students.

In summary, however, most of the students were very dependent on their teachers.



### c- Teaching Arabic Rhetoric

1- The main objective of the teachers who taught Arabic rhetoric was to impart rhetorical knowledge. Thus, these teachers made sure that knowledge be fully understood by their students by focusing most of classroom period on presentation. Thus texts which contain definitions, rules, explanation and examples of the subjects were translated into Malay and explained explicitly.

2- Students were expected not only to comprehend the texts but also to be able to explain and to reproduce them accurately whenever they were requested to do so especially in the examination.

3- The teaching and learning of Arabic rhetoric in the Faculty is an example of a teacher-centered approach in SL teaching and learning. Furthermore, the objective of teaching did not go beyond the completion of the texts or lessons.

## 7.2 Interview and Other Instruments

### 7.2.1 Purposes

In addition to questionnaires, documents analysis and classroom observations, some interviews and discussions were carried out with the staff who are directly and indirectly involved with the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies in the National University of Malaysia.

The purpose of carrying out such interviews and discussions was to obtain information which could not easily be obtained by other means used in this study. In addition, interviews and discussions were used to supplement and to enlighten data gathered by questionnaires, document analysis and classroom observations ( see Appendix D).

Some priori interviews were carried out with heads of five different departments in the Faculty and with Arabic teachers involved in teaching Arabic courses. The interviews with heads of the departments were carried out to verify information contained in ' Students' Guide 1990/91' concerning number of active academic staff in the Faculty, and types and the number of Arabic and religious courses offered in the Faculty.

The interviews with Arabic teachers were carried out to obtain information about their teaching time tables, their progress in teaching, and teaching materials and syllabuses for the teaching of Arabic in the academic session 1990/1991. This information was used to guide classroom observation and to identify relevant teaching documents for analysis.

## 7.2.2 Results

### a- Language Policy

The National University of Malaysia was set up with the purpose to establish Malay as an important academic language. Thus, the University promotes and encourages the use of Malay in teaching and learning every branch of academic subjects offered in all faculties. However, despite such policy, the University does not only allow but also encourage the English department and the Faculty of Islamic Studies to use English and Arabic, respectively, in teaching English, Arabic and religious subjects.

Furthermore, effort is also made to encourage the use of Arabic in the Faculty by encouraging the academic staff who have no previous academic experience with Middle Eastern Universities to further their studies at those universities. The University also encourages and supports the staffs to carry out their sabbatical research in Middle Eastern Universities. The most recent effort made by the University was to establish a close relationships with universities and other academic institutions in the Middle East in order to obtain Arab teachers and lecturers to be employed in the Faculty. This effort, however, has failed due to the lack of response from such institutions.

### b- The Resources of the Program

There are five compulsory Arabic courses offered by the Faculty. The time allocated for teaching each course is approximately 200 minutes per week for 14 weeks.

The teaching of Arabic is carried out in small classrooms equipped with white, black or green boards. Other teaching aids such as

videos, overhead projectors and an audio-visual are also available. Arabic teachers are encouraged to spend 50 minutes per week with each group of students in the language laboratory. However, few teachers consistently use the laboratory. Some used it occasionally, and many never used it at all.

There are a number of reasons why the language laboratory is not fully utilized. Some of these reasons are related to the teachers attitude and others to the management of the laboratory itself. Apart from these reasons, however, the language laboratory is not equipped with appropriate teaching materials. The language laboratory is not been utilized in teaching some courses because the tapes which accompany the textbooks are not available.

The teaching of Arabic in the Faculty is carried out by Arabic teachers and lecturers. However, the teaching of language courses in the Faculty is mainly the task of Arabic teachers. Arabic lecturers, as opposed to Arabic teachers, have other academic duties such as teaching Arabic literature and Arabic history and supervising undergraduate and postgraduate students. Arabic lecturers teach Arabic language courses only to fill the need for more Arabic teachers.

There are 18 posts allocated for Arabic teachers in the Faculty. However, the number of teachers currently employed in the Faculty is 12, 11 of them are Arabic teachers and one is Quranic teacher. Although the academic qualifications of Arabic teachers in the Faculty are similar to the qualifications of teachers in high schools, Arabic teachers in the Faculty enjoy a better scheme and privilege compared to the teachers in high schools. In comparison to high school teachers, Arabic teachers have less teaching load, more

holidays, and more salary.

The scheme for Arabic teachers does not support Arabic teachers to pursue postgraduate studies. However, the University supports any form of short training courses especially the local one.

#### c- The Management of Arabic Courses

The management of Arabic courses is carried out by Arabic lecturers who act as coordinators. The task of the coordinators, among others, is to select and organize teaching syllabuses, materials and examinations and to observe the teaching progress among teachers.

From the interviews and discussions with the coordinators of Arabic courses it seems that there is no coordination between Arabic courses offered by the Faculty. Every coordinator works independently in deciding on the courses. Furthermore, some coordinators do not co-operate even with teachers under their supervision.

The main reason for such circumstances is the lack of awareness and expertise among those coordinators. They take their duty for granted and depend entirely on their own experience and perceptions. Their main concern, perhaps, is to ensure that the syllabuses are completed at the end of the semester.

#### d- The Teaching of Arabic V (PZ3912)

Unlike other Arabic courses, the teaching of Arabic V is currently carried out by means of lectures and tutorials. The students in this course attend 100 minutes of lecturing and another 100 minutes of tutoring per week. The teaching of Arabic V by means of these two techniques applies to all course components including grammar and rhetoric ( see pp. 172).

Similar to the teaching of grammar and rhetoric in other courses, the teaching of these elements in Arabic V is explicit and deductive. Grammatical and rhetorical rules are presented and explained by means of definitions, isolated examples and direct translation. The main objective of teaching grammar and rhetoric in this subject is to impart grammatical and rhetorical knowledge to students to enable them to comprehend and analyze the language.

In summary, apart from the use of lectures, the methodologies and objective of teaching grammar and morphology in Arabic V are similar to those adopted in teaching other Arabic courses.

#### e- The Problems of Arabic in the Faculty.

In addition to the problems mentioned earlier ( see pp. 107-112 ), there are a number of problems in teaching and learning Arabic in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. These problems are:

##### 1- Teaching without Preparation

Most Arabic teachers come to the classroom without prior preparation. They depend entirely on what is written in the textbooks. This is because they assume that since they know everything in the textbooks, there is nothing to prepare.

##### 2- The Time Factor

For many Arabic teachers, the time allocated for teaching is too short to give more exercises. Thus, since they have to complete the syllabuses, they concentrate on presentation. However, there are teachers who complete the syllabuses long before the semester ended.

##### 3- Teaching and Learning for Examination.

Instead of focusing on developing students abilities in Arabic, many teachers focus on items to be examined at the end of the course. This is due to the fact that many Arabic teachers assume that their success can be proved merely by the number of students passing the examination.

In addition, examination-oriented teaching and learning has become a normal practice of teachers and learners in Malaysia. This phenomenon immensely affects the quality of education, in general, and the quality of language teaching and learning, in particular.

#### 4- Traditional Methods of Teaching and Learning

The educational system in Malaysia is based mostly on a teacher-centered approach to teaching and learning. Teachers assume that it is their duty to provide and to explain everything to the learners, therefore, learners depend entirely on the teachers.

This same approach is applied indiscriminately in teaching and learning of religious courses and the Arabic language in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Students who are accustomed to spoon-feeding learning are not encouraged to make their own effort in learning. In relation to Arabic, this approach has reduced students opportunities to interact with Arabic in the course of study in the Faculty.

#### 5- Learning for a Degree

The main aim of many students in learning at the University is to obtain a degree which will ensure their future career. Since Arabic is neither a crucial requirement for jobs nor an important language in communication, students' interest in learning it is immensely affected. Many students learn Arabic only because Arabic is a compulsory subject in the Faculty. Hence, their main aim in learning Arabic is to pass examinations.

## CONCLUSIONS

There is a great mismatch between the specification of end and the prescription of means for the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. In other words, the specified goals of the program are pursued by divergent means manifested in the syllabuses, teaching materials and methodologies used.

The stated goal of the program is to equip students with Arabic reading ability that will enable them to read Arabic and religious sources. However, many of the objectives set for the program aim at teaching and learning language rules. Thus, the main content of Arabic courses is rules. Most of the teaching materials used are Arabic grammar, morphology and rhetoric books which contain nothing but rules.

Furthermore, the teaching of Arabic rules, as done by most Arabic teachers in the Faculty is geared towards towards imparting knowledge 'about' Arabic. It is intended to enable the students to produce these rules successfully at the end of the course. In other words, students are not so much expected to use their knowledge of rules in their communication, but to demonstrate their ability to understand and memorize the rules.

In addition to rules, however, there are some objectives set for developing reading ability in Arabic. Apart from intensive and extensive reading in Arabic II, the teaching of reading, as practiced by most teachers in the Faculty is led in wrong directions. The main objective of most teachers in teaching Arabic texts is the students' comprehension of the texts and their ability to give the correct answers to comprehension. The texts themselves are the main target of



the teaching and learning, thus, the teaching does not go beyond the completion of the texts.

Many teachers, particularly those who teach Arabic VI and VII, concentrate on teaching Arabic grammar ( النحو ), morphology ( الصرف ) and parsing ( الإعراب ). It can be concluded that the teaching of reading in the Faculty focuses, not so much on developing reading ability, but on students' comprehension of the texts, their ability to provide correct answers to the comprehension questions and to explain and analyze rules.

Another important conclusion regarding the Arabic program in the Faculty concerns with the question of compatibility of the program with the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty of Islamic Studies itself. As discussed earlier ( pp. 144-145), reading is the most important skill required for religious purposes in Malaysia and for pursuing Arabic and Religious Studies in the Faculty. Arabic and Religious Studies in the Faculty also require the students to carry out, in order of importance, listening, writing and speaking activities in Arabic.

The Arabic program in the Faculty should be aimed at developing all four language skills. Furthermore, based on the relative importance of these skills in Malaysia and in the Faculty, the program should focus, mainly on developing reading skill, followed by other Arabic skills (i.e. listening, writing and speaking ).

However, the existing Arabic program in the Faculty focuses on teaching and learning of Arabic rules more than skills. Only Arabic I and II focus on teaching skills. Nevertheless, Arabic I focuses more on speaking and writing than reading. Thus, it is clear that there is

no compatibility between the existing Arabic program and the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty.

In addition, the existing Arabic program in the Faculty is designed based entirely on learning and teaching experience of the traditional lecturers and teachers. The outcome is a language program whose major components do not comply with principles of SL program design.

To elaborate on this point, firstly, the specification of the goals of the program was not made on the basis of a careful analysis of the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty. Secondly, the prescription of many objectives of the program are based on the false belief which equates 'language' learning with learning of rules. Most of the objectives of the program are stated ambiguously in terms of teacher behavior and language content. Some of the objectives which are stated in terms of learner behavior do not completely comply with conditions for designing objectives in such a term.

Thirdly, the selection and the organization of the content of most syllabuses were not made on the basis of acceptable criteria but on the basis of the designers personal taste and on the basis of how the language content is organized in Arabic grammar, morphology and rhetoric books. Thus, the organization of the content in different courses and within one course does not reflect different proficiency levels in Arabic. With the exception of skills content in Arabic I and II, this applies to all types of the syllabus content ( see, pp. 177-184 ) and to all Arabic courses in the Faculty.

Fourthly, due to the objectives set for the program and the lack of appropriate teaching materials in Malaysia, the existing program relies mostly on Arabic grammar, morphology, and rhetoric books.

These books do not seem to have been designed for teaching and learning of Arabic as means of communication, but for studying the language as fact-based subject. In addition, the teaching materials used for teaching and learning Arabic texts in the Faculty are also not suitable for the purpose of teaching reading in Arabic. Apart from comprehension questions, these materials do not contain any activities which could lead to developing Arabic reading skill.

Fifthly, most teachers in the Faculty predominantly focus on presentation; language practice and production are neglected. Teachers concentrated only on conscious learning. Hence, the teaching is carried out deductively and explicitly by means of direct explanations and translation.

Finally, the examination system adopted in the program is based mainly on assessing students mastery of Arabic rather than assessing students proficiency in that language. Students are normally asked to give statements of rules, to explain these statements by means of direct explanations and by giving isolated examples, and to parse phrases or sentences. In relation to texts, students are normally asked to vowel the text, to translate the text into Malay, to answer the comprehension questions and to parse phrases and sentences selected from the text. The text and the examination questions are based on texts and questions previously covered in the classroom. Most students can successfully answer most of the examination questions by relying largely on their memory.

The problems shown above immensely affect the product, the contribution and the success of the program in question. The majority of students and teachers believe that the program is not successful

in achieving its goal.

Regarding the contribution of the program, the majority of students see the contribution of the program to their standard of reading, writing, listening and speaking in Arabic as little.

A significant number of teachers believe that the general Arabic ability of the majority of their students is poor. Similarly, many students believe that their own Arabic ability is poor and have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic references and textbooks.

The findings of this study show that the existing Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic studies suffers from three major flaws. Firstly, there is inconsistency between the major components of the program. Secondly, the program is incompatible with the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty of Islamic Studies. Finally, the program is incompatible with principles in SL and FL syllabus design. Considering these, it is very unlikely that the program would be able to improve the quality of its product without major changes in its components. The following are some suggestions and recommendation for the improvement of the program.

Firstly, the goal needs to be revised to solve the problem of incompatibility with the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty. The results of the needs for Arabic and the data on the resources available for the program, provided by this study, can be used as guidelines for the definition of a new goal or goals. In addition, however, a careful analysis of new students' proficiency in Arabic can be done prior to the definition of objectives, particularly short-terms objectives of the program.

Secondly, the syllabuses need to be revised to achieve two main purposes: (1) to be based as guide for untrained teachers in their course of teaching and (2) to make the objectives contents and teaching methodologies compatible with the new goals of the program. To achieve the first purpose, of the revision, the syllabuses can contain not only the specification of objectives and content but also the specification of procedures and activities which can lead towards the attainment of the specified objectives.

In addition, the new objectives can be divided into long-term and short-term objectives and can be stated in measurable terms. In order to facilitate the assessment of learners' achievement and the evaluation of the program, these objectives can be based on learner behaviors. Furthermore, the statement of these objectives in terms of learner behaviors can indicate clearly the terminal behaviors, the conditions under which the learners are to perform and the standards of the terminal behaviors.

Finally, the content of these syllabuses can be graded and organized systematically by means of appropriate criteria determined in accordance with the types of content selected.

As far as the purpose of designing a compatible syllabuses is concerned, the new syllabuses can be designed in such a way that they aim at developing language skills particularly the reading skill. In accordance with the needs for Arabic, the main emphasis of these syllabuses can be on developing the reading skill, followed by other skills (i.e. listening, writing, and speaking).

The syllabuses can focus on intensive and extensive reading because intensive reading, by means of topics, situations, or themes, can be

used not only to teach forms, functions and skills integrally but also to provide appropriate contexts for the teaching of such elements. Extensive reading, on the other hand, can be used to provide more language input to the learners and to provide more opportunities for teachers to improve their Arabic skills, particularly, reading and writing.

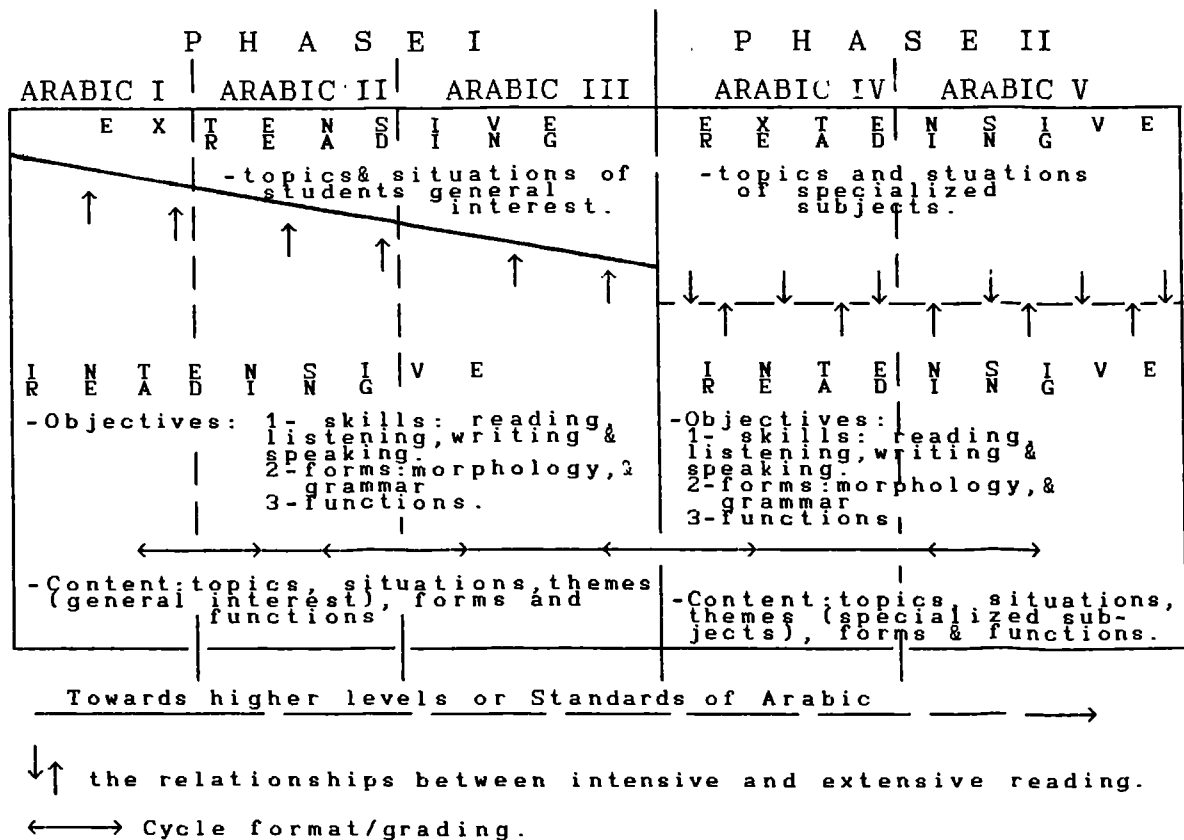
Thus, the proposed syllabuses contain set of objectives not only for reading but also for grammar and morphology, functions, listening, writing and speaking. Furthermore, the content of these syllabuses would consist of items such as, topics, situations, themes, forms and functions.

These syllabuses could have two phases: Phase I which includes, for example, Arabic I, II and III, and Phase II which includes Arabic IV and V. In Phase I, the focus of syllabuses can emphasize more on intensive reading while the amount of extensive reading can increase gradually towards the end of the phase. The relationships between intensive and extensive reading in the Phase I can be only an ascending one. That is to say, intensive reading is to provide the necessary foundation for extensive reading. Extensive reading should not be allowed to interfere with the intensive reading. In addition, the syllabuses in this phase can use topics, themes, or situations which are related mainly to the learners general interests. The assigning of such relationships and the use of such topics or situations in this phase are to maintain the progress of intensive reading and to arouse learners' interest.

In Phase II, the syllabuses can increase the amount of extensive reading in a stabilized way and can use more specialized topics for

both intensive and extensive reading. The relationship between intensive and extensive reading can be both an ascending and descending relationship. The reasons for this are (1) to provide more opportunities for independent reading, (2) to relate Arabic teaching closely to learners experience in learning other subjects in the Faculty, and (3) to provide opportunities for students and teachers to tackle problems encountered in extensive reading while maintaining the objectives which are set for intensive reading (see Figure 29).

Figure 29: The proposed syllabuses.



As can be seen from the figure above, the proposed syllabuses incorporate not only forms and functions but also topics, situations

and themes. The aim is to provide the contexts for the teaching of forms and functions, to provide more language input to the learners and to generate both conscious and subconscious learning. Furthermore, the inclusion of functions besides other elements is to provide other means of learning and to activate participation on the part of the learners.

As far as the organization and the selection of syllabus content are concerned, the proposed syllabuses can be organized in terms of topics, situations or themes selected based on students general interest and on their specialized subjects. The grading of these items may be made on the basis of criteria such as, complexity, length, depth of treatment, and formal and functional contents contained in the texts. The selection and the organization of the formal and functional content may be made on the basis of criteria such as frequency, complexity, usefulness. In anticipation of the problems in organizing the elements of the syllabuses, it is important to negotiate between these elements and to maintain the organization only when it is applicable.

The proposed syllabuses can adopt an integrated approach towards teaching Arabic skills, forms and functions. This can be carried out by using texts as a basis for the teaching and learning the items mentioned. Thus, each text can be followed by activities for learning reading, listening, writing, speaking, forms and functions. However, the success of this approach depends mostly on the way this approach is followed by teachers. Thus, bearing this in mind, the fact that most Arabic teachers in the Faculty of Islamic Studies are untrained teachers, it is important to outline some of the underlying



principles of teaching methodologies for these teachers. These underlying principles are as follows:

- 1- Teachers should try as possible as they can to forsake their traditional role as the main provider in learning. They should gradually assume their role as classroom managers or facilitators.
- 2- Teachers should focus not only on presentation, but also on the practice and production aspects of learning
- 3- Teachers should not take the content and the activities in the lessons as ends in themselves but as means towards language learning.
- 4- In teaching forms, teachers should avoid introducing unnecessary details of the rules, such as terminology and parsing. Instead, teachers should focus on meaning and the use of rules in real communication. Thus, teachers should encourage and train their students to use their knowledge of rules in their communication.

By observing the general teaching principles above, the proposed syllabuses may be able to dictate teaching methodologies which are compatible with the contents and the objectives of the proposed syllabuses. Hence, the syllabuses proposed here would consist of objectives, contents and teaching methodologies compatible with the revised goals of the Arabic program.

In addition to the revision of the goal and syllabuses, the existing Arabic program also needs to review the evaluation process currently followed as well as the training program for Arabic teachers and lecturers in the Faculty.

Evaluation can be based on assessing students proficiency in Arabic instead of on assessing students mastery of knowledge 'about' Arabic. In addition, the different marking systems between different teachers

and coordinators can be unified and appropriately coordinated. Above all, it should be possible to evaluate the program itself.

Arabic teachers and lecturers in the Faculty need to be trained in teaching Arabic as a second or a foreign language. As it is difficult to get local experts in teaching Arabic as a second language (TASL), and as it is implausible for Arabic teachers to be trained abroad, the program can seek help and cooperation from local experts in teaching English as a second language (TESL) or from overseas experts in TASL who can provide local short courses in TASL. Furthermore, the training program in the Faculty can be focused more on training teachers in TASL than on training them in Arabic linguistics and literature.

This study is confined to identification of the main problems encountered in the teaching and learning of Arabic in the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia. The findings indicate that these problems arise from the fact that the Arabic program in the Faculty was designed entirely on the basis of the learning and teaching experiences of traditional teachers and lecturers. Having no experience in SL teaching and learning, these teachers and lecturers produced a language program which is baseless and syllabuses whose components are incompatible with each other nor with the needs for Arabic in Malaysia and in the Faculty. Needless to say, similar studies may be needed to confirm this claim. In the light of the findings of the present study, proposals for the improvement of the Arabic program in the Faculty can be made. The application and the success of these proposals can then be explored in subsequent studies.

## APPENDIX A

### TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE (Translation)

This questionnaire is part of a research program carried out under the auspices of the Arabic Section of the Department of Modern Languages of the University of Salford, United Kingdom.

The objective of this questionnaire is to examine the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia. Therefore, your full support and honest contribution are very much needed.

I should be very much grateful to you if could answer each of the questions as accurately as possible and without spending too much time on any one of them.

I welcome any information concerning the program which you may consider important. Please see me about this, or use the blank page attached to the end of this questionnaire.

I would like to assure you that all personal information given in this questionnaire is strictly confidential.

Finally, I would like to thank you for your help and support.

1.Respondent :

SECTION A  
TEACHERS' PROFILE

Note: Please tick  the appropriate answers.

2.The name of your department.

- i- Arabic studies (language and literature)
- ii- Arabic Studies (Islamic Civilization)
- iii- Uṣūl u-ddīn
- iv- Sharīḥ
- v- Daḥwah
- vi- al-Qur'ān


3. Your acadamic degree or degrees you currently hold and the types of universities which conferred that degree or degrees upon you

(please answer items that are relevant to you only)

i- B.A. :

- Local University.
- Western University.
- Middle Eastern University.


ii- M.A. :

- Local University
- Western University.
- Middle Eastern University.


iii- Ph.D.:

- Local University.
- Western University.
- Middle Eastern University.


SECTION B

LANGUAGE OF STUDIES  
IN THE FACULTY OF ISLAMIC STUDIES

4. Based on you practices, how important is MALAY compared to ARABIC in the teaching and learning of subjects you teach?

(Please answer items about the types of courses that are relevant to you only)

i- Departmental Courses (Kursus Jabatan)

more important	equally important	less important	not important

ii- Faculty Courses (Kursus Utama)

more important	equally important	less important	not important

iii- Complementary Courses (Kursus pelengkap)

more important	equally important	less important	not important

5. Based on your own practice, how important is ENGLISH compared to ARABIC in the teaching and learning of subjects you teach?

(Please answer items about the types of courses that are relevant to you only)

i- Departmental Courses (Kursus Jabatan)

more important	equally important	less important	not important

ii- Faculty Courses (Kursus Utama)

more important	equally important	less important	not important

iii- Complementary Courses (Kursus pelengkap)

more important	equally important	less important	not important

Notes: Please answer questions nos. 6, 7 and 8 which will follow by referring to the following scales:

( 1= 0-25%, 2= 26-50%, 3= 51-75%, 4= 76-100% )

6. Based on your own PRACTICE, how much Arabic is required from your students in undertaking your subjects?

(Please answer items about the types of courses that are relevant to you only)

i- Departmental Courses (Kursus Jabatan)

ii-Faculty Courses (Kursus Utama)

iii-Complementary Courses (Kursus Pelengkap)

1	2	3	4

7. Based on your own PRACTICE, how do you describe the amount ( percentage ) of the following activities which are required from your students in undertaking each types of the subjects you teach?

(Please answer items about the types of courses that are relevant to you only)

a- Departmental Courses (Kursus Jabatan)

	1	2	3	4
i- reading material in Arabic				
ii- writing in Arabic				
iii- listening to Arabic				
iv- speaking Arabic				

b- Faculty Courses (Kursus Utama)

	1	2	3	4
i- reading material in Arabic				
ii- writing in Arabic				
iii- listening to Arabic				
iv- speaking Arabic				

c- Complementary Courses (Kursus pelengkap)

	1	2	3	4
i- reading material in Arabic				
ii- writing in Arabic				
iii- listening to Arabic				
iv- speaking Arabic				



8. In your OPINION, what is the appropriate proportion of the following activities which you wish your students to do in undertaking each type of the subjects you teach?

(Please answer items about the types of courses that are relevant to you only)

a- Departmental Courses (Kursus Jabatan)

	1	2	3	4
i- reading material in Arabic				
ii- writing in Arabic				
iii- listening to Arabic				
iv- speaking Arabic				

b- Faculty Courses (Kursus Utama)

	1	2	3	4
i- reading material in Arabic				
ii- writing in Arabic				
iii- listening to Arabic				
iv- speaking Arabic				

c- Complementary Courses (Kursus pelengkap)

	1	2	3	4
i- reading material in Arabic				
ii- writing in Arabic				
iii- listening to Arabic				
iv- speaking Arabic				

9. Based on your own PRACTICE, do your subjects require students to read any of the following Arabic materials?

	yes	no
i- textbooks.		
ii-references.		
iii-notes.		
iv-articles.		
v-newspapers.		
vi- magesines.		

10. Based on your own PRACTICE, how important it is for your students to read the following Arabic materials in studying your subjects?

	very important	important	less important	not important
i- textbooks.				
ii-references.				
iii-notes.				
iv-articles.				
v-newspapers.				
vi- magesines.				

11. Based on your own PRACTICE, did you ask your students to carry out any of the following types of writing in Arabic?

	yes	no
i. essays.		
ii- reports.		
iii- examination answers.		
iv- notes.		

Notes: if your answer to anyone of the types of writing contained in question no. 11 is YES , please answer questions 12 and 13 accordingly. If your answer is NO ignore these two questions.

12. How frequent did you ask your students to write the following types of writing in Arabic?

	very frequent	f. equent	seldom	very seldom
i. essays.				
ii- reports.				
iii- examination answers.				
iv- notes.				

13. Based on your own PRACTICE, how important is it for your students to write the following subjects in Arabic in undertaking your subjects?

	very important	important	less important	not important
i. essays.				
ii- reports.				
iii- examination answers.				
iv- notes.				

14. Based on your own PRACTICE, how frequent did you speak Arabic in the following places?

	very frequent	frequent	seldom	very seldom
i. lecture halls.				
ii. tutorial rooms				

15. In your OPINION, how important is it for your students to listen to the following subjects in Arabic during their course of studies in the Faculty of Islamic Studies?

	very important	important	less important	not important
i- lectures				
ii- teachers talks in tutorials.				
iii- students talks				

16. Based on your OWN OBSERVATION, how often did you find your students speaking to the following people in Arabic?

	very frequent	frequent	seldom	never
i. Arabic lecturers, teachers and tutors.				
ii. others lecturers, teachers and tutors.				
iii. friends outside the classrooms.				
iv. friends in the classrooms.				
v. students groups in the classrooms.				

SECTION C  
STUDENT ABILITIES  
AND  
THE PROGRAM ACHIEVEMENT

NOTES: please answer questions under question no. 17 by referring to the following scales:

( 1= YES, 2= NO, 3= NOT SURE )

17 What is your OPINION regarding the following statements which describe your students abilities in Arabic?

i. most of my students could read Arabic references with good comprehension without depending on dictionary except very little

1	2	3

ii. most of my students could read Arabic references with good comprehension but with the aid of dictionary.

1	2	3

iii. most of my students have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic references.

1	2	3

iv. most of my students could read Arabic textbooks with good comprehension without relying on dictionary except very little.

1	2	3

v. most of my student could read Arabic textbooks with good comprehension but they always rely on dictionary.

1	2	3

vi. most of my students have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic textbooks.

1	2	3

vii. most of my students rely completely on dictionary to help them to comprehend any Arabic texts they read.

1	2	3

- viii. most of my students need more than dictionary to help them to comprehend most of Arabic texts which are required from them to read. 

1	2	3
- ix. most of my students could write a reasonable length of a paragraph about any academic topics that they have previously learned in Arabic without making many mistakes. 

1	2	3
- x. most of my students could write, in Arabic, about every days topics with reasonably well. 

1	2	3
- xi. Most of my students have no confidence to write what so ever in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xii. Most of my students could express themselves in writing, in Arabic, but they make many mistakes. 

1	2	3
- xiii. Most of my students have no confidence to speak about what so ever in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xiv. Most of my students could ask question orally, in Arabic, about subjects that they have learned in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xv. Most of my students could discuss orally, in Arabic, about topic that they already knew very well. 

1	2	3
- xvi. Most of my students could understand most of the content of lectures that being delivered in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xvii. Most of my students could understand only a small portion of lectures that being delivered in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xviii. Most of my students could understand only less than half of the contents of lectures that being delivered in Arabic. 

1	2	3

NOTES: Please answer questions under questions no. 18 by referring to the following scales:

( 1= VERY GOOD, 2= GOOD, 3= MODEST, 4= POOR, 5=VERY POOR )

18. How do you describe your students abilities with respect to the following aspects?

(Please answer questions about students that are relevant to you only)

a. first year students.

- i- their general abilities in Arabic.
- ii- their ability in Arabic reading comprehension.
- iii- their ability in writing in Arabic.
- iv- their ability in listening to Arabic.
- v- their ability in speaking Arabic.

1	2	3	4	5

b. second year Students

- i- their general abilities in Arabic.
- ii- their ability in Arabic reading comprehension.
- iii- their ability in writing in Arabic.
- iv- their ability in listening to Arabic.
- v- their ability in speaking Arabic.

1	2	3	4	5

c. third year students.

- i- their general abilities in Arabic.
- ii- their ability in Arabic reading comprehension.
- iii- their ability in writing in Arabic.
- iv- their ability in listening to Arabic.
- v- their ability in speaking Arabic.

1	2	3	4	5

d. fourth year students.

- i- their general abilities in Arabic.
- ii- their ability in Arabic reading comprehension.
- iii- their ability in writing in Arabic.
- iv- their ability in listening to Arabic.
- v- their ability in speaking Arabic.

1	2	3	4	5

19. The goal of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies is " to produce students with Arabic abilities that enable them to successfully conduct their own researches by referring to original Arabic sources".

In your OPINION, to what extent has the Arabic program in the Faculty succeeded in achieving this goal?

- i. very successful
- ii. successful
- iii. less successful
- iv. not successful
- v. not sure




## APPENDIX B

### LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE ( Translation )

This questionnaire is part of a research program carried out under the auspices of the Arabic Section of the Department of Modern Languages of the University of Salford, United Kingdom.

The objective of this questionnaire is to examine the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies of the National University of Malaysia. Therefore, your full support and honest contribution are very much needed.

I should be very grateful to you if could answer each of the questions as accurately as possible and without spending too much time on any one of them.

I welcome any other information concerning the program which you may consider important. Please see me about this, or use the blank page attached to the end of this questionnaire.

I would like to assure you that all personal information given in this questionnaire is strictly confidential.

Finally, I would like to thank you for your help and support.

Respondents :

SECTION A  
STUDENTS' PROFILE

INSTRUCTION: please tick  your answers.

1- Your year of study in the Faculty?

- |            |                          |
|------------|--------------------------|
| i- first   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ii- second | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iii- third | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iv- fourth | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2- The department in which you study?

- |                                    |                          |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| i- Arabic and Islamic Civilization | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ii- Usūl ud-dīn                    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iii- ash-Sharī <sup>C</sup> ah     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iv- al-Qur'ān                      | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| v- ad-Da <sup>C</sup> wah          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| v- None                            | <input type="checkbox"/> |

3- What are Arabic courses that you have already studied and currently followed.

- |              |                          |
|--------------|--------------------------|
| i- PZ 1952   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ii- PZ 1942  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iii- PZ 2922 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iv- PZ 2932  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| v- PZ 3912   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| vi- PZ 3913  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| vii- PZ 3923 | <input type="checkbox"/> |

SECTION B  
STUDENT ABILITIES  
AND  
THE PROGRAM ACHIEVEMENT

NOTES: please answer questions under question no. 4 by referring to the following scales:

( 1= YES, 2= NO, 3= NOT SURE )

4- What is your OPINION regarding the following statements which describe your own abilities in Arabic?

i. I can read Arabic references with good comprehension without depending on dictionary except very little.

1	2	3

ii. I can read Arabic references with good comprehension but with the aid of dictionary.

1	2	3

iii. I have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic references.

1	2	3

iv. I can read Arabic textbooks with good comprehension without relying on dictionary except very little.

1	2	3

v. I can read Arabic text-books with good comprehension but I always rely on dictionary.

1	2	3

vi. I have great difficulties in reading and comprehending Arabic textbooks.

1	2	3

vii. I rely completely on dictionary to help me to comprehend any Arabic texts that I have read.

1	2	3

- viii. I need more than dictionary to help me to comprehend most of Arabic texts which are required from me to read. 

1	2	3
- ix. I can write a reasonable length of a paragraph about any academic topics that I have previously learned in Arabic without making many mistakes. 

1	2	3
- x. I can write , in Arabic, about every days topics with reasonably well. 

1	2	3
- xi. I have no confidence to write about anythings in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xii. I can express myself in Arabic but I make many mistakes. 

1	2	3
- xiii I have no confidence to speak anything what so ever in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xiv. I can ask question orally, in Arabic, about subjects that I have learned them in Arabic 

1	2	3
- xv. I can discuss orally, in Arabic, about topics that I knew very well. 

1	2	3
- xvi. I can comprehend most of the content of lectures that being delivered in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xvii. I can comprehend only a small portion of lectures that being delivered in Arabic. 

1	2	3
- xviii. I can comprehend only less than half of the contents of lectures that being delivered in Arabic. 

1	2	3

NOTES: Please answer questions no. 5 by referring to the following scales:

( 1= VERY GOOD, 2= GOOD, 3= MODEST, 4= POOR, 5=VERY POOR )

5- How do you describe your current abilities with respect to the following aspects?

- i- your general abilities in Arabic.
- ii- your ability in Arabic reading comprehension.
- iii- your ability in writing in Arabic.
- iv- your ability in listening to Arabic.
- v- your ability in speaking Arabic.

1	2	3	4	5

6- In your OPINION, to what extent have Arabic courses that you have studied so far contributed to your Standard in Arabic with respect to the following Arabic skills?

- i- reading
- ii- writing
- iii- listening
- iv- speaking

so many	many	little	very little	none

7- The goal of the Arabic program in the Faculty of Islamic Studies is " to produce students with Arabic abilities that enable them to successfully conduct their own researches by referring to original Arabic sources".

In your OPINION, to what extent has the Arabic program in the Faculty succeeded in achieving this goal?

- i. very successful
- ii. successful
- iii. less successful
- iv. not successful
- v. not sure


## APPENDIX C

### CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

- Observation Number: One.
- Subject : Teacher G (first observation).
- Date/Time/Duration: 4/3/91, 9:05 am - 9:55 am, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - White board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement .
- Students: 14 second year students (group B1).
- Lesson : Grammar 'al-Na<sup>c</sup>t ( النعت ) from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : Arabic Grammar textbook mulakhkhas qawā'id il-lughat il-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah ( ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- copying definition, rules and examples of an-Na<sup>c</sup>t from textbook to white board.
- reading and explaining the definition in Arabic and in Malay.
- analyzing examples in detail.
- asking feedbacks from students.
- explaining the meaning and giving more examples.
- copying more rules and examples from textbook into white board.
- reading and explaining the rules by means of the written examples in both Arabic and Malay.
- giving other isolated examples.
- asking feedback from students.
- asking students to produce examples of their own voluntarily.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- sitting down calmly (some of them were copying what is written on the white board).
- busy taking notes ( some of them tried to write everything that has been said by the teacher )
- listening to the teacher.
- approving their comprehension orally.
- copying and taking notes.
- listening and taking notes.
  
- taking notes
  
- silent in approval.
- no one volunteers.
- no response.

- requesting a number of students to respond.
- guiding students to produce isolated examples and correcting their mistakes.

- no response.
- failed to respond correctly.
- responding only when guided.

COMMENTS ON  
TEACHERS BEHAVIOUR:

A-PRESENTATION

- i.rules and definitions were presented deductively and explicitly by means of target language and direct translation.
- ii.teachers main focus was students comprehension of rules and definitions.
- iii.only isolated examples were given to the students and most of the examples were from the textbook.
- iv.the number of rules given in one lesson was too big therefore there was very limited time left for practice.
- v.grammatical terminologies and parsing were emphasized whereas meaning and the use of grammar are neglected.

PRACTICE AND PRODUCTION

- I.almost no time left for rule practice and language production.
- ii.students were only requested to produce isolated examples orally.
- iii. no language free production, neither in written nor in spoken.
- iv.students participation in lesson was kept to very minimum.

COMMENTS ON  
LEARNERS BEHAVIOUR

- i.taking notes and copying from teacher were the most of students' concerns.
- ii.most of them were reluctant to participate even when requested.
- iii.students participation was confined to giving answers to specific questions asked by the teacher.



- Observation Number: two.
- Subject : Teacher D ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 4/3/91, 11:00am-11:50, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 13 first year students (group A1)
- Lesson : Arabic grammar/ morphology 'nā'ib ul-fā<sup>c</sup>il wa binā' ul-majhūl ( نائب الفاعل وبناء المجهول ) (from Arabic II ( PZ 1942).
- Teaching Materials : al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshi'īn, vol.V ( العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- asking a student to read definition and examples from textbook.
- reading and explaining the definition and rules explicitly to the class (in Arabic).
- writing examples on black board and reading them to the class.
- explaining the rules by means of examples.
- parsing the examples.
- asking feedbacks from students.
- correcting student's example, explaining the rules in Malay and reminding students to memorize the rules.
- conducting grammatical drill.
- asking individual student to transform active verb into passive.
- approving students answers and repeating them.
- guiding students to answer correctly by reminding them the rules.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- a student read definition rules and examples to the class.
- listening and taking notes.
- listening and taking notes.
- a student explained the rules to examine his comprehension.
- a student produced his own example.
- individual students performing grammatical drill orally.
- taking notes.

COMMENTS ON  
TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- students' comprehension of the rules was emphasized throughout the lesson.
- translation was occasionally used by the teacher to ensure students comprehension of the lesson.
- the memorization of rules and the given examples was stressed.
- the ability to do the parsing was also stressed.
- only isolated examples were presented and the teacher did not make any effort to encourage students to manipulate the use of rules freely.
- grammatical drills were too mechanical and were intended only for rules practice not the manipulation of rules in real communication.

COMMENTS ON  
LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- students were rather active participating in the lesson ( reading aloud, giving examples and examining their comprehension of the rules ).
- students participation, however, was confined to the discussion of rules, and the kind of activities offered by the teacher who was mostly depending on the textbook.

- Observation Number: three.
- Subject : Teacher B (first observation).
- Date/Time/Duration: 4/3/91, 2:00pm-3:40, 1 hour and 40 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 13 second year students (group D4)
- Lesson : Reading 'waḥdāniyat ul-lāh' ( وحدانية الله ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : an-nuṣuṣ al-mukhtārah li s-ṣaff il-'awwal. ( النصوص المختارة للصف الأول ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- addressing students the topic of the lesson.
- requesting a student to read the text aloud to the class.
- guiding student's reading by focusing on correct pronunciation of consonants, vowels and words' ending.
- requesting another student to continue the reading.
- guiding student's reading.
- (teacher keeps on doing the same activities until the end of the text.
- Asking students to look at the first paragraph of the text and asking them to find difficult words.
- explaining the meaning of words by by means of synonyms, antonym and translation.

- asking students if they have any question about the paragraph.
- explaining the content of the paragraph in Arabic.
- translating the paragraph.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- a student read the text aloud to the class.
- others were listening, taking notes mostly vowelizing the text.
- same activities.
- looking at the paragraph, identifying difficult words and asking their meaning.
- taking notes and writing them somewhere in their textbooks.

- silent in confusion.
- a student asked the teacher to translate the text.

- turning to other paragraphs and doing the same previous activities except asking some students to read to the class notes written under the text which explain the meaning of some words, phrases, and sentences.
- explaining the meaning of words, phrases and sentences mostly by means of translation.
- doing the same previous activities until the end of the text.
- asking a student to read the notes about the content of the Quranic verses
- guiding student's reading and explaining the content in Arabic.
- telling classrooms to read the text at home as preparation for latter text discussions

- doing what was requested by the teacher.

- putting notes on their textbooks.

- doing as requested by the teacher while others were busy taking notes.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- the teacher spent most of the classroom period (100 minutes) explaining the meaning of vocabulary, phrases, sentences, and explaining the content of the text by means of Arabic and translation.
- students were only requested to read the text aloud to the class, and to identify problems in text comprehension.

- teacher tried to provide everything that help students comprehension of the text. Translation has been the main means used for this purpose.
- the meaning of vocabulary, phrases sentences are explained mostly through direct translation and no effort has been made by the teacher to encourage students to deduce the meaning from the context .

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- reading the text aloud, listening to the text being read, identifying difficult words, phrases, sentences and asking their meaning and taking notes were the most students activities.

- Observation Number: four.
- Subject : Teacher M ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 5/3/91, 9:05am-10:00, 55 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with a writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 14 second year students (group D3)
- Lesson : Discussion of the text previously read 'waḥdāniyat ul-īāh' ( وحدانية الله ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : an-nuṣuṣ al-mukhtārah li s-ṣaff il-'awwal ( النصوص المختارة للصف الأول )
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOR.

- telling students the topic of the text which had been read, and the activities which had been carried out about the text (difficult words, phrases and sentences of the text).
- asking students whether they have any questions about vocabulary.
- asking a student to read a note about the main content of the text.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOR.

- approving.
- no response
- reads aloud to the class.

-guiding student to read correctly, (questioning student's reading, reminding him and the class to apply their rules knowledge: in their reading, referring him and the class to the rules that had been taught).

-explaining to the class the content of the notes and asking them the meaning of a word (wafirah).

-explaining the meaning of the word by means of its derivative and by means of context. (the same patterns of behaviours were observed from the teacher when he asked students to read other notes and the comprehension's questions following the notes. In the course of providing answers to the comprehension questions, he first tried to get the answer from students, then asked students to identify the verses which contain the answers to the questions and finally gave them the answers orally).

-the reader and others with guides from teacher managed to get the rules and the correct reading.

-busy taking notes.

-managed to deduce the meaning after a few attempts. (same patterns of behaviour were observed from students)

-in the course of finding the answers to the comprehension questions, students mostly failed to provide the answers but managed to identify the verses which contain the answers.

-busy taking notes.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

-the teacher provided everything to students (teacher-centered).

-accuracy has been the teacher's main objective throughout the lesson.

-Arabic was the only medium used by the teacher. Thus, translation was avoided and the teaching of vocabulary was conducted solely by means of examples, synonyms, and antonyms.

-the teacher has tried to invite students to participate actively in the discussions but failed, because Arabic was the only medium allowed by the teacher.

-teacher did not give enough efforts to guide students to answer comprehension questions which are too difficult to the students' standard in Arabic.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

-reading aloud and taking notes were the main students activities throughout the lesson.

-most students were reluctant to participate in classroom discussion.

-students only responded to the teacher when being addressed.

-students seemed to have great difficulties to express themselves in Arabic.

- Observation Number: five.
- Subject : Teacher N ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 5/3/91, 11:05am-12:05, 60 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement
- Students: 13 first year students (group D1)
- Lesson : Arabic grammar/ morphology 'nā'ib ul-fā<sup>c</sup>il wa binā' ul-majhūl ( نائب الفاعل وبناء المجهول ) and reading comprehension 'al-qādiy<sup>c</sup> iyāsī ( إبياس القاضي ) from Arabic II (PZ 1942).
- Teaching Materials : al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshi'īn, vol.V ( العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- explaining the rules by means of example.
- transforming active verbs into passive (different form of verbs /different forms of simple past and simple present)
- explaining the rules while transforming verbs into passive (in Arabic).
- explaining the rules explicitly on the black board by means of isolated examples.
- sometimes asking students indirectly to do the transformation.
- asking a student to read isolated examples of active verbs and the same examples which contain passive verbs.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- listening to the teacher and taking notes.
- some students followed after the teacher's transformation verbally.
- reading the examples aloud to the class.

-asking a student to read the definition from the textbook, correcting student's reading and reminding students to memorize the definition and the rules.

-reading the text aloud to the class.

-asking students to read the text silently for five minutes.

-asking students to answer the comprehension question.

-guiding students to give the answer (pointing the place in the text where the answer can be found)

-correcting students answers and repeating the correct answers.

-asking students to repeat the correct answers.

-explaining the meaning of the question (sometimes by means of translation).

-guiding students to give the correct answers, giving the answer in Arabic then in Malay and asking students to translate the answer into Arabic.

-a student read the definition aloud to the class.

-listening to the teacher's reading.

-reading the text silently.

-giving the answers with the teacher's guides.

-students repeating the correct answer.

-giving the answers with the teacher's guides.

-translating the answer with the help of the teacher and the text.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

A-(grammar and morphology)

-grammatical and morphological rules were presented explicitly by the teacher by means of isolated examples. However, the definition of the rules in their complete text was presented at the end of the lesson.

-the comprehension and the memorization of the rules were particularly stressed by the teacher.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

-taking notes and listening to the teacher's presentation were main students' activities.

-students were not induced to participate except following after teacher's talk and reading the examples and the definition and rules.



-the practice of the use of the rules was presented in isolation from the real communications and was mainly performed by the teacher. The learners were only asked to read the correct answers of the practice.

-examples of the use of rules which were presented to students were mainly from the textbook, and the teacher did not make any effort to encourage students to use the rules freely in the classroom.

-rules, definition, examples and practice were themselves objectives of the lesson.

#### B-(Reading)

-in conducting the comprehension questions of the text, the teacher was the main provider to their completion (explaining the meaning of questions, pointing places on the text where the answer can be found, guiding students to answer correctly and finally giving the correct answers and sometimes translating them into Malay)

-most of the comprehension's questions were from the textbook and their completion was the objective of the comprehension practice.

-most of the students were busy copying answers from the teacher.

-some tried to give the answers when requested by the teacher.

-students were having difficulties to express themselves in Arabic even with the teacher's help.

- Observation Number: six.
- Subject : Teacher I ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 5/3/91, 2:00pm-2:50, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 number of students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 13 second year students (group B2)
- Lesson : Arabic rhetorical lesson 'al-qarīnah'( القرينة )  
(from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : al-lughat ul-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah li s-ṣaff  
ith-thani, al-balaghah ( اللغة العربية للصف الثاني - البلاغة ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- reading the definition of qarīnah from the text and translating it to the students.
- explaining the definition and giving examples from Malay context in Malay.
- asking students whether they understand or not.
- analyzing more examples in Malay.
- reading more explanations from the text, translating them and explaining them in Malay.

- translating the examples and explaining them to students in Malay.
  - reading more definitions, rules and examples from the text, translating and explaining them in Malay.
- (the same type of previous behaviours was observed from the teacher until the end of the lesson. after 35 minutes of the lesson period, the teacher used the black board for the first time to copy an example from the text and explained it to the class)

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- taking notes, mostly vowelizing the texts and copying the translation from the teacher.
- silent, busy taking notes
- no verbal response.
- taking notes.

COMMENTS ON  
TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- the teacher spent most of the classroom period presenting the lesson by reading from the textbook translating the texts which include definitions and rules, and examples and explaining them to the learners by means of local examples in Malay.
- the teacher failed to invite students to participate orally in lesson, not even in Malay.
- no effort from the teacher to check students comprehension except asking them twice whether they understand or not.
- the main objective of the lesson obviously was to impart the knowledges of the definitions, rules and examples to the students (students duty is to understand and memorize the definition, rules and examples so that they can produce them when they asked to do so).

COMMENTS ON  
LEARNERS, BEHAVIOUR

- students spent most of the classroom period listening to the teacher and taking notes.
- students were let to be in passive mood.
- there was hardly any verbal response from the students. Everyone was busy writing notes on their textbooks.

- Observation Number: Seven.
- Subject : Teacher I ( second observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 6/3/91, 11:00am 11.50, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - white board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 14 second year students ( group C1)
- Lesson : Reading 'naṣā'ihu luqṣān' ( نَصَائِحُ لُقْمَانَ ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : an-nuṣūṣ al-mukhtārah li s-ṣaff il-'awwal.  
( النصوص المختارة للصف الأول ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOR

- reading the topic of the text and the text aloud to the class (the last verse of the text)
- reading the text to the class and explaining the text first in Arabic, then in Malay.
- translating the verse and exemplifying them.
- reading the meaning of the text from notes written under the text and translating and explaining them in Malay.
- reading the notes which contains the main ideas of the text, translating them and explaining them to students in Malay.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOR:

- students busy taking notes.
- taking notes.
- taking notes.

- giving chance to students to comment or to ask question.
- giving explanation about the content of the text. (giving further stories from the Qur'an and other sources).
- giving order to students to do the comprehension question at home ( answers should be in Arabic)
- reading the comprehension questions to the class and asking students to participate in providing the answers (reminding them that their participation will be awarded with marks).
- approving students responses and emphasizing the given answers in Malay.

- a student gave comments and asked question about the content of the verses. in Malay.

- students provided answers to the comprehension questions in Malay.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- the teacher's main concern was students comprehension of the text and the lesson as a whole. Thus, he used translation and native language throughout the period of the lesson.
- the teacher was successful in inviting students participation in the lesson by allowing students to use Malay.
- the discussion of text comprehension questions and answers had been carried out in Malay. However, it was not known whether the students were able to write them in Arabic.
- the teacher wasted alot of time talking about something which is far from being relevant to the comprehension of the text.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- apart from taking notes and listening to the teacher students were involved actively in lesson discussion ( asking questions, giving their comments and providing the answers to the comprehension questions )
- although Malay is allowed to be used most of the students need to be addressed personally to make him/her participate in the discussion.

- Observation Number: eight.
- Subject : Teacher Z ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 7/3/91, 12.15 -1.00pm 45 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 15 second year students (group E4)
- Lesson : Arabic rhetorical lesson 'al-ḥaqīqatu wa l-majāz, al-majāz ul-mursal ( الحقيقة والمجاز-المجاز المرسل ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : al-lughat ul-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li s-ṣaff ith-thāni, al-balāghah ( اللغة العربية للصف الثاني ، البلاغة ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- presenting definition in Malay then in Arabic (memory).
- asking individual students and the class to repeat after him.
- giving examples from local and inviting student to give other examples.
- explaining the definition by comparison.
- giving other definition, repeating it and asking students to repeat after him (asking students to memorize the definition).
- translating definition and giving examples from local context.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- busy taking notes.
- repeating the definition.
- repeating after the teacher in chorus.
- giving examples of (ḥaqīqah) in Malay
- taking notes.
- repeating the definition of Majaz.
- taking notes

- asking students whether they understand or not the examples read by him from the text.
- translating the examples.
- reading the definitions and explanation and asking students to mark the keys of the definitions on their textbooks.
- asking students explicitly to memorize the definitions.
- taking notes.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- the teacher spent most of the classroom period giving definitions rules and examples in both Arabic and Malay.
- translation was used extensively.
- students' comprehension of the lesson ( definition, rules and examples) was the teacher's main objective.
- the teacher did invite students to participate the discussion of the lesson but with the purpose of only to help students to memorize the definitions and rules and to examine students comprehension of the lesson.
- the teacher's duty was to impart the knowledges of haqiqah, majaz and majaz mursal to students..

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR'

- the students main activities were taking notes and repeating the definitions to the teacher.
- students participation in the lesson was active but only in repeating the definitions and giving examples.
- the use of Malay and the kind of simple activities as mentioned encourage students participation.

- Observation Number: nine.
- Subject : Teacher IM (first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration:, 7/3/91, 2:05pmm-3:00, 55 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - white board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 10 second year students (group A1)
- Lesson : to practice Arabic pronouns 'isnād ud-damā'ir' ( إسناد الضمائر ) and reading comprehension 'khaḍījatū bintu khuwailid' ( خديجة بنت خويلد ) (from Arabic I ( PZ 1952).
- Teaching Materials : al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshī'īn, vol.IV ( العربية للناشئين الجزء الرابع ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- copying text on white board and asking individual students to transform the text into dual, plural masculine and feminine.
- guiding and correcting students transformation of the text.
- explaining the transformation rules.
- asking individual students to read the text aloud to the class.
- giving chances for student to ask the meaning of difficult words, and any question about parsing.
- explaining the meaning of words by means of synonyms and derivative.
- parsing sentences in details to the class.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR'

- individual students transforming text with the help of the teacher.
- some individual students read the text aloud to the class.
- asking the meaning of some words and asking the parsing of some sentences.
- taking notes.



- requesting individual students to read the comprehension questions and to give their answers (right or wrong)
- guiding students to provide the right answers.
- asking students to do the parsing of a sentence, explaining the rules and the parsing of the sentence.
- asking students to read comprehension questions and asking them to provide the answer (direct questions/ book closed)
- correcting answers given by students.
- copying isolated verb from textbook into white board.
- constructing a sentence as an example of the practice and asking individual students : to construct isolated sentences using the given verbs.
- constructing sentences from the given verbs.

- individual students read the comprehension questions and gave the answers.
- giving the right statements with teacher's guides.
- failed to do the parsing.
- reading questions and giving answers with teacher's help.
- only one or two students managed to construct sentences with teacher's help.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- in conducting the practice of the use of Arabic pronounces, the teacher has limited the practice with text provided by the textbook.
- students were not encouraged by the teacher to practice freely.
- language accuracy, parsing sentences and grammatical terminologies have been constantly stressed by the teacher.
- the teacher had carried out the comprehension questions according what was written on the textbook only and provided most of their answers to students.
- the teacher's objective was to complete the tasks written in the textbook for their own sake.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- students activities were mostly controlled by the teacher.
- students responded only by request.
- most of the students concerned particularly with vocabulary and parsing.
- students needed more encouragements from teacher to induce their participation.

- Observation Number: ten.
- Subject : Teacher B ( second observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 8/3/91, 2:30pm-3:20, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 13 second year students (group D4)
- Lesson : Discussion of the text previously read 'wahdāniyat ul-lāh' ( وحدانية الله ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : an-nuṣūṣ al-mukhtārah li s-saff il-'awwal. ( النصوص المختارة للصف الأول ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- asking students if there was any question about the text previously read.
- asking students whether they had read the text at home.
- reading the main content of the text to students, translating and explaining them.
- checking students comprehension by direct question (fahimtum?).
- requesting a student to read discussion question.
- correcting student's mistakes in reading.
- asking students whether they understand the question.
- explaining the question in Arabic.
- translating the question.
- asking classroom to give the answer.
- asking students to identify the verses where the answer can be found.
- asking a student to read the verses and then answer the question.
- explaining the answer in Arabic then in Malay.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- no verbal response.
- no verbal response.
- students busy taking notes.
- some students respond positively.
- reading the question aloud to the class.
- others taking notes.
- some students verbally express their difficulties to comprehend the question.
- taking notes.
- failed to respond.
- managed to identify the related verses.
- read the related verse but failed to give the answer.
- taking notes.

- writing the model answer on the black board.
- asking classroom to read the answer from the black board. (the same patterns of teacher's behaviours were observed throughout the completion of the questions of text's discussion).

- busy copying the answer from the black board
- reading the answer from black board in chorus.
- three students managed to give the right answers to some questions with teacher's guides.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- throughout the completion of the comprehension questions the teacher provided almost everything to the students.
- the teacher did not only explain and translate the answers to students but also wrote them on the black board for students to copy.
- accuracy in reading and in giving the the answers to the comprehension questions has been constantly stressed and maintained.
- comprehension's questions presented to students were entirely from the textbook and they were too difficult to students.
- teacher did not make any effort to introduce simpler questions which are appropriate to students level of proficiency.
- teacher obviously provided everything required by the syllabus but neglecting students' ability.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- reading aloud and taking notes were main students activities throughout the period of discussion.
- students failed to provide the answers to the given questions.
- most students were reluctant to participate in providing the answers.
- students responded only when requested.

Observation Number: eleven.

-Subject : Teacher N ( second observation ).

-Date/Time/Duration: 8/3/91, 4:30pmm-5:25, 55 minutes.

-Classroom Environment:

- maximum load is 16 students.
- white board.
- teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
- chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
- no room for free movement.

-Students: 14 first year students (group A3)

-Lesson : Reading comprehension (revision) 'al-qā'idu <sup>c</sup>amrubn ul-<sup>c</sup>ās ( القائد عمرو ابن العاص ) (from Arabic II ( PZ 1942).

-Teaching Materials : al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshi'īn, vol.V ( العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس ).

-Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- asking students to read the text silently.
- read a paragraph aloud to the class.
- giving chance for students to ask any difficult words, phrases or sentences.
- explaining the meaning of words by means of synonyms, derivatives, putting them in examples and sometimes by means of translation.
- conducting comprehension questions by requesting individual students to provide the answers.
- correcting and guiding students to answer correctly and accurately.
- asking students to repeat the correct answers.
- explaining words by means of synonyms and giving the answers in both Arabic and Malay.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- reading the text silently.
- asking the meaning of words.
- deducing the meaning and taking notes.
- individual students tried to provide the answers from their memory with the teacher's helps.
- individual students repeated the correct answers.

- asking students to translate the answer from Malay into Arabic.
- asking students to copy the given answers and to memorize them.
- conducting right and wrong comprehension questions.
- requesting students to provide the right answers.
- correcting and guiding students to provide the correct answers.
- giving the answers and explaining them to students.
- a student managed to translate the answer into Arabic with help of the teacher.
- copying the answers.
- individual students managed to give the correct response to the questions
- individual students gave the correct statements with teacher's help .

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- the teacher has explained the meaning of words by various kind of method.
- although the teacher has requested students to supply answers to the comprehension questions, the teacher was, however, the main provider.
- the direct questions asked by the teacher were difficult to students standard. Those questions were not introduced with simpler questions.
- the teacher's focus was mainly students comprehension of the text and their ability to provide the correct answers to the given questions. Thus, the objective of the lesson did not go beyond the text and the specific questions from the text.
- no specific language practice suggested by the teacher except asking students to repeat and memorize some correct answers to given questions.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- students main concern was to to get the meaning of difficult words, and to get the correct answers to the given questions.
- students need to be asked to make them respond or to participate in providing answers to the comprehension questions.
- students activities were confined to providing direct response to the teacher's request.
- students were having difficulties to express in Arabic even with the help of the teacher and the text.

- Observation Number: twelve.
- Subject : Teacher G (second observation).
- Date/Time/Duration: 11/3/91, 9:05 am - 9:55 am, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - White board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement
- Students: 14 second year students (group B1).
- Lesson : Grammar al-na<sup>c</sup>t ( النعت ) from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ), (Revision).
- Teaching Materials : Arabic Grammar textbook mulakhkhas qawā'id il-lighat il-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyah ( ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- asking examples of an-na<sup>c</sup>t.
- requesting students to produce the rules of an-na<sup>c</sup>t.
- requesting sentences analysis.
- guiding student to analyse.
- explaining the rules of an-na<sup>c</sup>t and comparing them with the rules of al-hāl.
- giving vocabulary meaning by direct translation.
- giving examples of detailed analysis of sentences on white board while explaining them orally.
- requesting students explicitly to take notes about the parsing.
- asking students the meaning of a word and directly explaining its meaning by comparing it with another word of the same root.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- responding by giving examples.
- a student read the rules from his notes.
- a student tried to analyse the sentence.
- most of the students were busy taking notes.
- taking notes.
- most of the students were dictating teacher's orally.
- taking notes.

- reminding students to be able to do the parsing correctly.
- giving more isolated examples which manifest the rules.
- requesting one of the students to read the definition and conditions of an-na<sup>c</sup>t as-sababiy from the textbook.
- correcting student's reading and explaining what being read.
- asking feedbacks from students.
- requesting another student to read more rules and examples from textbook.
- explaining the rules and examples and giving detailed sentences analysis
- reminding students to memorize definitions, rules, examples and the correct way of parsing.

-reading definition and rules aloud.

-approving their comprehension orally.

-reading aloud.

-taking notes and imitating after teacher's sentence analysis in chorus.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- teacher's main concern throughout the period of the lesson revision was only students' comprehension and memorization of definitions, rules, and sentences' parsing. Thus, this demonstrated a true example of teaching and learning grammatical analysis rather the language itself.
- grammatical terminologies were constantly emphasized.
- no effort has been made by the teacher to encourage students to freely engage in language production.
- grammatical practice was confined only to the production of isolated examples which manifest the use of the rules.
- only isolated examples were given to the students, and most of those examples were from the textbook.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- students spend most of classroom period taking notes, listening to the teacher and dictating the teacher orally.
- students responded only when requested by the teacher.
- other students activities were mainly giving examples and rules and reading aloud.

- Observation Number: thirteen.
- Subject : Teacher M ( second observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 11/3 91, 2:00pm-3:00, 60 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 14 second year students (group A4)
- Lesson : Discussion of the text previously read 'naṣā'ihu luqṣmān' ( نصاب لقمان ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : an-nuṣuṣ al-mukhtārah li s-saff il-'awwal ( النصوص المختارة للصف الأول ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- asking a student to read the first note of the content of the verses.
- guiding and correcting student's reading.
- explaining the content of the note.
- asking students to identify the verses which explain the content.
- asking a student to read the next note from the text.
- guiding student's reading( asking reason, reminding and explaining the rules, parsing the sentence and giving the correct reading).
- explaining the meaning of words by means of sentences, synonyms and derivatives.
- explaining the content of the note.
- asking a student to read the first comprehensions questions.
- guiding student's reading by reminding him and the class the rules, and parsing the sentences.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- a student read the note aloud to the class.
- managed to read correctly with the teacher's guides.
- most of the students were busy taking notes.
- managed to identify the verses.
- reading aloud.
- after a few attempts, managed to produce the relevant rules and read correctly.
- finally managed to get the meaning.
- read aloud.
- tried to recall the rules.
- taking notes.



- explaining the meaning of the question and asking students to provide answer.
- guiding student to identify the answer from the text.
- explaining the answer.
- the same patterns of behaviours were observed from the teacher in conducting the rest of the discussions.
- due to the lack of time the teacher read the rest of the comprehension questions to the students, explaining them and giving the answers.

- failed to provide the answer.

- managed to identify the related verses but failed to answer.

- taking notes.

- two students managed to give the right answers with the teacher's guides.

- busy taking notes.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- language accuracy was the main interest of the teacher. Rules explanations and sentence parsing were emphasized in order to correct student ability to read correctly.
- although the teacher had tried to invite students to participate in the course of the lesson, the teacher finally had to provide all the input (explanation of the meaning of words, notes and questions, and giving the answers (teacher-centered)).
- most of the input provided by the teacher are from the text and the teacher followed rigidly the input provided without making any effort to provide questions of his own to suit the students Arabic ability or to guide students to answer the given questions from simple to complex questions.
- Arabic was the only medium of instruction, therefore it failed to invite students to participate actively.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- reading aloud, taking notes recalling the rules were the main students activities.

- students only responded when been addressed by the teacher.

- Students seemed to have great difficulties to express themselves in Arabic.

- some students were found to be afraid and nervouse to participate even when encouraged by the teacher.

- Observation Number: Fourteen.
- Subject : Teacher BS (first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 12/3/91, 3:05pmm-3:55, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - white board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing boards at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 4 first year students (group D4)
- Lesson : Reading comprehension 'tārikh ul-madāris ' ( تاريخ المدارس ) and grammatical and morphological lesson 'al-fi'ul ul-mabniyyu li l-majhūl wa nā'ib ul-fā'il ( النحل المبني للجهول ونائب القاعل ) (from Arabic II ( PZ 1942).
- Teaching Materials : al-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyatu li n-nāshi'in, vol.V ( العربية للناشئين الجزء الخامس).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

- defining the topic of the lesson.
- asking a student to read a paragraph of the text aloud to the class.
- reading the paragraph aloud to the class.
- explaining the meaning of the paragraph sentence by sentence in Arabic.
- explaining the meaning of words by means of explanation and derivative words.
- explaining to the class a new grammatical and morphological lesson to be learned.
- asking students to identify passive verbs from the paragraph.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- a student read the paragraph aloud to the class.
- listening to the teacher.
- taking notes.
- trying to deduce the meaning.

- guiding students to identify the passive verbs.
- explaining the rule and the parsing by means of examples on the white board.
- asking students and guiding students to identify another passive verb from the paragraph.
- explaining the rules and the parsing explicitly.
- asking a student to read next paragraph aloud to the class.
- reading the paragraph aloud.
- asking individual students to translate the paragraph and guiding them to translate correctly.
- explaining the meaning of words by putting them in examples and asking students to deduce their meaning.
- explaining the main points from the paragraph in Arabic.
- giving chance for students to ask any question about the paragraph (line by line)
- asking another student to read read the following paragraph aloud to the class.
- correcting students reading, then reading the paragraph aloud to the class.
- explaining the content (in Arabic) and asking students to translate sentences and phrases.
- guiding students to translate.
- students managed to identify a passive verb with teacher's guides.
- copying from white board.
- students failed to identify.
- taking notes.
- reading aloud.
- a student tried to translate.
- deducing the meaning.
- no question.
- reading aloud.
- translating the text.

COMMENTS ON  
TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- reading aloud and language accuracy were stressed throughout the lesson.
- the teacher's main objective was to ensure students comprehension of the text in every details. Thus, the comprehension of the text was the target of the lesson.
- the teaching of vocabulary was mainly carried out by means of examples. Students were encouraged by the teacher to induce the meaning from examples.
- the teacher used and encouraged students to use translation to ensure and to examine students comprehension of the text.
- the teacher's main roles were as an instructor and as a supplier to the whole tasks
- the teaching of rules was carried out in contexts. However, rules and parsing were explained explicitly and constantly stressed by the teacher.
- the examples of the use of rules were very limited and the teacher did not give any chance for students to practice the use of rules.
- a peculiar example of teacher-centered approach in teaching.

COMMENTS ON  
LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- students main activities were reading aloud, translating, taking notes and listening to the teacher.
- students activities were controlled by the teacher.
- students responded only when requested.
- not enough encouragements for students to participate actively.

- Observation Number: fifteen.
- Subject : Teacher Z ( second observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 13-3-91, 11.00am-12.00, 60 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - white board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 13 second year students (group E2).
- Lesson : Arabic grammar/ morphology 'al-maqṣūr wa l-manqūṣ, wa l-mamdūd ( **المقصور والمنقوص والمدود** ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : mulakhkhaṣ qawā'id il-lughat il-<sup>C</sup>arabiyyah ( **ملخص قواعد اللغة العربية** ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- introducing categories of Arabic nouns in brief (Malay).
- writing the topic of the lesson on the white board and asking students to read in chorus.
- copying the definition of al-maqsur on the white board, reading it repeatedly and requesting students to copy on their notebooks exactly as it was written.
- examining students writing.
- asking students the meaning of the definition, explaining its meaning in Arabic (from textbook) and translating it to students.
- requesting students to copy the meaning of the definition (Arabic).
- copying the examples of al-maqsur from textbook into white board, reading them repeatedly and asking students to read them in chorus.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- taking notes and reading the topic in chorus repeatedly.
- copying.
- copying.
- reading the isolated examples of al-maqṣūr in chorus.

-giving three examples of al-maqsur in isolated sentences, explaining the parsing of al-maqsur repeatedly and asking classroom to repeat the parsing in chorus and individually.  
-asking two students to write what has been taught on the white board and explain them to the class.

-reading the parsing in chorus repeatedly.  
-individual students reading the parsing (almost everyone).  
-two students wrote the lesson and explained it to the class (in front<sup>of</sup> the class).

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR

-the teacher's main objective was to impart grammatical and morphological knowledges to students.  
-all the teacher's activities were to ensure students comprehension of the lesson, their ability to do the parsing and their ability to reproduce the lesson whenever they are asked to do so.

- the teacher wasted a lot of time telling students to memorize the lesson ( definition and parsing).  
-no effort had been made by the teacher to make students practice the use of the rules or to produce the language.  
-the use of Malay and translation was very extensive and unnecessary.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

-taking notes and repeating rules, examples and parsing were students main activities.  
-students were totally over-controlled.

- Observation Number: sixteen.
- Subject : Teacher: Mas. ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 13-3-91, 2:00pm-4:00, two hours.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - white board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 11 second year students (group F4)
- Lesson : Reading comprehension 'al-<sup>c</sup>ilmu fi l-'islām ( العلم في الإسلام ), muslimūn ( مسلمون ), ma<sup>c</sup>al-hayāti ( مع الحياة ), and wājib ush-shabāb il-muslim ( واجب الشباب المسلم ). (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : 'an-nusūs ul-mukhtāratu li s-saff il-'awwal ( النصوص المختارة للصف الأول ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- asking students the meaning of difficult words.
- asking individual students to read comprehension questions, and correcting students reading.
- asking students to give the answers.
- giving answers and explaining them to the class in both Arabic and Malay.
- correcting students reading by reminding them rules, explaining rules and the parsing.
- explaining briefly the new topic.
- asking individual students to read the text aloud.
- guiding students to read correctly, reminding them rules and giving the correct reading.

#### B-LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR

- student read the meaning from textbook.
- individual students read comprehension questions aloud with teacher's help.
- no response.
- taking notes.
- reading comprehension questions with teacher's help.
- individual students read the text aloud with teacher's guides.

- reading the text aloud to the class, and explaining the text sentence by sentence in both Arabic and Malay.
- asking individual students to read the verses aloud to the class.
- correcting students reading and reminding them rules.
- explaining vocabulary by means of synonyms and translation.
- reading the verses aloud to the class, explaining them in Arabic and Malay (verse by verse).
- introducing new passage, reading the introduction and explaining it to students in Arabic and Malay
- asking individual students to read the text aloud to the class.
- reading the text aloud to the class explaining the text, sentence by sentence, in Arabic and Malay.
- listening to the teacher and taking notes.
- individual students read the verses aloud.
- listening to the teacher and taking notes.
- listening and taking notes.
- reading aloud.
- listening and taking notes.

#### COMMENTS ON TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR:

- students comprehension of the texts and comprehension questions and students ability to provide the correct answers to the given comprehension questions were the main objective of the teacher.
- the teacher provided everything to ensure students comprehension.
- accuracy has been stressed throughout the lesson.
- translation has been used by the teacher as an easy and quick way to ensure students comprehension and to complete the syllabus ( a set of comprehension questions and three long passages have been taught within two hours)
- no discussion involved and students were not encourage to participate except reading aloud.

#### COMMENTS ON LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- listening to the teacher, reading the texts aloud and taking notes were students main activities.
- students were let by the teacher in passive mood.
- students were used to be spoon-fed.



- Observation Number: seventeen.
- Subject : Teacher Sh. ( first observation ).
- Date/Time/Duration: 14-3-91 9.10 -10.00, 50 minutes.
- Classroom Environment:
  - maximum load is 16 students.
  - black board.
  - teacher's table at the front of the classroom.
  - chairs attached with writing board at the front.
  - no room for free movement.
- Students: 12 second year students (group B3)
- Lesson : Arabic rhetorical lesson al-majāz ul-mursal  
( المجاز المرسل ) (from Arabic IV ( PZ 2922 ).
- Teaching Materials : al-lughat ul-<sup>c</sup>arabiyyatu li ṣ-ṣaff  
ith-thāni, al-balāghah ( اللغة العربية للصف الثاني ، البلاغة ).
- Observation:

#### A-TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- reminding student in advance to memorize definitions.
- reading the definition, explanation and examples from the text and explaining them in Arabic.
- reading definitions, explanations and examples from the text and translating and explaining them to students in Malay.
- (the same kind of behaviour are observed from the teacher until the end of of the lesson. Sometimes the teacher did ask students feedback but only to know whether the students understand the lesson or not.

#### LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR:

- listening to the teacher's reading and following it by looking at their own textbooks.
- taking notes and putting them in their textbooks.
- listening to the teacher and taking notes

COMMENTS ON  
TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR.

- the teacher's main concern was students' comprehension of what is written on the textbook.
- reading definitions, explanations and examples from the text, translating them and explaining them to the students were the teacher's main activities.
- the teacher did not make any effort to invite students to practice or to produce the language.
- Malay was used extensively by the teacher except at the beginning of the lesson and in reading the text.

COMMENT'S ON  
LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR.

- listening to the teacher's reading and taking notes were students main activities.
- students were let to be in passive mood.

APPENDIX D

SUBJECTS, DATES AND DATA OF INTERVIEWS AND DISCUSSIONS

Subjects	Means	Date	Types of data or information
1-Vice Chancellor of the National University of Malaysia, Tan Sri Dato, Prof. Dr.HJ. Abdul Hamid Hj. Abdul Rahman.	Unofficial interview	3/4/91	- Language policy and program resources.
2-Deputy Registrar of the National University of Malaysia.	interview	3/4/91	-program resources.
3-Four coordinaters of Arabic courses.	inter-view & discussion	2/3/91 4/3/91 4/4/91	-the management of Arabic courses. -the teaching of Arabic v (PZ3912) -the problems of Arabic in the Faculty.
4-Head of the Department of Arabic Studies	interview	2/3/91	-program resources.
5-Ten staff./colleagues at the Faculty of Islamic Studies.	informal discussion	5/4/91 6/4/91 9/4/91	-The problems of Arabic in the Faculty.

## APPENDIX E

### ARABIC TEXTBOOKS

- الجارم ، على ، وأمين ، مصطفى (1959) " النحو الواضح في قواعد اللغة العربية " الجزء الأول والثاني والثالث ، دار المعارف ، مصر .
- الحاج أبو بكر - عبدالرحمن ( بدون تاريخ ) " اللغة العربية " قسم التربية الإسلامية - وزارة التربية الماليزية .
- المحلاوي ، أحمد ( بدون تاريخ ) " شذا العرف " القاهرة .
- الزيني ، طه محمد ( تحقيق ) (1970) " شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية ابن مالك " القاهرة ، عيسى البابي الحلبي
- سعد رجيئي سعد ، حاج هاشم ( تحقيق ) (1990) " العربية " الجزء الثاني ، كوالالمبور - ديوان بهاس دان فستاك .
- الصنهاجي الاجرومي ، أبو عبد الله محمد بن محمد بن داود " المقدمة الاجرومية " بتحقيق بريسنيار ، م . ( M. و BRESNIER ) ، الجزائر ، مطبعة LIBRAIRE-EDITEUR .
- محمد الأمين ، الشيخ محمد ( بدون تاريخ ) " شرح نشور الذهب في معرفة كلام العرب " القاهرة ، عيسى البابي الحلبي
- نخبة من المدرسين في معهد مارا للعلوم ( 1987 ) " اللغة العربية الميسرة " كوالالمبور ، جيفنمس انتر فريس .

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