

**Needs Analysis and Course Design for Da'wa Students:  
Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP)**

By  
**Abdalla Musa Tair Mohammed**

**Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy**

**Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies  
The University of Leeds**

**The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his own and that appropriate credit has been given  
where reference has been made to the work of others**

**June 1998**

## Abstract

It was found that the field of Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language (TAFL) is not totally devoid of textbooks and research studies concerning Arabic for Specific Purposes (ASP). However, the greater part of these attempts lack a theoretical framework and, seemingly, guidance. Such attempts therefore fail to achieve their goals; hence, the researcher formed the opinion that a course for Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP) needed to be designed. A theoretical framework for needs analysis and course design was required immediately as a first step.

As my research focused on Saudi Arabia, the question was: What is the most important field to be taken as a case study? The obvious answer to this was Islamic Studies because students do not primarily come to Saudi to study medicine, or technical subjects: it is a fact that, more than 90% of final level students on TAFL programmes want to improve their Arabic in the field of Islamic Studies and more than 80% of them specifically chose the Islamic mission (*da'wa*) for their target purpose.

It is the aim of this research to introduce the concept of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes to the field of Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia. It is in fact the groundwork to further detailed projects in this context. For this reason, an investigation was conducted in the following areas: Language for Specific Purposes, English for Specific Purposes, Language for Academic Purposes, Needs Analysis, and Course and Syllabus Design in the field of Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes.

To bring the concept of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes into application, it was essential to study how a course could be developed in the light of the needs of the *da'wa* students in Saudi Arabia: the researcher undertook to assess and interpret the needs and demands of the students, the subject of *da'wa*, the teachers of *da'wa*, the TAFL teachers, the administrative staff in the Faculties of Da'wa and TAFL Institutes in Saudi Arabia. To ensure valid results, different methods were employed, such as: questionnaires, interviews and diagnostic tests. The findings of the needs analysis showed that reading was the most required skill for the students of *da'wa* and a course was designed to meet that objective.

## Abbreviations

AFL:	Arabic as a Foreign Language
ALECSO:	Arab League Educational Cultural and Scientific Organisation
ans.:	answer
AS:	Administrative staff
ASP:	Arabic for Specific Purposes
AT:	Teachers of Arabic as a Foreign Language
CTEFLA:	Cambridge Certificate in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language to Adults
EGAP:	English for General Academic Purposes
ESAP:	English for Specific Academic Purposes
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
(fd):	female dual
FL:	Foreign Language
(fs)	female singular
FLT:	Foreign Language Teaching
FSD:	First Year students of the Faculties of Da <sup>c</sup> wa
freq.:	frequency
gro.:	group
ibid.:	in same book
IMU:	Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University
IU:	Islamic University
L1:	the native language
L2:	the second language
LC:	Library of Congress
LGAP:	Language for General Academic Purposes
LSAP:	Language for Specific Academic Purposes
(md):	male dual
(ms):	male singular
MSA:	Modern Standard Arabic
no.:	number

Pl.:	plural
per.:	percentage
qu.:	question
RSA:	Royal Society of Arts Preparatory Certificate in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language
sec.:	sections
sem.:	semester
ST:	Subject Teachers of <i>da<sup>l</sup>wa</i>
stu.:	student
TAAP:	Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes
T AFL:	Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language
TASP:	Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes
TS:	Target Situation
TSA:	Target Situation Analysis

## Acknowledgements

الحمد لله الذي تتم بنعمته الصالحات

**“All praise to Allāh by whose grace the good works are achieved”**

It is my pleasure to express my deep thanks and sincere appreciation to my supervisor Dr Dionisius A. Agius for his continuous help, patience and valuable comments during this study. Many thanks are due to the Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (Riyadh) for granting the financial support which enabled me to achieve this study.

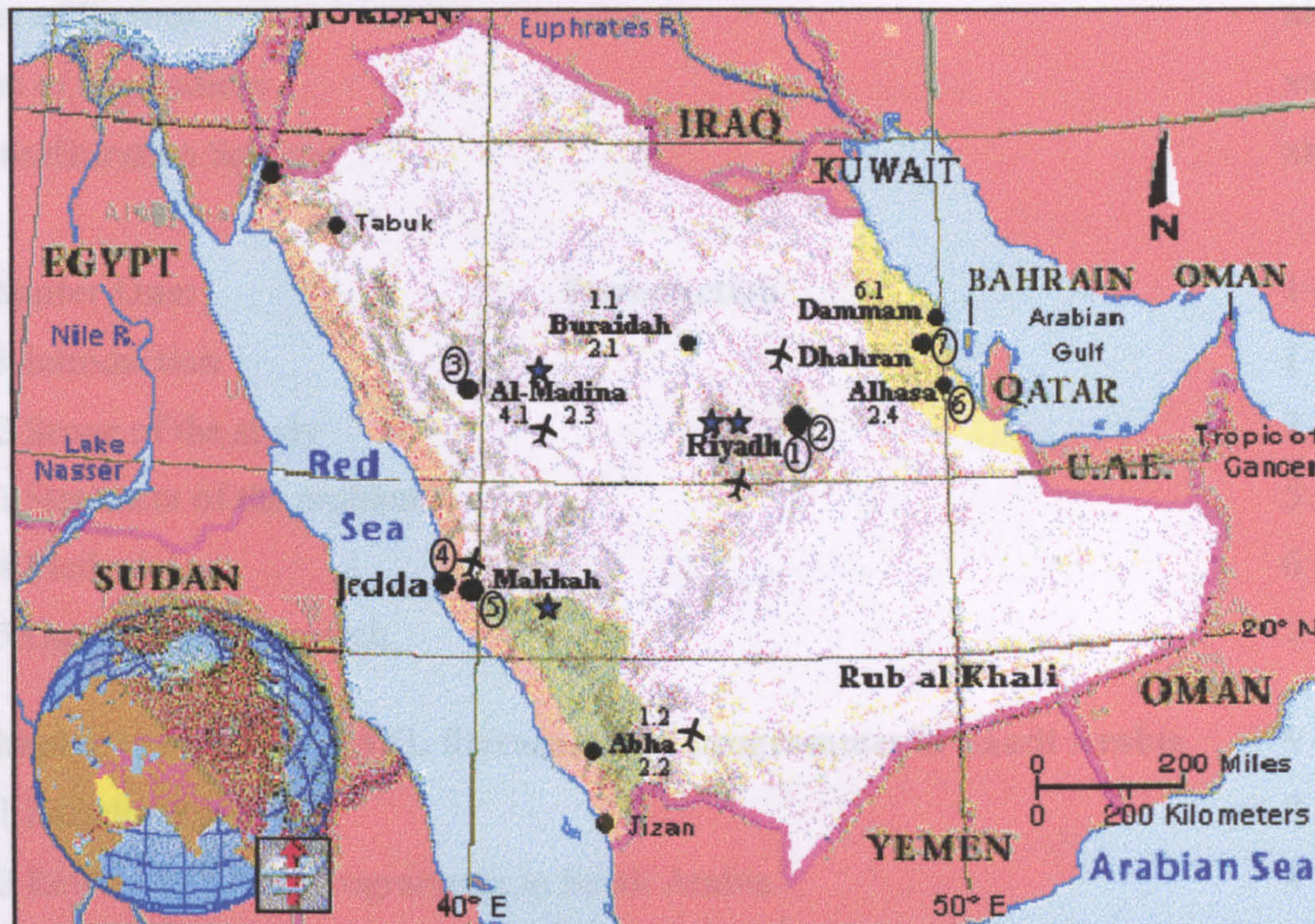
Special thanks are due to all students and academic members of *da'wa* and TAFL Institutes who helped me during my field study especially at the Imam University and the Islamic University (Al-Madina). In addition, I would like to thank all members of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies Department at the University of Leeds for their assistance and friendly atmosphere during my study. I am also grateful to Mr. Abdulla al-Nasir (the Saudi Cultural Attaché, London), professor Raji Rammuny (Ann Arbor, Michigan), Professor Mahmoud Sieny (Riyadh), Dr Su'aidi Safei (my previous colleague at Leeds University), Ms S. F. Moultrie (York), Dr Mahmoud al-Batal (Atlanta, Georgia), Dr Mahdi Alish (the Ohio State University) and many other good people for their help, advice and encouragement.

My gratitude is paid to my parents for their support and prayers for me. My deep thanks are due to my beloved wife Norah for her support, patience and encouragement. Finally, the arrival of my daughter, Lama, on the 18<sup>th</sup> of May 1998, shortly before the submission of this thesis was of great significance to me; I wish her a future filled with joy.

## Glossary of Arabic terms

ʿaqīda:	article of faith.
daʿā:	to pray, invoke, call for, supplicate (see <i>daʿwa</i> and <i>dāʿiya</i> ).
dāʿiya:	(pl. duʿāt) one who invites people to Islam.
daʿwa:	call to Islam/missionary call
fiqh:	Islamic jurisprudence.
ḥadīth:	sayings and deeds of the prophet Muḥammad (otherwise called “tradition”).
ḥisba:	enjoining what is right and forbidding what is wrong; the original meaning is: “making sure that religious and moral injunctions of the <i>Sharʿa</i> were carried out, especially in the markets of Islamic cities and towns” (Netton 1992: 177-178).
īthār:	honouring another above one’s self or thinking of another’s gain rather than one’s own (i.e. being altruistic, to wish someone well, the best).
khuṭba:	sermon.
muḥtasib:	the appointed man to undertake on behalf of Muslims, the practice of commanding the good and forbidding the evil.
sharīʿa:	Islamic law.
ṣīra:	biography of the Prophet.
sunna:	all the traditions and practices of the prophet Muḥammad that have become as models to be followed by Muslims.
tafṣīr:	exegesis: explanation or interpretation of the Qurʾān.
tawḥīd:	“declaration of the oneness of God” ( <i>ibid.</i> :248).
uṣūl al-dīn:	principles or fundamentals of Islam.

## Map of Saudi Arabia



### Note:

Names of cities follow the spelling convention of the Ministry of Information in Saudi Arabia.

- |   |                                     |                  |                 |   |
|---|-------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------|---|
| ① | King Saud University (Riyadh)       | ★                | T AFL institute |   |
|   | 1.1                                 | Buraidah branch  | ✈               | Areas of the initial / main field studies |
|   | 1.2                                 | Abha branch      |                 |   |
| ② | Imam University (Riyadh)            |                  |                 |   |
|   | 2.1                                 | Buraidah branch  |                 |   |
|   | 2.2                                 | Abha branch      |                 |   |
|   | 2.3                                 | Al-Madina branch |                 |   |
|   | 2.4                                 | Alhasa branch    |                 |   |
| ③ | Islamic University (Al-Madina)      |                  |                 |   |
| ④ | King Abdul Aziz University (Jeddah) |                  |                 |   |
|   | 4.1                                 | Al-Madina branch |                 |   |
| ⑤ | Umm Al-Qura University (Makkah)     |                  |                 |   |
| ⑥ | King Faisal University (Alhasa)     |                  |                 |   |
|   | 6.1                                 | Dammam branch    |                 |   |
| ⑦ | King Fahad University (Dhahran)     |                  |                 |   |

	<b>Table of contents</b>	
List of Tables		xv
List of Figures		xix
List of Appendices		xx
Transliteration Scheme		xxi
		36
<b>Chapter One:</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	1 - 8
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Scope of the study	2
1.3	Statement of the problem	5
1.4	Methodology	6
1.5	Outline of the research	7
<b>Chapter two:</b>	<b>T AFL literature and programmes in Saudi Arabia</b>	9 - 29
2.1	Introduction	9
2.2	Review of T AFL programmes in Saudi Arabia	9
2.2:1	Historical background of T AFL programmes in Saudi Arabia	9
2.2:2	The current T AFL programmes in Saudi Arabia	10
2.2:2:1	Programmes and objectives	13
2.2:3	Teacher training programmes	17
2.2:3:1	The Curriculum	18
2.2:3:2	Points of view about the T AFL teachers' education	22
2.3	Literature related to T AFL	23
2.3:1	Textbooks in Saudi Arabia	23
2.3:2	Textbooks elsewhere	26
2.3:3	Journals	28
2.3:4	Books and research studies	29
2.4	Conclusion	29
		30
<b>Chapter Three:</b>	<b>T ASP literature</b>	30 - 47
3. 1	Introduction	30
3.2	T ASP in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere	30



3.2:1 The current situation	31
3.2:2 Programmes	31
3.2:3 Research studies related to TASP	32
3.2:4 Textbooks	34
3.3 Surveying the need for a TASP programme in Saudi Arabia	36
3.3:1 Limitation of the initial field survey	36
3.3:2 Population of the initial field survey	36
3.3:3 Instrument of the initial field survey	37
3.3:3:1 Validity of the questionnaire	38
3.3:4 Analysing results of the initial field survey	38
3.3:4:1 TAFL students	39
3.3:4:2 Non-Arab professionals' questionnaire	43
3.4 Conclusion	47
<b>Chapter Four: LSP literature: Background for the present research</b>	<b>48 - 78</b>
4.1 Introduction	48
4.2 Nature of LSP	48
4.2:1 Definition of LSP	48
4.2:1:1 Features of LSP	50
4.2:1:1:1 Needs Analysis	51
4.2:2 Historical background	53
4.2:3 Types of LSP	55
4.2:3:1 LAP	56
4.3 Curriculum, Syllabus and Course Identification	59
4.3:1 Curriculum	59
4.3:2 Syllabus	61
4.3:2:1 Types of LSP syllabuses	62
4.3:3 Course	68
4.3:3:1 Types of LSP courses	68
4.3:4 Curriculum, course and syllabus distinction	71
4.4 Conclusion	77

<b>Chapter Five:</b>	<b>LSP and LAP course design: Theoretical framework</b>	<b>79 - 110</b>
5.1	Introduction	79
5.2	The available attempts	79
5.2:1	Mackay and Mountford (1972)	81
5.2:2	Mackay and Bosquet (1981)	81
5.2:3	McDonough (1984)	82
5.2:4	Hutchinson and Waters (1987)	83
5.2:5	Graves (1996)	84
5.2:6	Jordan (1997)	84
5.3	Proposed framework	86
5.3:1	Theoretical background of the proposed framework	87
5.3:1:1	Needs analysis	88
5.3:1:2	Goals and objectives	96
5.3:1:3	Means analysis	98
5.3:1:4	Syllabus design	99
5.3:1:5	Methodology	104
5.3:1:6	Evaluation	108
5.4	Conclusion	109
<b>Chapter Six:</b>	<b>Needs assessment</b>	<b>111 -138</b>
6.1	Introduction	111
6.2	Pre-needs assessment procedures	111
6.2:1	Determining type of data needed	112
6.2:2	Drawing the samples	112
6.2:3	Instruments of needs assessment	113
6.2:3:1	Questionnaires	113
6.2:3:2	Interviews	115
6.2:3:3	Language tests	117
6.2:4	Analysing and interpreting the results	118
6.3	Analysing the target/learning situation	119
6.3:1	Subject analysis	119
6.3:2	Language analysis	120
6.4	Assessing the needs of students of the Da <sup>C</sup> wa Faculties	121

6.4:1 Students' needs	121
6.4:1:1 Subjective needs	121
6.4:1:2 Objective needs	123
6.4:2 Teachers' demands	124
6.4:3 Organisation demands	125
6.4:4 Target/learning situation needs	125
6.5 The main field study	126
6.5:1 Hypotheses to be investigated	126
6.5:2 Aims of the main field study	126
6.5:3 Drawing the samples	127
6.5:3:1 The Population	127
6.5:4 Designing the main field study instruments	129
6.5:4:1 The questionnaire	130
6.5:4:2 The interviews	131
6.5:4:3 The diagnostic test	132
6.5:5 Conducting the main field study	135
6.5:5:1 Conducting the FSD questionnaire	135
6.5:5:2 Conducting the interviews	135
6.5:5:3 Conducting the diagnostic test	137
6.6 Procedures of analysing and interpreting the results	137
6.7 Conclusion	138
<b>Chapter Seven:       Analysing the results of the FSD questionnaire</b>	<b>139 -172</b>
7.1 Introduction	139
7.2 Personal information about the learners	139
7.3 Learners' motives and attitudes	142
7.3:1 Learners' motives	142
7.3:2 Attitudes towards past-TAFL programmes	145
7.3:3 Attitudes towards TASP	146
7.4 The learners' general needs	147
7.4:1 The current wants	147
7.4:2 The future needs	148
7.4:3 The deficiency	149

7.5 Specific needs	151
7.5:1 The necessities	151
7.5:1:1 Summary	159
7.5:2 Competence of the candidates in the above necessities	160
7.5:3 Lacks	163
7.6 Methodological needs	167
7.6:1 The classroom size	167
7.6:2 Methods of learning	167
7.6:3 Error correction	169
7.6:4 Teaching aids	169
7.7 Time location and of a TAAP course	170
7.8 Subjective needs profile	171
7.9 Conclusion	172
<b>Chapter Eight:        Interpreting the results of the diagnostic test</b>	<b>173 -189</b>
8.1 Introduction	173
8.2 Analysing and interpreting the results	173
8.2:1 Reading test	174
8.2:1:1 Criteria for the assessment	175
8.2:1:2 The overall result	175
8.2:1:3 Diagnostic assessment of the reading errors	178
8.2:2 Writing	180
8.2:2:1 Criteria for the assessment	180
8.2:2:2 The overall result	181
8.2:2:3 Diagnostic assessment of the writing errors	183
8.2:3 Speaking	187
8.2:3:1 Criteria for the assessment	187
8.2:3:2 The overall result	187
8.3: Post-language test interview	188
8.4 The objective needs profile	189
8.5 Conclusion	189

<b>Chapter Nine: Looking into the interviews' results and the learning situation</b>	
<b>needs</b>	190 - 204
9.1 Introduction	190
9.2 AT Interview	190
9.2:1 Age	190
9.2:2 Qualifications and experience	191
9.2:3 Attitudes towards LSP/ASP	191
9.2:4 Experience in LSP/ASP	192
9.2:5 Skills recommended	193
9.3 Subject Teachers' Interview	194
9.3:1 Qualifications and experience	194
9.3:2 Attitudes towards non-Arab students	194
9.3:3 Attitudes towards LSP/ASP	195
9.3:4 The proficiency level: Subject Teachers' view	195
9.3:5 Specific skill recommended	197
9.4 Administrative Staff Interview	202
9.4:1 Attitudes towards LSP/ASP	203
9.4:2 Time and place of a TAAP course	203
9.4:3 Facilities, equipment and teaching aids	203
9.4:4 Teacher training	203
9.7 Conclusion	204
<b>Chapter Ten: Course design for TAAP: Students of <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i></b>	205 - 227
10.1 Introduction	205
10.2 General preliminary facts	205
10.3 A model for TAAP course design	206
10.3:1 External factors	207
10.3:2 Course objectives	207
10.3:3 Internal factors	208
10.3:4 Evaluation	208
10.3:5 Administering the model	208
10.4 Developing a course for TAAP for students of <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> in Saudi Arabia	209
10.4:1 Needs analysis	209

10.4:2 Means analysis	211	
10.4:3 Goals and objectives	212	
10.4:3:1 General goals of the course	212	
10.4:3:2 Course objectives	212	
10.4:3:3 Students' objectives	212	
10.4:4 Syllabus design	213	
10.4:4:1 Selecting the content	213	
10.4:4:2 Setting up the skills	213	
10.4:4:3 Order and adaptation of texts	214	
10.4:5 Methodology	215	
10.4:6 Evaluation	216	
10.5 Syllabus specifications	217	
10.6 Framework for experimental unit	219	
10.6:1 Designing the experimental unit	221	
10.6:1:1 Administering the unit	222	
10.6:2 Teacher's guide	225	
10.7 Conclusion	227	
<b>Chapter Eleven:</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	228 - 232
<b>Bibliography</b>		233 - 247
<b>Appendices</b>		248 - 291

## List of Tables

2.1: Department of Teaching Arabic to Non-Arabic Speakers, Islamic University, Al-Madina	14
2.2: Arabic Language Institute, King Saud University, Riyadh	14
2.3: Arabic Language Institute for Non-Arabic Speakers, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah	15
2.4: Institute of Teaching Arabic to Non-Arabic Speakers, Imam University, Riyadh	15
2.5: Teachers' Preparation Unit, King Saud University, Riyadh	18
2.6: Teacher Training Unit, King Saud University, Riyadh	18
2.7: General Diploma Unit, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah	19
2.8: Special Diploma Programme, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah	20
2.9: Higher Diploma Programme, Imam University, Riyadh	20
2.10: Short Course, Imam University, Riyadh	21
2.11: TAFL Teachers' Training: Short Courses, outside the country (Education)	22
2.12: TAFL Teachers' Training: Short Courses, outside the country (Language)	22
2.13: <i>Silsilat ta'lim al-lughat al-ʿarabiyya</i>	24
3.1: Final level students of TAFL in Saudi Arabia	37
3.2: A sample of the non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia	37
3.3: Assessors' personal information (the initial field survey)	38
3.4: Nationalities of TAFL students	39
3.5: Native languages spoken by students	39
3.6: Future plans of TAFL students	40
3.7: Expected areas of study	40
3.8: Reasons for learning foreign languages	40
3.9: TAFL student's type of readings	41
3.10: Areas of weakness in the TAFL students' Arabic	41
3.11: Areas of difficulty in the TAFL (vocabulary)	42
3.12: Preferred time for a TASP course	42
3.13: Nationalities of the non-Arabs' sample working in Saudi Arabia	43
3.14: Occupations of the non-Arabs' sample working in Saudi Arabia	43
3.15: Languages by order of importance as seen by the non-Arab professionals	44

3.16: Reasons for learning foreign languages as expressed by non-Arab professionals	44
3.17: Type of readings	44
3.18: Who Arabic is used with for business	45
3.19: The need for Arabic	45
3.20: Reasons for learning Arabic	46
5.1: The proposed framework for a Language for Academic Purposes course design	87
5.2: Means analysis	99
6.1: Curricula of the Faculty of Da <sup>c</sup> wa	125
6.2: Population of the main field study	128
6.3: Assessors of the main field's instruments	131
6.4: Validation and time estimation of the test (I)	134
6.5: Validation and time estimation of the test (II)	134
6.6: Conducting the FSD questionnaire	135
6.7: Conducting the ST interview at IU	136
6.8: Conducting the ST interview at IMU	136
7.1a: Candidates' personal information	139
7.1b: Nationalities and mother tongue of the candidates	140
7.2: Other languages spoken by the candidates	141
7.3: Motives of the candidates	143
7.4: Attitudes towards the past-TAFL programmes	145
7.5: The usefulness of TASP courses	146
7.6: Concerned for TASP courses	147
7.7: The candidates' current wants	147
7.8: The candidates' future needs	148
7.9: Re-prioritising the traditional skills	148
7.10: Time spent on practising the traditional (macro-) skills	149
7.11a: Ordering micro-skills according to the time spent on each micro-skills (IU)	150
7.11b: Ordering micro-skills according to the time spent on each micro-skill (IMU)	150



7.12a: Necessity of the learners' needs (IU)	152
7.12b: Necessity of the learners' needs (IMU)	153
7.13: Micro-skills connected to reading skill	155
7.14: Micro-skills connected to writing skill	156
7.15: Micro-skills related to listening skill	157
7.16: Micro-skills related to speaking skill	158
7.17: Strategies related to vocabulary	159
7.18: The most important micro-skills required by <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> specialism	160
7.19a: Candidates' competence in the needed micro-skills (IU)	161
7.19b: Candidates' competence in the needed micro-skills (IMU)	162
7.20: The competence in reading micro-skills	163
7.21: The lack in reading micro-skills	164
7.22a: Lacks in writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary (IU)	166
7.22b: Lacks in writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary (IMU)	166
7.23: The class size	167
7.24: Methods of learning	168
7.25: Ways of error correction	169
7.26: Teaching aids	169
7.27: Preferred time for the TASP course	170
7.28: Preferred place for the TASP course	171
7.29: The subjective needs profile	172
8.1: The overall result of the IU candidates in the reading test	176
8.2: The overall result of the IMU candidates in the reading test	177
8.3: IU candidates (first essay of 100 words)	181
8.4: IU candidates (second essay of 150 words)	181
8.5: IMU candidates (first essay of 100 words)	182
8.6: IMU candidates (second essay of 150 words)	182
8.7: Individual academic writing errors of the IU candidates	184
8.8: Individual academic writing errors of the IMU candidates	185
8.9: Average error per line per candidate of both universities	185
8.10: The average types of errors occurred per line	186
8.11: The overall result of the speaking test	188

8.12: Subjective and objective needs	189
9.1: The AT ages	190
9.2: The AT qualifications	191
9.3: The AT experience	191
9.4: Training programmes for AT in the last five years	191
9.5: Impression of AT towards LSP/ASP	192
9.6: Disciplines that TASP is needed for	192
9.7: Experience of AT in TASP (when and where)	193
9.8: Skills recommended to be considered by TASP (in order)	193
9.9: The ST attitudes towards non-Arab students' level of proficiency in Arabic	195
9.10: The ST attitudes towards TASP	195
9.11: Methods of improving the students' Arabic and their macro-skills	195
9.12: The proficiency level required by the students to study <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i>	196
9.13: Role of Arabic in <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i>	196
9.14: Skills in which students of <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i> are weak	197
9.15: The recommended skills for <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i> study	197
9.16a: Needs of the present situation: Subject Teachers of <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i> (IU)	199
9.16b: Needs of the present situation: Subject Teachers of <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i> (IMU)	199
9.17: Summary of the present situation needs: Subject Teachers of <i>da<sup>o</sup>wa</i>	201
9.18: The preferred time for the TASP course: Administrative Staff	203
10.1: Means analysis for a TAAP course	212
10.2: Designing course for TAAP; syllabus specifications	218
10.2: Designing course for TAAP; syllabus specifications (continued)	219

## **Lists of Figures**

Figure One: TAFL in the Saudi Higher Education System	12
Figure Two: LSP roots and branches	56
Figure Three: LSP and LAP	58
Figure Four: Language-based course design	69
Figure Five: Skill-based course design	70
Figure Six: Learning-based course design	71
Figure Seven: The key factors of course design	83
Figure Eight: Jordan's framework for LAP course design	85
Figure Nine: Necessity of the five areas to the students' study	154
Figure Ten: Re-ordering the necessity of the learners' needs	154
Figure Eleven: Candidates competence in the five concerned areas	162
Figure Twelve: A model for designing a TAAP course for <i>da<sup>l</sup>wa</i> students	206

## List of Appendices

Appendix A: The Initial Field Survey: Results of the TAFL students' questionnaire	249
Appendix B: The Initial Field Survey: Results of Non-Arabs' Questionnaire	253
Appendix C: The Main Field Study: FSD Questionnaire	258
Appendix D: The Main Field Study: Arabic Teachers' Interview	264
Appendix E: The Main Field Study: Subjects Teachers' Interview	266
Appendix F: The Main Field Study: Administrative Staff's Interview	269
Appendix G: The Main Field Study: Post-test Interview and its Results	270
Appendix H: The Main Field Study: The Diagnostic test	272
Appendix I: The Main Field Study: Pre-test Assessment	285
Appendix J: The Experimental Unit: Student's Section	286
Appendix K: The Experimental Unit: Teacher's guide	288

## Transliteration Scheme

The Library of Congress (LC) system of transliteration has been followed throughout the thesis.

### First: Consonants

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

### Second: Diphthongs

ي ay      و aw

### Third: Vowels

Arabic (short vowels)	LC	Arabic (long vowels)	LC
ا	a	آ	ā
و	u	ؤ	ū
ي	i	ي	ī

### Fourth: Other

ة -at (in *idāfa* phrase)

أل al- (for article)

l- (for article preceded by word ending with a vowel)

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.1 Introduction

The inquiry of this research project is the needs analysis and course designing for *da'wa* students. It is important first of all to give brief information about the Arabic language and *da'wa*.

Arabic, spoken by more than 150 million people, is essentially the language of the Qur'an; it became the political and the administrative language of the early centuries of Islam and found its way into several genres of literature and sciences referred to as Classical Arabic. Structurally, the language has not changed over the centuries; the exception is the vocabulary, which is different in Modern Standard Arabic, the official language of the media in religion, political documents and education in general. In addition, Modern Standard Arabic is the language spoken by the educated on formal occasions such as conferences, on the radio and on television. Today, Arabic is one of the six official languages spoken in the United Nations since 1974. On less formal occasions, Arabic in its particular regional dialects is used, though an inter-dialectical Arabic is gradually developing among educated Arabs from different Arab countries.

Classical Arabic is used today in academic circles by students of Arabic language and literature and Islamic Studies in order to study texts and consult early sources. In our case, students of *da'wa* have to be familiar with Classical Arabic sources and have the skill to analyse and interpret the language of the texts concerned; they also require a solid foundation in Modern Standard Arabic to read commentaries of a religious and political nature and they require skills to express themselves coherently in the language.

*Da'wa* (from *da'a* "to call to Islam") is an old Islamic concept which concerns the spreading of Islam within the Muslim and non-Muslim communities. The subject of *da'wa* was not taught as a discipline in academic circles until fairly recently when Al-Azhar University introduced it as part of its undergraduate curriculum some forty years ago. The Saudi universities followed and it was first taught at the Islamic University in

Al-Madina in 1386/1966 followed by Imam University in Riyadh in 1396/1976 and Umm Al-Qura in Makkah fairly recent. Saudi graduates of *da'wa* are expected to teach religion as an academic subject within the public education system and to assist the Islamic community in adhering to the principles and morals of Islam. For non-Arab graduates their area of specialism entails them in instructing and guiding their communities in Islam as well as providing information on the religion and teachings of Islam to non-Muslims at large. The field of *da'wa* comprises a range of subjects in Islamic Studies such as Qur'ān, *ḥadīth*, *tawḥīd*, and *fiqh* and the graduate is expected to have a comprehensive knowledge of these.

## 1.2 Scope of the study

The teaching of foreign languages has improved vastly during the last thirty years. Much consideration has been given to the different aspects of teaching foreign languages such as, planning curricula, teaching methods and evaluation. One significant development clearly follows from giving more respect to the needs of the learners and taking their motives into account at the first stage of curriculum planning. This consideration raises new issues in the field of teaching foreign languages for specific purposes. English, in particular, can be taken as a very good example; many books, programmes and research studies have been produced in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language for Specific Purposes (ESP), whereas in the case of Arabic there have been few serious attempts to reach the same position.

It was found that the Arab world is not totally devoid of textbooks and research concerning teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (ASP). However, these attempts are scattered and mostly of poor quality. Moreover, the greater part of these attempts lack a theoretical framework and, seemingly, proper guidance. Such attempts therefore fail to achieve their goals. On the other hand, no courses for teaching Arabic for specific purposes with a solid basis were found in the Arab World and in Saudi Arabia, in particular, there was no evidence of any such courses.

This idea was in the mind of the researcher when he was asked by the Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMU) in Riyadh (the sponsor of this research) to base his doctoral thesis on planning curricula in Teaching Arabic as a Foreign language (TAFL). It was the chance to escape from the traditional horizon of teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL) in a country where no short courses exist and all

courses are programmed to last at least two years. Of course, there was no single course for teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP). Consequently, the time was appropriate to introduce a new approach to the field of TAFL in Saudi Arabia and maybe on this academic scale to TAFL world-wide. We are not claiming here that TAFL programmes cannot be considered as academically oriented programmes where students are preparing to study at university level, it is believed, however, that these programmes do not differentiate between the two approaches, teaching Arabic for General Purposes and teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes, whereas in the field of Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) these two approaches are totally separated, especially in English. Therefore, the task of this research is to launch TASP into the field of TAFL by establishing a clear framework for needs analysis - the key factor in this study - and for course design, which is entirely missing in the field of TAFL.

Indeed, it was a daunting task for the researcher to start in such a new field where there is such a serious lack in literature. The real support to overcome that feeling came from my advisor, Dr D. Agius, who in addition to his general help and assistance, advised the researcher to meet and consult people who have experience in this field. The researcher in this context met and consulted Professor R. Rammuny from the University of Michigan (Ann Arbor), Professor M. al-Sieny from King Saud University in Riyadh, Professor A. al-Rajehi from Alexandria University, Professor R. Tuaima from Sultan Qaboos University in Muscat, Professor M. Bakalla from King Saud University in Riyadh, Professor R. al-Suaisy from the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation (ALECSO) in Tunis, Dr. M. al-Batal from Emory University and Middlebury College in Atlanta, and Dr. A. Shapan from al-Azhar University in Cairo. These experts in the field of TAFL provided the researcher with enough knowledge to go ahead with the project.

The question that had to be asked was: What is the most important field to be taken as a case study? To answer the question it was imperative to survey the needs of final level students of TAFL in Saudi Arabia, in addition to a sample of non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia. For the purpose of this survey two types of questionnaires were designed (Appendices A and B). The researcher travelled to Saudi Arabia to visit Makkah, Al-Madina, Riyadh and Abha to distribute the questionnaires (see map p vii). Of the total sample 97 (74%) from TAFL institutes filled in the questionnaire and 367 (49.60%) of the total sample from non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia were involved.



The results of the survey confirmed that students do not primarily come to Saudi Arabia to study medicine, or technical subjects; it is a fact that more than 91.75% of the final level students of TAFL programmes want to improve their Arabic in the field of Islamic Studies and when they were asked to point to a specific field 80.41% of them chose the Islamic mission (*da'wa*).

When the researcher had returned from his first academic trip he had to face another challenge which was to establish the theoretical framework. And because there was no significant theoretical literature in the field of TASP, the researcher had to base the process of designing a course for TASP and the process of needs analysis on the literature of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Of course, TAFL literature was not neglected as we reviewed the programmes, textbooks and research studies as well as reviewing several textbooks and research studies related to TASP. In this context, the researcher had to travel to Syria to enquire about two TASP courses run by the Institut Français d' Études Arabes in Damascus (the French Institute for Arabic Studies) and the American Centre for Teaching English (the latter, occasionally, teach Arabic for Specific Purposes [ASP]).

Reviewing ESP literature yielded certain principles and bases for needs assessment and course design. It guided the researcher to the fact that reading is the most important skill in the teaching of language courses for academic purposes (LAP). It was also found that a skill-centred approach is just one of the useful approaches in this field. It is, indeed, the appropriate one in the case of teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes (TAAP) where the learner is a user of the language more than merely a learner. Likewise, this approach helps students to learn "how to learn" during the TAAP course and then carry on improving their skills, abilities and knowledge after completing the TAAP course. It is, in fact, impossible to provide students with the whole vocabulary used in the field of *da'wa* but possible, through this approach, to teach students how to acquire the appropriate vocabulary by themselves.

We pin-pointed the *da'wa* specialism to be the subject of this research for several reasons: i) it was shown that 80.41% of the final level TAFL need to improve their Arabic and, ii) the field of *da'wa* is considered as one of the significant and sensitive branches of Islamic Studies for those working in this field. They take the

responsibility of teaching people Islam, answer any questions about Islam and its application in real life; they need to be prepared sufficiently in Arabic to be able to read the sources written in Modern Standard Arabic and to employ different reading techniques to extract information from Classical Arabic sources.

The researcher had to go back to Saudi Arabia on his second academic trip to investigate the needs of the First Year non-Arab Students of *da<sup>l</sup>wa* (FSD). To achieve this task three instruments were used: 1. A questionnaire addressed to the FSD at the Islamic University (IU) in Madina and Imam University (IMU) in Riyadh. The aim of the questionnaire was to identify their subjective needs. The two universities were chosen because the first accepts 75% of its capacity from non-Saudi students every year including non-Arab students, the latter is the sponsor of this research and also, both concentrate on Islamic Studies; 2. Diagnostic test, to identify the needs of the FSD objectively; 3. Interviews addressed to TAFL teachers (AT), *da<sup>l</sup>wa* lecturers (ST) and the administrative staff (AS).

The results of these instruments allowed us to specify the needs of the students, including their current and future needs and the deficiency in their Arabic and learning skills. In addition, basic information about the teachers of TAFL and *da<sup>l</sup>wa* was collected including their needs, demands and attitudes towards TAAP. We were able to define the needs of *da<sup>l</sup>wa* as a field of study from the teachers' point of view. The teachers made several suggestions as to the important skills and abilities *da<sup>l</sup>wa* students should have in order to achieve their goal. From the administrative staff we identified what they would be prepared to for such a course. The results of the main field study led to developing a part-time course of ten weeks for TAAP for the students of *da<sup>l</sup>wa*.

### **1.3 Statement of the problem**

The problem of the research is: How can we design a course for teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes for the students of the Faculties of *Da<sup>l</sup>wa* at IU and IMU in Saudi Arabia? To answer this question we need to consider some sub-questions as follows:

1. What are the needs of the students of *da<sup>l</sup>wa*?
2. What are the needs of the target/learning situation?
3. What are the demands of the *da<sup>l</sup>wa* teachers?
4. What are the availability and constraints provided or imposed on the course?

5. What type of course is suitable for the needs of the students?
6. On what framework can the course be designed?
7. What are the distinguishing attempts in the field of LSP course design to be taken as a guide for TASP?
8. How the needs and demands can be employed in designing the proposed TAAP course.

Accordingly, the specific objectives of the research are to:

- 1) understand the situation of TASP in Saudi Arabia.
- 2) assess the need for TASP among TAFL students and the non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia.
- 3) identify the academic or the other fields that TASP is needed for.
- 4) establish a theoretical framework for learners' needs assessment and analysis.
- 5) establish a theoretical framework for TASP course design.
- 6) assess the needs of the students of *da'wa* and related demands, availability and constraints.
- 7) design a course for TAAP for the students of a selected field (in number 3 above)
- 8) present a teaching unit as an example of how the course can be implemented.

#### **1.4 Methodology**

We attempt in this research to employ a method that is thought to be the most appropriate one to achieve the aims of this research clearly. In the first stage, we will look into the TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia in terms of their curricula, including the teacher training programmes, the textbooks, valid research studies and books in the TAFL field are also reviewed.

It is found that a good method of studying the current situation of TASP is to make an initial field survey by conducting two questionnaires to assess the need for TASP in the context of Saudi Arabia. The initial field survey aimed also to determine areas that TASP is needed for.

The researcher thereafter attempt to review the ESP literature to define and establish a clear picture of what is meant by LSP, LAP, curriculum, course, syllabus and needs assessment. This review is to underpin developing a framework for TASP course design. This stage leads us to review the former attempts in the field of ESP course design where six well-known frameworks for ESP course design are reviewed. In the

light of these six attempts we propose a theoretical framework for TASP/TAAP course design. The pre-final stage is to put the proposed framework into application by a second visit to Saudi Arabia in order to conduct a field study including a questionnaire, diagnostic test and interviews. The analysis of the data will be organised in a way to record the frequency of responses for each item in the questionnaire, interviews and the diagnostic test and its proportion to the sample as a whole. This means of analysis is sufficient to extract the needs of the students and the other demands.

At the end of the thesis, the researcher propose a part-time course for teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students to be taught within ten weeks of the academic year, three hours a day twice a week. A teaching unit of this course will be presented as an example.

### **1.5 Outline of the research**

The current thesis is divided into eleven chapters: Chapter One explains the scope of the study. Chapter Two looks into the current situation of teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language and its literature and programmes in Saudi Arabia. The results of this chapter show a remarkable unfamiliarity with teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes. Chapter Three focuses on the need for teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes in Saudi. Two groups of non-Arabic speakers are the subject of the study conducted through two questionnaires. The first group comprises of non-Arab students in the final level of the TAFL programme and the second group of non-Arabs of different professions working in the country. The aim is to know if there is a need for TASP and for what purposes Arabic is needed.

The findings of this chapter were the groundwork for Chapter Four which concentrates on providing a background about Language for Specific Purposes in terms of Language for Academic Purposes (LAP), course and syllabus design and needs analysis. These elements are surveyed in order to provide the researcher with a theoretical framework for LSP course design as discussed in Chapter Five. In this chapter the well-known work in the field of ESP and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) was reviewed and a proposed framework for the design of a course for teaching LSP in general and LAP in specific is extracted. This framework is the backbone of developing a course for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes and in our case, for the students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*.

In Chapter Six we will look into Needs Analysis, a framework for which an assessment is made according to the demands and purposes of learning conducted through a questionnaire, diagnostic test and interviews. Those taking part are the First Year Students of the Faculties of *Da<sup>c</sup>wa* (FSD) in the Islamic University (IU) in Madina and Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMU) in Riyadh; the teachers of TAFL (AT), teachers of subjects of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* (ST) and the administrative staff (AS) in the Faculties of *Da<sup>c</sup>wa* and the TAFL Institutes in both Universities. The target/learning situation is analysed through subjects of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* analysis and language used analysis. Principles for interpreting the needs are also formulated in this chapter.

Chapters Seven, Eight and Nine discuss the needs as reflected in the data collected from the field study. Chapter Seven looks into the FSD questionnaire results, Chapter Eight tackles the FSD diagnostic test results and Chapter Nine looks into the AT, ST and AS interviews. The final results show that a need for a TASP course in *da<sup>c</sup>wa* is necessary and the most emphasised skill is academic reading.

Chapter Ten focuses on the application of the theoretical framework of course design. In this chapter a course for TAAP for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students in Saudi Arabia is developed. The main skill on this course is academic reading, though the other skills are included. A model for course design takes into account the present Saudi educational system and TAFL teachers who lack the proper training in TASP. As a practical application, a unit for teaching academic reading is presented in this chapter. Chapter Eleven summarises the findings of this thesis.

## CHAPTER TWO

### **TAFI literature and programmes in Saudi Arabia**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

In a broad sense, Arabic traditionally has been studied as a classical language with a view to understanding religious, literary and scientific texts and, in a non-Arab context, a good translation was always a key issue. In as far as teaching Arabic for functional purposes it was, until fairly recently, totally neglected. The interest to teach Arabic as a foreign language has only developed in the past 30 years. However, "with exception of articles in *Al-ʿArabiyya*, and more recently in journals such as *Foreign Language Annals* and others that are pedagogically oriented", Sawaie (1995:153) rightly remarked that, "there is a paucity of items to date in the field of Arabic pedagogy". If the above is the case for TAFI from Sawaie's perspective, the reality, is to some extent, more optimistic. There are in fact several textbooks, research studies and programmes for TAFI around the world: the researcher will endeavour in this chapter to cover work which has been done in the field of TAFI programmes in Saudi institutes as well as giving a general idea about research studies, books, journals and textbooks published outside Saudi Arabia. The review of the literature is designed to answer the following questions: what is the nature of TAFI programmes in Saudi Arabia (their historical background, the current situation)? and, how is TAFI treated world-wide?

#### **2.2 Review of TAFI programmes in Saudi Arabia<sup>1</sup>**

Saudi universities were established some forty years ago, apart from those colleges teaching Islamic Studies which were already in place. King Saud University was the first to be established in 1377 /1957. The Teaching of Arabic as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia came about after this date and the programme is now being implemented in several institutes.

##### **2.2:1 Historical background of TAFI programmes in Saudi Arabia**

The first institute for TAFI was established at the same time as the Islamic University in Al-Madina in 1386/1966, which offers 70% of its capacity to overseas students.

---

<sup>1</sup>Saudi Arabia, which currently has a population of 14 million, was united under the name Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1351/ 1931.

During the ten years between 1394/1974 and 1404 /1984, three institutes were established for TAFL in Saudi Arabia: i) the Arabic Language Institute, King Saud University in Riyadh in 1394/1974; ii) the Centre for TAFL in Makkah. This Centre belonged originally to the King Abdul Aziz University, but in 1399 /1979 was transferred to the Institute of Arabic Language for non-Arab Speakers. However, after the establishment of Umm Al-Qura University in 1401/1981 in Makkah, the Institute was encompassed by this new university; and iii) the Institute of TAFL to non-Arabs, Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University in Riyadh in 1401/1981. Despite the official establishment of this Institute, the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language had been undertaken by the Arabic Language Faculty at the Imam University in Riyadh four years earlier (see map p vii).

The years between 1394/1974 and 1404/1984 saw a significant increase in the price of oil which enabled the country to expand and develop the education system, thus allowing Saudi Arabia to assume its responsibility towards the Arabic and Islamic world as the country of the Islamic Holy Places and to play the role of a prosperous nation. The Saudi government realised that carrying out this task effectively would require taking the Arabic language and Islamic studies to students who were not able to come to Saudi Arabia. Several centres for TAFL and Islamic studies were founded from 1399/1979 onwards, such as those in Djibouti, Indonesia, Japan, Mauritania, Senegal and the USA. These centres were established with the aim of achieving general goals, such as the introduction of Islamic culture and civilisation, the spreading of Arabic as a language and the strengthening of friendly relations with other countries in the world in the fields of science and culture (Jāmi'at al-Imām 1415/1995: 400).

### **2.2:2 The current TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia**

In addition to the main four institutes of TAFL in Saudi Arabia, the Imam University in Riyadh has six centres for Arabic and Islamic Studies outside the country in the cities of Djibouti, Jakarta, Nouakchott, Ras al Khaimah, Tokyo and Washington DC. The Islamic University in Al-Madina has only one institute for Arabic and Islamic Studies, which is in Dakar. The Saudi government sponsors all these Institutes: teaching is free and students are entitled to free accommodation, food, air tickets and monthly grants. TAFL institutes are generally financed by universities, which, in their turn, are responsible to the Saudi government. Administratively, several bureaucratic procedures would appear to slow down projects: for example, the designing of curricula and the

writing of adequate textbooks. In the past ten years the Ministry of Higher Education has, with efficient management and expert advice, successfully trained Saudi pedagogues to organise TAFL programmes in several institutions around the country. Regrettably, no TAFL programmes have so far been established to cater for the many foreign children studying in Saudi Arabia. Figure One below shows that three universities out of seven - King Abdulaziz, King Fahad, and King Faisal - do not run any TAFL programmes:



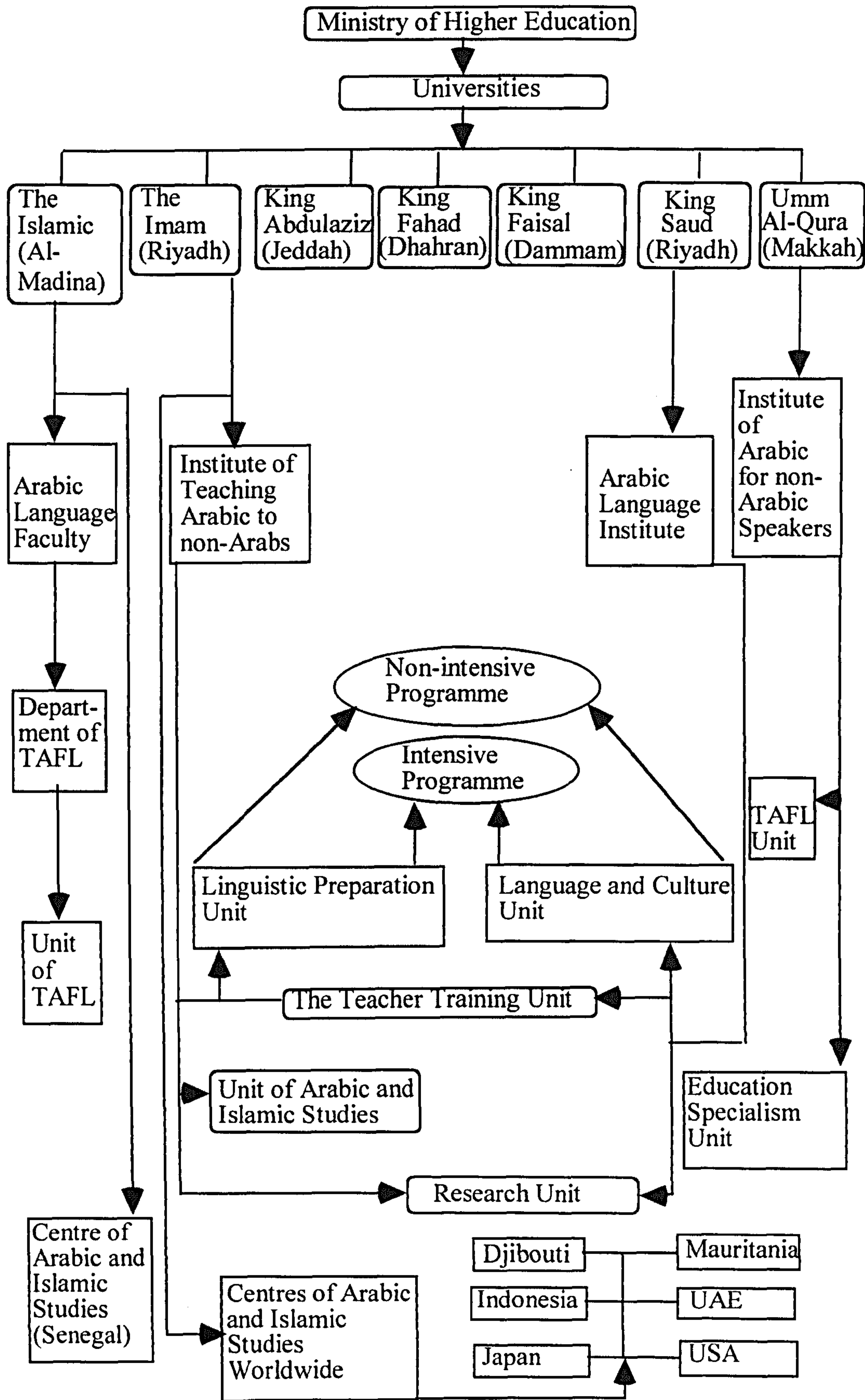


Figure One: TAFI in the Saudi Higher Education system

On investigating the programmes conducted by the Saudi TAFL institutes, it appeared that their focus was to train students academically. This system has several constraints, such as: (a) students must be in a specific age group (18-35), although exceptional cases are considered; (b) students must have obtained a High School Certificate or equivalent; (c) a limited quota of places are reserved for entrance; and (d) focus on degree-programmes. In order to give a clear picture of these programmes, the information will be discussed and organised in the light of: (a) programmes and objectives; (b) number of students; (c) entrance qualifications; (d) levels of study; and (e) the future of graduates.

Finally, we can say that the Saudi universities take great pains to ensure that TAFL is run professionally both in Saudi Arabia and abroad. The government took an interest in this programme and has encouraged the Saudi universities to develop and constantly improve TAFL programmes in the country. Moreover, the Imam University was given the green light and with an unlimited loan to carry out TAFL programmes around the world as mentioned above.

#### **2.2:2:1 Programmes and objectives**

The TAFL units in the King Saud University, the Islamic University and Imam University design and organise two-year programme while the Umm Al-Qura University applies a three-year programme for the Teaching of Arabic to non-Arabic Speakers. The aims and objectives of these TAFL programmes are: to teach Arabic and Islam to non-Arabs; to train teachers; to conduct research; and, to foster co-operation with Islamic countries.

The objectives of the four institutes are practically similar namely: to teach Arabic to non-Arab students in order to communicate in Arabic and to qualify for further studies at the university; to train TAFL teachers; and, to conduct research in the field of TAFL.

The two or three year programmes fall into two divisions: intensive and non-intensive programmes. The intensive programmes are designed to prepare students in Arabic in order to be able to communicate and further their studies at university. Concerning the Saudi TAFL programmes, textbooks are the core syllabus and all curricula and syllabuses are supervised and monitored by the Ministry of Higher

Education. In each case a teaching quality assurance committee in each university monitors the standards of course design, assessment and examination procedures. The following four tables present a broad picture of TAFL programmes in the country:

no.	subjects	weekly hours				hours per subject per programme
		level 1	level 2	level 3	level 4	
1	Qur'an	6	5			11
2	Qur'an and recitation			5	4	9
3	Hadith		1	2		3
4	Fiqh		1	2		3
5	Tawhid			1	2	3
6	Sira			2		2
7	Tafsir				3	3
8	Islamic history				1	1
9	Listening and speaking drills	11		7	7	25
10	Phonetic drills		11			11
11	Dictation	5	5	4	4	18
12	Writing	2				2
13	Composition and dialogue	5	5	5		15
14	Composition				4	4
15	Spelling		1	1		2
16	Literary texts				3	3
17	Khutaba				1	1
	Total hours	29	29	29	29	116

Table 2.1: Department of Teaching Arabic to Non-Arabic Speakers, Islamic University, Al-Madina (al-Jami'at al-Islamiyya 1410/1990:5)

no.	subjects	weekly hours				hours per subject per programme
		level 1	level 2	level 3	level 4	
1	Qur'anic recitation	2	2	2	1	7
2	Islamic Studies			2	2	4
3	Listening comprehension	4	4	2	2	12
4	Conversation	2	2			4
5	Writing practice	2	2	1		5
6	Extensive reading	4	3	3	3	13
7	Phonology + grammar	2				2
8	Vocabulary	2				2
9	Composition	2	2	1	1	6
10	Intensive reading		3	3	3	9
11	Grammar + syntax		2	2	4	8
12	Oral practice			1	1	2
13	Literary texts			3		3
14	Literary texts and rhetoric				3	3
	Total hours	20	20	20	20	80

Table 2.2: Arabic Language Institute, King Saud University, Riyadh (King Saud University 1987:2)

no.	subjects	elementary		intermediate		advanced		hours per subject per programme
		weekly hours		weekly hours		weekly hours		
		sem. 1	sem. 2	sem. 1	sem. 2	sem. 1	sem. 2	
1	Qur'an	2			2			4
2	Qur'anic texts		2					2
3	Tafsir			2		3	3	8
4	Texts from Ḥadīth		2					2
5	Ḥadīth			2	2	2	2	8
6	Fiqh			2	2	2	2	8
7	Tawḥīd					2	2	4
8	Ṣira			2				2
9	ʿaqīda				2			2
10	History of the orthodox caliphs.				2			2
11	Selections from books on jurisprudence and faith						2	2
12	Reading	6	5	4	3			18
13	Reading and short stories					3	3	6
14	Conversation	8	5					13
15	Writing	4	4					8
16	Language laboratory	3	3	1	1			8
17	General drills	2	2					4
18	Calligraphy		2	1				3
19	Grammar			3	3	4	3	13
20	Dictation			3	2			5
21	Composition			3	3	2	2	10
22	Literary texts			2	3	3	3	11
23	Library					1	1	2
24	Rhetoric					2	2	4
25	Selection from Classical Arabic literature					1		1
	Total hours	25	25	25	25	25	25	150

Table 2.3: Arabic Language Institute for Non-Arabic Speakers, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah (Jāmiʿat Umm Al-Qura 1406/1986:31-34)

no.	subjects	weekly hours				hours per subject per programme
		level 1	level 2	level 3	level 4	
1	Qur'an	3	3	3	2	11
2	Ḥadīth		2	2	1	5
3	Fiqh			1	1	2
4	Tawḥīd			1	1	2
5	Tafsir				1	1
6	Islamic history				2	2
7	Conversation	11	8			19
8	Writing	5				5
9	Reading	6	4	5	3	18
10	Dictation		2	1	1	4
11	Calligraphy		1	1	1	3
12	Grammar + syntax		5	5	4	14
13	Composition			4	3	7
14	Literary texts			2	3	5
15	Rhetoric and literary criticism				2	2
	Total hours	25	25	25	25	100

Table 2.4: Institute of Teaching Arabic to Non-Arabic Speakers, Imam University, Riyadh (Jāmiʿat al-Imām 1983:19-21)

Although the aim of these intensive programmes is to qualify students to study at university, the programmes ignore an important side of this task which is the skills and strategies required for the academic study. It needs to be said that TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia are based on rote learning (also common in other disciplines) rather than improving the skills of reading and writing as well as abilities to interpret and analyse texts which are required by students at university level.

For the non-intensive programmes, some institutes considered giving evening courses for adults, for example, Imam University and King Saud University organise courses in Arabic for foreigners working in Saudi Arabia. The only problem is that the materials and textbooks used in these evening sessions are not designed for specific needs. Candidates share the same curriculum used in the intensive programmes and in the case of Imam University, the religious subjects are deleted from the programme except for Muslim learners who can opt for these subjects.

It is possible to classify Saudi TAFL programme syllabuses into three sections: religion, language and literature. These were created in response to the request of the decision makers from the State and the universities, and in response to social demands and educational needs. The question, however, is: do these requests take into account the learners' needs or not?

Learners in this case are almost all Muslims and in fact they need Arabic principally to help them to understand Islam: some religious subjects such as the Qur'ān can be either taught as a language subject to improve listening, speaking and vocabulary or as a religious topic; thus, it can be taught at any level on the TAFL programme. A survey of individual programmes shows that the Islamic University programme has 36 hours out of 116 hours for religion (31%), 77 hours for language (66%) and only 3 hours for literature; the King Saud University programme has 11 hours out of 80 for Qur'ān (14%), 63 hours for language (79%) and 6 hours for literature; the Umm Al-Qura programme gives 43 hours out of 150 for religion (29%), 89 hours for language (59%) and 17 hours for literature; and the Imam University programme has 23 hours out of 100 for religion (23%), 70 hours for language (70%) and 7 hours for literature.

The tables above would seem to indicate that linguistic subjects dominate, but it should be borne in mind that this area does not lack religious content; all these

programmes, except for the King Saud programme, have a religious input of some sort according to the religious orientation of these universities.

The number of students who studied in these Saudi institutes up until 1415/1995, is 2269 at the Imam University, 2000 at the King Saud University and 3776 at the Islamic University. Outside the country the figure is 4349 in the intensive programme conducted by the Imam University and only recently in 1415/1995 the University founded a non-intensive programme with 200 students at the first level.

Admission criteria are standard: namely, candidates should have obtained a Secondary School Certificate or its equivalent; for foreign Muslim applicants, a letter of recommendation is required from an Islamic organisation in their country of origin. Degree students must be between the ages of 18 and 35. No age is specified if candidates are enrolled on non-intensive programmes, although approval of sponsorship is required. The study period is normally two years divided into four levels, each level consisting of one semester of sixteen weeks. The Umm Al-Qura programme is for three years with three levels: elementary, intermediate and advanced level; each level has two semesters. Graduates of these programmes are presumed to be academically qualified to either attend any course in Arabic in the University or to take a one-year training course to enable them to teach Arabic and Islamic Studies in their country of origin.

### **2.2:3 Teacher training programmes**

Three out of four of the universities run teacher training programmes: the Arabic Language Institute, King Saud University in Riyadh; the Institute of Arabic Language to non-Arabic Speakers, Umm Al-Qura University in Makkah; and the Institute of Teaching Arabic to non-Arabs, Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University in Riyadh. Specific aims are: a) to train and qualify Saudi and other teachers in TAFL and, b) to raise the quality in teaching at the Arabic and Islamic Schools abroad.

The entrance requirements vary according to the aims of the programme though standard qualifications are needed, such as: i) a Secondary School Certificate; ii) mastery of the Arabic language and fluency in another language (English is preferred); iii) an age limit (up to the age of 50); and iv) an Islamic organisation abroad has to recommend candidates.

### 2.2:3:1 The curriculum

#### i. The Teachers' Preparation Unit (King Saud University, Riyadh)

Candidates with no previous experience in Teaching Arabic as Foreign Language complete a teacher training course in this unit. A diploma is awarded to graduates of this course. A total of thirty-six hours is required; in addition, general linguistics (3 hours) and Arabic phonology (3 hours) are required for those candidates with no linguistic background (King Saud University 1987:17-21). The programme syllabuses are shown in Table 2.5 below:

no.	subjects	total hours for the subject per week		
		theory	application	research
1	Arabic morphology and syntax	3		
2	Contrastive and error analysis	3		
3	Methods of TAFL	3		
4	Teaching practice		4	
5	New trends in Applied Linguistics	3		
6	Lexicography	3		
7	Psycho-linguistics	3		
8	Socio-linguistics	3		
9	Arabic teaching materials	3		
10	Language tests	3		
11	Audio-visual aids	1	1	
12	Topics in Applied Linguistics			3
	Total hours per programme	28	5	3

Table: 2.5: Teachers' Preparation Unit, King Saud University, Riyadh

#### ii. The In-Service Teacher Training Unit (King Saud University, Riyadh)

This programme is an intensive course for teachers who have already worked in the field of TAFL. Teachers study 29 hours weekly for one semester of 16 weeks. On average, eleven modules are presented in the course as listed in Table 2.6 (*ibid.*:21-24):

no.	subjects	total hours for the subject per week		
		theory	application	research
1	Teaching methods		3	
2	Applied education		2	
3	Educational psychology	2		
4	Classroom administration	1		
5	Oral presentation	2		
6	Written presentation	2		
7	Arabic grammar	7		
8	Arabic phonology	2		
9	Language tests	2		
10	Instructional aids	2		
11	Islamic culture	4		
	Total hours per programme	24	5	00

Table 2.6: Teacher Training Unit, King Saud University, Riyadh

### iii. General Diploma Unit (Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah)

Candidates study about 25 hours weekly for four semesters of 16 weeks, covering 30 subjects. The application phase involves only three hours weekly during the four semesters, namely, research for one hour per week in semesters two and three and TAFL training for one hour per week in semester four. The TAFL methodology involves one hour per week in semester two as a research methodology (Jāmi<sup>c</sup>at Umm Al-Qura 1406/1986:34-38). The programme in its theoretical phase involves 85 hours as seen in Table 2.7 below:

no.	subjects	total hours for the subject per week			
		sem. 1	sem. 2	sem. 3	sem. 4
1	Phonology	1	1		
2	Morphology	1	1	1	1
3	Grammar	2	2	2	2
4	Analytical reading	2	2	2	2
5	Pre-Islamic poetry	2			
6	Essay writing	2	2		
7	Educational psychology	1	1	1	1
8	The Islamic bases of education	1	1	1	1
9	TAFL methodology	1	1	1	
10	Qur'anic sciences	1	1	1	1
11	Articles of Faith	1	1		
12	Biography of the Prophet	1	1		
13	Islamic jurisprudence	1	1	1	1
14	Islamic culture	1	1	1	1
15	Arabic language	2	1		
16	Foreign languages	2	1		
17	Pre-Islamic prose	2			
18	Qur'anic linguistic studies				2
19	Umayyad poetry			2	
20	Islamic prose			2	
21	Rhetoric			2	
22	Use of instructional aids for TAFL			1	1
23	Planning curricula for TAFL			1	1
24	Ideology			1	1
25	Hadith			1	1
26	Error analysis			1	
27	<sup>c</sup> Abbāsid poetry				2
28	Andalusian poetry				2
29	Linguistic psychology				1
	Total hours per semester	24	18	22	21
	Total hours per programme	85			

Table 2.7: General Diploma Unit, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah

### iv. Special Diploma Programme (Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah)

Students attend 25 hours weekly for two semesters of 16 weeks covering approximately 23 subjects. The teaching practice of this programme has only one hour weekly in semester one and another in semester two (*ibid.*:38-40). The total hours of this programme is 48 and is broken down as follows, Table 2.8:



no.	subjects	total hours for the subject week	
		semester 1	semester 2
1	Morphology	1	1
2	Grammar	2	2
3	Error analysis	1	1
4	Linguistics	1	1
5	Metrics	1	1
6	Qur'anic linguistic studies	2	
7	Hadith linguistic studies		2
8	Abbāsid prose and poetry	4	
9	Post-Classical poetry	2	2
10	Rhetoric	2	1
11	TAFL methodology	1	1
12	Planning curricula for TAFL	1	1
13	Educational psychology	1	1
14	The Islamic bases of education	1	1
15	Qur'an	1	1
16	Islamic jurisprudence	1	1
17	Hadith	1	1
18	Islamic culture	1	1
19	Contrastive linguistics		2
20	Semantics		1
21	Psycho-linguistics		1
22	Evaluation		1
	Total hours per semester	24	24
	Total hours per programme	48	

Table 2.8: Special Diploma Programme, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah

**v. Higher Diploma Programme (Imam University, Riyadh)**

Candidates study in this Unit for two semesters of 32 weeks (16 weeks per semester). The first semester usually focuses on theoretical matters and the second on practice what is also taught in the first semester (Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University 1983:41-47). There are 34 hours in total covering the programme, Table 2.9:

no.	subjects	total hours for the subject per week	
		semester 1	semester 2
1	Introduction to general linguistics	3	
2	Introduction to phonetics	3	
3	Morphology and grammar	3	
4	Semantics	1	
5	Lexicography	1	
6	Linguistic contrasts and error analysis	3	
7	Problems in TAFL	2	
8	Fundamentals of TAFL	2	
9	Islamic culture	2	
10	TAFL methodology		4
11	Methodology in the teaching of religious subjects		2
12	Planning curriculum for TAFL		3
13	Instructional aids		3
14	Research approach		2
	Total hours per semester	20	14
	Total hours per programme	34	

Table 2.9: Higher Diploma Programme, Imam University, Riyadh

**vi. Master's Programme Unit (Imam University, Riyadh)**

Students study two years on this programme and then submit their dissertation. Before joining this programme, students must have obtained their higher diploma. Each year is divided into two semesters and the second year is devoted to study, research and writing the dissertation. The second year consists of one semester (32 weeks) with twelve hours per week and each module is taught for three hours a week. The four subjects taught in the second year are (*ibid.*:48-51): i) Applied linguistics, ii) Designing textbooks for TAFL, iii) Planning curriculum for TAFL (based on Islamic Culture, and iv) Psycholinguistics.

**vii. General Diploma Programme (Imam University, Riyadh)**

This programme is similar to the Higher Diploma Programme with the exception of: a) students who have only obtained secondary school certificates can attend this course, and b) students do not study semantics and lexicography (*ibid.*:51-56). This programme does not lead to an MA programme.

**viii. The Short Course (Imam University, Riyadh)**

Candidates study for only one semester of 16 weeks. Two (5 and 6) out of the seven subjects each have one hour weekly and as an application the other subjects are taught theoretically, as seen in Table 2.10 below (*ibid.*:57-58):

no.	subjects	total hours per subject per week
1	General linguistics and phonetics	3
2	Grammar	2
3	Planning curriculum for TAFL	3
4	Fundamentals in the teaching of foreign languages	1
5	Methods in TAFL	4
6	Methods in teaching religious subjects	2
7	Islamic culture	1
	Total hours per week per programme	16

Table 2.10: Short Course, Imam University, Riyadh

**ix. Short Course for TAFL and Subject Teachers of Religion (Imam University)**

This course takes place over two months in the summer outside the country. Students study 30 hours weekly followed by examinations. As there is a gap between the students' proficiency in the Arabic language and their knowledge of the Islamic culture, the curriculum is designed to take that disparity into consideration. Thus, the curriculum is divided into three sections, namely, education, language and a combination of both education and language studies (*ibid.*:60-64).

**Education**

no.	subjects	total hours for the subject per week	
		theory	application
1	Tafsir	1	
2	Hadith	1	
3	Islamic culture	2	
4	Reading	1	
5	Composition	2	
6	Grammar and morphology	1	
7	Arabic phonetics	1	
8	Educational psychology	3	
9	Education	3	
10	Methodology in teaching of religious subjects and applied education	4	2
11	Methodology in TAFL and applied education	6	3
	Total hours per week per programme	25	5

Table 2.11: TAFL Teachers' Training: Short Courses, outside the country (Education)

**Language**

no.	subjects	total hours for the subject per week	
		theory	application
1	Tafsir	3	
2	Hadith	2	
3	Islamic culture	4	
4	Conversation	7	
5	Writing	4	
6	Reading and phonetics	6	
7	Grammar	4	
	Total hours per week per programme	30	00

Table 2.12: TAFL Teachers' Training: Short Courses, outside the country (Language)

**Education and Language**

This section is a pairing of the two divisions with an extra module in orthography.

**2.2:3:2 Point of view about the TAFL teachers' education**

In the curriculum of the Saudi Teacher Training programmes, we notice that most of the modules are theory based: for instance, students in the King Saud University are given in the Teachers' Preparation Unit 31 hours for the whole programme of theory and only 5 hours of practice (see Table 2.5), that is only 16.13%. The present researcher studied for his Master's degree at the Imam University for approximately two years and had no opportunity for teaching practice during that programme. If we take the Cambridge Certificate in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language to Adults (CTEFLA), approximately 40% of the course is devoted to classroom observation and teaching practice is linked with peer and tutor assessment. The one or four week CTEFLA

courses usually cover the essentials of language teaching methodology, classroom practice, language awareness and pronunciation.

A general observation of the TAFL teacher-training programmes in Saudi Arabia is that they are long (between one and two years), and the theoretical side of the teaching practice on such programmes presents a particular challenge. The problem is that these programmes are not related to the actual needs of the teachers' trainees. Sieny, in an interview, confirmed this and added that the TAFL training programmes are still traditional and need to be modernised in order to take advantage of the new developments in the field of foreign language teaching.

### **2.3 Literature related to TAFL**

In this section several textbooks, journals, books and research studies related to TAFL will be reviewed.

#### **2.3:1 Textbooks in Saudi Arabia**

Currently, there are some significant textbooks relating to TAFL. In Saudi Arabia, the Universities and the Ministry of Knowledge have taken charge of these textbooks. A sample of these textbooks are reviewed below:

- i. *Silsilat ta<sup>c</sup>lim al-lughat al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyya*, Parts I-XXXVII. Riyadh: Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, 1408/1987.

This is a complete curriculum of TAFL and the principles of Islamic sciences. More than fifty experts and teachers have been consulted in carrying out this project. It consists of thirty-seven textbooks, five teachers' manuals and eight dictionaries. The curriculum is divided into four levels: each level has two semesters of sixteen weeks each. The details of this project can be seen in Table 2.13 below:

level	subject area	title (Arabic)	title (English translation)	total of textbooks	
One	Religion	Durūs min al-Qur'ān	Studies in the Qur'ān	7	
	Arabic language	Kitāb al-Ṣuwar	Picture book (listening and speaking drills)		
		al-Qirā'a wa l-kitāba	Reading and writing		
		al-Ta <sup>c</sup> bīr	Composition		
	exercise book	Kurrāsāt al-khaṭṭ	Calligraphy		
reference sources	al-Mu <sup>c</sup> jam	Dictionary			
	Daḥīl al-mu <sup>c</sup> allim	Teacher's guide			
Two	Religion	Durūs min al-Qur'ān	Studies in the Qur'ān	10	
		al-Ḥadīth	Saying and deeds of the prophet Muhammad		
	Arabic language	al-Qirā'a	Reading		
		al-Ta <sup>c</sup> bīr	Composition		
		al-Kitāba	Writing		
		al-Naḥw	Grammar		
		al-Ṣarf	Conjugation		
	exercise book	Kurrāsāt al-khaṭṭ	Calligraphy		
	reference sources	al-Mu <sup>c</sup> jam	Dictionary		
		Daḥīl al-mu <sup>c</sup> allim	Teacher's guide		
Three	Religion	Durūs min al-Qur'ān	Studies in the Qur'ān	13	
		al-Ḥadīth	Saying and deeds of the prophet Muhammad		
		al-Fiqh	Islamic Jurisprudence		
		at-Tawḥīd	(a branch of) Theology		
	Arabic language	al-Qirā'a	Reading		
		al-Ta <sup>c</sup> bīr	Composition		
		al-Kitāba	Writing		
		al-Naḥw	Grammar		
		al-Ṣarf	Conjugation		
		al-Adab	Literature		
	exercise book	Kurrāsāt al-khaṭṭ	Calligraphy		
		reference sources	al-Mu <sup>c</sup> jam		Dictionary
			Daḥīl al-mu <sup>c</sup> allim.		Teacher's guide
Four	Religion	Durūs min al-Qur'ān	Studies in the Qur'ān	15	
		al-Ḥadīth	Saying and deeds of the prophet Muhammad		
		al-Fiqh	Islamic Jurisprudence		
		at-Tawḥīd	(a branch of) Theology		
		at-Tārīkh al-Islāmi	Islamic history		
	Arabic language	al-Qirā'a	Reading		
		al-Ta <sup>c</sup> bīr	Composition		
		al-Kitāba	Writing		
		al-Naḥw	Grammar		
		al-Ṣarf	Conjugation		
		al-Adab	Literature		
		al-Balāgha wa l-Naqd	Rhetoric and criticism		
	exercise book	Kurrāsāt al-khaṭṭ	Calligraphy		
		reference sources	al-Mu <sup>c</sup> jam		Dictionary
			Daḥīl al-mu <sup>c</sup> allim		Teacher's guide

Table 2.13: *Silsilat ta'lim al-lughat al-ʿarabiyya*

The general aims of these textbooks are: i) to qualify learners to study at university level where Arabic is the medium of instruction, ii) to enable learners to understand the media messages, iii) to speak, read and write fluently and iv) to provide the learners with satisfactory religious instruction. The curriculum committee took into account all the educational conditions in choosing the content and organising it. These textbooks had been piloted for five years before its materials were available to learners.

This series is one of the best developments in the field of TAFL. The researcher still remembers large orders from around the world asking for copies of the series. However, the series is subjected to the conditions of the Imam University where there are certain constraints imposed on the content of the series such as the emphasis laid on the religious content and prohibition of pictures of people and animals in the textbooks.

ii. Fa ʿabdul-Raḥim. *Silsilat durūs fī taʿlīm al-lughat al-ʿarabiyya wa thaqāfat l-islāmiyya*. Al-Madina: al-Jāmiʿa al-Islāmiyya, 1414/1994.

This series contains a complete set of textbooks for levels I to IV which includes lessons in writing, reading, calligraphy, grammar, morphology, ḥadīth and jurisprudence, Qurʾānic exegesis and literary texts. It is divided into two subject areas: Arabic language and Islamic culture, the latter includes religious topics. The aims of these textbooks are: a) religious - with the aim of providing learners with Islamic knowledge, concepts and terminology facilitating the learning of subjects in Islamic Studies at the university; and b) Arabic - with the aim of providing learners with reading, writing and speaking skills in Arabic and enabling them to master different styles of Arabic; the ultimate goal being to Arabic as a medium of instruction at the university level. It is an enormous task, almost undertaken by one person (Fa ʿabdul-Raḥim). Emphasis in this project is not given to methods and teaching aids. No evaluation of the series has so far been done.

In short, it is evident that the *Silsilat taʿlīm l-lughat l-ʿarabiyya* and *Silsilat durūs fī taʿlīm l-lughat l-ʿarabiyya wa l-thaqāfa l-Islāmiyya* are both targeted at learners of university level (the Imam University and Islamic University). The emphasis is on both the religious and the linguistic content as a result of the religious nature of the two universities. The crucial question is: are these textbooks sufficient to build specific knowledge and skills to enable learners to study effectively on a particular course? It

seems that students are caught in the middle, in that there is not adequate emphasis on Arabic and learning skills nor Islamic instruction. The need here is an emphasis on TAFL, employing Islamic culture as a part of the programme and not as an independent programme by itself. Classical Arabic should be taught, especially for students who are going to study Islamic Studies at university level, as well as improving reading skills.

iii. M. Sieny *et al.* 1403/1983. *Al-ʿArabiyya lil-nāshīʿīn*, Parts I-VI. Riyadh: Ministry of Knowledge.

It is a set of textbooks targeted to young learners (11+) from levels one to six with a teacher's manual for each level. There are also audio-visual aids for most of the texts and drills. The project presents the contents in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and gives learners an access to Arabic in an Islamic context. The aims are to understand the language of the media and to communicate with Arabic speakers fluently. Based on the principle of integrating skills with language and culture, these textbooks are addressed to specific learners, not according to their needs, but their age. Despite its target of young learners around the world, it does not take into account environmental and cultural factors that differ from one country to another such as those in Indonesia and the United States whose needs, orientations and learning facilities are different. It is difficult, admittedly, to design a syllabus to suit all learners in different parts of the world and the project may not receive support from some pedagogues. In essence the work is certainly a step in the right direction and the need for textbooks and programmes that concentrate on the learners' needs is now clearly recognised.

### **2.3:2 Textbooks elsewhere**

We list here some other TAFL textbooks used elsewhere with brief comments:

1. Balkacem Baccouche and Sanaa Azmi. 1984. *Conversations in Modern Standard Arabic*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

This is designed for students with a basic level of grammar and vocabulary.

2. Dionisius Agius. 1997. *Mabruk, Level One Arabic Course*. Leeds: University of Leeds; a revised 1989 edition.

This textbook focuses on two main skills, reading and writing, designed for first year students at Leeds giving a basic working knowledge of Modern Standard Arabic grammar.

3. Ernest McCarus, H. Qafisheh, and R. Rammuny. 1975. *First Lessons in Literary Arabic*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

It is written for beginners to read Modern Standard Arabic.

4. Ernest McCarus & R. Rammuny. 1974. *A Programmed Course in Modern Literary Arabic Phonology & Script*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

This teaches students to read Arabic with acceptable pronunciation and it can be used for self-instruction. Audio-tapes are included.

5. Farhat J. Ziadeh. 1964. *A Reader in Modern Literary Arabic*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

The textbook is designed for an intermediate reader who has covered the essentials of Arabic morphology and syntax. It represents the modern literary style of writing in the eastern Arab countries.

6. Karin C. Ryding. 1990. *Formal Spoken Arabic: Basic Course*. Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

It teaches a standardised variant of Spoken Arabic with a non-grammar-based approach. Audio-tapes are included.

7. Kristen Brustad, Mahmoud Al-Batal and Abbas Al-Tonsi. 1995-1997. *Al-Kitaab fii Ta'allum al-'Arabiyya: A Textbook for Arabic, Parts I-II*. Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

This textbook in its two parts was designed on a communicative, proficiency-oriented approach with fully integrated audio-video media to teach Modern Standard Arabic as a living language.



8. Peter Abboud *et al.* 1983. *Elementary Modern Standard Arabic*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; a revised 1968 edition.

This is considered as the most widely used textbook for the elementary Arabic learners in the USA and elsewhere. The goals of this textbook are to understand both written and spoken Modern Standard Arabic, to master oral and written composition and to practise both oral reading and handwriting.

9. Peter Abboud, A *et al.* 1991. *Modern Standard Arabic: Intermediate Level*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press; a revised edition.

A follow up of the *Elementary Modern Standard Arabic* this textbook is to improve student's reading and comprehension of Modern Standard Arabic.

10. Raji M. Rammuny. 1978. *Modern Standard Arabic*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan.

It concentrates on advanced Arabic composition based on literary texts and audio-visual materials. It is aimed at developing fluency and ease in the use of literary Arabic for both oral and written purposes. It focuses equally on linguistic forms and situational settings and presupposes knowledge of Arabic at an intermediate level.

11. Al-Said Mohammad Badawi *et al.* 1983-1993. *al-Kitāb al-asāsī*, Parts I-III. Tunis: Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation (ALECSO).

This textbook is designed to teach the four skills of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) to non-native speakers of Arabic. It imparts a sense of Arab history, cultural achievements and geography.

12. Samar Attar. 1988. *Modern Arabic: An Introductory Course for Foreign Students*, Parts I-II. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

This is an introduction to Modern Standard Arabic with a teacher's manual.

### 2.3:3 Journals

There is currently no single journal that concentrates specifically on TAFL; however, two journals have taken an interest in the pedagogy of teaching Arabic:

- i) the Arab Journal of Language Studies published by Khartoum International Institute of Arabic. It is a valuable source containing several articles on TAFL with some useful ideas about this field. Its main concern is Arabic studies in general.
- ii) Al-<sup>c</sup>Arabiyya: Journal of the American Association of Teachers of Arabic. It is one of the important sources of TAFL studies, but its main concern is generally topics on Arabic linguistics, literature and Islamic studies.

### **2.3:4 Books and research studies**

Most of the centres that run TAFL give consideration to research in this field: Some studies have been conducted by TAFL staff, MA or Ph.D. researchers. A large number of research studies and academic books are in hand, but the question is, to what extent these works are scientifically designed and what their effect is on the practice of TAFL? Sieny and al-Kasho (1995:14-130) listed 600 research and academic books and it is believed that these are by no means all the published works. The research studies are attributed to more than 200 main centres for TAFL around the world (*ibid.*:208-216): in the UK alone there are about 55 centres for TAFL (Agius 1988).

### **2.4 Conclusion**

In the Saudi context students who benefit from TAFL programmes are those wishing to further their education to study at universities though inadequate consideration is given to the learning skills which are essential in academic study. Evening classes for adults are, indeed, encouraging but they follow the curriculum assigned for full-time diploma students whose courses are designed for different purpose. There is in general inflexibility in curricula and syllabuses because of the central decision making, which takes time and involves lengthy procedures. Syllabuses lack balance, religious content is in some institutes more than what students require and above their linguistic ability in Arabic. Despite the encouraging quantity of literature related to TAFL, there is a problem in distributing it among the TAFL centres world-wide which results in a shortage in some cases and an abundance in others. One final point which needs mentioning is that teacher training is lacking in practically all the TAFL programmes. In order to ensure quality in teaching and learning, this is vital for any serious attempts in course design and planning. Short courses to this effect are essential in long term planning; they are normally addressed at a specific audience. It is the concern of this thesis that no single programme in Saudi Arabia focusing on Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP) is being conducted. We will discuss the needs for such a programme and its uses in Chapter Three.

## CHAPTER THREE

### TASP literature

#### 3.1 Introduction

A great deal of time has been spent in contacting researchers in the field of Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language in the Arab world, i.e. Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Tunisia, Syria and Sudan, as well as North America and the United Kingdom. The contacts were made in order firstly, to consult experts in the field of TAFL and secondly, to obtain further sources, especially in Arabic-speaking countries where research details can be very difficult to obtain because of the lack of communication between libraries and information networks in this field. All these attempts aimed to assess the existing situation of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP) in the Arab world. Findings of this survey force the researcher to accept the fact that TASP is still in its very beginning in the Arab world and elsewhere where TAFL programmes are run.

There was no doubt that the effective way of assessing the needs for TASP and the purposes for which Arabic is needed was to conduct a field survey. This chapter will cover the initial field survey work as well as the current situation of TASP, textbooks, books and research studies.

#### 3.2 TASP in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere

None of the four TAFL institutes in Saudi Arabia runs TASP courses<sup>3</sup>: the informal interviews with teachers in the IMU - TAFL Institute showed that it is possible occasionally to run such courses where there is a demand for it. We mention one good example; in 1984, the Special Security Forces and the Riyadh Central Hospital had asked the Institute to organise two courses in Arabic for Korean security instructors and non-Arab doctors. It was an individual effort coming from four teachers in the Institute

---

<sup>3</sup> Until fairly recent times Arabic was taught in the Arab World (and still is in several areas) through the Qur'anic school system, called the *kuttāb*, in which the focus was on teaching the Qur'an, *ḥadīth* and Islamic jurisprudence. In the non-Arab Muslim countries Arabic was taught (and still is in some cases) through the same system in which can be considered as a type of TASP (Maḥmūd 1983:115-120). In fact the *kuttāb* can be considered one of the earliest methods of TASP, not unlike the Catechism school system for teaching the Old Testament and the Gospels in the Christian world in Catholic countries. However, a scientific approach to this historical practice has not been developed in comparison with other languages such as English.

and was a one-off attempt. It was a good experience but no records were kept in connection with the course designed for this specific purpose.

### **3.2:1 The current situation**

In 1995 the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation (ALECSO) in Tunis published a general bibliography on TAFL world-wide: it included research studies and academic works (612), textbooks (375), dictionaries (324), audio, audio-visual and computer programmes followed by a hint of TAFL centres (Sieny and al-Kasho 1995:11). The TASP was merely represented in this bibliography by 14 items, which means 1.07% of the whole materials (1311). Al-Batal (1995:5) refers to some challenges facing the world of TAFL, in which he rightly observed that “providing better responses to students’ changing needs” is one of the pressing demands. The response should come with clearer goals about planning curricula, designing courses and syllabuses and developing materials. This indeed reflects the current situation of TASP not only in Saudi Arabia but also around the world.

### **3.2:2 Programmes**

The American Embassy in Tunis conducted a decade ago the Teaching of Arabic for the Diplomatic Services, concentrating mainly on colloquial Arabic. The Monterey programme in the USA teaches *fushā* and several types of colloquial Arabic to members of the intelligence service and the other three forces - the military, air force and the navy, the equivalent of which is conducted in the UK at the Defence School of Languages in Beaconsfield where Arabic is taught specifically to members of the armed forces.

Arabic for Specific Purposes is also taught at the Centre for Arabic Language Services in London focusing on Arabic for communication, the School for Continuing Studies at the University of Cambridge where Arabic is taught for business and diplomats; and the Manchester Business School at the University of Manchester with Arabic for the needs of the business community (Agius 1988: 2, 5, 8 & 21).

There are two programmes in Syria that run courses in TASP namely, the American Language Centre and the Institut Français d'Etudes Arabes de Damas (the French Institute for Arabic Studies in Damascus). Although the main concern of the American Language Centre is teaching English they do, occasionally, run colloquial

courses using the communicative approach and conduct two courses in TASP during the summer and winter months.

At the French institute, students with experience of three to six years in studying Arabic as a Foreign Language can further their studies by attending several courses such as, Speaking and Writing Modern Arabic, Media Arabic, Colloquial Arabic and Arabic for literary purposes. After a placement test to assess their level in Arabic, students are given a basic Arabic course all together for a certain number of hours and then they are divided into small groups according to their needs or have individual tuition. Four weeks is the length of the summer courses and the winter courses are run for three semesters from October till June. No specific syllabus is followed; in fact, each teacher can design his/her own syllabus.

Arabic for diplomats is taught at the British Council in Cairo and the International Language Institute based also in Cairo. No such courses exist in Saudi Arabia.

### **3.2:3 Research studies related to TASP**

Research studies in TAFL and in TASP are under way in several institutes world-wide: those closely related to TASP are listed here:

1. °Aī B. Bashīr. 1983. "Taṣmīm manhaj li-ta°lim al-lugha l-°arabiyya lil-ṣaff wa-l-junūd fī l-iqlīm al-janūbi", MA dissertation, International Institute of Arabic, Khartoum.
2. Ḥusayin Muḥammad Jamīl. 1983. "Manhaj al-khutwa l-sūdāniyya li-ta°lim al-Qur°ān lil-nāṭiqīn bi-lughāt mukhtalifa", MA dissertation, International Institute of Arabic, Khartoum.
3. Lousian Brangy. 1983. "Binā' wiḥda dirāsiyya li-ṭullāb al-tārīkh al-°arabī l-islāmī fī fransā", MA dissertation, International Institute of Arabic, Khartoum.
4. Tishwnī Shīya. 1983. "Ta°lim al-lugha l-°arabiyya li-ā°dā' al-bi°thāt al-ṭibiyya l-ṣiniyya fī l-waṭan al-°arabī", MA dissertation, International Institute of Arabic, Khartoum.
5. Sāmiya Aḥmad Nūr. 1984. "Al-ṣu°ūbat l-lughawiyya allafī tuwājih muta°allimī l-lugha l-°arabiyya min ghayr al-nāṭiqīn bihā lil-gharaḍ al-dīnī", MA dissertation, International Institute of Arabic, Khartoum.

6. Maḥmūd K al-Nāga. 1406/1985. *Barāmij taʿlīm al-ʿarabiyya lil-muslimīn al-nāṭiqīn bi-lughā ukhrā fī daw' dawāfʿhim*. Makkah: Umm Al-Qura University.
7. Abdul-Rahman Ben Chik. 1988. "Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (ASP) in Malaysia with reference to teaching reading skills at the International Islamic University", MA dissertation, Salford University.
8. Ibrahim Az-Zaini. 1992. *An Arabic Teaching Methodology for Muslims*. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.
9. Šālih al-Suḥaybānī. 1412/1992. "Al-muṣṭalahāt al-siyāsiyya l-shā'iʿa fī l-ṣuḥuf al-saʿūdiyya wa kayfiyyat tawzīfihā fī taʿlīm al-diblūmisiyyīn al-nāṭiqīn bi-ghayr al-ʿarabiyya", MA dissertation, Imam University, Riyadh.

Maḥmūd al-Nāga's *Barāmij taʿlīm al-ʿarabiyya lil-muslimīn al-nāṭiqīn bi-lughā ukhrā fī daw' dawāfʿhim* (no. 6 above), was carried out as a field project to identify the non-Arab Muslim adult learners' motives for learning advanced Arabic in Saudi Arabia looking into their motives, their gender and nationality. The research classified its findings on learners' motives into several categories. Those wishing to study Islam were considered to have a stronger motive followed by those studying to further their knowledge in the Arabic obtaining a degree in Arabic not a strong motive and less to getting a diplomatic job in the Arab world. A programme related to the learners' objectives and motives was designed concerning multiple dimensions: linguistic, cultural, communicative and educational. The research shows that the motives were equally balanced between men and women but there is no proportional relation between the number of females (23) and males (157) involved in the project.

Šālih al-Suḥaybānī's dissertation "Al-muṣṭalahāt al-siyāsiyya l-shā'iʿa fī l-ṣuḥuf al-saʿūdiyya wa kayfiyya tawzīfihā fī taʿlīm al-diblūmisiyyīn al-nāṭiqīn bi-ghayr al-ʿarabiyya" (no. 9 above) aims: a) to find out the most frequently used diplomatic terminology (3000 terms) listed in Saudi newspapers published in a period of three months in 1992, and b) to design lessons in Arabic for non-Arab diplomats in Saudi Arabia. The author did not consider the communicative needs, learning context and skills required.

Ibrahim Az-Zaini's *An Arabic Teaching Methodology for Muslims* (no. 8 above) in a study on TAFL programmes in the areas of syllabus design and teaching methodology. The findings of this study opened various possibilities for a new syllabus design for TAFL with an aim to give learners not only the structure of language but also

incorporate the linguistic information with that of the Islamic culture and society. The framework of this syllabus consists of several stages such as curriculum planning, the learned language, the linguistic content, the cultural content, methodology and skills required. In many respects Az-Zaini presents a new approach, the so-called Islamic Method which teaches Islam to non-Arab Muslims using society and culture as a religious identity via the language Arab Muslims use.

Abdul-Rahman Ben Chik in his MA dissertation "Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (ASP) in Malaysia with reference to teaching reading skills at the International Islamic University" gave a general idea about teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes at the International Islamic University in Malaysia focusing on reading. The thing that he did not mention was the actual needs of the learners. In theory he explained the situation of TAFL in Malaysia dividing motives of the learners into three categories: religious, academic and social motives. However, no need assessment was conducted.

### 3.2:4 Textbooks

Some of the important textbooks in the field of Arabic for Specific purposes are briefly described below:

1. M. Mansoor. 1965. *Legal and Documentary Arabic Reader*, Parts I-II. Leiden: Brill.

This textbook focuses on the style employed in formal documents and international contracts. In order to benefit from this textbook learners are expected to be intermediate and have mastered the basics of Arabic grammar.

2. Mahmoud Sieny *et al.* 1991. *Reading Arabic for Muslims*. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

The main objectives of Sieny's book are to help non-Arab Muslims (non-beginners) understand and read the Qur'ān fluently and to assist learners in their understanding of Arabic works written on Islamic culture. This first textbook has thirty lessons with topics on Islam; the choice of vocabulary is based on the language of the Qur'ān, the *ḥadīth*, the law and Islamic culture. Moreover, comprehension drills, vocabulary and grammar items are designed to assist the understanding and appreciation of the text material, giving learners a wide mastery of the Arabic language.

3. Fred Pragnell. 1992. *Arabic in Action: A Basic Course in Spoken Arabic*. London: Lund Humphries.

This textbook is for learners working in the Arab World, in particular in the Middle East. Businessmen, managers, airline staff, teachers, people working in health services are the expected learners. It concentrates on communication in specific situations as well as providing learners with everyday conversation. Tapes are included.

4. Raji Rammuny. 1993. *Advanced Business Arabic*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

This textbook is designed to meet the needs of learners in American and European universities, and members of the business community and government officials who wish to learn Arabic for career and practical purposes. There are ten parts: general information on the Arab world, familiarity with some Arabic traditions and customs, travel transactions, business correspondence, commercial advertising, banking and monetary documents, commercial and economic reports, articles and contracts. The aim of this textbook is to help learners to: 1) understand business reports and notes presented in Arabic, 2) read original Arabic materials dealing with business and trade, 3) express oneself orally by requesting or giving information needed for business transactions, 4) fill out business forms, cheques and documents, write business letters, notes and short reports, and 5) interpret specific cultural, religious and social customs and behaviour involved in Arabic business practices and negotiations. In terms of content and depth, this textbook has been successful.

5. Raji Rammuny. 1991-1995. *Programmed Arabic-Islamic Readers*, Parts I-II. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

Part one of this textbook consists of 45 lessons covering phonology and script with a choice of words that occur most frequently in the Qur'ān and in Islamic literature. The second part focuses on texts and grammar containing 30 lessons each consisting of five parts: 1) text, which takes the form of dialogue, story, prophetic tradition, Qur'ānic verses or selections from Arabic-Islamic literature, 2) oral drills, 3) grammar, 4) review, and 5) self-testing.

6. John Mace. 1996. *Arabic Today: A Student, Business and Professional Course in Spoken and Written Arabic*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Mainly for visitors to the Arab World or those planning to work there with the aim to provide material for day-to-day activities. It is a self-contained course with tapes.



### **3.3 Surveying the need for a TASP programme in Saudi Arabia**

From the above, it is clear that TASP is serving the needs of the businesses world but more research is needed in other areas; in order to understand what specific needs are in demand in Saudi Arabia, who the learners are and what the purposes are of such learners, we undertook a survey to investigate the teaching and learning of Arabic as a Foreign Language.

This initial field survey dealt with the identification of the learners' needs, the aims of which were to collect data about the learners and reasons behind studying Arabic as a Foreign Language. All these data were taken from the final level students of TAFL programmes in Saudi universities and from samples that represent non-Arabs working in various areas in the country. The data also included attitudes towards foreign language teaching and learning and in our case, of course, attitudes towards TASP.

#### **3.3:1 Limitation of the initial field survey**

The survey was limited to cover the Saudi TAFL Institutes and a sample of the non-Arabs working in the country. The final semester students were involved because they had already spent almost two years studying Arabic in Saudi Arabia; they were more self-confident and were about to enrol at university level. No female students were involved; in this respect it is of interest to note that only two universities have TAFL programmes for females (King Saud University and Umm Al-Qura University), with fewer than ten female students on both programmes, and these programmes are not run on any regular basis.

The current researcher, in order to improve the clarity of the questionnaire, conducted the fieldwork by himself in regard to the TAFL students and the TAFL evening classes, which made the process extremely time consuming. For the other samples, the questionnaire (written in English and translated into French as well) was given to some Arab volunteers who in turn distributed it to their non-Arab colleagues in the same work location.

#### **3.3:2 Population of the initial field survey**

The procedure for sampling from the target population was to choose all the final semester students of TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia as they have enough

experience of Arabic as a Foreign Language in order to provide information which we could trust. As for the others, we tried to cover disciplines such as the military, health, hotels, travel and industry. Sampling the population was not 100% at random because some places were sensitive to being visited and to having information collected about the number of people working there, which was not always possible to find out. Others were simply not co-operative. It was also not possible to be sure that the chosen sample of population would agree to fill in the questionnaires. The researcher, apart from visiting the designated areas for sampling and conducting the survey there, asked a number of relatives/volunteers to distribute the questionnaires rather than posting them which would have meant a very low probability of getting them back in reasonable numbers and in the appropriate time.

The students involved live in Riyadh, Makkah and Al-Madina and their number in the final semester in all the four institutes reached 131, Table 3.1:

institutes	population	attendance	absence
Umm Al-Qura University (Makkah)	27	16	11
Imam University (Riyadh)	50	36	14
King Saud University (Riyadh)	18	12	6
Islamic University (Al-Madina)	36	33	3
Total	131	97	34
Percentage		74%	26%

Table 3.1: Final level students of TAFL in Saudi Arabia

Other samples collected from the non-Arab professional population includes size and location as given below in Table 3.2:

no.	sample description	questionnaires			Location of work
		given	returned		
		total	total	%	
1	Riyadh Air Base	100	30	30	Riyadh
2	Embassies	200	51	25.5	Riyadh
3	AFL's evening classes	150	105	70	Riyadh
4	Holiday Inn Hotel	20	16	80	Jeddah
5	King Faisal Hospital	60	36	60	Riyadh
6	The Military Hospital	60	38	63.33	South Western
7	Saudi Airlines	60	16	26.67	Jeddah
8	Saudi Cable Company	50	49	98	Jeddah
9	Vinnel Company	40	26	65	Riyadh
	Total	740	367	49.60	

Table 3.2: A sample of the non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia

### 3.3:3 Instrument of the initial field survey

The instrument of the initial field survey was the TAFL students' questionnaire containing 20 questions and was divided into three sections: i) personal information,

which included nine questions regarding age, gender, nationality, mother tongue and so on, ii) attitudes towards learning foreign languages, and, iii) needs for studying Arabic with nine questions (see Appendix A). For the non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia, the questionnaire contained 27 questions with three main sections: a) personal details about the candidates, b) attitudes towards learning foreign languages, and, c) their needs in the case of attending a forthcoming TASP course (see Appendix B).

### 3.3:3:1 Validity of the questionnaire

To test the validity of the questionnaire it was given to three assessors: Abdu al-Rajehi of the University of Alexandria, Mahmoud al-Sieny of King Saud University and Muhibuddin Abu-Salih from Imam University. All work in the field of Applied Linguistics and are well known in the field of TAFL in Saudi Arabia and abroad. Information about them is given below in Table 3.3:

no.	assessor	profession and title	place of work
1	Abdu Ali al-Rajehi	Professor of Applied Linguistics in TAFL and Dean of the Faculty of Arts	Universities of Alexandria (Egypt) and Imam (Saudi Arabia)
2	Mahmoud al-Sieny	Professor of Applied Linguistics and Head of the Translation Centre.	University of King Saud (Saudi Arabia)
3	Muhibu ddin Abu-Salih	Senior lecturer in Education.	University of Imam (Saudi Arabia)

Table 3.3: Assessors' personal information (the initial field survey)

Their advice was in terms of changing the sequence of the questions, adding some questions or categories and making some written corrections to improve the readability of the questions.

Ten students of different levels in Arabic were asked to fill in the questionnaire to find if there were any difficult or ambiguous questions and to time the completion of the entire questionnaire. Some adjustments were made particularly in the vocabulary. Interestingly enough words like hobbies (*huwāyāt*), product (*ḥaṣīla*), fluency (*talāqa*), guessing (*takhmīn*) and patterns (*ānmāt*) were not familiar to the students; such terms, of course, were taken into account in designing the final version of the questionnaire.

### 3.3:4 Analysing results of the initial field survey

Below, we have the results of the initial field survey analysed and interpreted starting with the results of the TAFL students' questionnaire. The statistics that are used in the

analysis are simple and clear and based on the frequency of each variable's responses and its proportions to the whole sample.

### 3.3:4:1 TAFL students

#### I. Personal information about the learners

Questions in this section were designed to identify specific details of students. Students' ages were not taken into account, as they are required to be 18+ to attend TAFL programmes as stated earlier and not older than 35 on a full-time course. They were all male Muslims living in the three main cities of Makkah, Al-Madina and Riyadh. Nationalities and mother tongues of the students are in Table 3.4 and 3.5 below:

#### I. Nationalities of the students

no.	nationality	frequency	percentage
1	Afghan	14	14.43%
2	Albanian	03	03.09%
3	Bosnian	06	06.18%
4	Chinese	06	06.18%
5	Filipino	03	03.09%
6	Ghanaian	02	02.06%
7	Hungarian	03	03.09%
8	Indian	10	10.30%
9	Indonesian	02	02.06%
10	Liberian	02	02.06%
11	Malaysian	02	02.06%
12	Nigerian	04	04.12%
13	Pakistani	08	08.24%
14	Russian	06	06.18%
15	Somali	03	03.09%
16	Turkish	02	02.06%
	Total and percentage	76	78.35%

Table 3.4: Nationalities of TAFL students

#### II. Native languages spoken by students

no.	mother tongue	frequency	percentage
1	Bosnian	04	04.12%
2	English	04	04.12%
3	Hausa	04	04.12%
4	Malay	04	04.12%
5	Pushtu	13	13.40%
6	Russian	04	04.12%
7	Urdu	13	13.40%
	Total	46	47.42%

Table 3.5: Native languages spoken by students

Students were asked (Question no. 7) about their future plans after completing the TAFL programmes and graduating from the universities, the results of which are illustrated as follows (Table 3.6):

code	future plans	frequency	percentage
7/1	teachers	33	34.02
7/2	du <sup>ḥ</sup> at	40	41.24
7/3	specialising in Islamic Studies	24	24.74

Table 3.6: Future plans of TAFL students

The table shows 33 students (34.02%) indicated that they wished to become teachers, 40 (41.24%) wanted to perform *da<sup>ḥ</sup>wa* and, 24 (24.74%) to specialise in Islamic Studies. As for their qualifications, 69.07% of them hold General High School Certificate, twenty students had acquired diplomas (20.62%) and ten had other qualifications such as a Bachelor of Arts or a Master of Arts (10.31%). The official entrance requirement for the TAFL institutes was stipulated as indicated earlier

Question (no. 9) dealt with the expected area of study at university level, Table 3.7:

code	expected areas of study	frequency	percentage
9/1	medicine	2	2.06
9/1	engineering	3	3.09
9/3	sharī <sup>ḥ</sup> a (Islamic Law)	15	15.46
9/4	fundamentals of religion	12	12.37
9/5	<i>da<sup>ḥ</sup>wa</i>	31	31.96
9/6	Arabic language	16	16.49
9/7	social sciences	18	18.56

Table 3.7: Expected areas of study

As can be seen in the above table, *da<sup>ḥ</sup>wa* is popular for 31.96% among students. That is may be because students came to Saudi from a religious background and therefore with a keenness to promote Islam in their countries. It is also possible that being familiar with the subject Islam makes it an easy option.

It was necessary to learn what importance students put on learning foreign languages apart from Arabic (Question no. 10). Ninety-two students (94.85%) indicated that knowing foreign languages is of the utmost necessity. The next question put to them was: why is learning a foreign language necessary? The answers are presented below, Table 3.8:

code	reasons for learning foreign languages	frequency	percentage
11/1	to obtain a good job	30	30.09
11/2	to further your study	48	49.49
11/3	sensitive to the world's values and traditions	33	34.02
11/4	to have access to world literature	41	42.27
11/5	to follow current world affairs	48	49.49

Table 3.8: Reasons for learning foreign languages

Educational purposes and learning about current world affairs each constituted 49.49%, forty one students (42.27%) needed it to have access to world literature, thirty three students (34.02%) to understand and appreciate traditions and values of the other countries and thirty students (30.09%) thought that a foreign language would be of assistance in obtaining a good job which was a surprise to find this at the bottom of the list.

## II. Students' needs for studying AFL

Question Twelve in this section was linked with the reasons behind learning Arabic as a Foreign Language: 77 students (79.38%) said that it was for their religious need, 40 (41.24%) needed Arabic to further their education, 19 (19.59%) saw its importance for everyday use and 9 (9.29%) wanted it for obtaining jobs. In order to focus more closely on their needs, they were asked about their preferred readings (Question no. 13). Predictably, the majority of them (77.32%) have a preference for reading books on religious topics as indicated in Table 3.9:

code	type of reading	frequency	percentage
13/1	textbooks	68	70.10
13/2	newspapers and magazines	43	44.33
13/3	instructions and directions on food and medicine containers	27	27.84
13/4	religious books in general	75	77.32
13/5	literary books in general	37	38.14

Table 3.9: TAFL student's type of readings

A concern was expressed in some academic areas in which learners thought that their Arabic would not help them to study at university level; unpredictably, 78.35% of the candidates, as Table 3.10 shows, found that their Arabic would not help them with Islamic Studies. This contradicts the fact that the TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia are weighted heavily on religious content more than is required. This could be either the methodology employed fails to transfer that content to the students, aware of the importance of Arabic in studying such a field, and/or that they feel that they need more focused attention before starting Islamic Studies. The responses of this question are presented as follows, Table 3.10:

code	the academic fields in which their Arabic is weak	frequency	percentage
14/1	Islamic Studies	76	78.35
14/2	Arabic and its literature	31	31.96
14/3	science and medicine	15	15.46
14/4	social sciences	34	35.05
14/5	none of the above	10	10.31

Table 3.10: Areas of weakness in the TAFL students' Arabic

Vocabulary was the next area of inquiry. It has often been felt that living in an Arab country learners would find difficulties coping with some vocabulary unless properly guided by their teachers. Table 3.11 illustrates areas of difficulties in understanding vocabulary or terminology that students have in specific fields.

code	areas of difficulty (vocabulary)	frequency	percentage
15/1	religion	60	61.86
15/2	politics	19	19.59
15/3	engineering	45	46.39
15/4	medicine	52	53.61
15/5	security and military	34	35.05

Table 3.11: Areas of difficulty in the TAFL (vocabulary)

Religious vocabulary was shown to be a problem area with 61.86% of the total results; this, of course, is a subject that raises concern at a certain stage of the TAFL programme. The content is almost all religious oriented and yet students still reported difficulty in using this kind of language.

Indeed, when students were asked about the areas that they needed to improve their Arabic in, Islamic Studies came out as a top priority (91.75%), followed by politics(15.46%); whereas, in fields like engineering, medicine and defence Arabic is of less importance because most of the textbooks are in English. Learners who chose Islamic Studies were then asked to choose one of the Islamic areas in which they think they need to improve their Arabic: seventy eight students (80.41%) chose to study and perform *da'wa*, and nineteen students (19.59%) chose to read and understand the Qur'ān, prayers and as an aid to follow Islamic instruction.

To have an idea about the appropriate time for the students to attend courses to improve their Arabic, students were asked (Question no. 18) to indicate which part of the year they would prefer this to take place (Table 3.12). The majority of 43.30% prefer the course to be run during the first year of the university.

code	preferred time for a TASP course	freq.	%
18/1	during the first year of the TAFL programme	2	2.06
18/2	during the final year of the TAFL programme	30	30.93
18/3	after completing the TAFL programme and before beginning of the academic year	19	19.59
18/4	during the first academic year	42	43.30
18/5	any time during the evenings	4	4.12

Table 3.12: Preferred time for a TASP course

The questionnaire concluded with two direct questions (Questions nos. 19 and 20) regarding Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) in general and TASP in particular. Only 12 students (12.37%) had experienced LSP outside Saudi Arabia. With regard to TASP, 76 students (78.35%) supported developing a course, which confirmed the present researcher's belief in setting up such a programme in the country.

### 3.3:4:2 Non-Arab professionals' questionnaire

We will now concentrate on the responses of 367 non-Arab professionals working in Saudi Arabia.

#### I. Personal information about the subjects

Candidates were aged between 20 and 60 years old, so that they can be considered as adult learners, the majority being males (84.20%) and a small number of females (15.80%). The main religions of the candidates was Islam (51.50%), Christianity (36.24%) and other (12.26%). Table 3.13 shows the nationalities these learners belonged to:

no.	nationality	frequency	percentage
1	American	66	17.98
2	British	55	14.99
3	Indian	89	24.25
4	Indonesian	5	1.36
5	Pakistani	68	18.53
6	Filipino	41	11.17
7	Swedish	5	1.36

Table 3.13: Nationalities of the non-Arabs' sample working in Saudi Arabia

Candidates who speak Urdu totalled 159, English 123, Filipino 41, Indonesian 5 and Swedish 5; fewer numbers of candidates represented other languages. The candidates work in three main cities (see map p vii) of Riyadh (68.12%), Jeddah (22.07%) and Abha (9.81%). Their professions are listed in Table 3.14.

no.	occupation	frequency	percentage
1	accounting	13	3.54
2	general administration	22	6.00
3	computer	7	1.91
4	military forces	96	26.16
5	diplomatic services	51	13.90
6	engineering	20	5.45
7	marketing	10	2.73
8	medical services	46	12.53
9	secretariat	50	13.62

Table 3.14: Occupations of the non-Arabs' sample working in Saudi Arabia



The lowest educational level recorded was the Secondary School Certificate (8.72%) and the highest a Ph.D. (1.91%), though the majority of them held bachelor degrees (59.40%), master degrees (16.07%) or diplomas (13.90%).

It was essential to enquire about their attitudes towards learning foreign languages (Question no. 10) and how they relate to them. 75.48% of the candidates agreed that it was necessary. Five languages were recommended highly by the candidates as follows:

no.	language(s)	frequency	percentage
1	English	178	48.50
2	Arabic	176	47.96
3	French	74	20.16
4	German	24	6.54
5	Spanish	24	6.54

Table 3.15: Languages by order of importance as seen by the non-Arab professionals

They believe that speaking such languages would help them in obtaining better jobs, continuing their studies and following current affairs as are shown in Table 3.16 below:

code	reasons for learning foreign languages	frequency	percentage
11/1	to obtain a good job	211	57.49
11/2	to further your study	114	31.06
11/3	more sensitive to the world's values and traditions	134	36.51
11/4	to have better access to world literature	106	28.88
11/5	to keep yourself better informed about current world affairs	181	49.32

Table 3.16: Reasons for learning foreign languages as expressed by non-Arab professionals

It can be said that the positive attitude towards foreign languages is attributed to the fact that 63.76% of the candidates can read in foreign languages. Some of them read material on a daily basis (49.32%), others weekly (16.35%) and 30.79% occasionally.

The main areas covered are as follows, Table 3.17:

code	type of reading	frequency	percentage
14/1	professional journals	99	26.98
14/2	newspapers and magazines	189	51.50
14/3	theses / dissertations	00	00
14/4	religious books in general	249	67.85
14/5	literary books in general	56	15.26

Table 3.17: Type of readings

Arabic is the official language at work, but in fact other languages are used, particularly in the foreign embassies where languages such as Arabic (37.87%) and English (72.21%) are used in addition to their native languages. Of course, the fact that a lot of

businesses and diplomatic affairs are conducted in English, it thus weakens the candidates' motivation to learn Arabic.

## II. Candidates' needs

More than half of the candidates (65.67%) did not attend any TAFL classes, though a good number of them (53.68%) were making attempts to improve their Arabic at the time. 105 candidates were attending the AFL evening classes at IMU and 92 candidates were trying to improve their Arabic by self-study. Despite using languages other than Arabic in the place of work, 67.57% of the candidates agreed that Arabic is necessary for their jobs. In terms of making money, Arabic was necessary for 49.59% of the candidates; they remarked that they could possibly earn more money or get a promotion if they spoke Arabic. 76.29% of the candidates indicated that Arabic was important to them to deal with their clientele; they also used it for business and technical matters within the workplace. Parties with whom Arabic is used and the frequency of use are displayed in Table 3.18:

code	discussing business with	how frequent				
		daily		other times		
		many times	at least once	weekly	rarely	never
		%	%	%	%	%
21/1	managers or directors	22.89	10.63	4.63	16.35	45.50
21/2	colleagues	32.70	10.90	5.45	11.44	39.51
21/3	workers	24.53	7.63	5.18	13.62	49.05
21/4	clientele	39.24	10.90	3.81	12.81	33.24

Table 3.18: Who Arabic is used with for business

Looking at the use of Arabic outside work, a range of needs were specified by the candidates as follows (Table 3.19):

code	the need for Arabic	frequency	%
22/1	reading material ( books, newspapers, etc.) for pleasure	159	43.32
22/2	reading literature (novels, plays, etc.)	115	31.34
22/3	reading for professional advancement	152	41.42
22/4	listening to radio, watching television	251	68.39
22/5	writing formal letters and reports	157	42.78
22/6	writing personal letters	137	37.33
22/7	improving your knowledge of Islam	229	62.40

Table 3.19: The need for Arabic

It is not surprising to find that listening to the radio and watching television was considered top priority. The need to understand Islam through the medium of Arabic

recorded as high as 62.40% representing the majority of candidates who are Muslims and shows that non-Muslims are also interested in understanding Islam.

It is believed that learning any foreign language depends on the learner's motives. If the student has strong motives to learn the target language he/she would experience fewer difficulties in the learning process than a less motivated learner. Table 3.20 represents the reasons the candidates expressed for attending a TAFL programme:

code	reasons for learning Arabic	Freq.	%
23/1	the main language of your work is Arabic	62	16.89
23/2	you are working with Arabic-speaking colleagues	180	49.05
23/3	some / most / all of the written or printed material connected with your job is / are in Arabic	167	45.50
23/4	you have to convey information or instructions in Arabic to the workers	116	31.61
23/5	some / most / all correspondence has to be conducted in Arabic	116	31.61
23/6	you have to follow training courses conducted in Arabic	45	12.26
23/7	to represent your company/organisation well	152	41.42

Table 3.20: Reasons for learning Arabic

It is obvious that non-Arab professionals in Saudi Arabia take Arabic for professional reasons as they face the language at work on a daily basis. Most of the reports, letters, company's instructions are written in Arabic and Arabic-speaking colleagues would feel more comfortable if their foreign colleagues made an effort to read and write Arabic quite apart from speaking it. In responding to question no. 25, speaking scored the highest, 91.01%, followed by understanding or listening 81.74%, reading 73.30% and writing 68.12%.

Despite the fact that 63.49% of the candidates prefer to study Arabic at institutes of TAFL (Question no. 25), candidates expressed also their wish to study it at their workplace (59.40%). The latter is becoming popular with learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP) where the course takes place in the same location as work. One other useful tool to learn Arabic is, according to 47.68% of the candidates, television; watching different programmes can be a particularly good learning experience to consolidate information, understanding the culture or to improve listening skills.

The thing that most of the candidates agreed upon was that an Arabic course should not be intensive (Question no. 26); the ideal is 5 hours weekly, as was indicated by the majority (56.13%). It could be a daily part-time course (43.05%), or once a week (29.16%), (Question no. 27).

### 3.4 Conclusion

The main aim of this chapter was to assess the situation of TASP in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere: no TASP courses exist in the TAFL literature in the country. The survey also showed that there is in general a shortcoming in terms of books and research studies. The few, however, we have are good, especially those relating to textbooks in TASP. To base our review on solid ground we extended it to include a field survey containing two questionnaires that were completed by TAFL students and non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia.

It was found from the results of the questionnaires that there was a great demand for a course in Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes in connection with the candidates' profession and interests. The present TAFL students at the Saudi institutes have shown a strong interest in specialising in *da'wa* studies, a discipline that prepares candidates, both in theory and practice, to preach and teach Islam to Muslims and occasionally to non-Muslims. More than 80% of them expressed their desire to improve their Arabic in the field of *da'wa*. The non-Arab professionals working in Saudi Arabia on the other hand, need Arabic in areas related to their jobs in particular. As a response to these results, Chapter Four will focus on the literature of Language for Specific Purposes in order to establish a theoretical background to the present research.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### **LSP literature: Background for the present research**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

The present chapter will look into the nature of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) and Language for Academic Purposes (LAP) based on the literature found in these areas. The aim is to review it in terms of definition, history, types and course design. By establishing what LSP and LAP are, we will be able then to apply their concepts to Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (TASP) in the forthcoming chapters.

#### **4.2 Nature of LSP**

In the previous four decades, there has been in foreign language teaching programmes a greater focus of interest on the specialised area of language for specific purposes. This emphasis came out of a growing awareness that the language is needed in many fields such as science, technology, economics, law and so on. These fields need to be considered as having academic, vocational or professional purposes.

##### **4.2:1 Definition of LSP**

The developments that happened in the world after World War II (1939-1945) touched virtually all areas of our lives. Education was not isolated from this development and it involved the complete spectrum of the subject, from theory to practice. Since the teaching of foreign languages is an essential part of education it has also had to improve from the point of view of pedagogy and content studies (Robinson 1991: 1), as well as the delivery of the language itself. This improvement is either responsive to the dissatisfaction associated with the Traditional Methods of teaching foreign languages (McDonough 1984: 4), or responsive to the technology and economic revolution which occurred after World War II, which caused people to be agitated as they had little time and a great desire to quickly acquire the language related to their vocation or profession (Perren 1974: 7).

In dealing with LSP, we need, in the first instance, to answer the simple question, "what is LSP?". LSP in this context has been adopted as a general term to include ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and only recently ASP (Arabic for Specific

Purposes). In fact, LSP can be defined as a type of language syllabus, a component of a curriculum, or, a specific range of linguistic skills and / or a restricted linguistic corpus (Noss and Rodgers 1976:52). Obviously, LSP is seen nowadays as a new approach rather than anything else, and from this perspective it can be observed. However, the truth is that reaching a simple and watertight definition is not easy (Stevens 1980:109), and in addition it is very difficult to find an applicable definition of LSP which is accepted by everyone involved in this field of education (Robinson 1991:1). Since it is difficult to produce a definition which is agreed upon, the question is, what ESP/LSP is not, rather than what ESP/LSP is (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:18). In fact, obtaining an unfeasible definition does not mean that LSP is misunderstood, as those involved in administering and receiving LSP do understand what is meant by the title. Negotiations about the definition of LSP are only between the academics in the field of Language Teaching. While it is difficult to give an obvious definition for LSP, the core of language for specific purposes (LSP) is what Robinson (1980: 6) has conceived as the "utilitarian" purpose of language. In other words, it may be better defined as the distinction between language as a subject (the traditional view and one which is valid in some cases) and language as a service, where language teaching is carried out in the service of other subjects or spheres of life with reference to some occupational requirements. The field of LSP has two important characteristics which affect the methodology not only of materials production but also of classroom activities: firstly, the close association of special purpose language teaching with adult learners and secondly, the important auxiliary role that the language is called upon to play in such cases. Learners require language in LSP programmes as a means of furthering their special education or as a means of performing a social or working role, that is, a working role as a scientist, technologist, technician etc., efficiently.

Giving a sealed definition for LSP could be considered a very hard task, as has already been stated. A convenient clarification can be sought from LSP types, features and essential components. More than that, the present researcher will list the important definitions available in LSP literature.

While Mackay and Mountford (1978:2) emphasised that LSP is "a restricted repertoire" of words and expressions of a language used as a tool to identify the context and function which are presented in the course, they in fact failed to answer whether the repertoire is the target that LSP is aiming for, or whether the task and vocational context

are the goal. They also ignored the communicative factor. On the other hand, Robinson and Widdowson adopted the future role that an LSP course could play in the learner's life. Robinson (1980:1) emphasised the actual use of the language and Widdowson (1983:6) did not distance the concept of LSP from Robinson when he considered LSP to refer to "the eventual practical use to which the language will be put in achieving occupational and academic aims". Both of them consider the language as a means to allow the learner to perform his/her role in his/her specialist area. The two definitions are concerned with the learner's objectives and the educational context and they do not restrict achieving these objectives to language competence only. Crocker (1981:8) contrasting them reduced the significance of LSP as an independent way of teaching language; instead, the author considered LSP as only an approach to language teaching. He says, it would be "more fruitful to look at the way purpose is identified and the reasons for it". Thus he focused on one of the crucial elements (needs analysis) of the LSP components, although many improvements have occurred in the field of LSP since the late 1970s. However, Crocker's definition leads to a very valuable definition made by Hutchinson and Waters (1994:19), which sees LSP as an approach in which the content and method are considered on the basis of what the learner's objective of learning is. This definition refers to four essential components: (i) the approach; (ii) the learner's ultimate decision; (iii) a course based on the learners' purposes; and (iv) the language is only a means.

The researcher will try to get closer to the LSP core by discussing this term in the light of its types and crucial components.

#### **4.2:1:1 Features of LSP**

LSP has some features which distinguish the field of teaching language for specific purposes from teaching language for general purposes and give LSP its identification. In fact, these features allow us to get closer to a reasonable definition of the term LSP. Many books and articles highlight the features of LSP, such as: Perren (1974:7), Brumfit (1977: 71-72), Mackay and Mountford (1978:12-14), Robinson (1991:2-4), Kennedy and Bolitho (1991:13-23), Hutchinson and Waters (1994: 12-14) and others. These features can be extracted as:

1. LSP is goal directed. That is, an LSP course is needed for specific purposes which can be occupational or educational purposes and not for the language itself.
2. LSP is based on needs' analysis. What do the students have to do with the target language and how? This element really highlights the difference between LSP and LGP.

LGP emphasises mastering language without taking into consideration the learners' needs, while LSP's main objectives are firstly and lastly the learners' needs (Kerr 1977:11). The philosophy of LSP is to give the learner what he/she wants (Robinson 1980:5).

3. Students in the classroom have similar demands. Because it would be impossible to take into account the needs of every student in the class, it is much better to group the learners' needs (Robinson 1980:12).

4. Students on an LSP course are usually adults. As Kennedy and Bolitho (1991:13-14) stated: "the older a learner is, the more likely he is to have his own definite ideas on why he is learning English" and, of course, any other foreign language.

5. Language as a means rather than as an end. Language in the field of LSP is needed to achieve occupational and/or academic aims (Widdowson 1983:6). Therefore, the language in this context is an integral component and not an end in itself.

Because needs analysis is such a distinctive feature of LSP, it would be useful to discuss it in depth as is done below.

#### **4.2:1:1:1 Needs Analysis**

Needs analysis is substantial and distinguishes LSP from LGP as a main feature of LSP. Questions need to be asked, such as: Who is the learner?; What are the actual learner's needs?; What are the types of needs?; And are these needs enough to justify a syllabus design, or are there other factors involved that should be taken into account, such as the target situation, the educational organisation, the sponsors and the language needs? Needs should be looked at from different positions and providing answers to all the above questions should be a serious concern to designers before starting the course design process.

It is a fact that needs analysis and needs assessment are the keys to success or failure of any LSP programme. This strong belief has encouraged researchers to study needs analysis intensively.

#### **I. Meaning of needs analysis**

The word "needs" is, in the concept of LSP, synonymous with "wants" (McDonough 1984:35). These two terms express the learner's subjective desire. In addition, there is another phrase for the "needs", which is the "demand of others" (*ibid.*) to refer to the



needs of teachers, designers and institutions. Chambers (1980:28) considered that “needs” is the first stage in determining priorities, whereas “analysis” implies what the elements are and how they are to be identified. Robinson (1991:7) sees that needs refer to a student's study or job requirements which is similar to McDonough's view, “demand of others”, given above. However, Robinson may have implied the students' ability in the target language after completing the LSP course, which is considered by Widdowson (1981:2) as a goal-oriented definition. In the same context, Berwick (1990:57) describes needs in this view as objectives. If these objectives related to specific language content, it would be possible to say that this is not attainable in all LSP programmes, in particular, LAP where learners need to be given the skills and strategies to continue their study even after the course of LSP or LAP is over. In our situation, the content of *da'wa* is harder to present in a certain course, instead we should equip students with the appropriate skills, techniques and strategies to be able to acquire this content by themselves after completion of the course.

One can consider needs as what the teaching organisation or people at large respect as inevitable or desirable to be learnt from a language course. This perspective takes into account the other demands (teaching institution and community) and, to some extent, overlooks the learner's needs. Nevertheless, this perspective meets with some acceptance, especially by those who consider target situations as a basic resource for needs. In replying to Robinson above, Widdowson (1981:2) gives a new and different definition to needs in which he emphasises what learners need to do to acquire the language; this he calls a “process-oriented definition”. It opens the way to methodology instead of focusing on the desired needs of learners' jobs or study, in terms of the productive content. We should emphasise the means and skills within the course, or after the course.

In the light of the “goal-oriented definition” and “process-oriented definition”, Hutchinson and Waters (1994:54-56) distinguish between what is called “target needs” namely in a target situation and learning needs which is what the learner needs to do in order to learn.

It is, in fact, difficult to achieve a watertight clarification of “needs analysis” as an expression used in any procedure related to LSP course design. It is not a surprise, because researchers in this field find this term vague. Chambers suggests ignoring needs

analysis as an ambiguous term or, with the preference, to rationalise it by removing the anomalies (Chambers 1980:25).

In summary, behind the term "needs analysis" it is possible to say that there lies a mixture of what the learner wishes to achieve, which is at the heart of the process, the needs of the target situation which may be the reliable resource for learner's needs, and finally, educational organisation. These needs could be productive or procedure needs for the current moment (or for the future), and they may vary according to many factors. To approach the situation more rationally, we produced a framework for needs analysis in Chapter Five (5.3:1:1) to guide us towards a better understanding and assessment of this crucial factor in the field of LSP.

#### **4.2:2 Historical background**

The teaching of foreign languages has for a long time been unsatisfactory, in as far as the approaches are concerned. Several attempts have been made over the past thirty years to change things by introducing different approaches, whether it was the Audiolingual Approach, the Direct Approach or the Communicative Approach. Forty years ago, according to McDonough (1984: 4) many reports complained of, "the dissatisfaction with the language teaching practice". The dissatisfaction was because of serving students in language teaching classes with literature without any respect to their purpose of or need from learning the FL. To some extent, therefore, LSP appeared to be a solution to the dissatisfaction experienced by the learner, who had been totally ignored as a result of the traditional methods. Strevens (1971:7) interprets the problem as a result of assuming the teaching of EFL as, "an arts subject with general educational and cultural value". Consequently, a new approach was designed in response to the needs of prospective vocational students in technical work, and also professionals in areas of Medicine, Engineering, and the Diplomatic Service, both for academic and occupational purposes. Brumfit (1977:71) clearly states that LSP is not to be considered a new approach as such, but as a new emphasis in the teaching of languages. With every respect to Brumfit, LSP today is much different from the 1970s; it is best described as a new approach in language teaching. It stands, in fact, in virtually an equal position to LGP.

The beginnings of teaching foreign languages for specific purposes go back as early as the mid-1960s. In fact, the idea of language for specific purposes goes back

even earlier; according to Stevans (1978:190, 191), we can consider a language course designed for German science students and an *English phrase book for travellers* which were written in the sixteenth century as examples of LSP.

Stevens (1980:105) has indicated that the development of LSP/ESP is created by the separation of the language as a valuable instrument from the set of cultural values associated with native speakers, especially Americans and the British. The sociolinguistic pressures associated with newly independent countries resulted in the development of multilingualism and a new look at the English language. The result was the bringing to an end of localised forms of English and their competition with American and British English with regard to locally felt communicative needs. Many newly independent countries had been culturally dominated by English speaking countries. In order to break away from the anglophone countries, some countries became more selective in their acceptance of English language teaching.

Stevens's (*ibid.*) explanations focus on political and social changes and their influence in the development of LSP/ESP. Such political and social changes seem to have occurred mostly in Africa and in some Asian countries during the 1950s and 1960s. While Stevens' explanations are valid, others have offered different theoretical positions. Hutchinson and Waters (1994:6) refer to an international language, determined by the development of science and technology. This development created situations in which many people wanted to study English, not just for pleasure or prestige, but rather more to meet the need to participate effectively in an interdependent world.

The emergence of ESP grew in terms of the needs of teaching language for specific purposes after the end of World War II that marked the beginning of a new phase in world economic strength based on the rise of new technology. It was not until the early 1950s that ESP was given due consideration. In 1969 the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research (CILT), now placed in London, convened its first specialist conference to discuss languages for special purposes in London (Perren 1974:7). That conference on LSP was the starting point of this discipline.

What is noteworthy is that from the early 1960s to the late 1970s, the concept of LSP developed considerably. According to Robinson (1991:5) the period between 1980 and 1991 saw a vast development in ESP/LSP around the world and the number of key references to it in 1991 are in excess of 800 items.

In summary, the emergence of LSP/ESP came about mainly as a response to: (i) innovations in language theory, teaching and learning (as well as developments in education and applied linguistics); (ii) the changes in international politics during the 1950s and 1960s, particularly in pre-British colonies; and (iii) the rapid development of science and technology after World War II.

#### **4.2:3 Types of LSP**

Teaching language for specific purposes (LSP) has many forms, such as Language for Academic Purposes (LAP), Language for Educational Purposes (LEP) and Language for Occupational Purposes (LOP). There is another term: Language for Science and Technology (LST) which is a major sub-division of LSP (Mackay and Mountford 1978:6); LST can be either occupational, taking into account, for example, the needs of oil-field workers and engineers, or educational, for example, involving students studying Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics and Engineering through the medium of English (Robinson 1980:8).

There are, in fact, two important diagrams which were compiled by Strevens (1978:196) to clarify the relationship between the different kinds of LSP. In addition, Hutchinson and Waters (1994: figure 3, 17) clarify the relationship between the components of LSP on the one hand, and between LSP and the language teaching process on the other. Robinson (1991: figure 2, i) drew the ESP family tree based on Specific Purposes (SP): the present researcher adopted parts of those figures to illustrate target types and the relations between them in a new diagram (see Figure Two):

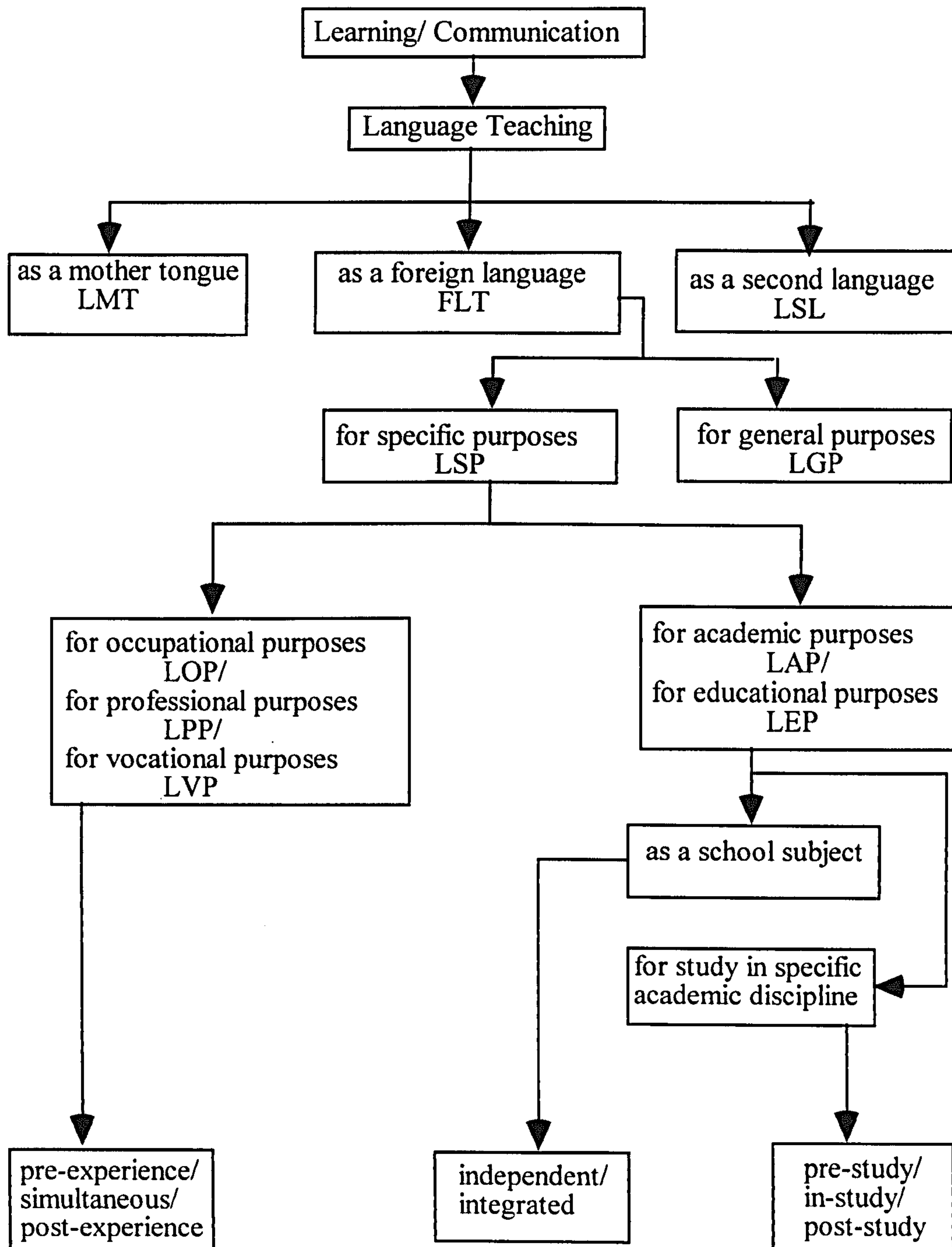


Figure Two: LSP roots and branches (modified from Hutchinson and Waters 1994:17)

#### 4.2:3:1 LAP

Language for Academic Purposes is a type of Language for Specific Purposes. That is a logical classification, but the current situation of LAP may indicate a different view about the position of LAP and its relation with LSP.

LAP is a course or courses presented within academic organisations to students requiring language for their studies (Kennedy and Bolitho 1991:4). This new approach works under the umbrella of LSP as shown in Figure Two above. Earlier, Strevens (1978:195) considered language for educational purposes (LEP) as a branch of LSP dividing LSP into two branches: language for occupational purposes (LOP) and language for educational purposes (LEP). The difference between LAP and LEP is in the type of learners. Students of LAP are already on or about to enter a college or university programme, whereas the students of LEP can be at any level of education lower than the university level (Robinson 1991: 101).

Recently, Holme (1996:2-3) claimed that LAP was a type of LSP/ESP, but not any more because "EAP deals with a wider content area than could be implied by ESP". LAP is specialised because of concentrating on, "particular kinds of skills such as listening and note-taking that students have to master, not because it enables the understanding of legal or engineering terminology" (*ibid.*). Nevertheless, LAP is still a branch of LSP, at least in this present research. The Holme perspective of LSP comes to support the idea of a skills-based course, and, in principle, the learning-based course too (see 4.3:3:1).

Students of LAP like those of LSP need to see immediate benefits from their courses. To some extent, that is not possible on LAP courses which are attended by students from different disciplines. In other words, there are several LAP programmes in the British and American universities attended by students studying or about to study in different disciplines; for instance, it is normal to find students of philosophy alongside students from medicine, engineering and physics in the same classroom. For this reason, Blue (1988:96) suggested two divisions of LAP, first, English for "general academic purposes" (EGAP), second, English for "specific academic purposes" (ESAP). In fact, Blue aimed to serve the individual need of the students to attend the appropriate course according to what they were going on to do. Therefore, some could attend a course on report writing skills and/or essay writing skills. It is an interesting classification and for the current project both divisions (LSAP and LGAP) are appropriate because our students are studying the same discipline, so that the content and the skills required are similar.

There are several distinctive courses, textbooks and books in this field, the most recent work being *English for Academic Purposes* by Jordan (1997) which is going to

be reviewed as one of the most important works in this field. Jordan considered taking on Blue's (1988:96) two divisions, Language for Specific Academic Purposes (LSAP) and Language for General Academic Purposes (LGAP), and looked for the relationships between ESP and EAP. Jordan's view will be re-drawn below (Figure Three), but instead of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) will be used:

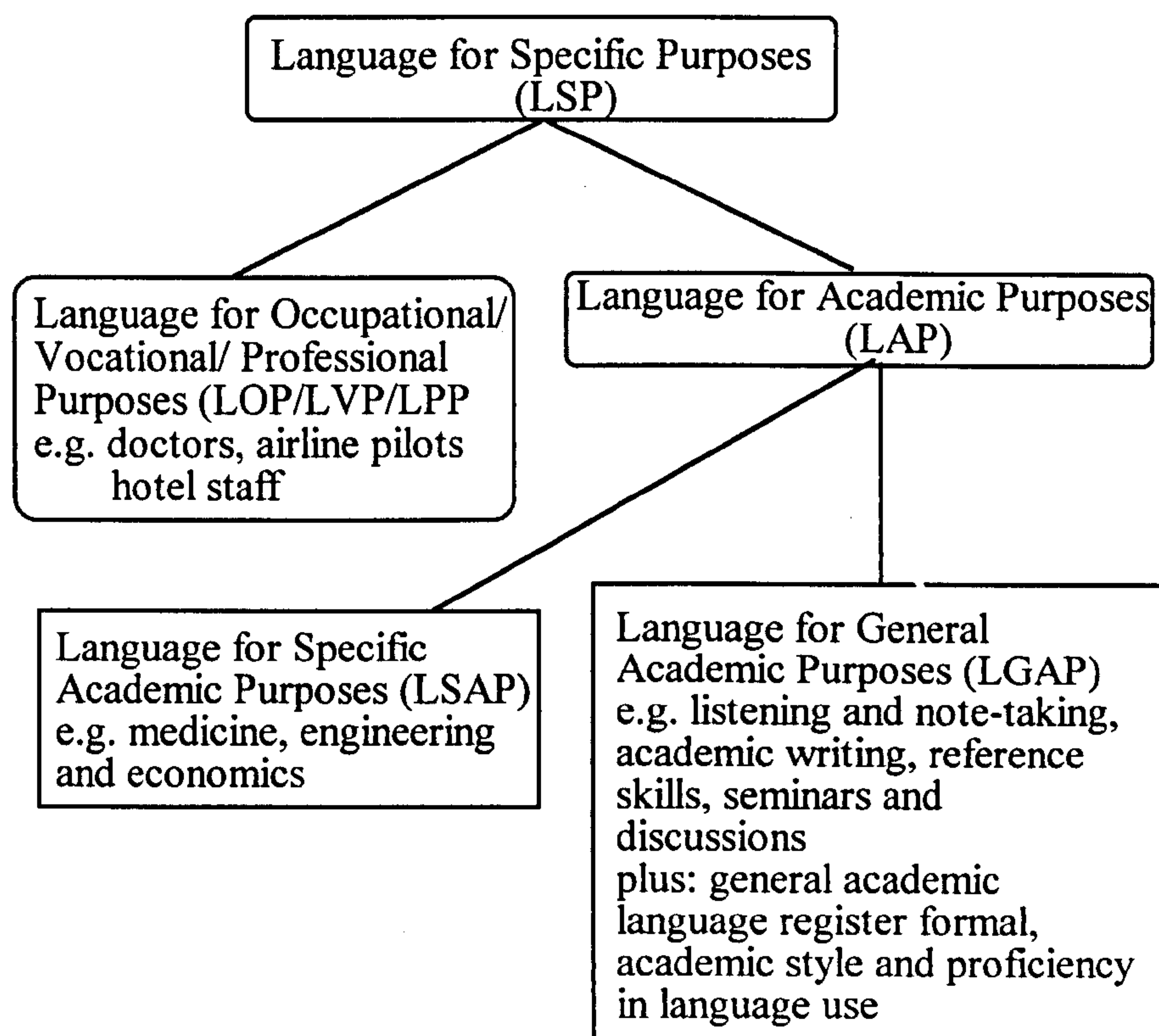


Figure Three: LSP and LAP (according to Jordan 1997:3)

It is logical, according to the above figure to call LGAP “study skills” because it mostly concentrates on skills. What is also mentioned in the above figure is that Jordan sees LAP as a branch of LSP, contrary to what Holme, as stated earlier, believed.

In order to avoid confusion between Language for Specific Academic Purposes (LSAP) and Language for General Academic Purposes (LGAP) we need to comprehend what is understood by “study skills” which refers to the LGAP concept. Study skills according to Richards *et al* (1992:277) is, “abilities, technique, and strategies which are used when reading, writing, or listening for study purposes”. In our project we combined both LGAP or study skills and LSAP. That is to say, our specific area is *da'wa* and in this specific area we are concentrating on study skills rather than on the content of *da'wa* (see Table 10.2).

### 4.3 Curriculum, Syllabus and Course Identification

A lot of work has been written in the field of applied linguistics and educational resources concerning "curriculum". An ambiguity of terminology still poses problems, such as what "course", "syllabus" and even "curriculum" exactly imply. It is very difficult to focus on one of them without taking into account the influence of the others. Thus, distinguishing between these terms is not an easy task because of the interference among them on the one hand and the different interpretations that have been given to these terms by the American and British schools of thought on the other.

In this section two aims will be achieved: Firstly, clarification of these terms and secondly to distinctions between curriculum, course and syllabus.

#### 4.3:1 Curriculum

The word "curriculum" denotes in the *Longman Dictionary* (1992:253): "a course of study offered in a school, college, etc.". The same word has another meaning, but not a completely different one, in the *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (Richards *et al.* 1992:70) which is, "an educational programme which states: (a) the educational purpose of the programme [the ends], (b) the content, teaching procedures and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose [the means] and (c) some means for assessing whether or not the educational ends have been achieved" [our brackets]. The *Oxford Dictionary* (1989: IV, 152) defines it as a, "regular course of study or training as at school, or university".

It is true that since the term "curriculum" emerged in 1918 in Bobbitt's *Curriculum*, its definition has taken many forms. Curriculum was defined as, "a set of intentions about opportunities for engagement of persons-to-be-educated with other persons and with things in certain arrangements of time and space" (Lewis and Miel 1972:27). Tanner and Tanner (1980:36) and Saylor *et al.* (1981:4-10) consider curriculum as follows: 1) the cumulative tradition of organised knowledge, 2) modes of thought, 3) race experience, 4) guided experience, 5) a planned learning environment, 6) cognitive / effective content and process, 7) an instruction plan, 8) instructional ends or outcomes, 9) a technological system of production, 10) subjects and subject matter, 11) experiences, 12) objectives and 13) planned opportunities for learning.

In spite of the number of curriculum definitions, education and applied linguistics are still facing actual difficulties in identifying this term and distinguishing



between it and the term of syllabus. Thus, ambiguity is still associated with our understanding of these terms. As a result of this confusion, another question has emerged, which is: whether the course of study, programme, curriculum and syllabus should have the same meaning or not (Yalden 1984: 45).

In the American school of thought, "curriculum" is defined as, "the planned composite effort of any school to guide pupils toward predetermined learning outcomes" (Inlow 1970:110). This definition is unable to differentiate between two important components of the curriculum which are the content and the methodology (Inlow 1973: 42). Curriculum is also seen as, "all of the planned experiences provided by the school to assist the pupils in attaining the designated learning outcomes to the best of their abilities" (Neagley and Evans 1967:2). Curriculum was treated as a guide to help students and their school to achieve a predetermined product. Indeed, the concept of curriculum is widely and universally expressed here. Johnson (1967:130) also describes or anticipates the curriculum as being a guide to the outcomes of a programme. All the above definitions deal with curriculum as a type of planned assistance to guide the students and teachers to achieve what has been planned for them to learn.

Traditionally, curriculum is taken as an answer to the question of what should a course of study be? (Nunan 1994a:1). Another definition widens the scope of curriculum concept and clarifies some of the curriculum components. This definition considers curriculum to refer to: "the sum total of organised learning stated as educational ends, activities, school subjects and / or topics decided upon and provided within an educational instruction for the attainment of the students" (Garcia 1976:1).

What distorts any definition is the frequency of the hypotheses about it, which means that it may be understood from different angles. In this case, if any definition related to the curriculum has fewer hypotheses, that will help to form a clear idea about the term. Stenhouse (1975:4) considers curriculum as, "an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice". This definition opens the door to discussion about the type of curriculum and its viability. It is possible to deduce from this definition that there is an integral relationship between the type of curriculum and its viability. Therefore, sometimes the type of curriculum may be inconvenient to apply

because of some restrictions made by the nature of the learners, environment of the application or the poorness of the teaching facilities.

In short, there is nothing wrong with the above definitions, but curriculum in the current research is understood in its broadest meaning as a, “philosophy, purposes, design, and implementation of a whole program” (Graves 1996: 3), or as all the learning activities which are organised and conducted by the educational organisation, whether they are taught to groups of learners or individually, within the school environment or outside it (Kerr 1968:16).

#### **4.3:2 Syllabus**

The word “syllabus” has an old history which goes back to about the eleventh century, not necessarily with the same meaning, but with several others. The *Longman Dictionary* (1992:1071) sees this word as, “an arrangement of subjects for study over a period of time, esp. a course of studies leading to an examination”. Whereas, in the *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (Richards *et al* 1992:283) it has the same meaning as the word “curriculum”, and it is also added that “syllabus” is a, “description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught”. The *Oxford Dictionary* (1989: xvii, 446) in fact considers “syllabus” as a, “statement of the subjects covered by a course of instruction or by an examination, in a school, college; a programme of study”.

In the field of foreign languages teaching, “syllabus”, according to Brumfit (1984b:75), can be considered in terms of the stipulations of a certain department's activity in an educational organisation ordered in sections specifying the activity of a target group of learners. This understanding of “syllabus” is followed by some specifications and features determined by Brumfit (*ibid.*) considering the syllabus as relating to time, with a starting point and final goals. Furthermore, it is based on some types of sequence such as intrinsic sequence, to a theory of language learning, or on the structure of selected material related to language acquisitions. It can only specify what is taught rather than what is learned.

Syllabus therefore seems to be more specific and refers directly to the content. It can be used as either a narrow or a broad concept. The narrow view means that the syllabus is concerned with the content only, the broader view means that the syllabus is concerned with the content and methodology. To some, syllabus refers to, “that subpart of

curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught” (Allen 1984:61). To others, syllabus is the, “specifications of a teaching programme or pedagogic agenda which defines a particular subject for a particular group of learners” (Widdowson 1987:65).

Obviously, Allen focused on the content and Widdowson linked that content to well-defined learners. Both are within the scope of content. In short, syllabus can be a guide telling the teacher and the educational organisation what they have to teach and telling people outside the school/university what the teachers and schools/university should teach. It might also tell the teacher and school/university how they can teach. This broad perspective will be discussed below in distinguishing between curriculum and syllabus. In the current research, syllabus is understood in its narrow concept which refers to the content of a certain course as a knowledge, skills or strategies.

#### **4.3:2:1 Types of LSP syllabuses**

Language in its natural form is unlimited while the syllabus is a limited quantity. To be able to overcome the syllabus restrictions it would be suitable to divide the syllabus into different types, appropriate to the variety of language teaching objectives. Currently, there are many types of syllabuses. They are developed according to purpose, shape or role of the syllabus in the educational process. As a starting point, syllabus can be divided into five types according to Dubin and Olshtain (1992:51-63): Linear format. Here, the content is ordered and graduated in a straight line, and the learner has to move from one unit to the other without the teacher being able to change the order or to omit any element; Modular format. This type is used if the course is integral in its topics or situations with the skills’ orientation at the end of the programme. It needs flexible objectives in order to work effectively; Cyclical format. The topic is presented more than once, and each time it is more difficult than the time before. A grammar point, for example, could be repeated with the explanations and demands on the learner becoming progressively more complex on each presentation; Matrix format. This format focuses on the situational content. It enables teachers or learners to select at random their topic from the table of contents; Story-line format. This takes a particular story to link the syllabus and can be used with any of the above syllabus formats.

On the content approach Noss and Rodgers (1976:58-60) suggest six types. The translation syllabus is where the learner establishes his/her proficiency in the L2 by transforming a sample of it into a suitable equal in L1. The descriptive or explanatory

syllabus analyses the target language, talks about it rather than directly utilising it in the communication context. For the structural syllabus, the emphasis may be that the learners analyse the content of the L2 grammatically; the learner is therefore expected to know and apply the language to the learning situation. In the situational syllabus the concentration is on the learners' needs which are applied to language for business purposes, language for technical purposes, and language for social orientation. The types closer to the situational syllabus are the communicative syllabus, which concentrates on the, "communication exchange itself rather than on the forms or situations of the exchange"; and the notional syllabus, which is the very recent one where the syllabus includes elements of grammar and lexicon as well as specific topics, notions and concepts needed by the learners. Explicitly, Noss and Rodgers (1976:61) emphasised that the LSP suggested, "no new type of language syllabus falling outside of the six major types" mentioned above. Nevertheless, it is not important to restrict LSP to one of the content-based syllabuses because the LSP syllabus can also be a type of skills-based syllabus or a process-based syllabus.

Robinson (1991:35-40) re-organises the above types into: language form, where the language is graded and sequenced from the easy to the difficult items; the notional-functional syllabus, which appeared in the field of ELT in 1970s and which functions efficiently in the field of LSP. This type can be understood as that, "in which the language content is arranged according to the meanings a learner needs to express through language and the functions the learner will use the language for" (Richards *et al.* 1992:196); situational syllabus, which is applied to language for business purposes, language for technical purposes, and language for social orientation as part of LAP; and a topic-based syllabus, which may be more significant in the field of LSP, as one of the LSP objectives is to teach the specific content to the learner. In addition, Dubin and Olshtain (1992:37) did not go far from the above discussion as they considered syllabus in its content-basis to be one of the following types: 1) structural-grammatical syllabus, which concerns itself with the grammatical items, verbs, plurals, articles, and etc.; 2) semantic- notional syllabus, which pays attention to the meaning, times, places, obligations and so on; this type can be known as the notional syllabus; 3) functional syllabus, which concentrates on the apologies and rejects; and finally 4) situational syllabus, which concentrates on the learners' needs.

As we are still discussing the content-based syllabus, we need to mention the goal-oriented approach which is a traditional approach and well-known to foreign language teachers. It focuses on vocabulary selection and the selected vocabulary thereafter is the core of the structural syllabus.

The language-centred approach or the goal-oriented approach has been broadly discussed by Robinson (1991:35-36). She in fact expanded this term to cover four types of content-centred approach, these types are: i) Language form, which includes a range of language units, graded by assumed difficulty of learning. This kind of syllabus has a wide application in the field of LSP, and in particular, in ESP courses. Many textbooks in the field of ESP were dependent on this approach for their design, such as, *A Course in Basic Scientific English* by J. R. Ewer and G. Latorre (1969), and the *Structure of Technical English* by A. J. Herbert (1965); ii) Notional-functional syllabus, in which the foundation items are notions or concepts such as time, space, greetings, asking and seeking clarification (Wilkins 1976). One of the applications of these syllabuses in EAP is, *The Academic Writing Course* by R. Jordan, (1990); iii) Situationally-centred syllabus, which focuses on presenting language items and linguistic behaviour as they occur in real life; and iv) Topic-based syllabus, where topics such as, travelling, marketing, tourism and so on, are the core of the language syllabus.

The Language-centred approach has been described by Hutchinson and Waters (1994:65-68) as the simplest type of course design process and is strongly related to LSP. It aims to make a direct connection between the target situation and what a course in ESP (LSP) would contain.

Despite its logical procedures, the language-centred approach has some weaknesses. Students are used in this approach as a tool to determine the target situation and afterwards to identify the vocabulary needed for that particular situation. In other words, the learner would only need a specific area of the language taught rather than the whole of the language as you would find with learning a language for general purposes (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:67). Therefore, the learner is only considered as a method to choose the appropriate language restricted in the area needed. Thus, it is not a "learner-centred" approach, but it is a "learner-restricted" approach, (*ibid.*). Once the early analysis of the learning context has been made, the course designer or the teacher is unable to consider any feedback from the course or the students at the implementation

stage of the running programme; in Hutchinson and Waters' view, it is a "static and inflexible procedure" (*ibid.*). It totally depends on the data produced by the need analysis which is, to some extent, not in itself significant. This data needs to be interpreted in relation to all sorts of knowledge that does not come up in the analysis itself; although this process is not acknowledged by this approach nor by important learning factors, such as how interesting the course is, which are often ignored (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:68). The information of the target situation is analysed on the surface level and therefore, the performance underpinned by competence is not discovered as clearly as it should be (*ibid.*).

The alternative is called the process-oriented approach, which was suggested by Widdowson. This approach is related to the, "transitional behavior and the means of learning" (*ibid.*). It depends on an assumption that the content of any language course relies on strategies for learning during the running of the course rather than what the learner is expected to do after the course is over. What that means is that it is possible to plan an LSP course involving very little of the accompanying language with the special needs on condition that the learned language is sufficient to enable the learner to achieve the specific purposes needed after the completion of the course (*ibid.*). This type of syllabus is called by Hutchinson and Waters (1994:69) the skills-centred approach, which was put by Robinson (1991:37) as a middle way between the content or product-based approach (discussed above) on the one hand and the learning-based approach (discussed below) on the other.

The relationship between the content, language or product-based approach and the current project must be stated. It is difficult to neglect this well known approach, however, we are not going to impose a pre-determined subject-matter on the students of our course on the one hand and we are not going to give the students the full responsibility to decide what to teach, how to teach and for how long on the other. The content or the language is a key component in any LSP course design, but if the course is for academic purposes, we need to think about another crucial factor which is the skills and strategies that stand behind acquiring the content.

The third type of LSP syllabus is called process-syllabus by Breen (1984:54), method-based syllabus by Robinson (1991:38-39) and learning-centred approach by Hutchinson and Waters (1994:72). Robinson (1991:38-40) divided the process-oriented,

or what he called method-based syllabus, into two subcategories: i) process or learning approach which refers to the method of learning; ii) task or procedure-based syllabuses which contain a range of tasks or activities organised according to cognitive difficulty. The process syllabus rejects the idea of teaching language for pre-determined objectives; instead it considered the immediate needs of the learners. It is based on the negotiations between the teacher and the learners about everything going to be presented to them in the classroom. The final decision in this process is the learners' decision. In comparing it to the content or product-based syllabuses, the process or method-based syllabus concentrates on the means to an end results of the teaching process (Jordan 1997:60-63). In other words, it focuses on how the end results can be achieved.

Three types can be classified under the method-based syllabuses: process syllabus, task-based syllabus and learning-based syllabus. Hutchinson and Waters (1994:72-76) gave a detailed explanation of the learning-centred syllabus. It is described as the best type of syllabus design. It takes into account the learner's needs at every stage of the syllabus design, and the syllabus is a negotiable and "dynamic" process. This approach acknowledges that neither of the two approaches (language-centred and skills-centred) is enough. In the learning-centred approach, we have to go further behind the competence that makes learners perform because we do not want to know the competence only, but how that competence can be acquired (*ibid.*).

Two characteristics for this approach have been identified by Hutchinson and Waters (1994:74). The first is that course design is a "negotiated" process. No one specific element influences the content of the course; the content is influenced by the LSP learning context and the target situation. They both influence "the nature of the syllabus, materials, methodology and evaluation procedures". The second, course design is a "dynamic" process, it does not treat the course process as a linear construction. Furthermore, the course design process should be flexible to respond to the developments carried by the feedback channels.

To sum up, the above various syllabuses can be grouped according to Jordan (1997: 60-63) under three categories as follows:

a) Content/product category, which concentrates on the end result. This category includes:

1. Grammatical/ Structural/Language forms
  2. Notional-Functional
  3. Situational
  4. Topic
  5. Content-Based
- b) Skills, which focuses on one skill or more of the four traditional skills.
- c) Methods or process, which gives attention to the means to an end. This type includes:
1. Process
  2. Procedural/task-based
  3. Learning-Centred/negotiated

In concluding, the goal-oriented approach concentrates on the content and how it can be selected with regard to the ends of the learning project while the process-oriented approach emphasises the means of learning and the ends which can be achieved by the students themselves. The first approach assumes that after completion of the course the candidate will take with him/her a ready-made knowledge. With the second approach the learner develops skills to learn which he/she can transfer for life (Widdowson 1981:5-6).

It could be said that the two approaches discussed above (content/product-based and process/learning based) are in contradiction with each other. White (1993:68-69) and Robinson (1991:37) take the skill-based approach which falls in the middle of the two approaches above and basically pertains to the field of LSP. It in fact concentrates especially on one of the traditional language skills (White 1993:69). As a matter of fact, White discussed the traditional four skills and the cognitive skills in terms of providing bases for syllabus design. In turn, Robinson spoke about a skill-based approach as another choice to be taken into account when surveying the approaches to LSP course design. This approach can be followed in order to produce a course in, "writing business letters, or in oral skills for business people, or in academic reading. The actual content of the course, however, might be language forms or functions, as in content-based syllabuses" (Robinson 1991:37). The skills-based syllabus is broadly discussed in Chapter Five (5.3:1:4) as the most appropriate approach to the current project.



### 4.3:3 Course

Needless to say, “course” as a term is, to some extent, unambiguous and it is preferred for the current research to follow the below definitions.

Hutchinson and Waters (1994:65) defined “course” as, “an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge”. In this sense “course” is a mechanism of interpreting and employing the available information about certain learning requirements. The final aim is to provide the learners with specific knowledge, skill or experience in a certain area of study. Stern (1993:20) was more realistic when he defined “course” as a term which refers to, “the administrative unit of instruction, and a series of courses or a variety of courses offering different options [which] constitutes a programme”. In this context, “course” is seen as an orderly part of a programme or curriculum.

#### 4.3:3:1 Types of LSP courses

In 1974, two categories of course design had been proposed to include “special courses” which “have fairly specific objectives and are rather simpler to discuss” (Howatt 1974:5), and general courses which, “tend to be diffused in their aims and take their overall shape more from tradition, contemporary fashion and the vague but powerful influences exerted by the social attitudes and economic needs of the community” (*ibid.*).

Specific courses are divided according to Howatt (*ibid.*) into: i) Problem-based courses, which are designed to help learners to overcome certain learning difficulties such as grammar, speaking, pronunciation, etc.; ii) Activity-based courses, which are designed to help students to focus on one or more specific skills at the same time; and, iii) Role-based courses, this type provides students with their learning needs (vocational, professional or educational). These types did not introduce the term LSP as it is now known, but they reflected how the term “course” was perceived in the early 1970s.

Hutchinson and Waters (1994:65-77) presented in their works three integral frameworks: the language-centred course design, the skills-centred course design, and the learning-centred approach.

### 1. Language-based course design

This is the most simple and the most popular approach as it makes a direct connection between the target situation and the content of the LSP course, see Figure Four below:

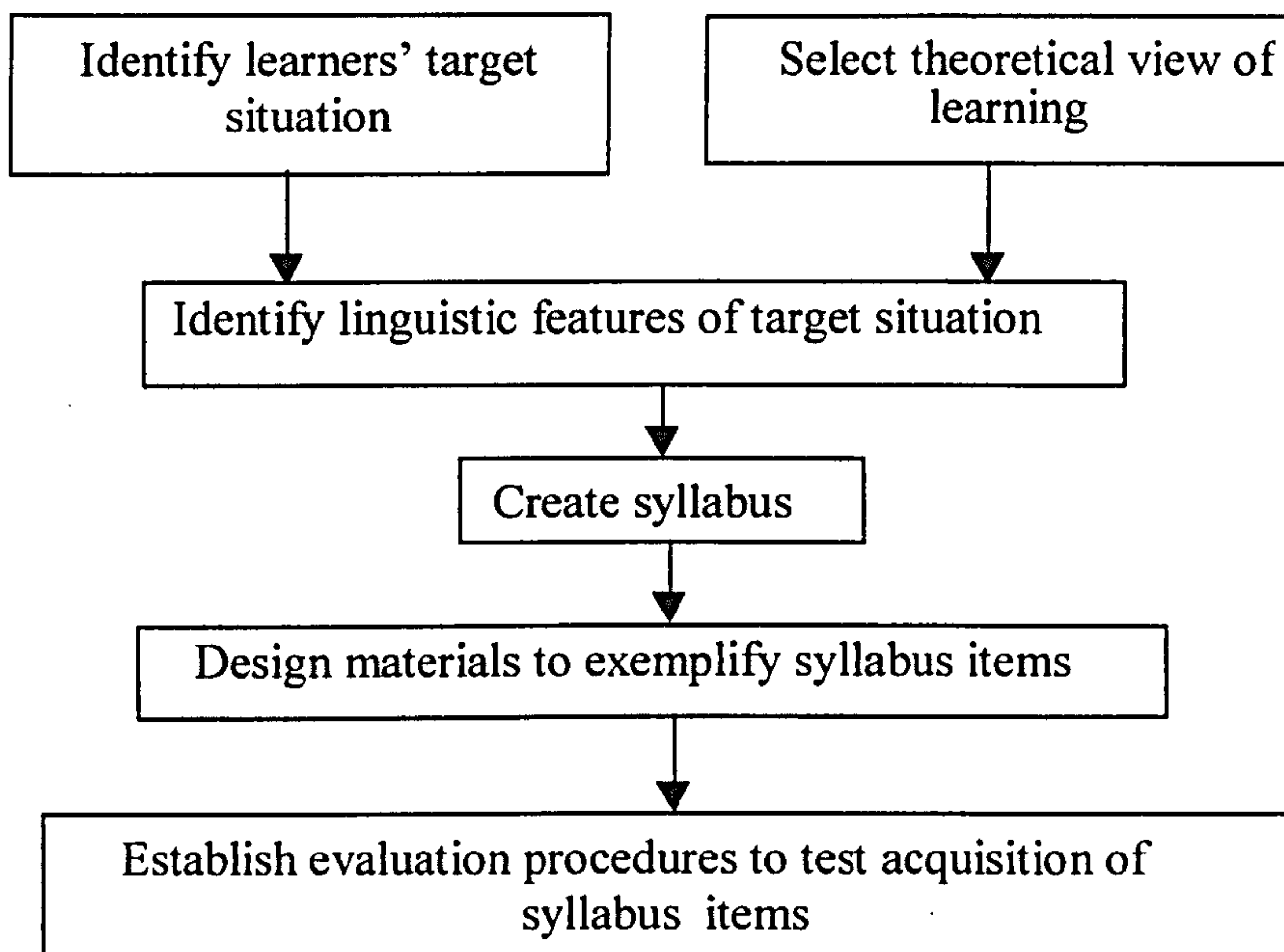


Figure Four: Language-based course design (after Hutchinson and Waters 1994: 65-66)

This suggested framework, according to Hutchinson and Waters, has some deficiencies; the first concerns the learners' role in the course. The needs are only a tool to determine the target situation and to choose from the language that is suitable to this target situation, then they are totally ignored. The second deficiency is that this course is inflexible, as it does not benefit from feedback or students' errors.

### 2. Skills-based course design

This type does not focus on particular linguistic knowledge to be gained from the course; instead, it emphasises providing the learners with specific skills and strategies to help them to continue their learning process even after the programme is completed. The framework steps can be seen in Figure Five:

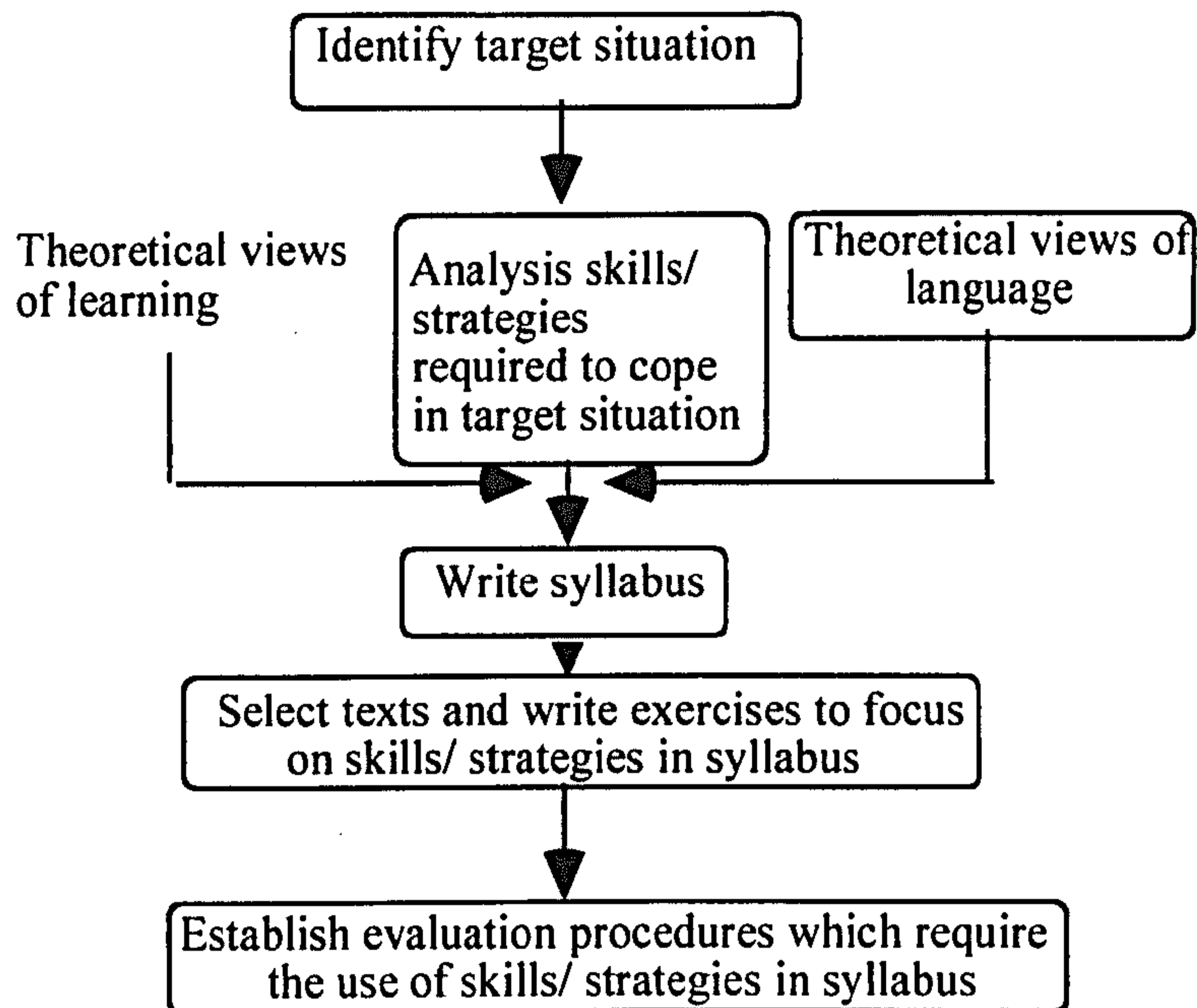


Figure Five: Skills-based course design (after Hutchinson and Waters 1994:71)

(The square reading “theoretical views of learning” is dotted because this approach does not pay attention to the learning process itself)

### 3. A learning-based course design

It depends on the fact that learning is determined by the learners. Therefore, it takes the learners into account at every stage of the course design. The course itself is “dynamic” and negotiable (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:74). The steps of this framework are shown in Figure Six:

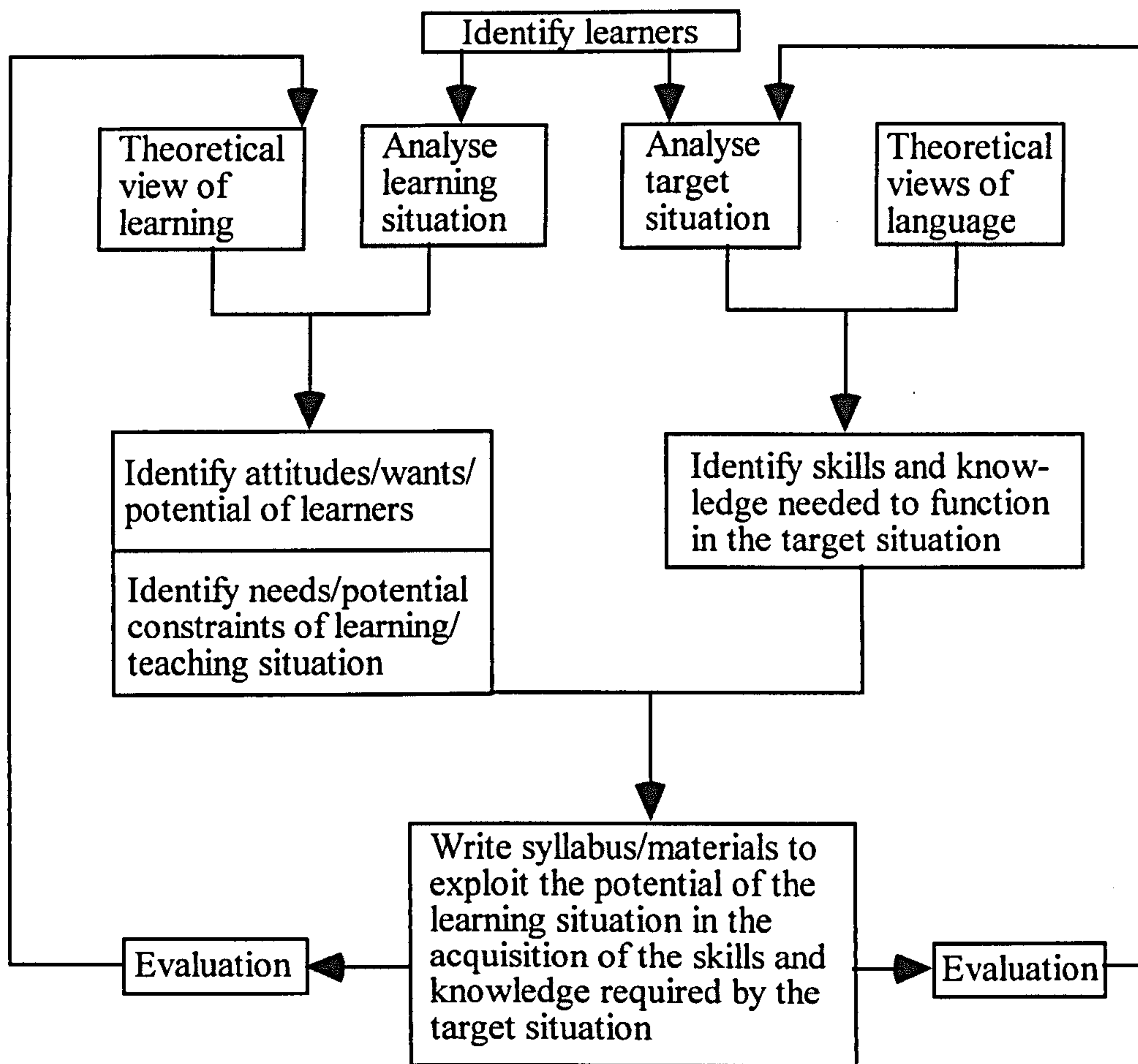


Figure Six: Learning-based course design (after Hutchinson and Waters 1994:71)

It is noticeable that types of courses are to some extent similar to those of syllabuses. The justification is that the concept of a course is to a certain degree determined by the type of syllabus, and we have already agreed that the syllabus is a part of the course. Therefore, it is not repetition to mention these types again when speaking about a “course” in as much as we aimed to elucidate the role of the syllabus on constituting the shape of the course.

From a different perspective, Jordan (1997:69-73) re-presented three types of course design: pre-session courses, in-session courses and long courses. These three types are the most widely known ones and it can be said that any LSP or LAP courses can be classified within this range. In fact, results of our main field study revealed that in-session course is preferred for TAAP.

#### 4.3:4 Curriculum, course and syllabus distinction

The above definitions and specifications take into account the content of the syllabus and give it more consideration than any other learning factors. When this concern

focuses on the methodology, we could say that the term has been changed into that of “curriculum”. However, there is another perspective which sees the “syllabus” in a broad sense; in this case it is extended to involve the methods as well as the content (Nunan 1994b:5). In order to avoid confusion, we will take the narrow perspective of the interpretation of syllabus to be able to differentiate between curriculum and syllabus.

It can be noted that “curriculum” has a more theoretical meaning than syllabus, whereas syllabus is defined in relation to content and for examination purposes.

That is not all, syllabus versus curriculum is really a dubious case. The misunderstanding is caused by the different interpretations given by the British and American schools of thought. Firstly, we will consider what “syllabus” and “curriculum” according to each respective school mean. Syllabus refers to “a plan of works to be taught in a particular course” (Robinson, 1991:3). It can also refer to the content as seen by White (1993:4). Curriculum, on the other hand, means the quantity needed to be taught and the objectives to be achieved in any school or educational organisation (*ibid.*).

When considering the American view, curriculum mostly means what the British call syllabus (Robinson 1991:33). Moreover, White (1993:4) considers curriculum in the British view to be synonymous with syllabus in the American usage. Stern (1987:19) points out that the American school of thought uses terms such as “curriculum”, “course of study” and “programme” to mean syllabus in the British school. Secondly, there are those who see syllabus from a different perspective and define it as a narrow or wide concept. The narrow view restricts the term syllabus to content only, while the wider view takes into account the methods used in addition to the content. In this perspective syllabus can answer three questions; what, who and how. Distinguishing between the content and methods in the field of teaching foreign languages could be difficult as the task of the methods in the syllabus depends on the specifications in the instructional plans and materials (Dubin and Olshtain 1992:63).

According to Stern (1987:19), it can be said that syllabus, course of study and programme seem to lead to the same meaning and therefore they may be used interchangeably; curriculum has a wider and theoretical framework. Thus, curriculum

can include some different syllabuses, programmes or courses of study. For example, the TAFL curriculum in the Saudi educational system consists of syllabuses within the framework of grammar, reading, composition, rhetoric etc.

Below, two definitions are focused on to see how they relate to syllabus designing in teaching foreign languages. The first one considers curriculum as a, "broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational-cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand. A curriculum is often reflective of national and political trends as well" (Dubin and Olshtain 1992:34-35). The second sees the syllabus as an, "operational statement of teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of the curriculum into a series of planned steps leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level" (*ibid.*).

Stern (1987:23-30) examined some views about syllabus design giving us a wider understanding about this term. He reviewed, in fact, the syllabus design in the light of what has been discussed by Breen, Candlin, Brumfit, Widdowson, Yalden and Allen in the ELT Documents 118 (1984) and in the TESOL symposium (1983). He classified their views into specific schools of thought. In Stern's opinion, Candlin and Breen from Lancaster University are classified as the Lancaster School; Brumfit and Widdowson from the London Educational Institute are represented as the London School; Yalden could be an independent school and Allen represented the Toronto School.

In the Lancaster School, Candlin believes that a good syllabus is the open one which can be discussed by the teachers and students; he obviously rejects imposing any predetermined information on the teachers and learners. Some facts in their School's opinion must be taken into account, notably the teacher's abilities and the individual abilities of the students, thereby concluding that two syllabuses are to be considered, the functional and the structural. It is evident that the syllabus concept of Candlin refuses any idea of a pre-designed plan which imposes objectives, content and methodology on the teachers who in return would impose them on the learners.

As for the London School, Brumfit and Widdowson see the Lancaster perspective as unrealistic and they in fact give an alternative view. Widdowson understands that syllabuses are of considerable importance in the educational process; despite his objection to limiting the actual teaching, he welcomes the idea of a teacher's

freedom. However, achieving that freedom must not damage the usefulness of the well-designed syllabus. Brumfit supports his colleague, but he pays more attention to the features and values of the syllabus itself. When Brumfit focuses on the efficiency of the syllabus he means that a syllabus should include areas that are linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and cultural and substantive (Stern 1987:25).

Yalden in her independent school of thought made “a bridge” between the London School and the Toronto School. She, like Brumfit and Widdowson, recognises the significance of the syllabus and differentiates between three basic positions: 1) if language is seen as a learning process then a grammatical logic sequence is followed; 2) if language is seen in Krashen’s sense as an acquired process, then no particular linguistic presentations are needed; and, 3) if the syllabus is based on language use, then there must be a needs analysis. Therefore, “identified needs will impose the choice of syllabus content”, as Stern (1987:25-26) puts it. She believes in learners as a vital factor in syllabus design; though, syllabus for her is a teacher’s decision about the content and objectives, with the learners’ needs as secondary.

Allen’s view, despite his experience in the ESP field, ignores the learners’ role in syllabus design and goes on to emphasise the content that learners actually know and “experiential” language learning, instead of focusing on the language itself as a tool of language learning (Stern 1987:26-27).

In any syllabus, three phases should not be ignored: plan, implementation and evaluation (Nunan 1994b:10). The planning phase is the direction the syllabus takes towards language in general or for specific purposes. Moreover, the syllabus could relate to a future plan, therefore the future can be seen through the syllabus objectives and what made us plan the future according to these objectives. The plan could therefore be a future in itself; in this case, we have to think how can we reach that future and we should add an explanation of the best way to reach it. We can also see the syllabus from a critical view point, considering it a matter which needs to be evaluated (White 1993:4-5).

To draw a practical distinction between “curriculum” and “syllabus” we have to see the “syllabus” as an important part of the educational programme restricted to describe the content of a given course, whereas the “curriculum” is more comprehensive

so it can cover all the learning activities from the decision making to the evaluation. Thus, what students learn is a question answered by syllabus, but what students learn and how they learn it is a question answered by curriculum. Allen (1984:61) made a good distinction between “curriculum” and “syllabus”. “Curriculum” is considered in Allen's perspective as, “a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational programme”; whereas “syllabus” is considered as a, “subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught”, apart from how they will be taught (methodology). This distinction certainly clarified the relationship between the two terms and Allen (*ibid.*) goes further in distinguishing curriculum at five levels as follows:

1. Concept formation level, where the general principles of foreign language pedagogy are constituted, along with one's thoughts of what establishes target language proficiency and identifying the role of language in society.
2. Administrative decision-making level, which deals with the specifying of a certain “course of action”, given different constraints on the programme, such as, social, political and financial factors.
3. Syllabus planning level, which deals with specifying of the programme objectives, drawing up a list of modules to be taught, drafting timetables, liaising work with other items on the curriculum, and establishing criteria of choosing and grading.
4. Materials design level, where texts, games, exercises, simulations and other activities are created.
5. Classroom activity level, which is related to the methodology.

In addition, Brumfit (1984a) combined some distinctions between the two terms following narrow and broad concepts: the narrow distinguishes between the content and the methodology; the broader view finds that it is difficult to distinguish between content and methodology when using communicative language teaching (Nunan 1994b:5). Yalden (1984:14), Candlin (1984:32) and Brumfit (1984b:76) supported this broader view; Stern (1984:10-11), Widdowson (1984:26) and Allen (1984:61) adopted the narrower view.

The definition of curriculum can be seen from two perspectives, general and specific. In the general one, curriculum is seen as a set of organised intentions for educational and training purposes. In the specific one, a curriculum is considered as a



plan with well-designed educational aims which usually exists in written form and which guides activities rather than outlining details. Syllabus on the other hand is a term often integrally connected to the curriculum. To some, curriculum and syllabus are synonymous and are used interchangeably.

To sum up, curriculum can be seen as the whole of the learning process, i.e. the language, the learning objectives, the experiences and the assessment of how the learners' needs are applied in the educational process; whereas syllabus is considered to be more specific and based on describing what actually is conducted in the classroom.

In spite of highlighting the difference between syllabus and curriculum, these two definitions indicate that there is a close, inseparable relationship which could perhaps be more straightforward if both terms were attributed to a single, broad framework. That framework requires two levels: i) curriculum, which deals with broad concepts such as policy, philosophy and goals; ii) syllabus, which concentrates on detailed objectives, contents, activities, procedures, materials and methods. These two levels are complementary and interact with each other.

According to the above distinction, it is clear that the syllabus has a partial relationship with the curriculum, but that they, of course, are not equivalent concepts and are understood in this current study on that basis. Nevertheless, a further interpretation and terminology arguments were put forward by Brumfit (1984b:75-81) and White (1993:3-6) about these two terms which are useful to those who need more clarity.

We stated earlier that the concept of the curriculum is wider, theoretical and more general. In its wider sense curriculum is the "philosophy, purpose, design, and implementation of a whole program" (Graves 1996:3). It includes content, methodology and evaluation and it should, therefore, be used to answer the two key questions: what do students learn? And, how do they learn? The syllabus on the other hand, concerns the content only and is, therefore, narrow and more specific. Syllabus could then be considered a part of the curriculum. As a result of the previous discussion, we found that some curriculum models stress the final objectives of the programme such as the means-ends model and others focus on the content or process such as the process syllabus.

In short, taking these difficulties of curriculum, course and syllabus into account, it can be said that "curriculum" is the broader term which covers elements which may be out of the hands of the teachers if they work as course designers [elements such as social needs analysis, official decision making or the whole programme evaluation (*ibid.*)]. "Course", on the other hand, deals with developing a range of teaching materials to be taught in a specific time whereas, "syllabus" generally refers to procedures for deciding what will be taught in a language course. In fact, "course" comprises how a syllabus will be conducted. In other words it covers: i) teaching methods and materials that are needed to achieve the objectives of the course; ii) length of the time required for the whole process; iii) sequencing and organising the classroom activities; iv) placement and achievement tests; and v) how the course will be evaluated (Richards *et al* 1992:67). Subsequently, "syllabus" is understood in this research as a part of course design, within the framework of a curriculum.

Planning a new curriculum falls outside the scope of this thesis because as a general statement for TAFL it already exists. Our task is to try to reconcile what we already have with what we are looking for. We actually have students in Saudi Arabia who studied AFL programmes for two years and have already started their higher education studies in the Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculties and are looking for a course to help them cope with a specific language of the new discipline of study. Planning a new curriculum is not necessary but designing a syllabus on its own will not be enough. It is found that the term, "course" is suitable to use in this study because it refers to a point between curriculum and syllabus. Using the term "course" will give the researcher more freedom to make decisions and to formulate an appropriate framework for TAFL for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students. In addition, it is assumed to open doors to the teachers in the field of TAFL and TASP to develop their own courses when that is needed instead of waiting for the official authorities to give permission to plan and develop a new curriculum which usually takes a long time to be achieved.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

To sum up what has been said, it is believed that the emergence of LSP can be both a response to the deficiency in the traditional way of teaching foreign languages and a yield of the revolution in the fields of science and technology in the West. LSP can be

defined as a teaching language for the purpose of the learners rather than teaching it for the needs of the language, teachers and educational organisation.

LAP is ultimately a branch of LSP, at least in this current research. It is specialised because of focusing on specific kinds of skills and strategies, not because it makes students understand their discipline terminology.

As for the other controversial issues, “curriculum”, “course” and “syllabus”, it is most likely that “curriculum” is the broadest term referring to general, more theoretical aspects; “course”, on the other hand, deals with developing a range of teaching materials to be taught in a specific time; and “syllabus” refers to procedures for deciding what will be taught in a language course. In effect, TAFL in Saudi institutes has its own curriculum and the responsibility of this study is to design a course for TASP within the scope of the TAFL curriculum.

Many types of syllabuses and courses have been reviewed. The types that focus on skills and strategies are highly recommended at this stage, along with acknowledging the discipline terminology. Finally, with a developed knowledge about some crucial components of LSP and LAP we will move on to Chapter Five where the theoretical framework for LAP course design will be established.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### **LSP and LAP course design: theoretical framework**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

In Chapter Four, curriculum, course and syllabus as well as notions of Language for Specific Purposes and Language for Academic Purposes were discussed and elucidated. A variety of literatures in the field of foreign language teaching in general and Language for Specific Purposes in particular has been reviewed. Now, we will take a step forward to establish a course design framework. Accordingly, this chapter has two major aims: first, to review the existing theoretical frameworks for Language for Specific Purposes course design; and second, to propose an appropriate theoretical framework for teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes.

#### **5.2 The available attempts**

Planning or designing any course must depend on particular bases. For educationalists, philosophical, social, cultural and psychological bases are crucial to course design. As our concern is with designing a course in the field of LAP, it is valuable to review firstly what has been written about course design with reference to LSP. The bases take different names such as, steps, stages, elements, principles or components. However, despite these differences the meaning and the role in the process of course design are almost the same.

In 1962 Taba gave headlines to course design. These headlines became an important guide for designers, and subsequently were taken into account in their projects. The list included: (1) diagnosis of needs, (2) formulation of objectives, (3) selection of content, (4) organisation of content, (5) selection of learning experiences, (6) organisation of learning experiences and (7) determination of what to evaluate, and the means to evaluate (Taba 1962:12).

We could say that the Taba principles underpinned most suggestions and bases that were presented later. It was commented that in Taba's framework, the content was not obvious and that the principles do not distinguish between the goals and the objectives of the language teaching course (Dubin and Olshtain 1992:2).

Taba's principles for course design ignored the learner as they focus on teaching language for general purposes. Below, six attempts in the field of ESP and EAP course design which give considerable attention to learners' needs are examined. These attempts have been taken as guidelines for designing courses for LSP since 1972.

Hutchinson and Waters (1994:21-22) and Graves (1996:13) made their first steps towards achieving a criterion or framework for LSP and LGP course design by asking fundamental questions. Hutchinson and Waters tried to set up a "reasoned basis for subsequent processes of syllabus design, materials writing, classroom teaching and evaluation" (*ibid.*). On the other hand, Graves presented her own framework in sequenced stages and rephrased the components of the framework in question form to explain her meaning clearly. The five whs. "why?", "who?", "what?", "where?" and "when?" are key questions common to both works. Whereas Hutchinson and Waters's questions were rather theoretical, Graves's questions were indeed more practical. Thus, it could be said that Hutchinson and Waters's questions underpinned Graves's questions. The questions put by Hutchinson and Waters are: Why does the learner want to learn?; Who will be concerned in the process, i.e. students, teachers, sponsors, inspectors etc.?; Where will the learning take place and what kind of facilities does that place provide for the learning process?; When will the process start and how long will it go on for?; What do the learners want to study?, i.e. aspects of language, level of proficiency, topic areas needed to be covered; and, finally, How will the learning be achieved? i.e., the learning theories beyond the course and the methodology applied. The questions put by Graves on the other hand are: What are the learners' needs?; How can these needs be assessed?; What are the intended outcomes of the course?; What will be the base of what is going to be taught?; What will be included in the syllabus?; How and with what will the course be taught?; What are the roles of the teacher and the students?; How will the content and activities be ordered?; What system will be developed?; How will the outcomes be assessed?; How will the effectiveness of the course be evaluated?; and finally, What input will be provided by the target situation?

Each framework was, in fact, based on specific fundamental principles which were sequenced according to a certain ideology to achieve particular goals. The common frameworks in the field of LSP course design are as presented in the following sections:

### **5.2:1 Mackay and Mountford (1972)**

If we went back to 1972, we would find that Mackay and Mountford presented a very satisfactory framework which was to underpin the framework made by Mackay and Bosquet in 1981. The framework was made for the design of an English course for postgraduate students in the faculties of science, applied science and agriculture in the University of Newcastle Upon Tyne. Two features can be identified for this: i) it is based on language data not only in terms of traditional linguistic items or sentence structures, but also on “linguistic forms of a communicative kind - procedures, concepts, events”, indispensable to the target students (Mackay and Mountford 1972:138); ii) the content that was needed by the learner was not met by giving them the “accumulated knowledge of the entire field”. Naturally, the data is selected from the field of study depending on the language skills needed to be taught. This data could be selected from written texts for reading skills or from spoken lectures for aural skills (*ibid.*:139). The framework was based on the following principles: 1) analysing the specific situational background; 2) assessing the specific needs; 3) determining the reading skills; 4) determining criteria for selection and organisation of the data: selection of text, grading of text, unit design, exercise design; and, 5) comprehension of and exercises on the text: the skill of comprehension and the exercises on the text.

This project is classified under the language-centred approach. The authors tried, however, to formulate their project outside the limitation of the linguistic content, and therefore employed the content to serve the target skills. This attempt to escape from the restriction of the language-centred approach seems to be an interest of our project, but we require more freedom which can be obtained from another framework (see below).

### **5.2:2 Mackay and Bosquet (1981)**

Mackay and Bosquet (1981:1-28) divided their framework into two steps, pre-programme development step and programme development. In the pre-programme development stage it can be seen as a decision-making or policy formulation syllabus and is usually conducted and fulfilled by the authorities which can exist at any level (Mackay and Bosquet, 1981:2). As for the programme development there are several stages to be considered: needs assessment, defining goals and objectives, syllabus design, materials production, methods, teacher training, and, evaluation. The programme development has also been grouped by Mackay and Bosquet (1981:6-20) into four phases: the basic information gathering, which refers to needs assessment; goal

specification, which represents definition of goals and objectives; production, which means course syllabus design, material production, teaching methods and teacher training; and, an evaluation phase.

Designers around the world have for a long time used Mackay and Bosquet's framework. Despite the competition in the field of LSP and syllabus design framework, Mackay and Bosquet's framework still exists and is still used. It is believed that this framework left its clear fingerprints on most of the following attempts. Of course, it influenced our project.

### **5.2:3 McDonough (1984)**

McDonough built her framework on variables set by Stevens in 1979. These variables were considered as very important factors to the criteria of course design (McDonough 1984:14-15). She employed the Stevens' variables sufficiently to classify the primary data to be gathered, a crucial element in any LSP course design, under two headings, "context" and "learner" (*ibid.*:18). "Context" includes information such as that which refers to the movement requirements; time; organisational resources such as classrooms, learning aids, hardware, and secretarial; teachers, are they qualified, native-speakers and are they enough in number to run the course?; financial resources; how many students are going to attend the course and how many of them will be in the same class; and given course requirements, e.g. study skills. The heading of "learner" on the other hand includes information such as proficiency in the target language; cultural background; educational background; age; gender; academic level; mother tongue; needs; ability; motives; and attitudes.

The criteria for course design which was established by McDonough (1984:66-88) is re-written diagrammatically in Figure Seven:

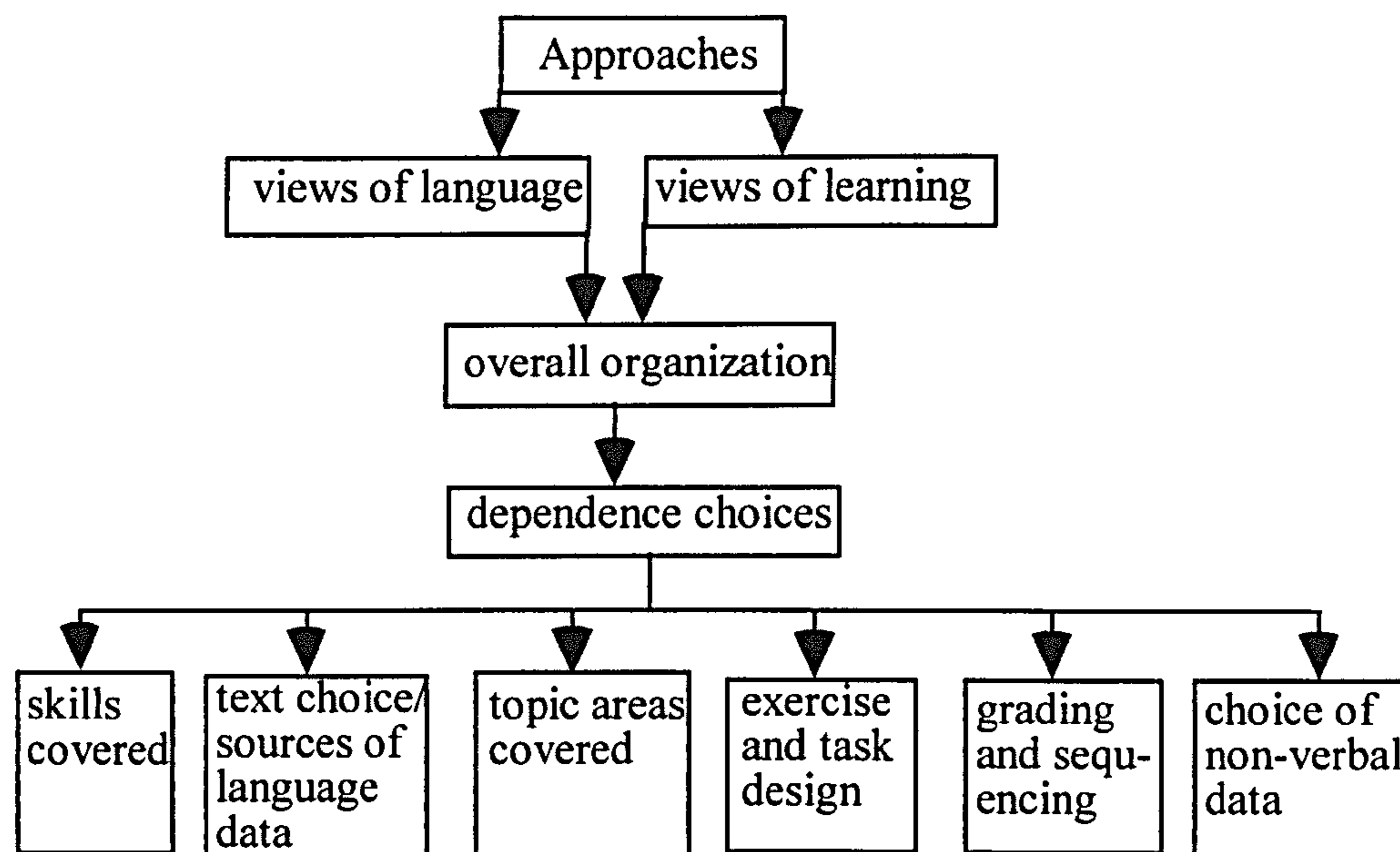


Figure Seven: The key factors of course design (after McDonough 1984:57 with some adjustments)

It is logically ordered and based on crucial fundamental variables but lacks particularisation which makes it difficult to be used by ordinary language teachers. It needs to be itemised so that it can be easily followed.

#### 5.2:4 Hutchinson and Waters (1987)

Hutchinson and Waters (1994:72-77) carefully thought up the learning-centred approach as the one to overcome the shortcomings of the preceding approaches to ESP course design, i.e. language-centred and skill-centred. In effect, it is difficult to follow in countries where the decision for educational development or innovation is a central decision such as the case of Saudi Arabia. In such cases, a long time would need to be spent before making the decision and a long time would be spent before having the development implemented. Dynamism and negotiation are good characteristics but sometimes the nature of the educational system and the surrounding environment imposes constraints on the type of language course. It also requires qualified teachers to run it, which can be difficult in the context of TAFL. Instead, the skill-centred approach (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:69-71) is seen as an alternative one, especially if the students on the programme are users of the language more than learners of it (*ibid.*:70). The stages of this framework are as follows (*ibid.*:71): 1) identifying target situation; 2)



theoretical views of i) learning, and ii) language; 3) analysis skills/ strategies required to cope in target situation; 4) writing syllabus; 5) selecting texts and writing exercises to focus on skills/ strategies in syllabus; and, 6) establishing evaluation procedures which require the use of skills/strategies in syllabus.

Skill-centred is the approach whereby the teachers or course developers, even those who are new to the field of LSP can design their own courses to teach LSP in any desired area. However, it must be remembered that this approach is not content-oriented to teach specific terminology or a restricted repertoire of the language. Its main concern is to “make the learners into better processors of information” (*ibid.*:70). One of the main features of this framework is the consideration given to the target situation needs. We believe in this research that the needs extracted from the target situation are very important. This framework is taken into account in our proposal framework (Table 5.1) and is explained in section 5.3:1:4.

#### **5.2:5 Graves (1996)**

The framework components of Graves (1996:13) have much in common with the title of her publication, *Teachers as Course Developers*. In other words, they are simple, practical and can be easily adopted. Her framework is sequenced as follows: needs assessment, determining goals and objectives, conceptualising content, selecting and developing materials and objectives, organisation of content and objectives, evaluation, and consideration of resources and constraints. It is recommended that the last stage can better be taken into account earlier in the above sequence. It can be said that determining goals and objectives will not be clear unless we take the givens of the learning situation into account. So it is advisable to remove it before the “conceptualising content” stage and then continue the sequence.

#### **5.2:6 Jordan (1997)**

Jordan's *English for Academic Purposes* (1997) is the most recent framework in the field of LSP in general and LAP in particular. His framework for the syllabus and course design is highlighted in Figure Eight (Jordan 1997:57).

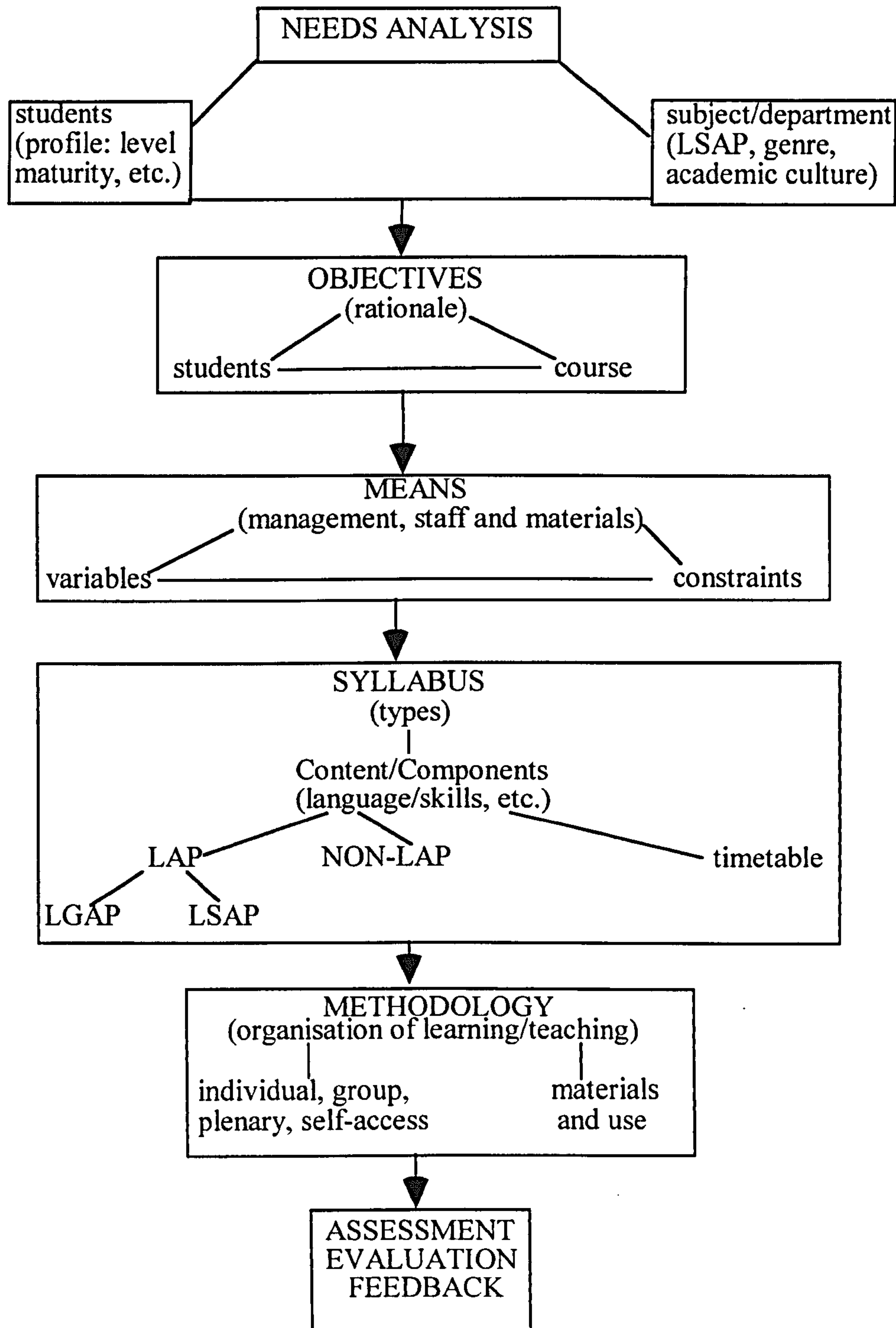


Figure Eight: Jordan's framework for LAP course design (Jordan 1997:57).

(N. B. The researcher made some changes: "L" to become LSP and LAP, instead of ESP and EAP replaces "E")

The interesting thing about this framework is that it appears to sum up all the previous efforts that have been made in the field of Language for Academic Purposes since Mackay and Mountford's framework for LSP course design (1972) until Graves's framework (1996), both reviewed above. Hence it can be said that when Jordan proposed his criteria for LSP course design, the advantages and disadvantages of all the

preceding works were in his mind. As the author tried to include small details in his framework, it became comprehensive and very crowded. As a result, adopting Jordan's framework to be used in the context of Arabic for Academic Purposes course design requires us to re-write components of these criteria, simplifying it so that it can be easily followed. Simplification, however, does not mean ignoring important factors nor jumping a vital stage. This criterion has six main stages: needs analysis, determining objectives, analysing means, designing syllabus, determining appropriate methodology and evaluation. All these stages will be included in the following proposed framework. Nevertheless, other scholars will be involved in the discussion on how these stages can be employed.

### **5.3 Proposed framework**

In addition to Jordan, scholars in the above survey have come forward with substantial principles for LSP and LAP course design. Apart from designing a course for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes, one of the goals of this current study is to provide people who work in the field of TAFLE with an appropriate framework to be employed for further improvement in the field of TASP in general and TAAP in particular. Below, a framework combined from the former survey is proposed. It is actually based on the fact that teachers of TAFLE are, to some extent, not qualified in TASP and may need a simple and practical framework for course and syllabus design. The nature of the Saudi educational system was also taken into account. In the country's system, making a decision to design a course is not an easy and expeditious procedure; rather, it is long and complicated. The proposed framework is indeed based on Jordan's framework and has been theoretically underlain by other scholars' background in the field of LSP. An overall picture of the proposed framework is presented in Table 5.1. A discussion on it will follow thereafter.

stage	main components	sub-components	areas to be covered
one	<b>Needs analysis</b>	target situation	needs: target, future, objectives
			aims
			necessities
			target situation analysis
			present situation analysis
			language analysis
		learner	needs: present, subjective, felt
			wants/likes
			lacks
		educational organisation	demands
			present situation analysis
			target situation analysis
			language audits
		course designer and teacher	purposes/needs
			strategy analysis
			means analysis (constraints)
two	<b>General goals</b>	objectives	learner objectives
			course objectives
three	<b>Means</b>	availability or constraints	tutors
			students
			other staff
			time
			space
			facilities/ equipment
			accommodation
			finance
four	<b>Syllabus design (what)</b>	skills-based	selecting interesting and representative texts
			devising a hierarchy of skills to be exploited in the texts
			ordering and adapting the texts as necessary to enable a focus on the required skills
			Devising activities/techniques to teach those skills
			devising a system to assess the acquisition of the skills
five	<b>Methodology (how)</b>	developing and selection of	material
			learning tasks
			activities
			exercise types
six	<b>Assessment</b>	evaluation	
		feedback	

Table 5.1: The proposed framework for a Language for Academic Purposes course design

### 5. 3:1 Theoretical background of the proposed framework

In this section we will look into the terms and components involved in the above framework. The clarification is focused on the purpose of allowing the course designer and teacher to understand the terms and components in order to employ them without any confusion that may be reflected by different views on these terms.

### **5.3:1:1 Needs analysis**

Needs analysis is a substantial pre-stage in any LSP course design process. Needs in this context refers to the needs of the learners, target/learning situation, course designers/teachers and/or educational organisation. In Chapter Four (4.2:1:1:1) the meaning of needs analysis has been surveyed; there follows a clarification of the type and resources of needs analysis.

#### **I. Types of needs**

Several types of needs are identified:

1. Productive needs, which are the learners' study or work requirements (Robinson 1991:7). Widdowson has seen this type as "goal-oriented". It is possible to classify three of the needs under this heading: those of necessities, lacks and wants. Nonetheless, the researcher does not see that these three categories of needs are restricted to either "goal-oriented" or "process-oriented" types; they may be shared between the two.
2. Process needs, which means ability that the learner needs in order to acquire the language (Widdowson 1981:2).
3. Felt needs and perceived needs, which refer to the subjective needs of the learner, his/her desires, and wants. On the other hand, the perceived needs are those that are determined by the teacher, course designer or educational organisation according to the actual needs of the target situation (Berwick 1990:55).
4. Future hypothetical needs, which relate to the future plans of using the language at some unspecified time. This type of needs is virtually inherent to an LAP programme where the learner takes the course for the purpose of future studies. The learners need what they are taught for the time being and also for an unspecified time in the future.
5. Teacher-created needs, which refer to those needs imposed by the teacher. We have to say that this type of needs has to be considered, although the idea of imposing needs on the learner in LSP programmes is rejected. This matter depends on the kind of teacher, if the teacher is well-trained and is experienced; the teacher's needs should be taken into account but without overlooking the needs of the learner and the target/learning situation.
6. Student desires, which is what the learners look forward to doing with the language. This kind of needs leads to individuality in need analysis. According to Mackay and Bosquet (1981:7) and Munby (1994:75), this kind of need will certainly encounter three major problems: i) different kinds of needs could be found in the same classroom and it would be difficult for the syllabus or programme to meet all of them; ii) some learners

have no experience in a particular occupation or academic field. Therefore, they could not identify their own needs as expected; and, iii) this kind of need may be influenced by the need of communities, schools, companies and government.

7. Real and current needs, which express the immediate needs for occupational purposes. These can be clearly defined by vocational or occupational purposes, whereas it is less explicit in the terms of academic purposes because students learn on language programmes how to cope in their target situation. Unless the students need the language to pass an examination (in which case they might not need it for communicative purposes), their needs can be defined as immediate needs.

It is also useful to recognise that there are demands, requirements, and expectations which can be real or imaginary needs. We can also find these needs in terms of felt, prior or symptomatic needs. All these needs should be highly regarded in any needs analysis process (James 1974:76).

Finally, we need to explain the meanings of necessity, lacks and wants in this context as: i) necessities, which means what learners have to know to communicate effectively in a target situation; ii) lacks, which means the lack between what the learner already knows and what he/she looks ahead to learning; and iii) wants, which express the learner's subjective desires and wants. These three kinds of needs are different from learner to learner and sometimes might be in conflict. To solve this problem, we have to focus on small groups of learners who really wish to study or work in the same discipline. It is to some extent true that all the types that are mentioned above can be assigned to the learner, target situation, designer and/or educational organisation. The question is, which of these kinds of needs are to be considered more than the others? The syllabus designer or writer has to select the type he/she sees is appropriate to his/her situation. In fact, one can use more than one type. Our concern in this project is mainly the process-oriented definition of needs. However, all types of needs (such as learner's needs, or other demands) should be taken into account according to specific priorities.

## **II. Resources of the needs**

There are four main resources: target/learning situation, student, course designer/teacher and the educational organisation. The question put by Chambers (1980:26) is, which of these is the appropriate resource to determine needs? (*ibid.*). The target/learning

situation in the field of LAP is a cornerstone in determining the real needs to be met during the course. Each case of LAP however, may be considered individually. A course attended by three managers in order to develop their skills in business communication is different from a course attended by forty students whose aim is to study medicine. To simplify and summarise the resources, we need information about the learner, his/her needs, wants and lacks; what kind of facilities can be provided by the educational organisation; the teacher level of training and experience; the planner has to give his/her perspective on the syllabus, students and target situation; and finally, the time available. All these needs are to be assessed and analysed, but before that we have to determine precisely the target situation to assess the objective needs of the LSP course.

### **First: target/learning situation**

The needs derived from the learning situation are the true needs that can lead to the target objectives. Chambers (1980:29) emphasised that the “result of the TSA (Target Situation Analysis) is the establishment of certain needs”. This does not, of course, mean overlooking other resources. Unavoidably, this will impose some constraints on the learner, but we are looking for real and relevant needs to be easily tackled during the course.

Under the heading of target/learning situation three terms need to be mentioned. These three terms are the whole situation analysis, the present situation analysis (PSA) and the target situation analysis (TSA).

#### **1. The whole situation analysis**

Characterising the whole situation that is going to be served by the LSP or LAP course is an unavoidable point of departure towards the actual needs of the target situation. Certain questions should be asked in the very beginning as we did prior to our surveys conducted at the IU and IMU: what is the situation about?; Is it a course for vocational, professional or academic purposes?; Who is the learner?; What type of syllabuses are required?; Is the course would concentrate on the language for General Academic Purposes or for Specific Academic Purposes?; In which context will the language be used?; And many other questions which can help the designer to have a global and visible perspective about what he/she is going to do. Answering these questions is possible by observing, interviewing or questioning the students as well as studying all the related factors related to the students, the teachers and the organisation.

Jordan (*ibid.*: 22-23) summarises the whole situation analysis with several questions: First, why is the analysis conducted? The answer is, to specify the form of “syllabus and content, material, teaching/learning” and so on. Second, whose needs are to be analysed? Needs can belong to learners, the educational organisation, the employer, and so on. Third, who carried out the analysis? Who determines what the language needs are? Teachers, designers or researchers can take this responsibility. Fourth, What is to be analysed? Are they, “target situation; present situation; deficiencies; strategies; means; constraints; necessities; lacks; wants...?” Fifth, how is the analysis to be carried out? Is it by tests, interviews, questionnaires or observations? Sixth, when is the analysis to be conducted? Before, during or after the LAP course? Seventh, where is the LAP course to take place? Is it in the target language country, student's country or another country?

Finally, analysing the whole situation at the beginning is only a preface or introduction from which the designer gets all the key elements ready in his/her mind to map out a course design in terms of general concepts and broad headlines. The next stage is to investigate these indefinite ideas in a specific and close context.

## **2. Present Situation Analysis (PSA)**

PSA is a closer analysis based on the specific context of LSP/LAP. It is significant to find out at what stage of language development the student is at the beginning of the language course (*ibid.*:24). Students can be observed, interviewed or questioned to specify their state of language development. Likewise, the educational organisation and teachers can also be consulted and investigated as a consequential part of the course design process. It is believed that PSA gives a cloudless view to the LSP/LAP course designer.

## **3. Target/learning Situation Analysis (TSA)**

The first step in an LSP course or syllabus design is to analyse the target situation. The learner is sometimes not able to determine his/her needs because of a lack of knowledge of what the target job is or what the study entails. In order to be able to design the LSP course, we need to focus on the students' needs at the end of the LSP course; this can not be achieved without employing a Target Situation Analysis (Robinson 1991:8). Questions such as: What is the learner going to do after the LSP course?; What is the real environment he/she is going to work/study in?; and, Are there any specifications



necessary in terms of skills, strategies, language level and educational background?, need to be answered. We in fact need to know what the learner should learn to enable him/her to work or study effectively in the target situation. In order to do this, we should analyse the target situation in the light of the, “linguistic features - discorsal, functional, structural [and] lexical - which are commonly used in the situation identified” (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:55). Interesting discussions of Target Situation Analysing can be found in Chambers (1980), Robinson (1991), Munby (1994) and Jordan (1997).

Giving TSA a top priority in importance does not, in any sense, mean ignoring the learner's needs, which are already implied by choosing the Target Situation (TS); neither does it mean dismissing the other sources of needs such as teachers and institutions.

Target Situation in this context is the environment in which the learner goes to work or study after the LSP programme. This environment should be analysed according to the linguistic needs, skills and strategies required to cope in this special environment. These needs are objective and are not influenced by the views of the teacher or course designer. Chambers (1980:29) emphasised that the needs determined by TSA are the long-term needs that do not change until the situation itself changes.

Munby (1994) carried out a significant work related to TSA. He provided the most detailed profile of learners' needs in relation to target situations, such as communication purposes, settings, means of communication, language skills, functions and structures. Munby had broadened the scope of LSP to include not only the language for science and technology but other branches as well. The only comment we can make on his work is that he presented too many elements and factors and his approach was rather comprehensive and general. His work focused on the surface linguistic features of the target situation. The target situation can, however, give the course designers more than the surface structure of the language.

Hutchinson and Waters (1994:59-60) in fact presented a target/learning situational analysis framework with the following questions:

Why is the language needed?

- is it for study, work, training, a combination of these, or for some other purpose: e.g. status, exam, promotion?

How will the language be used?

- medium: speaking, writing, reading etc.
- channel: e.g. telephone, face to face
- type of text or discourse: e.g. academic text, lectures, informal conversation, technical manuals, catalogues

What will the context areas be?

- subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, architecture, shipping, commerce, engineering
- level: e.g. technician, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school

Who will the learner use the language with?

- native speakers or non-native
- level of knowledge of receiver: e.g. expert, layman, student
- relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher, customer, superior, subordinate

Where will the language be used?

- physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theatre, hotel, workshop, library
- human context: e.g. a bus, meeting, demonstration, on telephone
- linguistic context: e.g. on own

When will the language be used?

- concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently
- frequently, seldom, in small amounts, on a large scale

## **Second: Learner needs**

The learner is at the heart of the LSP syllabus design. The important and most distinctive feature of the LSP learner is that he/she comes to the programme through a genuine desire (McDonough 1984: 38). Learners usually have their needs concerning present needs, future needs, subjective needs, felt needs as well as wants/likes and or lacks. A designer has to look closely at his/her students and study their needs in a respectful way otherwise the course would automatically change to LGP instead of LSP. It is important to keep an eye on the learners' needs as they may change during the course. To be on the safe side, one has to design a flexible course where any change in the learners' needs can be easily taken into consideration.

Operationally, Munby (1994:52-66) and Hutchinson and Waters (1994:63) have suggested the sort of information needed to be acquired from the learner about him/herself. We have looked at Hutchinson and Waters' framework of learners' needs

analysis and applied the questions set out there, with some adjustments, to our students interested in Arabic for Specific Purposes i.e. studying *da'wa* in particular.

Who are the learners?

- What is their age, sex, nationality and place of residence?
- What do they already know about the target language?
- What subject knowledge do they have?
- What are their interests?
- What is their socio-cultural background?
- What teaching styles are they used to?
- What is their attitude to the target language or to the culture of the target language speaking world?
- What are their socio-linguistic attitudes and expectations? (e.g. positive or negative to TL)
- What is their educational level?

The reasons behind taking the course.

- Compulsory or optional?
- Apparent need or not?
- Are status, money or promotion involved?
- What do learners think they will achieve?
- What is their attitude towards a course in Arabic for Specific Purposes? (e.g. do they want to improve their Arabic or do they resent the time they have to spend on it?)

The learners' strategies of learning.

- What is their learning background?
- What is their concept of teaching and learning?
- What methodology will appeal to them?
- What sort of techniques are likely to bore/alienate them?

The preferred place and time of the course.

- Do they prefer the course to take place in the TAFL institute?
- Do they prefer the course to take place in the college of study?
- Do they prefer the course to take place in the students' club?
- The preferred time and frequency (time of day, once a week, twice a week, full-time/part-time, concurrent with need or pre-need?)

The language.

- Mother-tongue (L<sub>1</sub>);

- Target language (L2);
- Present level/command of the TAFL (zero, false beginner, elementary, intermediate)
- Other language(s) known (L2).

### **Third: The educational organisations**

These organisations are the language institutes, universities and education ministries. Thus, what can they give and what are their needs? They will give facilities to the LSP course, but they also may impose some constraints on the learner, teacher and syllabus designer. The organisation can impose on the designer its demands, such as the type of language used, e.g. in Arabic there are various levels of Arabic, such as Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic and Colloquial Arabic; in universities such as IMU and IU, where the designer is not allowed to include any pictures of women in the teaching materials. Present Situation Analysis (PSA) allows the designer to know what is available and what is not as well as being informed of what the target situation is from the point of view of the educational organisation. The set-up of the educational organisation's demands and facilities have been collected from different literature in this field as follows: financial resources, aids provided, place, class size, furniture, time factors, availability of books and equipment, Ministry of Education control over finance and syllabus, educational framework of LSP and the role of the target language in the educational system, the restrictions of the organisations' orientations towards the whole process and specific language learning environment (e.g. academic-based language centres, language schools, language training centres).

### **Fourth: Course designer/teacher's needs analysis**

The needs of three types of people have to be considered in this resource: the teacher, the designer and the syllabus writer, either individually or in a group. The designer or syllabus writer is almost a teacher at the time of writing and may have been a teacher at some point in his/her life. Hutchinson and Waters (1994:62-63) and McDonough (1984:14-15) have both provided us with good instructions for those types of needs related to this category:

What resources are available?

- Number and professional competence of teachers
- Attitude of teachers to LSP
- Teachers' knowledge of and attitude to the subject content

- Materials
- Aids
- Opportunities for-out-of-class activities
- Teacher training standards

The syllabus designers' needs.

- Approaches
- Selection and organisation of content
- The relationship to learners' needs
- Views of language
- Views of learning
- Methodology, i.e. instructional techniques
- Balance of skills taught
- Organisation of class
- Materials evaluation and production

### **5.3:1:2 Goals and objectives**

After completing the needs analysis, the next stage is then to highlight the general goals and to determine the specific objectives in order to answer the question, "what should the learner ideally be able to do after successfully completing the instructional program"? (Mackay and Bosquet 1981:11).

Practically, there is no single educational programme that can be established without goals and objectives. We need to know the goals that are being aimed at because these objectives will become the criteria by which the course is run in terms of content outline, selected materials, procedures in class instructions and examinations (Tyler 1949:3).

Whatever the course is, content-based, skills-based or learning-based, the need for goals and objectives is still there. Worth noticing is that LSP goals and objectives should be derived from the needs and demands of the various parties involved in the course or programme. The question in this context is what comes first, specifying objectives or determining content and teaching activities? According to Nunan (1994b:61), the answer is based on the "type of syllabus being developed, and the role which the objectives are made to play". Therefore, if the objectives are to play a role in guiding to

select the elements in the curriculum as in the “rational curriculum”, then they should be specified before the determination of the content and teaching activities (*ibid.*).

Apart from what comes first, objectives or content, establishing goals and objectives assists the designer to plan his/her course in a clear direction; it is like a map which helps teachers and course designers to follow a path in order to arrive at the appropriate content and activities (Graves 1996:17).

At this stage of design it is presumed that goals of the course have been decided in a broad sense. These goals influence the syllabus design (a next stage) in one or more of the three dimensions: the language content, the process/means and the product/outcomes dimensions.

The goals can be devised from the existing curriculum, or a committee of qualified people in the field can issue a document stating the general goals of the course or the designer can hypothesise the goals and let the implementation and the further studies investigate the accuracy and relevance of these goals. Translating the goals into specific objectives in the course design is ultimately the responsibility of the designer(s).

Objectives therefore should be specified in two terms, students' objectives and course objectives. The students' objectives can be understood as needs to be met. The course objectives can be understood as ends to be achieved. Graves (1996:16-19) put the process of stating objectives in a practical form. Objectives can be stated in two ways: i) “what students will know, know how to do, or be aware of as a result of the course” (*ibid.*: 18); ii) in addition, they may be stated as, “what students will do” in the given course (*ibid.*). Graves in fact benefited from Richards (1990) and Saphier and Gower (1987) in presenting the following hints to the syllabus designers. She first of all divided the content of the course into three categories, knowledge, skills/attitude and awareness as follows:

i. Content as knowledge; the objectives can be determined as:

*Students will know .....*

*Students will learn the .....*

*Students will learn that .....*

ii. Content as skills; the objectives can be stated as:

*Students will be able to .....*

*Students will know how to .....*

*Students will develop the ability to .....*

iii. Content as attitude and awareness; the objectives can be expressed as:

*Students will be aware that .....*

*Students will develop an awareness of .....*

*Students will develop an attitude of .....*

*Students will explore their attitudes towards.....*

Graves finally listed five types of objectives: i) coverage objectives, which connect units or topics to be covered; ii) activity objectives, which are about exercises and practices which students do; iii) involvement objectives, which maximise students' involvement and interest; iv) mastery objectives, which are to do with what the learner achieves in his/her time in class; and v) critical objectives dealing with how students develop learning skills.

In short, it is believed that setting the objectives is a process which differs from situation to situation and the designer should take into account the conditions that his/her course and syllabus are going to be run under. The designer should realise that the goals of the course are usually broad and general. The syllabus objectives are more specific and help to focus the whole teaching process.

### **5.3:1:3 Means analysis**

There are several factors that influence the course design and have to be taken into account in the pre-design stage. These factors can be very helpful if they are all available, but any shortage in their availability would impose constraints on the course designer (Stevens 1979:5-10, McDonough 1984:14-16 and Jordan 1997:64-65). According to Jordan (1997:64-65), the main factors are listed as variables (see Table 5.2):

no.	factors	variables
1	Tutors	number available and their experience and capabilities
2	Students	number and nationalities to be catered for; language level
3	Other staff	administrative, secretarial, technical, social, welfare
4	Time	length of the course: full-time or part-time (frequency); weeks, days, hours
5	Space	number of rooms, room size (furnishings-fixed or movable); location and proximity

6	Facilities/ equipment	library, resource centre, language laboratory, cassette recorders, television and video, computers, overhead projectors, photocopier, books, journals, stationery and other materials
7	Accommodati on	hotels or other arrangements for students; proximity (transport, if necessary)
8	Finance	budget - size, fixed or variable; method and speed of payment
9	Other influences	past experience, motivation of students: attitudes and expectations, need for variety, a belief in learning by doing, awareness of non-LAP needs, need to be commercially viable, common sense

Table 5.2: Means analysis

After analysing the above variables in the actual learning context we would determine which of them are available and which become constraints. These factors were investigated in the light of the present research and a list of availability and constraints is presented in Chapter Ten (10.4:2).

### 5.3:1:4 Syllabus design

Syllabus is the core of any course and it determines the shape and the identity of the course especially in terms of whether it is language/content-based, skills-based or learning-based. When arriving at this stage, the needs should already be determined, goals and objectives should be specified and the means should be analysed in terms of availability or constraints. At this stage, we will look at syllabus design theoretically in terms of the three types of syllabus mentioned above.

#### I. Approaches to syllabus design

Designing a course is, in fact, a matter of using the available information about the situation, learner, teacher, necessity of the programme, when and where the course will take place and how it will be implemented. This information requires - in terms of producing a syllabus - selecting, adapting or writing the content and establishing the suitable methods to teach the content and other materials involved, and finally evaluating what has been implemented (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:65).

If the needs are analysed, goals and objectives are stated and means as availability or constraints considered, then the next step is to answer the question, what to do with this raw data? First of all, we shall look at the approaches to syllabus design as an initial step towards formulating a framework for syllabus design. Our understanding of learners' needs, however, influences the type of the approach. This expression "learners' needs" can be divided in two different ways, one is working with the language once it is learnt (this is what is called by Widdowson a goal-oriented



definition of needs which is concerned with the “ends of learning”). It can, on the other hand, refer to what is required of the learner to learn language (which is also called by Widdowson [1981:2] a process-oriented definition of needs and related to the means of learning or skills-based approach to syllabus design).

The goal-oriented and learning-oriented approaches have been already discussed in Chapter Four (4.3:2:1). As for the skills-based approach we will examine it below in terms of its role in Language for Specific Purposes course design.

This type is needed when specific information or knowledge is demanded and it is only available in another language which in fact is not the native language of the learner. The learner has a limited time and a significant need for that knowledge. This type in fact has two bases, theoretical and practical. The theoretical base is that behind any linguistic behaviour there are specific skills and strategies are used by the learner in order to understand or produce the discourse. Thus, the emphasis is on the concealed abilities behind the performance, while the practical base focuses on enabling learners to continue their learning process even after the end of the programme. The skills-centred approach was in fact developed as a follow-up or better still, as a reaction to the language-centred approach where the learner is almost ignored in the process. In the skills-centred approach, learners are provided with the skills and strategies that allow them to continue learning the language even after the completion of the course. In this case, we are not limiting the learners to one type of language only but we are giving them the tools to master the specific register and in the long run they are not constrained to any specific time or resources as they would have been in the language-centred approach.

The learners of LSP courses who are following the skill-centred approach will have their learning skills and strategies developed within the LSP course and beyond it, too. Therefore, the objective of such a course is not to qualify linguistic knowledge but to develop the skill of processing data (*ibid.*).

Needs analysis in this approach helps to determine the fundamental competence that lets students act in the target situation and it makes the course designer recognise the learner's skills together with his/her potential knowledge in an ESP/LSP classroom environment. Hutchinson and Waters criticised this approach as it treats a student of the

language as a “user of language rather than as a learner of language” (*ibid.*). Despite this comment, the current researcher finds this approach the most satisfactory one for the situation of teaching Arabic to the students of *daʿwa* because the students have already completed the TAFL programme and are currently studying their subject at university. In any forthcoming course in teaching Arabic to them they will be considered as users of the language more than learners of it. In addition, the content of their subject language is enormous so it can not be limited to be given in during the course time; instead, it is a wise idea to provide the learners with the skills and the strategies that open the door to them to learn the language of *daʿwa* during the TAAP course and after the course is over. In this respect, the skills-centred approach is followed in the current research.

If we discuss the impact of the skills-centred approach on the LAP course design we must say that the LAP course is usually addressed to learners who are ready or about to go to university. Therefore, it is logical to focus in such a course on the academic achievement rather than on the linguistic knowledge or grammatical items. This means providing student with skills, strategies and techniques that he/she might be using for the first time (Robinson1991: 101). In our target course we are emphasising this principle by concentrating on the process of supplying students with skills, strategies and techniques that help them to read, write, listen and speak in the academic context in full measure. Texts are not more than information and the responsibility of the student is to employ certain skills, micro-skills and strategies to explore this information effectively without engaging in linguistic and grammatical details which we believe that he/she was already equipped with during the TAFL programme.

Designing an LAP course to meet the specific needs of specific students in a certain institute is indeed one of the important factors to guarantee the success of the LAP course. Subsequently, our course will be especially designed for students of *daʿwa* at two Saudi universities. This will enable us to avoid the conflict between interests of different students' needs in the classroom. A good understanding of our target students and the nature of their academic study made us acknowledge what type of skills are required. In this section we will limit our course to five essential realms: reading, writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary. This of course indicates that we are following a skills-oriented approach in designing our course.

### **First: Academic reading**

This area has obtained distinguished concerns in the field of language for academic purposes. In order to make reading in this context different from reading for general terms, we must say that reading for academic purposes is inherent to well-determined purposes for reading certain texts. These purposes can be listed according to Jordan (1997:143) as: to obtain information, to understand ideas or theories, to discover authors' viewpoints and to seek evidence for students' own points of view. These purposes are different from one situation to another; in our situation, we listed about eleven reasons for reading and we asked students to decide which of these are important for their study and we then asked them to assess their level in them (6.4:1:1).

In fact, reading for specific purposes requires students to employ different strategies, macro- and micro-skills micro-skills and techniques such as: prediction, skimming, scanning, distinguishing between facts and opinions on the one hand and important and less important information on the other (Jordan 1997:144). These techniques were evaluated by the diagnostic test in order to assess the level of the students, so that we can improve any shortcomings in these techniques (see 8.2:1).

### **Second: Academic Writing**

Several questions can be asked at the starting point: what type of writing is needed?, What is this for?, and What is the importance of this type of writing for the learners' study and the future. Students of LAP have already overcome the foundation stage of studying language, they are in need of learning a type of writing that is appropriate to their study. Thus, the focus is on, "academic discourse genres and the range and nature of academic writing tasks, aimed at helping to socialise the student into the academic context" (Silva 1990:17).

Undoubtedly, reading and writing are constitutional skills. Frequent reading improves the ability of the learner to write effectively. Therefore, improving students' level in academic writing can be obtained by frequent reading in their field of study. One problem which might obstruct this way of improving the academic writing in our situation is that the intensive reading is in Classical Arabic whereas academic writing in the academic context in Saudi Arabia and the rest of the Arab World follows Modern Standard Arabic. Jordan (1997: 164-178) discussed academic writing and introduced several approaches, the interesting thing is that he suggested a list of student errors in

academic writing (*ibid.*:177-178). These errors were adopted and integrated with our experience in the field of TAFL and *da'wa* to propose a criterion for assessing the level of our students in academic writing (see 8.2:2:3). Two essays produced by students of *da'wa* were evaluated on the basis of this criterion and the area of deficiency was taken into account in our TAAP course.

### **Third: Listening**

This skill includes listening to lecturers, listening and interacting in tutorial activities and seminars as well as note-taking during the lecture. The importance of listening is judged according to the level of students in the target language and the purpose of listening. We in fact presumed some utilities for listening and presented them in the students' questionnaire, asking students to identify which of them are important to the study of *da'wa* and how they see their level in them (6.4:1:). Our method is to take any deficiency in this skill into account when designing our TAAP course.

### **Fourth: Speaking**

This skill is needed for participating in tutorial and seminar sessions, asking questions, oral presentations and communicating with students and members of the academic institution. Our concentration is on the ability of *da'wa* students to express themselves and interact in communications related to the *da'wa*. We have presumed the purpose of speaking in this context and included it in the questionnaire to see the importance of these needs to the students' study and the level of students in these skills (6.4:1:1). We also assessed the ability of students in speaking by asking a sample of the First Year Students of the Faculty of Da'wa to participate in oral presentations to evaluate their proficiency level in academic speaking (8.2:3).

### **Fifth: Vocabulary**

Vocabulary, essentially, is a component of any study skills language course. Nobody can read without a sufficient vocabulary and nobody can write or speak without an appropriate vocabulary. Concentrating on vocabulary does not mean substituting the course for a content-based course. Instead, we assessed the needs for the vocabulary of *da'wa* by setting up two reasons for vocabulary in the questionnaire and assessing it during the writing and speaking test to see if students used proper vocabulary or not. How the vocabulary can be presented during the course is a matter of indirect teaching. In other words, the texts in reading sessions during the course will be extracted from the

field of *da'wa* with some exercises concentrating on vocabulary as is seen in the experimental unit (Appendix J). We are by this means improving students' vocabulary day by day during the TAAP course without obstructing our course intention of concentrating on study skills.

### **5.3:1:5 Methodology**

It is obvious that methodology is a substantial stage in any course design. Despite recognition of the importance of the methodology, giving it a complete framework, establishing principles and explicit instructions to be followed by the designer and thereafter by the teacher in the classroom is a very complex task. It is, indeed, not easy to comprehend all the available methods in the literature of Foreign Language Teaching.

Two important points should be mentioned in this context. Firstly, the methods which apply in the real classroom are not only something that can be thought of and later inserted in ready-to-fit materials and syllabuses (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:142). This means that neither leaving methodology to chance nor determining certain methods before the application is practical. One of the recommended best ways, from the point of view of the researcher, could be to provide teachers of the course with suggestions, instructions and recommendations of what methods are available to be taken into account. The teacher in this case has all the freedom to change or choose whatever method he/she finds appropriate for the teaching situation. Secondly, there are some principles which cannot be avoided when providing a theoretical framework for the methodology.

Methodology in general has been discussed in several works, such as those of Littlewood (1983:85-89), Robinson (1991:46-53), Yalden (1991:70-74), Hutchinson and Waters (1994:124-143), Nunan (1994a:76-97) and Jordan (1997:109-124),.

A relationship was drawn between methodology and several LSP course components in Robinson (1991:46). She highlighted the relationship that exists between the methodology and the students' area of specialism together with where and how the language is exercised. Also, she drew a relationship between what and how language is acquired and the old and new skills of learning and absorbing information. Robinson emphasised in this context the importance of authenticity.

Jordan (1997:109-125) discussed methodology connected to LAP in the light of methodological principles, principles of learning, principles of communicative methodology, communicative activities, authenticity, role-play and simulations, individualisation and autonomy, awareness-raising and learner training, team-teaching and the role of the teacher. He then emphasised some pedagogical principles. He gave for instance, authenticity, problem-solving, communicative activities and learning by doing. He also emphasised that various options do not mean that all of them can be always applied, but these options are worthy to choose from in different situations and methods (*ibid.*:124). Below, methodological principles, principles of learning and authenticity are discussed.

### **I. Methodological principles**

Phillips (1981:93) stated that “any LSP task must reflect the structural characteristics of learner's special purpose”, stressing the importance of integration of these tasks. Jordan (1997:109) suggested that within the context of LAP what Phillips stated could be translated through an organised set of lectures or seminars. On the bases of the role of the students' purpose in determining the LSP and LAP tasks they must be as integrated as possible; Phillips (1981:97-105) proposed four methodological principles: 1) the Principle of Reality Control, this principle is to do with the level of students' work and providing them with materials that constitute their area of specialism; 2) the Principle of Nontriviality, this principle means that LSP tasks are perceived clearly and meaningfully by the students' needs; 3) the Principle of Authenticity, deals with the language content which is based again on what the students' specific purposes of learning the language are. The authentic principle is also discussed in more detail later in this section; and, 4) the Principle of Tolerance of Error, which is that an assessment of errors of language competence in speech or writing is inevitable and handled with a certain amount of tolerance.

These principles will be taken into account in Chapter Ten when designing the course and writing or selecting the materials.

### **II. Learning principles**

Hutchinson and Waters sustained the learning-centred methodology through some basic principles called learning principles which are an extension to their model of learning.

In essence, Hutchinson and Waters (1994:49-51) sum up language learning as a process which is dynamic and not necessarily systematic; it is a process of decision-making taking into account several internal and external factors. But above all, learning is not only linguistic knowledge, as many linguists claim it to be. It is an entire process which involves the emotions of the learner.

To put the principle into practice, the authors give several techniques which can be applied in most teaching situations (*ibid.*:139-142): 1) "Gaps", to include different gaps known in the field of teaching languages such as gaps of information, media, reasoning, memory, jigsaw, option and certainty; 2) "Variety" which means diversity of materials that can be used, such as text, tapes, pictures, speech etc.; "classroom organisation" to include whole class, pairs, individual group etc.; student's roles in the teaching process as they might be presenters, evaluators, receivers, thinkers, negotiators etc.; "exercise", to include activity, task etc.; skills including reading, listening, writing, speaking, graphic skills, and finally, topic and variety of focus such as accuracy, fluency, discourse, structure, pronunciation etc. (*ibid.*); 3) A number of techniques should also be considered in the teaching process, such as predictability, the enjoyment of the teaching, the integration of the methods used, the cohesion, the pre-lessons preparation, involving students in the lesson, creativity and the good atmosphere in the class (*ibid.*).

### **III. Authenticity**

This term is vague according to Widdowson (1983:30-31). It can mean real textual data or a true specimen of speech activity by the speaker of the same language (Nunan 1994a: 99). That could mean that authentic materials are existing in a daily life situation outside classroom activities. The sources of these materials are varied and the designer has all the freedom to choose his/her materials in a written form, audio-visual form, pictures, maps and so on from resources that were not originally designed for the purposes of language teaching. The interpretation of Robinson (1991:54) of this definition is that materials are available in many forms and basically produced not for the aims of language teaching, and also that materials are aimed at the students' area of specialism in the real life situation. This, indeed, is principally appropriate to the Language for Specific Purposes context.

McDonough for instance refers to some terminology that illustrates authenticity, such as, genuine, authentic, real, natural, scripted, contrived, semi-authentic, semi-scripted, stimulated and stimulated-authentic. Jordan (1997:113-114) highlighted in this context, the need to establish the accurate meaning of "authentic text" and the use of such texts in the classroom of LSP/LAP. In the first point he followed Nunan and Robinson in their definition above. On the whole he thinks that this definition implies some problems and raises questions such as: when texts are taken from their primary context, are they suitable for the language learning situation? Are the topics and aims relevant to the students? Why does one need to use authentic texts? What benefits do students get from these texts? His own view on this matter is that adapted texts would help; there is nothing substantially wrong with texts that are not authentic in the first stage of the course, but as soon as the learners are able to cope with texts devised from their specialism, they must be given the chance to practise (*ibid.*). In fact, authentic texts allow students to feel that they can achieve their goals quickly, enlarge their knowledge and experience and, of course, their skills in the field of specialism. This idea is supported by Wong *et al.* (1995:322) who are of the opinion that authentic materials are a "bridge between the classroom and the outside world".

The significant question now is how the authentic materials can be selected? They can be selected within the needs analysis process or the selection can succeed the stage of needs analysis (Robinson 1991:54-55). In reality, there is no specific way or ways for the selection, instead, each case can be treated individually according to the nature of the LAP course, the availability or the constraints imposed on the designer. Thus, different methods for authentic materials are proposed by Mackay (1981a: 138), Wilkins (1976:78-80) and Widdowson (1979:163-172) to help designers with different aims and various situations in selecting their texts.

In our situation (see Chapter Ten), the whole language content will be devised from the field of *da'wa* which is the students' area of specialism. Moreover, workshops will be designed to help the learners to go into the real situations.

In conclusion, authentic materials are inevitably essential in any LAP course. The problem is when to start using the selected texts and materials. It is believed that one can benefit from certain methods but others have to be a combination of different



methods, whereas in certain cases the designer has to create his/her own material depending on the course circumstances.

### **5.3:1:6 Evaluation**

Evaluation in LSP or LAP programmes is the last stage of the course. It is the last stage because it is usually performed at the end of the session, unit or course and it could be a first stage because we start from its findings to amend any shortcoming in the course. The outcomes of the evaluation are undoubtedly a vital input in the course designing process.

Despite the importance of evaluation in any educational programme it is found that not much attention has been given to this theme in the field of Foreign Language Teaching. An effort has been made in the field of LSP and LAP. For instance, Bachman (1981:106-116), Mackay (1981b: 107-122), Bachman (1990:242-258); Robinson (1991:65-73), Hutchinson and Waters (1994:144-156); Graves (1996:30-32 & illustrated appendices); and Jordan (1997:85-93) have all discussed evaluation in both LSP and LAP education and provided a practical framework to guide teachers and designers to form their own evaluation criteria.

Evaluation in the LSP and LAP context can be based on two questions: How can one assess what students have learnt?, and How can the effectiveness of the course be assessed? That implies two subjects of evaluation, students and courses.

Several types of evaluation can be identified as: i) formative evaluation, in which the evaluation is conducted during the running of the course or project, the results of which can help to modify what is being done (Robinson 1991:65); ii) summative evaluation, which means that the evaluation takes place after the course has completely finished and there is no way to make any adjustment in the course (*ibid.*:66); iii) process evaluation which deals with evaluating certain processes such as strategies for teaching and learning, administration and decision-making (*ibid.*); and vi) product evaluation where the goals or the product of the programme are assessed to know whether they are achieved or not (Brown 1990:231). A connection can be drawn between formative and process evaluation on the one hand and summative and product evaluation on the other. Brown (1990:229) in fact does not see any conflict between these types, instead he considered them "complementary rather than mutually exclusive".

By referring to the data available in the above works one can find many alternatives which can be suitable with some modification to the course. As a guide, it is helpful to think about four important questions which have been raised by Robinson (1991:66) which should be taken into account at the very beginning of the evaluation process. These questions are: "Why carry out an evaluation? What is subject of the evaluation? Who carries out the evaluation? What next: what will happen to the results?" In addition, two useful LAP student and course evaluation forms have been produced by Blyth (1996:105, 114) and they are highly recommended.

Regarding the LAP context, Jordan's perspective of the evaluation of LAP programmes is worth noting. Jordan concentrates on tests as an intrinsic component in the evaluation process. According to him, receptive skills can be tested by objective tests such as multiple-choice items. Productive skills need subjective tests such as essays, reports, open comprehension questions and talks to be evaluated (Jordan 1997:85-86). A number of these tests were mentioned by Jordan (*ibid.*: 86-88): i) "Placement test", this test takes place to assess the overall and present level of the students before starting an LAP course in order to put them in the appropriate group or class; ii) "Progress/diagnostic test", in which the test is used during the course every two, three or four weeks or according to the circumstances of the course. The aim is to monitor progress and find out what difficulties the course could be encountering (*ibid.*:87); and iii) "Achievement/ attainment test", which is usually given at the end of the course to ascertain whether the students have acquired what they have been taught (*ibid.*). These types of tests in the programme of Language for Academic Purposes emphasise the needs of the target language and an opportunity to apply simulated skills.

Teachers and designers need to remember three basic principles in testing, i.e. reliability, validity and practicality. Moreover, the frequency of certain tests such as progress tests should be looked at carefully, otherwise they will fail to achieve what they have been designed for and may dissolve enjoyment that can be experienced in learning (*ibid.*).

#### 5.4 Conclusion

Several frameworks for designing a course in Language for Specific Purposes have been reviewed in this chapter. Jordan's framework was the most recent one and the closer one

to a course design in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes. A framework has been proposed after Jordan's works and Hutchinson and Waters's skills-centred approach. In re-forming Jordan's framework to suit TAAP, two things were taken into account: first the nature of the Saudi Educational Policy, and second the level of teachers of TAFL in the country whose qualifications and experience are less than their peers in the field of teaching English as a Foreign Language.

All stages of the suggested framework have been explained from different views providing a background for future designers who will find it operable. The next stage is to apply this framework to our course design in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes for *da'wa* students. The needs will be assessed and interpreted in Chapters Six, Seven, Eight, and Nine.

## CHAPTER SIX

### Needs assessment

#### 6.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will discuss the procedures for needs assessment from two angles: firstly, dealing with the theoretical part of needs assessing and interpreting in language for academic purposes; secondly, applying the theoretical discussion to our situation of establishing and interpreting needs, demands and constraints involved in the development process of a course for academic purposes for *da'wa*.

Attempts have been made by scholars such as Mackay and Mountford (1978), Mackay and Palmer (1981), Hutchinson and Waters (1994) and Munby (1994) to provide different frameworks for needs analysis which are useful sources for anyone conducting a needs assessment. Many suggestions and guidelines can be adopted and modified to match our project here.

The question is how needs can be identified. The systematic approach presented by Richerich and Chancerel (1987) which concentrates on identifying the needs of adults learning a foreign language should not be ignored. Many unpublished theses such as Qotbah (1990), Remache (1993) and Kelliny (1994) relate their experiences in this context. It is essential before setting off examining the needs to determine precisely the terminal goals of the project and the specific objectives of the assessment process, to look into the financial resources and time constraints as well as the limitations decided by the researcher or the nature of the field study. Choosing the instrument of the study depends on the goals, financial resources and constraints. In fact, the instrument has to be precisely determined before starting to collect data about the needs of the learners and the demands of the other parties involved in the course development.

Many methods of data collection can be used, but we are applying three main methods in this current study: questionnaire, interview and diagnostic test.

#### 6.2 Pre-Needs assessment procedures

There are certain procedures to be followed in any needs assessment process. These procedures differ from one situation to another according to the nature of the

phenomenon. In the current research, four main steps will be described and followed during the needs assessment process. We will determine the data needed to be collected from the field study, specify ways of drawing the samples, choose instruments of data collection, and explain procedures of analysing and interpreting the results. These procedures will, firstly, be theoretically explained in order to establish the theoretical framework; secondly, the framework will be applied to the main field study process.

### **6.2:1 Determining the type of data needed**

In the process of assessing the needs for teaching Language for Specific Purposes much information is needed to cover the needs of the learner, target situation, target language, teaching establishment and the teachers. Therefore, when starting to identify the learners' needs and the other demands, we have to decide what exactly we are looking for. Of course, each situation is different in its nature and in its demands. Thus, the type of information will vary according to the situation. We have already discussed and elected frameworks for the learners and the target situation needs in Chapter Five. In the light of our situation, however, we need to be more precise before carrying out the needs assessment. We can say that the information needed here is related to the target situation, learners, teachers of TAFL, teachers of the target discipline, and in relation to the administration staff of Saudi TAFL institutes and Faculties of Da'wa in particular those of IMU and IU.

To be more accurate, determining the information needed requires us to have certain hypotheses already in mind. These hypotheses should be translated into some specific objectives which are usually addressed to the intended candidates in terms of questions and statements included in the data collection instrument. These questions and statements are extracted from the target/learning situation itself, from the learners' needs and from the other parties' demands. In our case, previous studies and similar data collection processes can help in this stage, as well as consulting the experts in the field of TAFL and LSP. Moreover, the experience of the researcher is also a helpful factor in this context. In the light of our present study, the information collected should give accurate answers to questions already raised in Chapter Five (5.2).

### **6.2:2 Drawing the samples**

The chosen samples should cover all the target population. If the population is a large one a representative sample should be employed. In principle, there are some conditions

that should be met to ensure that the population is represented in the selected samples. Having representative samples gives greater possibility for generalising (Oppenheim 1993:39-42). These conditions provide the homogeneity between the features and the characteristics of the selected sample and the population, as well as the correlation of the probabilities for every member of the population to be represented in the selected sample. The best method of ensuring this is by means of a thoroughly random sampling method.

Two sample survey techniques can be identified to ensure that each member of the population is represented: one, according to Richterich and Chancerel (1987:57-58) is based on probabilities and is followed wherever the sampling is comprehensively determined. The ways used here are random selection, systematic selection and multi-stage random sampling. The other is not based on probabilities and can be followed when there is no basis for sampling. If the whole population is not going to be studied, the sample of the main field study should be drawn on one of the above techniques.

### **6.2:3 Instruments of needs assessment**

Initially, we have to state that collecting data on the attitudes, behaviour, motivations and needs of those involved is not an easy task. It is impossible to find a watertight method which can be used to identify this information.

There are many instruments of data collection, such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, tests and so on. However, the accuracy and effectiveness of these are limited and the ability to collect data about the candidates is not consistent. This inconsistency, nevertheless, does allow for the researchers to gather as much valid information as possible for the exercise in hand. Undoubtedly, the benefit of these forms of data collection is partially based on the accuracy of their design, awareness of their advantages and disadvantages, and the accuracy of implementation. Consequently, and in consideration of the objectives of this field study, the appropriate instruments are questionnaires, interviews and language diagnostic tests.

#### **6.2:3:1 Questionnaire**

The questionnaire is a written instrument for the gathering of information about a number of candidates; in other words, the questionnaire helps the researcher to translate his hypotheses about the candidate into questions to be answered by the candidates

anonymously. It is a very effective instrument when the investigated phenomenon is difficult to observe, such as attitudes, motivation and self-concepts (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:172).

There are, in fact, advantages and disadvantages when using the questionnaire. The advantages are many: less expensive, easily administered and can be distributed to a large group of candidates at the same time which gives the information collected a degree of equality and neutrality. Furthermore, because the questionnaire is usually anonymous the candidate feels free to express his/her attitudes, motivations, opinions and needs. On the other hand the questionnaire has a number of disadvantages, such as the number returned is not, usually, as expected. In principle, the candidate should be able to read the questions and then provide a particular answer. If the questionnaire is distributed by the researcher and being answered in his/her presence any problems that arise can be avoided, particularly, as it was in our case, the language of the questionnaire was not the native language of the candidates. Other solutions are available, such as assessing and testing it by a number of candidates before the final administration.

The questionnaire as a tool of needs assessment can do two jobs according to Richterich and Chancerel (1987:59): firstly, the questionnaire should provide the candidates with sufficient scope to give their best answers from the available information and secondly, if the questions and statements are personalised, then, the information given would be more accurate.

One more thing should be taken into account, namely, the design of the questionnaire should foster its effectiveness. Designing the questionnaire is not an easy task, and should not be considered as such task because the data collected is only as good as the questionnaire allows for. Many scholars, such as Oppenheim (1993), Richterich and Chancerel (1987) and Seliger and Shohamy (1990:172-176), have outlined the steps required for designing the questionnaire. They are not compulsory but should be taken as helpful guidelines: it is important, for example, to determine the domains which are required to be included in the questionnaire and then the information needed by each domain to be investigated. This may demand that the questions, or the hypotheses of the field study, be translated into measurable objectives. Later, these objectives need to be translated into questions or statements answered by the candidates.

Selecting the appropriate way to write the questions of the questionnaire is essential if you want to get good and sensible responses. Also, one should select appropriate procedures to maximise the number of the answered questionnaires returned. Testing the questionnaire is extremely useful. This test should include the extent of suitability of the written language in relation to the subjects' language ability, its reliability and validity, its format, the way of analysing the information gathered, and the way of distributing the questionnaire. The steps differ from questionnaire to questionnaire; however, minimum steps should be kept in mind when designing any questionnaire.

In conclusion, four types of questionnaire can be identified: i) questionnaires that have closed questions, ii) questionnaires that have open questions, iii) questionnaires that have a mixture of closed and open forms of questions and iv) graded questionnaires, where the divided members of a population are categorised into graded groups (Richterich and Chancerel 1987:59).

#### **6.2:3:2 Interview**

The interview is a tool for the collection of data by interviewing the candidates either face-to-face or by telephone. Interviews are usually used when there is a small number of candidates, or when the information required is difficult to obtain by other means. In the field of foreign language learning, interviews are used to gather information about a variety of variables, such as attitudes, motivations, opinions and/or needs. The information collected by this instrument can be described as very detailed.

Six types of interviews can be considered, according to Richterich and Chancerel (1987:78-79): i) non-directive interview, in which the interviewer suggests the topic and allows the interviewee to say whatever he/she wants about the topic; ii) exploratory interview, in which the interviewee is allowed to speak, but when he/she arrives at a significant point from the interviewer's point of view, the interviewer then starts asking detailed questions relating to that important point; iii) retrospective interview, in which the interviewee is asked to speak about events related to his/her past; iv) associated interview, in which the candidate is asked to express in detail everything he/she knows about a specific point; v) disturbed interview, which consists of anything that comes into the candidate's mind. The interviewer then would have to edit the conversation; vi) centred interview, which contains certain questions that have



to be answered by the interviewee. This type is easy to conduct, and the data are easily analysed, but are not in depth.

Moreover, interviews can be in either open or closed style, as in the questionnaire forms. The open interviews give the interviewee a wide range of freedom so that he/she can participate in an informal talk. This kind of interview provides very detailed information, with each question leading to another; it is a good idea to have such information about the target topic, especially in qualitative and descriptive research. This kind of information, however, is difficult to analyse and if the interviewer is not well trained to monitor the conversation, then the possibility of getting lost is very real. It is appropriate to mention a type of interview which takes place and can be considered to be between the open and the closed ones; this is the semi-open interview, in which there are certain main questions defined in advance but there is also a possibility of freedom within the area of the main topic. Closed interviews on the other hand are structured with specific questions and no freedom is given to the interviewer or the interviewee to deviate from this (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:167). The interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee while collecting data is one of the features of the interview. In other words, this way of data collection allows the interaction to raise further points which may have not been covered. Therefore, it is possible for the researcher to discover different points, opinions and/or ideas that were not foreseen whilst formulating the questions. Another advantage to this method is that when points or questions are not clear or are ambiguous in the questionnaire, they can be explained and clarified when conducting the interview.

Generally speaking, interview as a data collection instrument has its disadvantages. Of course, it is not a perfect tool, since the interviewer can direct the interview in any desired fashion, running the risk of becoming biased and losing the validity of the enquiry. Furthermore, interviews take time to conduct, and, consequently, the number of interviewees can be quite limited. Finally, the interviewer should be able to administer the interview, and not everybody is capable of that. It really needs specific skills to maximise good results. The type of interviews conducted by the researcher will be discussed in 6.5:4:2.

### 6.2:3:3 Language tests

Language tests are another tool for data collection. This tool can be considered as an objective measurement tool, especially when the language proficiency of the learners is required to be measured.

Richterich and Chancerel (1987:88) quoted and translated a definition of the language test from Galisson and Coste (1976:560); they stated that it is a “means of measuring connected with the carrying out of a test or series of tests and based on the performance of an exactly defined task whose numerical notion conforms to precise criteria and a rigorous statistical exploitation”. This definition gives us a broad meaning of tests, which can be seen from another perspective as a representation of behaviour within a specific atmosphere.

The language tests can be divided into two main types which can also be divided into many branches to create a continuum, starting from tests of a high level of explicitness moving toward those of a low level of explicitness (Seliger and Shohamy 1990:177-178). The two main divisions are: first, tests of “high explicitness” which produce separate and dissimilar kinds of language; second, tests of “low explicitness”, which produce holistic, detailed and compacting types of language. In the light of these two divisions, five types of language tests can be identified as follows: aptitude test, with a scale used to predict and distinguish between those students who have sufficient aptitude to learn the foreign language or not; placement test, which is designed to order and classify the learners into homogeneous groups; achievement test, which is formulated to assess what has been achieved within a given course or subject matter; diagnostic test, which is usually designed to assist teachers and learners to discover areas of weakness and strength of their abilities in the target language; and, proficiency test, which is usually designed to discover the extent the learner is able to participate in future tasks. It concentrates on what the learner has already achieved in the light of the future demands.

Seliger and Shohamy (*ibid.*) give detailed explanations regarding several types of tests in language teaching. These can be revealed as follows: in a judgement type the test-taker is provided with mixed correct and incorrect language units and has to decide which are acceptable for these units and which are not. It is broadly used to test the metalinguistic ability. For a multiple-choice model the test-taker is advised to choose the correct answer from a number of choices. This is mainly useful for testing three out

of the four traditional macro-skills, (not speaking). This type of test can examine grammar and vocabulary as well. A practical, perhaps, less intelligent form of testing is true/false, which is useful for text or oral material. It can be used for testing traditional macro-skills, vocabulary, grammar and metalinguistics. The elicited imitation model is when the test-taker is provided with oral or reading material and has to repeat what is heard or read aloud mainly to test his/her pronunciation and comprehension levels. A common type is the cloze testing, where the test-taker has to fill in the missing letters or words. It is used to test reading, writing and overall language proficiency. The completion test is where the test taker is asked to complete a given text, paragraph or sentence with a suitable completion. This is useful for testing reading strategies, writing, vocabulary and grammar. Finally, the recall type, in which the test-taker, after having read or listened to a stimulus, is asked to write down or to report orally what he/she can remember from the text. This test is used to test reading and listening skills. In all these types, to produce a trustworthy test one should take into account the reliability, validity, practicality, discrimination and objectivity of the test. The type of language test conducted in our main field study is explained in 6.5:4:3, which was carefully chosen to fit the general set-up of TAFL in Saudi Arabia.

#### **6.2:4 Analysing and interpreting the results**

Collecting data is a crucial stage in the needs assessment process. Analysing the data is another important stage. These two stages are, undoubtedly, integrated. Thus, if data is being collected without an obvious way of how to analyse it, that will mean disregarding the data and wasting the whole time that has been spent on its collection.

In effect, two types of data analysis can be pointed out, the quantitative and qualitative. The bases and procedures of the quantitative analysis are similar, even if topics of the research are different; for qualitative analysis they vary according to the topic of the research. The analysis should not be considered only as a mechanical process of selection and applying statistical procedures; it includes rules, reasons for assuming one thing and not another and procedures for interpretation of the data. The main idea of the analysis is to give meaning to gathered data, and to do so in the context of some theories, applicable perspectives and prominent positions that may be in conflict with each other (Stufflebeam *et al.* 1985:111):

Generally, the preliminary analysis is the first stage of needs analysis, but of course it is not the whole process (*ibid.*:113-116). One step is examining the questions to be answered making sure they are clear, then search the gathered data, call together the essential data and assess the obtainable data. Practically, we need to distinguish between the types of information collected to process each type as required, then we need to organise and classify this information. We also need to describe this information and to start analysing it statistically. The last stage needed is to interpret the results. It seems to be a long and complicated procedure, but we cannot benefit from the collected data without an accurate analysis and interpretation. We will look at procedures for analysing and interpreting the data of our research in section 6.6.

### **6.3 Analysing the target/learning situation**

Many factors are involved in this analysis, but two main elements have to be emphasised: first, subject analysis where the academic area of study has to be analysed to understand what kind of language, skills and strategies are needed for this discipline; the second element is language analysis where the language of the subject needs to be analysed to provide the students on their LAP course with the language they actually require. Earlier, in Chapter Five (5.3:1:1) we introduced the framework for the analysis of the target situation and considered different views on how the situation can be interpreted.

#### **6.3:1 Subject analysis**

Students attend LAP courses in order to equip themselves with the necessary tools to study a certain academic discipline. In this case, the course designer has to provide students with what they come to the course for. They need to improve their language in the field of study as well as mastering the required skills and strategies. The required content, skills and strategies can be identified through analysing the academic area itself. To form a framework for the academic subjects analysis one needs to ask certain questions in this context such as: Why is the language needed? How will it be used? Who will the language be used with? Where is the language going to be used? What kind of skills are most used? What kind of grammar is likely to be needed? All these questions form the framework of the analysis. In short, the academic subject should be well defined, described and analysed.

### 6.3:2 Language analysis

Analysing the subject leads to the language required. The second stage then is to analyse that language specifying items that should be employed in the syllabus.

Undoubtedly, language analysis (otherwise called language audit) provide teachers and designers with essential information about the specific language, the skills needed for a certain profession and the level of language required (e.i. dialect, Modern Standard Arabic or Classical Arabic), tasks and activities language would be used for and the level of language performance is required for these tasks and. Our task is to present this information about the language to the learners in terms of facilitating effectively their language learning process by providing them with the type of language they actually need. It is important to emphasise that language audit will not alone lead to operational achievements in language teaching; however, it provides the cornerstone in the whole process and is complemented by other crucial constituents such as skills and strategies required in certain situation. Analysing a language in detail is not the main purpose of the LSP course designer. In this section language description is seen, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1994:23), as the way in which the language system is divided and described for the purposes of learning.

The question is, do we need a special language to be taught on LSP programmes? We need to define what is meant by special language before answering the question. Special language means, according to Mackay and Mountford (1978:4), "a restricted repertoire of words and expressions selected from the whole language"; it covers, in other words, vocabulary and phraseology specific for a target task or vocation. The restricted repertoire is a special language; but there are reasons for believing that "restricted repertoire" and "special language" are different. If the learner has a restricted language, then he/she would not be able to handle new situations effectively or anything in the context of a vocational environment (*ibid.*:15). A restricted repertoire is also not enough to meet the learners' needs, though some contexts are entirely perfect situations. The authors consider the language of banking, veterinary medicine or architecture as misleading examples of special languages. These situations are only presented as special vocabulary units belonging to particular fields. Thus, the confusion can only be eliminated if the word "special" refers to the "purpose" of the learner not to the language itself.

Finally, the above discussion opens questions about the linguistic context of LSP; what type of language is needed?; what is the purpose of the learner?; and, how accurately are the needs specified? We are concerned here with the first question regarding the language. The learner mainly wishes to study a specific vocabulary, forms and functions. We need to be aware how these elements interact to produce well-linked texts (Kennedy and Bolitho 1991:18). In order to meet the learners' demands, we need to recognise that each field has its special vocabulary and its items may be used differently depending on the context. The problem facing learners is a set of "semi-technical words" which usually have their meaning changed when used in a specific context. Kennedy and Bolitho (1991: 19) consider speech acts as defining, classifying, drawing, and hypothesising. They state that the learner has to come to grips with recognising these functions and find out how certain functions operate and how different functions interact within language units.

#### **6.4 Assessing the needs of students of the Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculties**

The results of the initial field survey conducted on non-Arab students in Chapter Three showed a general consensus toward the studying of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. Following this survey we will now look at, as part of our main field study, the needs of the learners of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, subject teachers, TAFL teachers, institutions and the target situation. Needs in this context were assessed by different instruments such as, questionnaire, interview and diagnostic test.

##### **6.4:1 Students' needs**

As the students constitute the core of our project their needs were assessed in two ways: a) from their own perspective which we called subjective needs, and b) a diagnostic test which identified the objective needs.

##### **6.4:1:1 Subjective needs**

The questionnaire was designed to identify these needs: students identified their needs in three types: general, specific and methodological needs.

##### **1. General needs**

By general needs we mean those current utilities needed by students in a broad sense; for example if Arabic is needed for daily life or *da<sup>c</sup>wa* study (Question no.12). future

needs regarding the use of Arabic after graduation (Question no.13), the important macro-skills to achieve such needs (Question no. 14) and finally, their weaknesses in macro-skills in general (Question nos. 15 and 16).

## **2. Specific needs**

We mean here those micro-skills (i.e. abilities) and techniques that are related to the students of *da'wa*: twenty six items were listed in this section of the questionnaire covering reading (11 items), writing (5 items), listening (5 items) speaking (3 items) and vocabulary (2 items):

### **Needs related to reading:**

- 17 Reading fluently texts set by the lecturer
- 18 Extracting evidence found in Islamic literature
- 19 Reading a text to extract specific information
- 20 Intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text
- 21 Reading to understand the writer's points of view on a controversial issue
- 23 Reading to understand and discuss ideas given in the text
- 24 Reading in depth to understand the message given by the text
- 25 Re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind
- 26 Reading to qualify academically in the field of *da'wa*
- 27 Reading to pass examination only
- 42 Scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic

### **Needs related to writing:**

- 28 Summarising main points from a written text
- 29 Summarising lectures, discussions and debates
- 31 Writing short reports relating to *da'wa*
- 32 Writing answers to examination questions
- 33 Using grammar correctly when writing in the area of specialism

### **Needs related to listening:**

- 34 Understanding someone talking to other
- 35 Extracting information from radio and television.
- 36 Understanding lectures in one's area of specialism and writing down the main points
- 37 Understanding and following a conversation in class
- 38 Understanding the main topic(s) of a lecture

### **Needs related to speaking:**

- 39 Ability to argue with one's teacher in the field of *da'wa*
- 40 Delivering a speech prepared by oneself in the field of *da'wa*
- 41 Expressing and defending one's point of view in your area of specialism

**Needs related to vocabulary:**

- 22 Understanding terminology used in the field of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*
- 30 Correct usage of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* terminology when writing

Each type of the above needs was assessed in terms of its necessity by grading it: very important, important, fairly important or not important. In terms of students' competence it was, very satisfactory, satisfactory or not satisfactory. In assessing the weaknesses of the students in the micro-skills (i.e. abilities) we made note of discrepancies between the necessity of the micro-skills and the competence of the students in such skills. In other words, if one micro-skill was understood by the students to be important and their competence in such a skill was not satisfactory then this was considered a lack in the level of the student's ability.

**3. Methodological needs**

Methodological needs are related to the way of learning which differs from one student to another, such as whether it is on a one-to-one basis or a small or large group (Question no.43); the type of learning, such as listening and note taking, listening, reproducing what is read, repeating what is listened to, obtaining information by oneself, memorising, writing what is heard, writing new words and expressions, more reading and copying from the board (Question nos. 44 and 45); error correction (Question no. 46); the role of teaching aids (Question nos.47 and 48); and the time and place for a course in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes (Questions nos. 49 and 50).

**6.4:1:2 Objective needs**

We considered what was assessed in the diagnostic test to be the objective needs. This test reflected the actual level of the students in both the macro and micro-skills; we diagnosed their competence in reading, writing and speaking covering certain strategies in the academic reading such as overviewing texts, skimming and scanning; we identified types of errors made in the academic writing; and assessed how fluent the students were in Arabic. The results of these tests should be integrated with the results of the questionnaire to constitute the final list of the students' specific needs.



#### **6.4:2 Teachers' demands**

Teachers in this context are those who teach subjects of *da'wa* at the Faculties of Da'wa. Their attitudes towards TAAP and the foreign students were assessed. The significant role of the teachers in this assessment was to recommend the skills that they believed were important for the non-Arab students to master in order to study effectively in the Da'wa Faculties. In this context, teachers were given the same 26 items of the students' specific needs in terms of skills and strategies. The results of the teachers' interview regarding these items are integrated with the subjective and objective needs of the students.

#### **6.4:3 Organisation demands**

The administrative staff of Da'wa Faculties and TAFL institutes in both IU and IMU were interviewed in order to know their demands. We aimed to explain to them what our course was about and to know whether they would support such a course or not.

#### **6.4:4 Target/learning situation needs**

For a better understanding of *da'wa* in terms of the language and skills required we needed to analyse the learning situation through the subjects being taught and the language being used; that is to say that the learning situation needs can be determined by analysing the subjects of the area of study in order to understand in which level and context Arabic is being used.

In fact, *da'wa* as a professional study, is taught in three Saudi universities, the Islamic University, the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud University and the Umm Al-Qura University. Not much difference appears within the structure of these three universities' curricula. We examined the Islamic University programme mainly because it is the oldest in the country and most of the non-Arab students study there.

The Department of Da'wa is part of the Faculty of Da'wa and Fundamentals of Religion in the Islamic University, the latter being established in 1386/1966. Our review included the overall goals, the period of study, the entry qualifications, the number of students enrolled, the future of the graduates and the curriculum.

The overall aim of this faculty is to give the necessary academic and religious training to students of *da'wa*. Students require a Secondary School Certificate or

equivalence; they, of course, should be qualified in Arabic, and not younger than seventeen years of age. The period of study is four full-time years. The curriculum of the faculty has been planned and developed to serve the general goals of the faculty and the university as well. Course modules for such a curriculum are listed in the following,

Table 6.1:

no.	subjects	years of study			
		year 1	year 2	year 3	year 4
1	Qur'an.	1	1	1	1
2	Tafsir (exegesis)	3	3	3	3
3	Hadith	3	3	3	3
4	Terminology of hadith	2			
5	Tawhid (theology)	4	4	4	3
6	World Religions			1	
7	Islamic sects				2
8	Sira (biography of the Prophet)	2	2		
9	Islamic history			2	2
10	The world of Islam today				2
11	Principles and methods of <i>da'wa</i>		2	2	
12	History of <i>da'wa</i>			2	
13	Schools of thought				2
14	Islamic education	2			
15	Methods in teaching			1	2
16	Curricula		1		
17	Instructional aids			1	
18	Research approaches	1			
19	Fiqh (Islamic jurisprudence)	2	2	2	
20	Far'id (Laws of inheritances)				2
21	Foundations of Islamic jurisprudence	2	2		
22	Grammar	3	2	2	2
23	Morphology		1	1	1
24	Literature and rhetoric		2		
	Total hours per week	25	25	25	25

Table 6.1: Curricula of the Faculty of Da'wa

The primary sources for the study of *da'wa* are:

Qur'an, Ibn Ka'ir's *Tafsir*, al-Tabari's *Jami' al-bayan*, Abu Hayyan al-Andalusi's *al-Bahru l-Muhit*, al-Bukhari's *Al-Jami' al-sahih*, *al-Kutub al-sitta*, Ibn al-Salah's *Ulum al-hadith*, Ibn Taymiyya's *al-Iman*, and Ibn Hisham's *al-Sira al-nabawiyya*.

Students of *da'wa* require Arabic throughout and after completing their study. Emphasis is given to speaking and writing skills. Reading is the most vital skill and the key issue during the programme and beyond. One of the skills that students learn is the art of persuasion, though this is normally done in one's own native language.

In short, we can apply the learning situation framework (Chapter Five 5.3:1) suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (1994:59-60) to our situation as follows:

1. The language is needed for study and work.
2. The language will be used mainly by the medium of reading and understanding through a channel of personal contact with the Arabic written resources in an academic context.
3. The context areas will be Islamic literature at the university level and beyond.
4. The learner will use the language with the Arabic written resources about Islam and also with the surrounding environment.
5. The language will be used individually, especially, in the libraries.
6. The language will be used frequently, concurrently with the TASP course and subsequently after the course is over.

### **6.5 The main field study**

An idea is given in the following sections regarding the main field study to explain why and how it was conducted.

#### **6.5:1 Hypothesis to be investigated**

From the results of the field survey in Chapter Three and experience in the field of Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language we understand that: i) there is a need for a course in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes (TAAP) in the area of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, ii) a course focused on improving the students' skills, rather than giving students a specific content related to their study is needed, and iii) students are linguistically equipped to attend a TAAP course in advanced reading, writing and speaking.

#### **6.5:2 Aims of the main field study**

The aims of the main field study are- generally - to do with determining the objective and subjective needs of non-Arab students at level one of the Faculties of *Da<sup>c</sup>wa* at the Islamic University and Imam Mohammad University, knowing to what extent *da<sup>c</sup>wa* teachers and TAFL teachers support developing a course in TAAP for the students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* and; knowing the facilities and the equipment that can be provided for such a course. In practice, these overall aims can be easily specified and categorised into: the aims related to the first year students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* (FSD), the subject teachers of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*

(ST), the teachers of TAFL (AT) and the administrative staff (AS). For each category personal details are extracted.

Taking the students first, we need to find out their attitudes towards Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language and Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes, determine the general learners' needs in terms of the current wants, future needs and deficiencies, the present situation needs and the methodological needs. Also we need to know the time and place preferred for the course to take place and diagnose the students' level in academic reading, writing and speaking. For both the teachers of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* and those in teaching of Arabic as a Foreign Language, we elicited information on their qualifications, attitudes towards teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes and experience in this discipline, if any. We needed to know from the teachers of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* the proficiency level in Arabic which students have to acquire and the basic language abilities that are required by the discipline of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. With regard to the TAFL teachers, it was essential to find out the skills they recommended to be taught in a TAAP course and if they are well qualified to teach such a course.

Finally, the administrative staff needed to tell us what their attitudes towards developing a TAAP course, to give us information about the size and type of the facilities and equipment that could be provided for such course; and of any constraints that could be imposed on the course.

### **6.5:3 Drawing the samples**

It is a very difficult and complex process to choose the samples of any field study. The procedures for doing so are many and the results are dependent on specific procedures being followed. At the beginning of this chapter, the methods of selecting the samples were discussed. Below, the appropriate ones are used to choose the representative sample for the main field study.

#### **6.5:3:1 The population**

In this field study, the population at the IU and IMU is divided into four groups: i) the first year students of Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculties (FSD); ii) the subject teachers of Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculties (ST); iii) the TAFL teachers (AT); and, iv) the administrative staff (AS) in the Faculties of Da<sup>c</sup>wa and the TAFL institutes. The total number of this population figures below:

population	IU	IMU	total
FSD	215	44	259
ST	87	25	112
AT	43	32	75
AS	5	5	10

Table 6.2: Population of the main field study

The number of the population in the above table reflects the entire body of the population. The number of population who actually attend the day when the questionnaire and interviews were conducted was less, for example some students being native Arabic speakers did not qualify and other members of the students, teachers or staff were absent or did not meet the conditions (below) of the field study.

### **I. Categorising the population**

The samples in this main field study were attributed to the type of instrument (questionnaire, interview or language test) used. Thus, our samples were as follows:

#### **1. Sample surveyed by the questionnaire**

One of the features of the questionnaire was that it could be addressed to a large number of candidates. Thus, the questionnaire was distributed to all the FSD. The valid returned questionnaires were 146 from the Islamic University and 27 from the Imam University.

#### **2. Sample surveyed by the ST interview**

It was difficult to interview a large number of candidates. There were several constraints that stood against the idea of investigating a large number of people such as time, analysis and finance. Hence our subject teachers (ST) sample was chosen under specific conditions in order to improve the quality of the interview as much as possible. It was decided, therefore, that the subject teacher should be at least an assistant professor and with his degree (Ph.D. or MA) in *Da<sup>c</sup>wa*. Also the subject teachers were required to be teachers of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* modules; this meant that teachers of other modules were not included. The total number of ST who met these conditions were 34 from the IU and 16 from the IMU.

#### **3. Sample surveyed by the AT interview**

The total number of Arabic Teachers (AT) to be interviewed was quite large. Thus certain conditions had to be applied in order to select the sample. Each AT member interviewed had to have a degree in Applied Linguistics or Education or a degree in

Arabic with no less experience than five years in TAFL. As a result, 11 AT members from IU and 23 from IMU met the conditions.

#### **4. Sample surveyed by the AS interview**

At IU we interviewed the Dean of the Faculty of Da<sup>o</sup>wa (and Deputy), the Head of Da<sup>o</sup>wa department, the Dean (and Deputy) of the TAFL unit. At IMU we interviewed the Dean of the Faculty of Da<sup>o</sup>wa (and Deputy), the Head of Da<sup>o</sup>wa Department, the Dean of TAFL Institute and the Head of Arabic and Islamic Studies Department at the TAFL Institute. The aim was to discover whether they supported establishing a course of TASP or not, and if they did, what type of facilities they could provide. The total number was 10 candidates of both universities.

#### **5. Sample surveyed by the pre-test assessment**

This initial test was designed to categorise the students according to their level in Arabic. It was distributed to all students who attended the questionnaire session (146 IU and 27 IMU) in order to choose a representative sample to do the language test, see Appendix I.

#### **6. Sample surveyed by the diagnostic test**

The test required no less than two hours. It contained about fifteen pages. Only a selected number of the population took this test. The selected sample, however, had to represent each member of the population.

We therefore used a systematic purposive sampling method, which meant 1 student in 10 was selected in three divisions according to the pre-test assessment. The students were graded as excellent, good and weak. At Imam University 1 student in 5 was selected because the total number of students was less than the number of the students at Islamic University. The result was 14 of IU candidates and 5 of IMU candidates.

#### **6.5:4 Designing the main field study instruments**

Three instruments were used in this field study, they are explained below:

#### **6.5:4:1 The questionnaire**

The questionnaire can be used to classify a "set of questions" from more strict "constructed scales or tests" (Oppenheim 1993:100). A questionnaire can be an easy and worthy instrument or a complex and useless instrument in gathering data. To benefit from the questionnaire we designed carefully the aims and the specific objectives of what is going to be collected. Before conducting the field study we determined the kind of information we wanted to extract, the method of approach with which the questions were set and their sequence and the type of questions.

The questionnaire for this main field study was designed according to the following stages:

**Stage One:** The items of the questionnaire were collected from many sources such as McDonough 1984, Qotbah 1990, Remache 1992, Hutchinson and Waters 1994, Kelliny 1994, Munby 1994, Jordan 1997 and from the initial field survey conducted by the present researcher in Chapter Three. In fact, most of these frameworks for needs assessment were either about English for Specific Purposes or English for Academic Purposes, but were modified to the case of Arabic for Academic Purposes.

**Stage Two:** The questions were prepared in Arabic being the medium of instruction at Saudi universities. The questionnaire contains sixty one questions organised and classified into nine sections. Section One elicited biographical data about the learners including age, nationality, place of study, mother tongue, other languages known, educational level, number of years studying Arabic and hobbies. In Section Two we inquired about motivations for studying Arabic as a Foreign Language. We asked students in Section Three to evaluate the post-TAFL programmes and emphasis on skills needed in studying *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. Section Four concentrated on students' needs for studying AFL, evaluating their level in Arabic and the importance of Arabic in performing *da<sup>c</sup>wa* in their home country where Arabic is not in use. In Section Five we inquired about the students' most important skills relating to their profession or study. Three questions dealt with re-ranking the four traditional macro-skills depending on the needs of their study and the time spent in practising each skill daily after going back to their accommodation. Students were also asked about their macro-skills (abilities) and time spent. Students were asked in Section Six to assess the extent of importance of the skills in their study (*da<sup>c</sup>wa*) and then to evaluate their actual proficiency in the macro-skills and micro-skills. Section Seven was designed to know the preferred learning methods in the light of the students' experience in studying Arabic as a Foreign

Language. While Section Eight was about teaching aids. Finally Section Nine focused on the time and place preferred for a TAAP course.

**Stage Three:** The questionnaire was sent to three postgraduates in the Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies at the University of Leeds. Two of them were Arabic native speakers graduated in TAFL and experienced in teaching AFL: Salih Al-Suhaibany (now holding a PhD, May 1998) and Salih Al-Shuwairikh (MA candidate) both from Saudi Arabia. The third was Su'aidi Shafei (now holding a PhD, July 1997) from Malaysia who speaks Arabic fluently. They were asked to look at the questionnaire in the light of readability of the language to the target population; to what extent questions and items were covered; and the layout. In fact, their comments were helpful and taken into account when the questionnaire was re-formulated.

**Stage four:** The questionnaire was sent to the following six experts in the field of TAFL and Arabic Applied Linguistics:

no.	name of the assessor	profession and title	place of work
1	Mahmoud E. Sieny	Professor of TAFL and Applied Linguistics. Director of the Translation Centre.	University of King Saud (Riyadh)
2	Raji M. Rammuny	Professor of Arabic Studies.	University of Michigan. (Ann Arbor, Michigan)
3	Mahmoud al-Batal	Associate Professor of Arabic. Director of the School of Arabic at Middlebury College in Vermont	Emory University of Atlanta (Atlanta, Georgia)
4	Mahdi Alish	Assistant Professor of Arabic	Ohio State University (Columbus, Ohio)
5	Ridha al-Suissi	Professor of Arabic and TAFL	University of Tunis (Tunis)
6	Rushdi Tuaima	Professor of TAFL and Applied Linguistics.	University of Sultan Qaboos (Muscat, Oman)

Table 6.3: Assessors of the main field's instruments

They mainly dealt with the content, sequence, statistical analysis and the layout of the questionnaire. We took up their comments and redrafted the questionnaire accordingly.

**Stage Five:** The questionnaire in its final shape (nine sections with fifty questions, Appendix C) was introduced to six students from the target population and they were asked to fill it in in the presence of the researcher. During this experiment we made notes from students inquiring about the readability of some questions as well as discovering some typing errors. All comments were taken into account and the questionnaire was revised and corrected before the final distribution.

#### 6.5:4:2 The interviews

Four types of interviews took place: Teachers of Arabic as a Foreign Language (AT), Subject Teachers of *da'wa* (ST), Administrative Staff (AS) and post-interviews. We



planned an open interview for the first three. The interview questions were sent along with the First Year Students of Da<sup>c</sup>wa (FSD) questionnaire to the assessors above for advice. We had to change the open interviews into closed ones as some members objected to the use of an audio-recorder during interviewing.

### **1. Interview of the Arabic Teachers (AT)**

This interview consisted of thirteen questions covering the general background of the teachers, experience in TAFL, training, attitudes towards TASP, experience in TASP, the importance of TASP, academic areas needed in TASP and the skills required in the Islamic Studies at university level (see Appendix D).

### **2. Interview of the Subject Teachers (ST)**

Seventeen questions were set for this interview relating to general background about the teachers of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, experience, impression about non-Arab students in their classes in terms of their standard in Arabic and if that affected the level of their study, whether the students are weaker in certain skills, the standard of Arabic that should be acquired by the students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, attitudes towards TAAP, the students' target needs, and finally, recommending from a list of 26 micro-skills and strategies those that Subject Teachers think their *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students in are in need of (see Appendix E).

### **3. Interview of the Administrative Staff (AS)**

The administrative staff was asked seven questions which included general background, attitudes towards TAAP, their support of a TAAP course, the time and place they would propose for such a course, facilities provided, possibility for teacher training, and any conditions or recommendations they might have (see Appendix F).

### **4. Post-test interview**

This interview was addressed to some of the students who attended the diagnostic test: it contained six questions regarding how easy or difficult the test was, tracing each question to assess if the test was at the level of the students or not (see Appendix G).

### **6.5:4:3 The diagnostic test**

What needs to be stated in this context is that, to my knowledge, this test is the first type that has so far been done in the area of TAFL in Saudi Arabia. The test was constructed

according to a framework borrowed from a handbook called IELTS Strategies for Study; Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking at University and College by Garbutt and O'Sullivan 1991; it was carefully adapted to harmonise with the purpose of this study. The test was organised in three parts (see Appendix H) and the students who scored 34 out of 34 is considered as a native speaker like of Arabic:

**Part One:** Reading test, which involved three reading passages “al-Muhtasib” (the public censor of religion and morals), “Makānat al-ʿadl fīl-Islam” (Justice in Islam) and “Al-tarbiya wa-l-taʿlīm ka-uslūb min asālib al-daʿwa” (Education as a method of performing *daʿwa*). A short passage with statistical figures on the number of the Muslim population in various countries was also included. Thirty-six questions followed the passages and were divided into: overviewing a passage (three items, 1-3); understanding the main points (thirteen items, 4-16); matching information (nine items, 17-25); finding the required information (four items, 26-29); and, understanding and interpreting statistical information (seven items, 30-36). Two questions were answered and given as examples (items 4 and 17).

**Part Two:** Writing test, which included two exercises, first an essay of 100 words about “al-ihtisāb” (enjoining what is right and forbidding what is wrong), its definition and importance in the *daʿwa* and second, an essay of 150 words about justice in Islam and its importance in the *daʿwa*. To maximise good and effective work the test paper was set with some guidelines which candidates were instructed to read carefully: i) referring to the related reading passage for each topic; ii) relevance of the essay to the topic; iii) well-organised work was required; iv) no copying of sentences and the like from the given passage; and v) fifteen minutes prescribed to complete the first essay and thirty minutes to complete the second one.

**Part Three:** Speaking test, students were asked to talk about any topic related to the Islamic Mission (*daʿwa*); they were given fifteen minutes to prepare the topic and then to deliver a speech of seven to ten minutes.

#### **Test validation and time estimation**

We need first of all to state that time management is a crucial factor in this test. All the answers are given in the test paper and if the students are allowed to complete the test in a longer time they may all answer the test correctly on the other hand any shortage in the time could lead to misleading result. Therefore, proficiency of the students in the academic skills is tested according to their abilities to finish the test in the given time

with highest scores. In the IELTS exam candidates are given 55 minutes to answer the reading test. As we adopted this test in our field study we experimented our diagnostic test in three stage given the candidates 55 minutes in the three stages. In the first stage the researcher completed the test in 25 minutes; in the second stage it was distributed to three Arabic native speakers with similar interests in the field of *da'wa* or Islamic Studies. The results were as follows:

no.	name of candidate	qualifications	score obtained (out of 34)	time spent (minutes)
1	Abdu Mohammed	Third year student of Islamic Studies, King Faisal University (Al-Hasa)	26	55
2	Ali M. al-Tayir	Graduated in Islamic Studies, King Abdul Aziz University (Jeddah) (now teacher)	32	45
3	Zain A. Khwajy	Fourth year student of Da'wa, Imam University (Riyadh)	30	46
		Average score obtained and time spent	29.33	48.67

Table 6.4: Validation and time estimation of the test (I)

As a result of this it was felt necessary to make some adjustments regarding the readability of the questions as well as replacing one item in the "gaps-filling" questions. Finally, the test was given (in the third stage of experimentation) to four students from the target sample at IMU. The teachers were consulted to nominate students with different levels of Arabic. The result of this stage is presented below, Table 6.5:

no.	name of student	score obtained (out of 34)	time spent (Minutes)
1	Alias Youla (Ginean)	04 <sup>1</sup>	30
2	Mohammed Mu'calim (Somali)	17	33
3	Othman Yunw (Thai)	32	42
4	Mirand Rasim (Albanian)	19	55
		average 22.67	average 43.33

Table 6.5: Validation and time estimation of the test (II)

The result of this stage varied according to the level of the candidates in Arabic. They scored 4 (11.76%), 17 (50%), 19 (55.88%) and 32 (94.12%). Excluding the first candidate who was not serious of doing the test, the result with average scores of 22.67 (66.68%) in average time of 43.33 minutes is not too bad and almost relative to the case of IELTS exam where the minimum scores which can be accepted to study at some British universities are 5.5 out of 9 (61.11%). As an attempt to increase the students score in our diagnostic test, taking into account the three experimentation-stages above,

---

<sup>1</sup> This student was not serious in doing the test, thus his result was excluded from the average scores.

we set the time to be 60 minutes for the reading test, 45 minutes for the writing test and 25 minutes for the speaking test.

### 6.5:5 Conducting the main field study

Below, we will explain the procedures of conducting the questionnaire for the First Year Students of Da<sup>c</sup>wa (FSD); the interviews with Arabic Teachers (AT), Subject Teachers (ST), Administrative Staff (AS) and post interviews; and, the diagnostic test.

#### 6.5:5:1 Conducting the FSD questionnaire

After having made the necessary corrections to the questionnaire we set out to distribute the questionnaire to the FSD at the Islamic University in Al-Madina and Imam University in Riyadh consecutively. Students in IU were divided into five classes, each class observed by a lecturer. The researcher spent 20 minutes in each classroom prior to the filling-in of the questionnaire explaining procedures; an overhead projector and the whiteboard were used to illustrate and highlight important points of the questionnaire. Any query was dealt with during the filling-in of the questionnaire. In the Imam Mohammad University, students were placed in one room with the researcher. We eliminated those questionnaires that were not properly filled in. The FSD samples in both universities were as follows (Table 6.6):

no.	FSD samples	Islamic University		Imam University	
		total	percentage	total	percentage
1	size	191	100	44	100
2	absence	32	16.75	12	27.27
3	eliminated questionnaires	13	8.17	5	11.36
4	valid received questionnaires	146	76.44	27	61.36

Table 6.6: Conducting the FSD questionnaire

#### 6.5:5:2 Conducting the interviews

##### 1. IU Candidates

Recording the interview between the researcher and the subject teachers and Arabic teachers would have been ideal but most of them were concerned about this method and preferred to have their interviews written down. We respected their request and transferred the open interview to a closed type with a very strict condition that they should complete the questionnaire-style interview in the presence of the researcher after a short discussion about the concept of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes.

As for the Subject Teachers of the Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculty, the total number at the IU was 87 members; only 34 were qualified with a Ph.D. and experience in teaching *da<sup>c</sup>wa* modules. 24 of these candidates agreed to be interviewed face to face; their answers were in a written rather than in a recorded-voice form. Table 6.7 below gives some details about these candidates:

ST (IU)	professor		associate professor		assistant professor		refused		agreed	
total	total	%	total	%	total	%	total	%	total	%
34	02	5.88	04	11.76	28	82.35	10	29.41	24	70.59

Table 6.7: Conducting the ST interview at IU

The Arabic Teachers at the IU were 43 members but 11 teachers only held a BA/MA or/Ph.D. degree in Applied Linguistics, Education or Arabic. An experience no less than five years in TAFL was required for those who held a degree in Arabic language. Again, they were interviewed face to face giving answers in the writing and not in a recorded-voice form.

With regard to the administrative staff of the IU, we interviewed the Dean of the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa, his Deputy, the Head of the Department of Da<sup>c</sup>wa, the Dean of the TAFL Centre and his deputy.

## 2. IMU Candidates

The ST candidates of IMU were as follows:

ST (IMU)	Professor		associate professor		assistant professor		refused		agreed	
total	total	%	total	%	total	%	total	%	total	%
16	02	12.5	04	25	10	62.5	08	50	8	50

Table 6.8: Conducting the ST interview at IMU

The Arabic Teachers at the IMU consisted of 32 teachers, 23 of whom had a BA/MA or/Ph.D. degree in Applied Linguistics, Education or Arabic. An experience of no less than five years in TAFL was required for those who held a degree in Arabic. 18 teachers agreed to be interviewed.

The administrative staff at the IMU we interviewed were: the Dean of the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa, his Deputy, the Head of the Department of Da<sup>c</sup>wa, the Dean of the TAFL Institute and the Head of Arabic and Islamic Studies.

### **6.5:5:3 Conducting the diagnostic test**

It was difficult to bring to the test all the candidates involved in the main field study because there were about 146 at the IU and 27 at the IMU. In addition, the test required no less than 120 minutes which meant that teachers were reluctant to allow their students to attend the test because that would have interrupted their lessons. Therefore, only a sample number of the candidates was selected to perform the test.

The question was how it could be ensured that the selected sample would reflect the variety of the students needed. In order to do that, a test of four multiple-choice questions was set and distributed to the FSD of both Universities (see Appendix I). From the results of this test we agreed to divide students into three categories: i) "excellent", who scored between 8 and 10 [6 students from IMU and 12 from IU]; ii) "good", who scored between 5 and 7 [12 students from IMU and 96 from IU] and, iii) "weak", those who scored below 5 [8 students from IMU and 36 from IU]. Consequently, one student in five from each category was randomly selected from IMU giving 5 students in total and one student in ten of each category from IU was randomly selected giving a total of 14 students in all.

In short, five students from IMU and fourteen students from IU were involved in the reading, writing and speaking tests.

### **6.6 Procedures of analysing and interpreting the results**

The analysis and the interpretation were made according to the following bases:

Each instrument (questionnaire, interview and test) was treated individually. The questionnaire was analysed and interpreted as a subjective tool of needs assessment. In fact, because we had two samples of FSD, from two different universities, each sample was tackled individually but analysed together (see Chapter Seven). The researcher then tackled the data collected by the language test for each university (see Chapter Eight). The interviews for the AT, ST and AS were also analysed individually (see Chapter Nine). Frequency and percentage in this field study was the only statistical method used in interpreting the results: we looked at the needs of the students, their frequency in proportion to the sample as well as looking into the errors of the students in the diagnostic test and their frequency in proportion to the whole sample involved.

The structure for responses in the questionnaire was generally based on multiple-choice answers; other forms were designed on a scale system, i.e. very important, important, fairly important and not important to assess grades of importance in statements provided; or satisfactory, fairly satisfactory or not satisfactory to judge their competence in Arabic.

In interpreting the responses of the questionnaire we did encounter occasionally a narrow margin of score differences between the four scales discussed above. So, we divided the four scales into two, pairing for example very important and important into one category and fairly important and not important into another; and then we drew the average of each.

### **6.7 Conclusion**

We looked into the needs assessment by examining the theoretical background, establishing what type of instruments could be used, what the acceptable items in the instruments are and what method of application was needed. We focused on the actual instruments and the procedures of the field study, discussing the type of data needs, aims of the needs assessment, instruments used, sampling the population and the way the target/learning situation was assessed. In the following three Chapters, Seven, Eight and Nine we will look at the results of the questionnaire, diagnostic test and interviews.

CHAPTER SEVEN

**Analysing the results of the FSD Questionnaire**

**7.1 Introduction**

In order to fulfil the requirements of designing a course for teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes the researcher made a second field trip to Saudi Arabia to investigate the learners' needs. The total size of the First Year Student of *da'wa* (FSD) who filled in the questionnaire properly was 146 from the Islamic University (IU) and 27 from the Imam University (IMU). Analysing and interpreting the results of the questionnaire (see Appendix C) will be according to the bases set in Chapter Six (6.6).

In this chapter we will look at the needs from the students' perspective (i.e. the subjective needs), in order to find out which are the concerns that our learners experience in the light of their area of study. It is not our aim, however, to interpret the students' needs at this stage. That will be done in Chapter Eight in which we will analyse the needs through the results of a diagnostic test that the learners would have taken.

**7.2 Personal information about the learners**

Preliminary information about the learners had already been collected in the earlier chapters: we have non-Arab students studying *da'wa* with the minimum qualification of a Secondary High School Certificate; they are no younger than eighteen years old and no lower than intermediate level in Arabic. In addition, some more details were sought regarding their age, mother tongue, nationality, qualifications and the length of time they have studied Arabic as a Foreign Language, the results of which are shown in Table 7.1a:

total number is 146 (IU) + 27 (IMU) = 173								
age	Freq.	%	qualifications	freq.	%	years of studying Arabic	freq.	%
18-22	38	21.96	Secondary School Certificate	130	75.14	one year	10	5.78
23-26	98	56.65	Diploma	23	13.30	two years	36	20.81
27-29	21	12.14	University Degree	20	11.56	more than two years	127	73.41
29+	16	9.25						
Total	173	100		173	100		173	100

Table 7.1a: Candidates' personal information



The majority of the candidates' ages are between eighteen and twenty-six years: this group of ages constitutes 56.65% of the whole population. There are no surprising findings in this result because the legal age for enrolment in Saudi universities is eighteen years or more. This is the result of pupils going to Primary School at the age of six, then the Intermediate School for three more years and thereafter to the Secondary School for another three years. Thus, they are expected to complete their public education by the age of eighteen. The exception is those whose ages are twenty-seven and over which is 21.39% of the candidates.

Non-Arab students are supposed to come to Saudi universities at no younger than eighteen years old and they have to study Arabic as a Foreign Language for at least two years, some for three and others for four years. The indications extracted from this result are that we are dealing with mature learners which meant that they were knowledgeable of what was expected from their study. Being aware of this fact gives a better understanding of the elements of the questionnaire and a strong credibility in their answers.

The attribution of candidates to about 40 countries (countries with 5 students and more are listed in Table 7.1b below) indicates that the Saudi government is intent on giving equal opportunities to all Muslim students around the world to study Arabic and Islamic studies in the Saudi universities.

total number is 146 (IU) + 27 (IMU) = 173					
nationality	freq.	%	mother tongue	freq.	%
Afghan	12	6.94	Albanian	6	3.47
Albanian	6	3.47	Bengali	5	2.89
Bengali	5	2.89	Chinese	11	6.36
Cameroonian	5	2.89	English	26	15.03
Chinese	11	6.36	Filipino	8	4.62
Filipino	8	4.62	French	25	14.45
Guinian	6	3.47	Hindi	11	6.36
Indian	18	10.41	Indonesian	8	4.62
Indonesian	8	4.62	Pushtu	9	5.20
Ivory	5	2.89	Russian	7	4.05
Nigerian	5	2.89	Swedish	5	2.89
Pakistani	8	4.62	Urdu	25	14.45
Russian	9	5.20	Others	27	15.61
Sierra Leonean	13	7.51			
Others	54	31.22			

Table 7.1b: Nationalities and mother tongue of the candidates

We have tried to find an official explanation for the variation in the number of candidates from different countries but we failed to find any adequate answer. There

does not seem to be any political rationale behind this phenomenon, candidates are asked to enter an open competition every year for 400 scholarships, provided by the four Saudi TAFL institutes.

As for the mother tongue of the students, students speak several languages. Those spoken by five students and more are listed in Table 7.1b above.

Despite the positive or negative influence of the mother tongue on the process of learning Arabic, this does not influence, in any way, the students in our present study because they had already completed a programme in Arabic as a Foreign Language and are currently enrolled in a university course with more experience in Arabic. This will of course be taken into account when developing the course syllabuses for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes. Limited consideration will be given to this factor simply because the learner has almost transcended the linguistic interference.

In a supplementary question candidates were asked whether they spoke any other languages: 110 Students said yes and 36 said no. The languages that obtained high frequency responses are presented in Table 7.2:

total number is 146 (IU) + 27 (IMU) = 173					
no.	language	Islamic University		Imam University	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
1	English	64	58.18	12	44.44
2	French	12	10.90	5	18.52
3	Hindi	5	04.54	3	11.11
4	Russian	4	03.63		
5	Spanish	2	01.81		
6	Turkish	9	08.18		
7	Urdu	14	12.72	2	7.41

Table 7.2: Other languages spoken by the candidates

As is clear from the above table, English is spoken by the majority, followed by Urdu for IU and French for IMU. The aim behind this question was to find out, on a preliminary basis, about the candidates' attitudes towards foreign languages.

One very strict condition as a minimum entry qualification to attend any Saudi universities programme is that students must have a Secondary School Certificate or equivalent. According to Table 7.1a above the majority of candidates 130 (75.14%) held Secondary School Certificates, whereas candidates who had a diploma or university degree or higher degree were 43 (24.86 %).

Regarding the number of the candidates who had studied Arabic as a Foreign Language, it was 10 (5.78%) for one year and 36 (20.81%) for two years while the majority, 127 (73.41%) had studied AFL for more than two years (see Table 7.1a above). It is noted here that some students had studied AFL before coming to Saudi and needed only one year to meet the language proficiency required by the faculties. Although the standard period of AFL programmes in Saudi is two years we noticed that the majority of the candidates, (73.41%), exceeded the two-year period. Two different interpretations for this can be given: one is that students reported to the researcher that the TAFL programme was difficult, and the other is that teachers claimed that students deliberately failed in order to lengthen their stay in Saudi Arabia, the latter group being students who came particularly from poorer, politically unstable countries who sought Saudi as their refuge.

### 7.3 Learners' motives and attitudes

Three main topics will be analysed under this heading: first, motives of the candidates towards learning AFL, second, attitudes of the candidates towards the past-TAFL programmes and third, attitudes of the candidates towards the idea of Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes.

#### 7.3:1 Learners' motives

Ten motives were presumed to be the most important ones in our study: they were grouped into four broader sections as shown in Table 7.3 below:

total number is 146 (IU) + 27 (IMU) = 173											
categories	code	motives	university	very important		important		fairly important		not important	
				freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
Professional	8/2	to improve your financial status	IU	11	7.69	18	12.58	34	23.77	62	55.94
			IMU			2	7.41	9	33.33	16	59.26
	8/3	to improve your job status	IU	15	10.48	21	14.68	30	20.97	77	53.84
			IMU	2	7.41	7	25.93	5	18.52	13	48.15
	8/4	to find a job	IU	14	9.65	26	17.93	36	24.82	69	47.58
			IMU	3	11.11	3	11.11	7	25.93	14	51.85
	8/9	to work in an Arab country	IU	20	13.69	8	5.47	18	12.32	100	68.49
			IMU	2	7.41	2	7.41	7	25.93	16	59.26
social	8/1	to improve your social status	IU	35	23.97	25	17.12	24	16.43	62	42.46
			IMU	6	22.22	5	18.52	6	22.22	10	37.04
	8/10	enjoy learning FL	IU	23	15.75	29	19.86	30	20.54	64	43.83
			IMU	8	29.63	6	22.22	5	18.52	8	29.63
religious	8/6	to perform <i>da'wa</i>	IU	121	82.87	20	13.69	5	3.42		
			IMU	27	100						
	8/8	to understand Islam	IU	130	90.27	4	2.77	3	2.08	7	4.86
			IMU	27	100						

academic	8/5	to study at university	IU	72	49.31	37	25.34	26	17.80	11	7.53
			IMU	18	66.67	5	18.52			4	14.81
	8/7	find it easy to learn AFL	IU	47	32.19	27	18.49	22	15.06	50	34.24
			IMU	16	59.26	5	18.52	3	11.11	3	11.11

Table 7.3 Motives of the candidates

Professional motives, as is shown above, got a variety of responses but it is generally of a low frequency which indicates that these motives are not important. Foreigners are normally attracted to work in a wealthy Arab country, but, as the answers to the questionnaire show, not these candidates. Their motives are most likely influenced by their religious fervour and zeal in understanding Islam and performing *da'wa*. It is believed that if the same question were addressed to the students of the Universities of King Saud (Riyadh) or King Fahad (Dhahran) the sequence of the motives would be different; or, it can be said that being in Saudi for more than two years made them aware that working there (or another wealthy country for that purpose) is not as easy as it looks. Indeed, the possibility of finding a job is very limited for applicants who are not qualified in certain disciplines such as medicine, engineering, computers, etc, whereas our candidates, qualified as they are in *da'wa* do not qualify generally for working in Saudi.

Social motives received relatively little attention in comparison to the religious and academic groups as was indicated in Table 7.3 above; the majority of the candidates considered social motives as either "fairly" or "not important". Two reasons for learning Arabic (nos. 8/1 and 8/10) were put to the students to grade in order of importance as shown in Table 7.3 above. The first motive was indicated by 60 candidates (IU), (41.09%), to be either very important or important. In fact, in spite of the fact that the majority score was graded "fairly" or "not important" such candidates came from societies that were encouraged to learn Arabic. To learn a foreign language (no. 8/10) was not considered as a "very important" motive. We did not ask for reasons as to why students do not consider learning a language as an enjoyment; one may infer, but mostly from the researcher's experience, that methods and approaches of teaching a foreign language in some countries are not updated, nor are they designed to fit the needs of the students concerned.

As expected, religious motives received a very considerable emphasis from the candidates. The proportion of those who considered religious motives both very

important and important was 94.83% of the total sample of the IU candidates and 100% of the total sample of the IMU candidates. This high frequency is a result of the Universities' ethos being Islamic-oriented. Another study made in 1985 by the Institute of Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language at Umm Al-Qura University showed similar results. The candidates of that study were drawn from all the TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia (al-Nāqa 1985:96).

There is a close relationship between the frequency in both statements (nos. 8/6 and 8/8) which gives credibility to the candidates' opinions about the importance of such motives to study Arabic as a Foreign Language. This result is also supported by the results of the initial field survey made by the present researcher in Chapter Three which explains why the *da<sup>ḥ</sup>wa* discipline was selected to be the target area for the current research.

Academic motives came in second position of importance because candidates came to Saudi to study Arabic as a Foreign Language in order to further their studies in a discipline of their desire at the University, as Table 7.3 points out. From the above table, 74.65% of the IU candidates and 85.19% of the IMU candidates indicated that studying at university is either very important or important, whereas the second motive (no. 8/7) attracted 50.68% of the IU candidates and 77.78% of the IMU candidates as either very important or important.

### **7.3:2 Attitudes towards past-TAFL programmes**

Candidates were asked about their past-TAFL programme as to whether it was satisfactory. The aim was to find out if that programme targeted the needs of the students which were to study at the Faculty of Da<sup>ḥ</sup>wa. We asked them what "uses" they would have liked to have focused on during their TAFL programme. By "uses" we mean utilities or activities that are necessary in the learning process. The question was put in order to find out what the learner wished to be qualified in but was not successful in in the past. Indeed the five mentioned "uses" (nos. 9/1 to 9/5 in table 7.4) that followed the question were presumed to be the most important components of the students' field of study and, it needs to be mentioned, that most of them had not been emphasised during the TAFL programme, on the other hand, it must be said that TAFL programmes are designed to drill students in the macro- (traditional) skills of listening and speaking primarily. Table 7.4 below represents the results of the question:

no.	uses	university	sam- ple size	extremely inadequate		inadequate		adequate	
				freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
9/1	academic writing	IU	146	86	58.90	40	27.39	20	13.69
		IMU	027	14	51.85	07	25.92	06	22.22
9/2	comprehensive reading of <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> literature	IU	146	102	69.86	31	21.23	13	08.90
		IMU	027	20	74.07	07	25.92	00	00.00
9/3	listening to lectures	IU	146	54	36.98	55	37.67	37	25.34
		IMU	027	13	48.15	07	25.92	07	25.92
9/4	conversing academically with the teachers	IU	146	48	32.87	57	39.04	41	28.08
		IMU	027	10	37.03	11	40.74	06	22.22
9/5	practising <i>khitāba</i>	IU	146	73	50.00	47	32.19	26	17.80
		IMU	027	14	51.85	09	33.33	04	14.81

Table 7.4: Attitudes towards the past-TAFL programmes

It is evident from the above that “comprehensive reading of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* materials” was not covered in the TAFL programme (69.86% for IU candidates and 74.07% for IMU candidates).

Inasmuch as the learner is exposed to a set of textbooks throughout the TAFL programme, in his studies at the Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculty, he is not subjected to any textbooks; some, admittedly, are required by the departments but in general the subject teachers are allowed to choose topics from a number of books and other references. Teachers use in lectures their background experience and refer to Classical and Modern Arabic sources. Students, on the other hand, are expected to read these sources and suggested material. In the process of their study students face newer vocabulary and learn to apply various strategies for different reading techniques to cope with complicated literary style (often flowery) different from that which they were used to on the TAFL programme. Students are required to discuss various schools of thought, concepts and religious sects in general. Furthermore, *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students need to acquire skills in extracting evidence or proof they need to apply to the principles of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* in different situations.

Going back to Table 7.4, we found that academic writing in the field of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* came in second position with 58.9% for the IU candidates and 51.85% for the IMU candidates. In fact teachers of the Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculty at the IMU complained about the weakness of the students in this skill. Academic writing does indeed require special training: students would need to employ several writing tools, such as grammatical accuracy, the correct use of terminology and interpretative and argumentative writing.

50% of the IU candidates and 51.85% of the IMU candidates considered the *khitāba* skill as extremely inadequate. In our opinion, however, this skill is important for *daʿwa* students studying in Saudi Arabia as they need to use Arabic to discuss academic matters as well as to deliver the Friday sermons in mosques and other activities, though it needs to be stressed that Arabic would be less used in their home countries for this purpose.

Hence, the above three uses (academic writing, comprehensive reading of *daʿwa* literature and practising *khitāba* [public speaking]) were considered by students as “extremely inadequate”. In other words, from the candidates' experience, TAFL programmes were not designed to meet their needs in the three mentioned uses. In addition, training in listening to lectures and conversing academically with teachers were reported lacking (see Table 7.4 above). Nonetheless, the crucial issue for our students was their disappointment in having not been trained for reading; the questionnaire shows clearly that the reading skill had not received the utmost attention during the TAFL programme, note (no. 9/2) 69.86% for IU and 74.07% for the IMU candidates. The lack of reading skill does not come to us as a surprise. In most TAFL programmes and indeed other Arabic courses, both in Arab and non-Arab countries, reading skill has been totally ignored as a result of their focus on the listening and speaking as the only required skills needed by learners of Arabic.

### 7.3:3 Attitudes towards TASP

Students were asked to say whether a course to improve the level of Arabic would be useful (Question no. 10) and to what extent they would be involved if such a course were set up by the Institute of Arabic or the Faculty of Daʿwa (Question no. 11). Tables 7.5 and 7.6 reveal their responses:

code	usefulness of TASP course	university	sample	frequency	%
10/1	very useful	IU	146	100	68.49
		IMU	27	17	62.96
10/2	useful	IU	146	44	30.14
		IMU	27	09	33.33
10/3	not useful	IU	146	02	01.37
		IMU	27	01	03.70

Table 7.5: The usefulness of TASP courses

The response of the candidates was very positive: the majority of the candidates supported the idea of having a further Arabic course to improve their proficiency level

and to integrate better in *da<sup>c</sup>wa* studies. Their concern about such a course is shown in Table 7.6 below:

code	concerns	university	sample	frequency	%
11/1	very much concerned	IU	146	122	83.56
		IMU	27	26	96.30
11/2	concerned	IU	146	22	15.07
		IMU	27	01	03.70
11/3	not concerned	IU	146	02	01.37
		IMU	27	00	00

Table 7.6: Concerned for TASP courses

#### 7.4 The learners' general needs

We mean by learners' needs in this context those wants on which the learners put a high priority in the obtainable time as well as skills, which they see as being relevant to their needs. Needs will be tackled in this section in three parts, first the current needs, second the future needs and third the needs that are expressed as a deficiency. We asked what were the students' wants from a course in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes; and, to assess the deficiency that they might have in spending a long time in practising the four traditional skills and some other micro-skills relevant to their area of study.

##### 7.4:1 The current wants

The question (no. 12) in this context was to determine the main want that students feel they have in order to improve their Arabic for day-to-day activities or *da<sup>c</sup>wa* studies, Table 7.7:

no.	uses	university	sample size	wanted		not wanted	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
12/1	in general daily life	IU	146	44	30.14	102	69.86
		IMU	027	09	33.33	18	66.67
12/2	in <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> study	IU	146	87	59.59	59	40.41
		IMU	027	18	66.67	09	33.33

Table 7.7: The candidates' current wants

In our original questionnaire candidates were given choices to scale from, "very much wanted", "wanted", "fairly wanted" and "not wanted": the idea was to help hesitant candidates to measure the importance of their wants; however, in analysing the results it was found that restricting the outcomes to two different scales would be more helpful and clearer. Therefore, we reset the scale to "wanted" (representing originally "very much wanted" and "wanted") and "not wanted" (formerly "fairly wanted" and "not wanted").



Patently, 59.59% of IU candidates and 66.67% of IMU candidates wanted Arabic for academic purposes. Arabic for day-to-day activities was generally not desired (69.86% IU and 66.67% IMU). Actually, after two years or more of studying Arabic on a general TAFL programme students, would have acquired the ability to get engaged in conversation with a reasonable amount of vocabulary; this is why only 44 out of 146 (IU) and 9 out of 27 (IMU) felt they needed Arabic for daily use.

#### 7.4:2 The future needs

Questions (nos. 13 and 14) concentrated on the future needs of the candidates, in other words, what kind of Arabic will be used after their graduation and which skills are most needed for their area of study and work, see Table 7.8 below:

no.	uses	university	sample size	important		not important		will never be used	
				freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
13/1	public speaking	IU	146	80	54.79	37	25.34	29	19.86
		IMU	027	13	48.15	13	48.15	01	03.70
13/2	reading	IU	146	142	97.26	04	02.74	00	00
		IMU	027	27	100	00	00	00	00

Table 7.8: The candidates' future needs

It is evident that reading Arabic sources has the greatest response of "important" (97.26% IU and 100% IMU). Candidates, of course, need to read Islamic texts in Arabic though they would use their mother tongue in public speaking in their own countries.

Candidates were also asked to re-prioritise the four traditional (macro-) skills according to their study requirements (Question no. 14), Table 7.9:

no.	macro-skills	university	sample size	1		2		3		4	
				freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
14/1	listening	IU	146							44	30.14
		IMU	027							05	18.52
14/2	reading	IU	146	101	69.18						
		IMU	027	13	48.15						
14/3	speaking	IU	146					76	52.05		
		IMU	027					14	51.85		
14/4	writing	IU	146			71	48.63				
		IMU	027			13	48.15				

Table 7.9: Re-prioritising the traditional skills

Reading was ordered as the first skill in importance (69.18% IU and 48.15% IMU) then came writing (48.63% IU and 48.15% IMU) followed by speaking (52.05% IU and 51.85% IMU) and listening (30.14% IU and 18.52% IMU). This sequence is to some extent appropriate to the students' requirements at this stage of their study.

### 7.4:3 The Deficiency

Questions (nos. 15 and 16) dealt with the time spent on practising the four traditional (macro-) skills and specific activities that are relevant to these skills and to the students' field of study. It needs to be mentioned here that students enrolled in TAFL and Da'wa Studies in IU and IMU are scheduled to attend lectures from 07.30 to 13.30 hours (six hours in all), Saturdays to Wednesdays (Thursday and Friday being the Saudi weekend). In principal, students have up to five hours maximum of independent study; only a few achieve this. Students after lectures take their lunch at 13.30 hours followed by a siesta. They would perform their *ḥaṣr* prayers between 15.30 and 16.30 hours (depending the season) after which they spend time at the leisure centres up to the *maghrib* prayers, usually one to two hours after *ḥaṣr*. Following the *maghrib* prayers they would have their dinner and soon after they would go for the *ḥishā* prayers. Study time usually takes place between 20.30 hours to midnight. It is normal for any average student in Saudi to spend one to two hours daily on assignments and revision (Table 7.10 below) and therefore any time ticked in the grid between less than one to two hours is acceptable; on the other hand, it was surprising to find that some students, 18.49% of IU and 14.15% of IMU, would spend, for example, on reading from five to six hours daily on various study activities.

no.	macro-skills	university	samples size	less than one hour		1- 2 hours		3-4 hours		5-6 hours		more	
				freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
15/1	listening	IU	146	55	37.67	62	42.47	19	13.01	07	04.79	03	02.54
		IMU	027	04	14.15	12	44.44	05	18.52	06	22.22	00	00
15/2	speaking	IU	146	69	47.26	51	34.93	22	15.07	08	05.48	05	03.42
		IMU	027	08	29.63	08	29.63	05	18.52	03	11.11	03	11.11
15/3	reading	IU	146	08	05.48	33	22.60	64	43.83	27	18.49	14	09.59
		IMU	027	02	07.41	07	25.93	14	51.85	04	14.15	00	00
15/4	writing	IU	146	55	37.67	55	37.67	26	17.81	07	04.79	03	02.54
		IMU	027	05	18.52	19	70.37	02	07.41	00	00	01	0370

Table 7.10: Time spent on practising the traditional (macro-) skills

If we totalled the number of students involved from three to six hours on reading we find that there are 62.32% for the IU and 66.67% for the IMU. Students from both universities agreed that reading for them is slow and takes the longest time compared with other macro-skills. The average time spent on listening and writing skills was between one to two hours; it was interesting to find out that IMU students (70.37%) spend this amount of time for writing though less so with IU students (37.67%).

We then wanted to establish the time spent on the strategies (otherwise called micro-skills) as listed in Table 7.11a for the Islamic University and 7.11b for the Imam University. Students were asked to order numerically their ability in the micro-skills. The ordering implied the length of time taken for each micro-skill or strategy though we did not ask the students to quantify the length of time; in this case the numerical order of 1, 2, 3 etc. means that number 1 is understood to be the lengthiest time spent on one particular micro-skill and number 10 is the shortest time.

IU

total number is 146											
code	micro- skills	ordering numerically according to time spent on each micro-skill									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16/1	listening to recorded sermons					123					
16/2	public speaking and preaching						122				
16/3	ordering the information you have read				124						
16/4	distinguishing between facts and views in text			126							
16/5	summarising what you have read									115	
16/6	storing information							121			
16/7	linking ideas during reading								116		
16/8	understanding new vocabulary during reading.		132								
16/9	reading <i>da'wa</i> materials	139									
16/10	writing a <i>khutba</i>										113

Table 7.11a: Ordering micro-skills according to the time spent on each micro-skills (IU)

IMU

total number is 27											
code	micro- skills	ordering numerically according to time spent on each micro-skill									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16/1	listening to recorded sermons					20					
16/2	public speaking and preaching								15		
16/3	ordering the information you have read				22						
16/4	distinguishing between facts and views in text			23							
16/5	summarising what you have read.							17			
16/6	storing information						18				
16/7	linking ideas during reading										12
16/8	understanding new vocabulary during reading		25								
16/9	reading <i>da'wa</i> materials	27									
16/10	writing a <i>khutba</i>									14	

Table 7.11b: Ordering micro-skills according to the time spent on each micro-skill (IMU)

If we look at the IU and IMU (Tables 7.11a and 7.11b) we would find that “reading *da'wa* materials” (no. 16/9) was placed by students as number one which we understand that a considerable amount of time was spent on this item. “Understanding new vocabulary during reading” (no. 16/8) came next; this, of course, is very crucial and time consuming if not handled properly. It does suggest that there is a serious deficiency in the students' level of vocabulary. Also of concern is the students' ability to distinguish between facts and views in their reading (no. 16/4) which was placed number three; this is unquestionably a serious weakness and certainly hinders the students' progress in the study of *da'wa* and probably later after their graduation. The fourth position was given to the strategy on “ordering the information” after the text is read (no. 16/3), which explains another deficiency in the reading macro-skill of both universities. It was surprising to see that “writing a *khutba* (sermon)” (no. 16/10) required the least time (position 9 for IMU and 10 for IU), but this is probably because students write their *khutbas* in note form, much of which is memorised from their reading material or listening to some known preachers around the country.

### **7.5 Specific needs**

By specific needs we mean the micro-skills that are most important for the students during their study and after graduation: twenty-six micro-skills were listed in the questionnaire (nos. 17 to 42); these constitute, in fact, the core of the questionnaire. We carefully selected the micro-skills to meet the requirements needed in the students' area of study, such skills falling under the umbrella of the macro-skills relating to reading, writing, speaking and listening. The vocabulary as well was covered as the core for the four main traditional macro-skills.

The results of this section are assessed in the following stages:

- i) the necessity of the micro-skills;
- ii) the candidates' competence;
- iii) the discrepancies between the importance and the competence of such skills, which we considered as a lack in the students' level.

#### **7.5:1 The necessities**

We listed 26 micro-skills and strategies related to the four traditional (macro-) skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. We have distributed 11 micro-skills and strategies for reading (see Table 7.13), 5 for writing (see Table 7.14), 5 for listening (see

Table 7.15) and 3 for speaking (see Table 7.16). With these traditional micro-skills we added "Vocabulary" as we believe that none of the skills can operate without the proper use of vocabulary (see Table 7.17). Tables 7.12a and 7.12b give an overview of the "necessity" of the micro-skills and strategies listed:

**Islamic University**

total number is 146									
code	micro-skills and strategies	very important		important		fairly important		not important	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	90	61.64	34	23.29	15	10.27	7	4.80
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	106	72.60	25	17.12	10	6.85	5	3.42
19	reading a text to extract specific information	73	50	41	28.08	25	17.12	7	4.40
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	82	56.16	40	27.40	18	12.33	6	4.11
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	60	41.10	38	26.03	29	19.86	19	13.01
22	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology	77	52.74	42	28.77	23	15.75	4	2.74
23	reading to discuss ideas	84	57.53	33	22.60	18	12.33	11	7.34
24	reading in depth to understand the message	87	59.58	42	28.77	10	6.85	7	4.40
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	102	69.86	33	22.60	9	6.16	2	1.37
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	71	48.63	47	32.19	28	19.18		
27	reading to pass examination only	62	42.47	18	12.33	26	17.80	40	27.40
28	summarising the main points from a written text	50	34.25	45	30.82	28	19.18	23	15.17
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	50	34.25	53	36.30	24	16.44	19	13.01
30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	58	39.73	50	34.25	29	19.86	9	6.16
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	56	38.36	59	40.41	22	15.07	9	6.16
32	writing answers to examination questions	62	42.47	51	34.93	24	16.44	9	6.16
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing in the area of your specialism	86	58.90	33	22.60	21	14.38	6	4.11
34	understanding someone talking to you	74	50.69	42	28.77	26	17.80	4	2.74
35	extracting information from radio and television	26	17.80	46	31.51	62	42.47	12	8.22
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points	70	47.95	45	30.82	23	15.75	8	5.48
37	understanding and following a conversation in class	51	34.93	50	34.25	27	18.49	18	12.33
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture	70	47.95	48	32.87	24	16.44	4	2.74
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	59	40.41	60	41.10	24	16.44	3	2.05
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	58	39.73	52	35.61	22	15.07	14	9.59
41	expressing and defending your point of view in your area of specialism	62	42.47	50	34.25	29	19.86	5	3.42
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	75	51.37	38	26.02	27	18.49	6	4.11

Table 7.12a: Necessity of the learners' needs (IU)

Imam University

total number is 27									
code	micro-skills and strategies	very important		important		fairly important		not important	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	19	70.37	6	22.22	2	7.41		
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	18	66.67	6	22.22	3	11.11		
19	reading a text to extract specific information	9	33.33	9	33.33	9	33.33		
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	13	48.14	7	25.93	7	25.93		
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	19	70.37	6	22.22	2	7.41		
22	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology	18	66.67	6	22.22	3	11.11		
23	reading to discuss ideas	18	66.67	9	33.33				
24	reading in depth to understand the message	17	62.96	5	18.52	5	18.52		
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	16	59.26	8	29.63	3	11.11		
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	15	55.56	12	44.44				
27	reading to pass examination only	11	40.74	3	11.11	13	48.14		
28	summarising the main points from a written text	11	40.74	11	40.74	2	7.41	3	11.11
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	9	33.33	9	33.33	7	25.93	2	7.41
30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	14	51.85	8	29.63	5	18.52		
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	12	44.44	10	37.04	1	3.70	4	14.82
32	writing answers to examination questions	18	66.67	4	14.82			5	18.52
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing in the area of your specialism	19	70.37	7	25.93	1	3.70		
34	understanding someone talking to you	12	44.44	5	18.52	2	7.41	8	29.63
35	extracting information from radio and television	9	33.33	8	29.63	10	37.04		
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points	9	33.33	2	7.41	5	18.52	11	40.74
37	understanding and following a conversation in class	17	62.96	8	29.63	2	7.41		
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture	9	33.33	8	29.63		10	37.04	
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	14	51.85	10	37.04	3	11.11		
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	19	70.37	2	7.41		6	22.22	
41	expressing and defending your point of view in your area of specialism	10	37.04	9	33.33	8	29.63		
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	15	55.56	7	25.93	5	18.52		

Table 7.12b: Necessity of the learners' needs (IMU)

The two tables above present an overview of the “necessity” (i.e the learners' needs) under four scales. We will now focus on each of the five areas covered above (i.e reading [nos. 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, and 42], writing [nos. 28, 29, 31, 32

and 33], listening [nos. 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38], speaking [nos. 39, 40 and 41] and vocabulary [nos. 22 and 30]). Before discussing these five areas in detail we find it better to draw the following Figures (nine and ten) highlighting the necessity of each area to the students' study. Establishing Figure Nine required us to take the total frequency figure of each area and divide it by the number of micro-skills related to the area concerned (corresponding with figures noted in Tables 7.12a and 7.12b above):

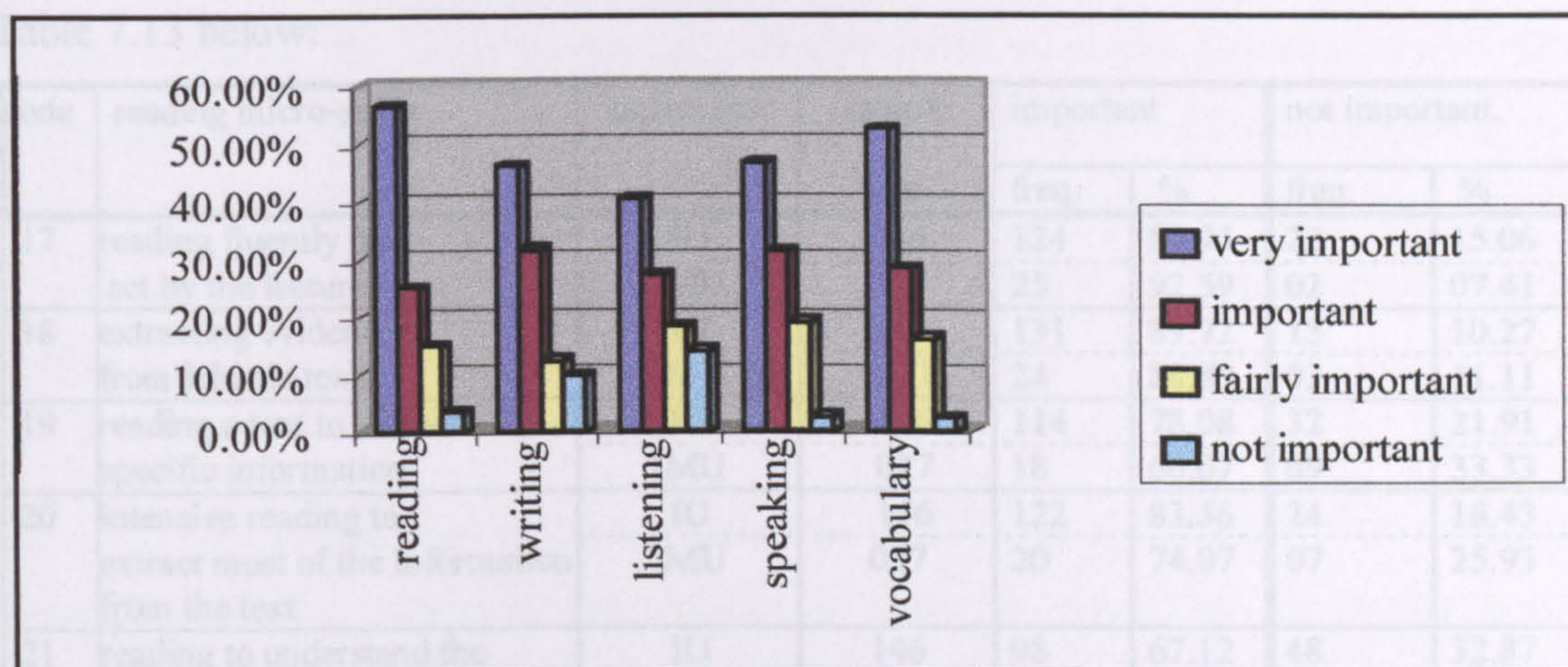


Figure Nine: Necessity of the five areas to the students' study

To simplify the results of the above graph we divided the order of importance of these areas into two categories: "important" (which includes "very important" and "important") and "not important" (which represents "fairly important" and "not important"), Figure Ten below:

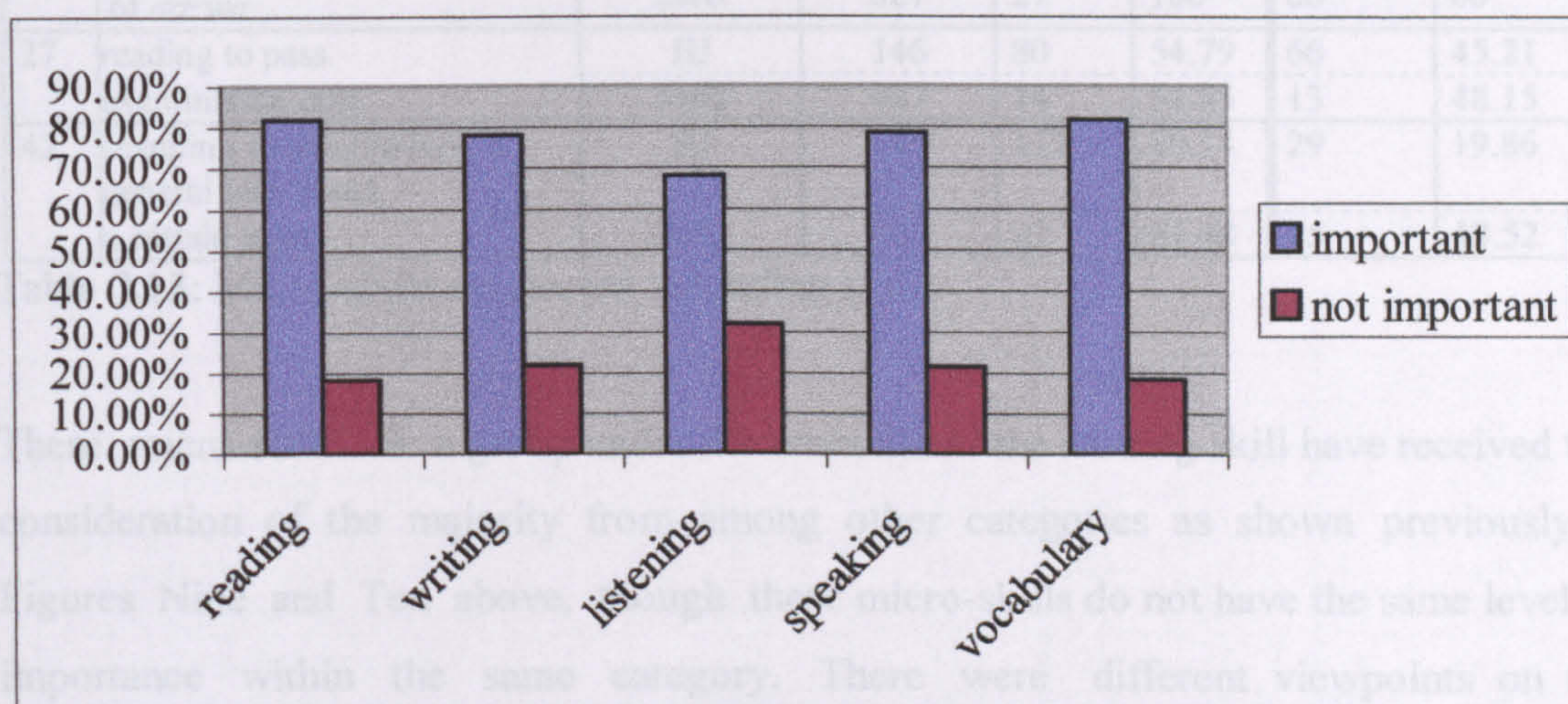


Figure Ten: Re-ordering the necessity of the learners' needs

We need, before any further interpretation, to break down the five areas in Tables 7.12a and 7.12b into their relevant micro-skills or strategies. It is important to simplify the framework of presenting these micro-skills in terms of reducing the number of variables

involved in the measuring scale used in the questionnaire. We therefore divided the original scaling into two categories: (a) “important” to include “very important” and “important”, (b) “not important” representing “fairly important” and “not important”.

### I. Micro-skills and strategies connected to the academic reading

The importance of each micro-skill in this category will be figured individually in the Table 7.13 below:

code	reading micro-skills	university	sample size	important		not important.	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	IU	146	124	84.93	22	15.06
		IMU	027	25	92.59	02	07.41
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	IU	146	131	89.72	15	10.27
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
19	reading a text to extract specific information	IU	146	114	78.08	32	21.91
		IMU	027	18	66.67	09	33.33
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	IU	146	122	83.56	24	16.43
		IMU	027	20	74.07	07	25.93
21	reading to understand the writer's points of view on a controversial issue	IU	146	98	67.12	48	32.87
		IMU	027	25	92.59	02	07.41
23	reading to discuss ideas	IU	146	117	80.13	29	19.86
		IMU	027	27	100	00	00
24	reading in depth to understand the message	IU	146	129	88.35	17	11.64
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	IU	146	135	92.46	11	07.53
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	118	80.82	28	19.17
		IMU	027	27	100	00	00
27	reading to pass examination only	IU	146	80	54.79	66	45.21
		IMU	027	14	51.85	13	48.15
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	IU	146	117	80.14	29	19.86
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52

Table 7.13: Micro-skills connected to reading skill

These micro-skills as a group under the umbrella of the reading skill have received the consideration of the majority from among other categories as shown previously in Figures Nine and Ten above, though these micro-skills do not have the same level of importance within the same category. There were different viewpoints on the importance of each micro-skill expressed among the candidates in both universities; however, all the micro-skills in this category were considered highly as important to their study. They received between 100% and 51.85% of the candidates' attention.



In short, reading and its relevant micro-skills came in first place. The best way forward for the students of *da'wa* to improve their knowledge of Islam is to read religious texts of all kinds, in particular the Qur'ān, *ḥadīth* and other genres of religious literature. The researcher calculated that there were ten textbooks on the reading list for the first level students of *da'wa* at the Islamic University and about sixty three items which students need to refer to as secondary sources. All these books are written in Classical Arabic, the style which is different from what the students are normally acquainted with. Moreover, students need to be qualified in several reading strategies in order to cope with juridical texts. They need to deduce evidence and rules from the texts as well as to recognise the different views on controversial issues related to social matters and business transactions for instance.

In conclusion, the training of *da'wa* candidates is based, to a considerable degree, on reading strategies and techniques. Their future tasks are not similar to those in other jobs such as teachers, or other professions; they are looked on as people who understand Islam correctly and can deliver the message clearly and intelligently.

## II. Micro-skills related to the writing skill

Writing is another important skill to any student irrespective of his/her field of study. Although writing essays is not popular in the Saudi Educational System, students of *da'wa* need primarily writing skills to write answers in examination situations as well as answering questions in short essay form.

In this context, five micro-skills (see Table 7.14) were given to the candidates who were asked to assess their importance to *da'wa*. The results are expressed below:

code	micro-skills	university	sample size	important		not important	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
28	summarising the main points from a written text	IU	146	95	65.07	51	34.93
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	IU	146	103	70.55	43	29.45
		IMU	027	18	66.67	09	33.33
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	115	78.77	31	21.23
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
32	writing answers to examination questions	IU	146	113	77.40	33	22.60
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing	IU	146	119	81.51	27	18.49
		IMU	027	26	96.30	01	03.70

Table 7.14: Micro-skills connected to writing skill

Using grammar correctly in academic writing recorded the highest importance, 96.30% (IMU) and 81.51% (IU). All other micro-skills received more than 65%, which reflects the importance attached to these strategies.

What is perhaps a bit surprising is that the ability of writing examination answers (no. 32) received the attention of 77.40% of the IU and 81.48% of the IMU candidates, whereas it was expected to receive 100%, being so crucial to the students' pass or failure in their course modules. There is, however, a concern about some students who take written exams rather less seriously than is expected because in the past we experienced some students whose knowledge of *da'wa* and Islam was poor and who relied on notes taken by their peers during the year which they memorised two weeks before the examinations and managed to pass their examinations. This suggests that a lot of the courses in the faculties are fixed to examine learning from memory rather than using thinking skills.

### III. Micro-skills related to the listening skill

Unquestionably, the listening skill is fundamental to any one who wishes to learn a foreign language. Although we are dealing here with candidates who have already completed the TAFL programmes they still need it in their study of *da'wa* in order to follow lectures tailored to a higher academic level, to listen to audio-cassettes and other Islamic discourse activities. Attitudes to the listening micro-skills are shown in Table 7.15 below:

code	micro-skills	university	sample size	important		not important	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
34	understanding someone talking to you	IU	146	116	79.45	30	20.55
		IMU	027	17	62.96	10	37.04
35	extracting information from radio and television	IU	146	72	49.32	74	50.78
		IMU	027	17	62.96	10	37.04
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points	IU	146	115	78.77	31	21.23
		IMU	027	11	40.74	16	59.26
37	understanding and following a conversation in class	IU	146	101	69.18	45	30.82
		IMU	027	25	92.59	02	07.41
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture	IU	146	118	80.82	28	19.18
		IMU	027	16	59.26	10	37.04

Table 7.15: Micro-skills related to listening skill

The ability to understand the main topics of a lecture (no. 38) was considered vital to 80.82% of the IU candidates whereas for the IMU candidates understanding and following a discussion in class was rated top priority (92.59%). Other micro-skills

ranged between 79.45% and 40.74% in importance. What we need to highlight here is the ability to extract information from radio and television which was given low priority by IU 49.32% and the IMU candidates 62.96%, the result of which, in our case, reflects the candidates' environment. This is due to the strict surveillance of universities like the Islamic University which do not allow television or video in student residences though radio is permitted if students listen to the reciting of the Qur'an. However, students are given opportunities at the IMU campus to watch male sports and news, but any music programmes or programmes involving women are prohibited.

#### IV. Micro-skills related to the speaking skill

The art of expressing oneself coherently and generally speaking intelligently in Arabic is one of the most important skills that students of *da'wa* should acquire. Not only is it crucial during the term the student is studying in Saudi Arabia to know how to use Arabic correctly and academically but as a transferable skill he would need to apply this skill in the future if he were to attend conferences conducted in Arabic. The result of this group of micro-skills are presented below:

code	micro-skills	univ ersity	sample size	important		not important	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	119	81.51	27	18.49
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	110	75.34	36	24.66
		IMU	027	21	77.78	06	22.22
41	expressing and defending your point of view in your area of specialism	IU	146	112	76.71	34	23.29
		IMU	027	19	70.37	08	29.63

Table 7.16: Micro-skills related to speaking skill

As shown above, 81.51% of the IU and 88.89% of the IMU candidates consider discussing topics and presenting arguments in the field of *da'wa* (no. 39) as essential. To some extent this is true because teachers are the first verbal source for their students: several teachers have a very rich experience in this field through which they attract students to fruitful discussion.

#### V. The vocabulary

The nature of the specialised terminology in the field of *da'wa* requires memorisation and a lot of practice. Teachers of *da'wa* at the Islamic University in Al-Madina complained about the lack of vocabulary that their students manage to memorise and

use during the academic year. The researcher was told by the Dean of the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa at the Islamic University that teachers in general face difficulties with students that graduate in TAFL: the vocabulary output is generally not good let alone one in a specialised vocabulary such as *da<sup>c</sup>wa*: it severely obstructs progress, at least in the first year of their study. Remedial (evening) classes were organised to remedy the situation.

In the following, Table 7.17, we see that understanding *da<sup>c</sup>wa* terminology (no.22) is for 81.51% of the IU and 88.89% of the IMU students fundamental and correct usage of such terminology in writing was important for 73.97% of the IU and for 81.48% of the IMU.

code	abilities	university	sample size	important		not important	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
22	understanding <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> terminology	IU	146	119	81.51	27	18.49
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
30	correct usage of <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> terminology when writing	IU	146	108	73.97	38	26.03
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52

Table 7.17: Strategies related to vocabulary

### 7.5:1:1 Summary

In Table 7.18 below we find that the micro-skills students considered as most important in the field of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* are relating to: a) reading skill (81.82%), they mainly stressed scanning material, understanding the author's main views, information on the context, extracting evidence, consolidating ideas by re-reading texts; b) vocabulary (100%), understanding and using the correct terminology; c) speaking (66.67%), engaging in discussions and delivering a speech; and, d) writing (60%), using grammar correctly when writing essays and examination answers.

code	the most important micro- skills	univ ersity	sample size	important		not important	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	IU	146	124	84.93	22	15.06
		IMU	027	25	92.59	02	07.41
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	IU	146	131	89.72	15	10.27
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	IU	146	122	83.56	24	16.43
		IMU	027	20	74.07	07	25.93
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	IU	146	98	67.12	48	32.87
		IMU	027	25	92.59	02	07.41
22	understanding <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> terminology	IU	146	119	81.51	27	18.49
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
23	reading to discuss ideas	IU	146	117	80.13	29	19.86
		IMU	027	27	100	00	00
24	reading in depth to	IU	146	129	88.35	17	11.64

	understand the message	IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	IU	146	135	92.46	11	07.53
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	118	80.82	28	19.17
		IMU	027	27	100	00	00
30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	IU	146	108	73.97	38	26.03
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	115	78.77	31	21.23
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
32	writing answers to examination questions	IU	146	113	77.40	33	22.60
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing	IU	146	119	81.51	27	18.49
		IMU	027	26	96.30	01	03.70
37	understanding and following a conversation in class	IU	146	101	69.18	45	30.82
		IMU	027	25	92.59	02	07.41
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	119	81.51	27	18.49
		IMU	027	24	88.89	03	11.11
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	110	75.34	36	24.66
		IMU	027	21	77.78	06	22.22
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	IU	146	117	80.14	29	19.86
		IMU	027	22	81.48	05	18.52

Table 7.18: The most important micro-skills required by *da'wa* specialism

### 7.5:2 Competence of the candidates in the above necessities

The necessity of the above micro-skills (see Tables 7.13 to 7.17) is not an adequate justification for either considering or ignoring them in a course for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes. In designing such a course it would be important to know whether the candidates' competence needs to be improved or whether it is sufficient already. Consequently, the aim now is to assess the competence of candidates in the micro-skills discussed above.

To a considerable extent, micro-skills related to reading and vocabulary have been pointed out to be as important; hence, we will see how students perform with such micro-skills. The competence here is going to be expressed in terms of whether the candidates are satisfied or not about their level of competence in various micro-skills and strategies. Tables 7.19a and 7.19b give an overview of the competence level of the students in the micro-skills and strategies that were mentioned in Tables 7.13 to 7.17 above.

Islamic University, total number is 146							
code	micro-skills and strategies	satisfactory		fairly satisfactory		not satisfactory	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	37	25.34	41	28.08	68	46.58
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	25	17.12	44	30.14	77	52.74

19	reading a text to extract specific information	19	13.01	47	32.19	80	54.80
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	23	15.75	42	28.77	81	55.50
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	17	11.64	33	22.60	96	65.75
22	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology	33	22.60	53	36.30	60	41.10
23	reading to discuss ideas	22	15.07	36	24.68	88	60.27
24	reading in depth to understand the message	20	13.70	42	28.77	84	57.53
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	55	37.67	50	34.25	41	28.08
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	35	23.97	49	33.56	62	42.47
27	reading to pass examination only	37	25.34	30	20.55	79	54.10
28	summarising the main points from a written text	54	36.99	57	39.04	35	23.97
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	46	31.51	59	40.41	41	28.08
30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	27	18.49	50	34.25	69	47.26
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	45	30.82	52	35.62	49	33.56
32	writing answers to examination questions	37	25.34	68	46.58	41	28.08
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing in the area of your specialism	36	24.68	62	42.47	48	32.88
34	understanding someone talking to you	74	50.68	44	30.14	28	19.18
35	extracting information from radio and television	58	39.72	48	32.88	40	27.40
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points	57	39.04	49	33.56	40	27.40
37	understanding and following a conversation in class	71	48.63	45	30.82	30	20.54
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture	59	40.41	53	36.30	34	23.29
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	60	41.10	48	32.88	38	26.03
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	56	38.36	47	32.19	43	29.45
41	expressing and defending your point of view in your area of specialism	60	41.10	61	41.78	25	17.12
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	27	18.49	45	30.82	74	50.69

Table 7.19a: Candidates' competence in the needed micro-skills (IU)

Imam University, total number is 27							
code	micro-skills and strategies	satisfactory		fairly satisfactory		not satisfactory	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	5	18.52	8	29.63	14	51.85
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	3	11.11	9	33.33	15	55.56
19	reading a text to extract specific information	8	29.63	2	4.41	17	62.96
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	9	33.33	3	11.11	15	55.56
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	7	25.93	4	14.82	16	59.26
22	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology	5	18.52	4	14.82	18	66.67
23	reading to discuss ideas	8	29.63	6	22.22	13	48.14
24	reading in depth to understand the message	5	18.52	5	18.52	17	62.96
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	13	48.14	4	14.82	10	37.04
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	3	11.11	15	55.56	9	33.33
27	reading to pass examination only	3	11.11	14	51.85	10	37.04
28	summarising main points from a written text	6	22.22	18	66.67	3	11.11
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	3	11.11	19	70.37	5	18.52

30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	7	25.93	8	29.63	12	44.44
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	9	33.33	9	33.33	9	33.33
32	writing answers to examination questions	6	22.22	9	33.33	12	44.44
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing in the area of your specialism	0	0	9	33.33	18	66.67
34	understanding someone talking to you	7	25.93	16	59.26	4	14.82
35	extracting information from radio and television	4	14.82	15	55.56	8	29.63
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points	9	33.33	12	44.44	6	22.22
37	understanding and following a conversation in class	5	18.52	18	66.67	4	14.82
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture	16	59.26	8	29.63	3	11.11
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	9	33.33	13	48.14	5	18.52
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	3	11.11	11	40.74	13	48.14
41	expressing and defending your point of view in your area of specialism	6	22.22	18	66.67	3	11.11
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	6	22.22	4	14.82	17	62.96

Table 7.19b: Candidates' competence in the needed micro-skills (IMU)

From Tables 7.19a and 7.19b we can observe that the majority of the students of both universities were not happy with their reading skill while for the writing, listening and speaking macro-skills students expressed satisfaction. As for the vocabulary, in general an average of 50% was unhappy.

In order to understand the overall picture of the competence of the students in the five areas mentioned above we present the following figure:

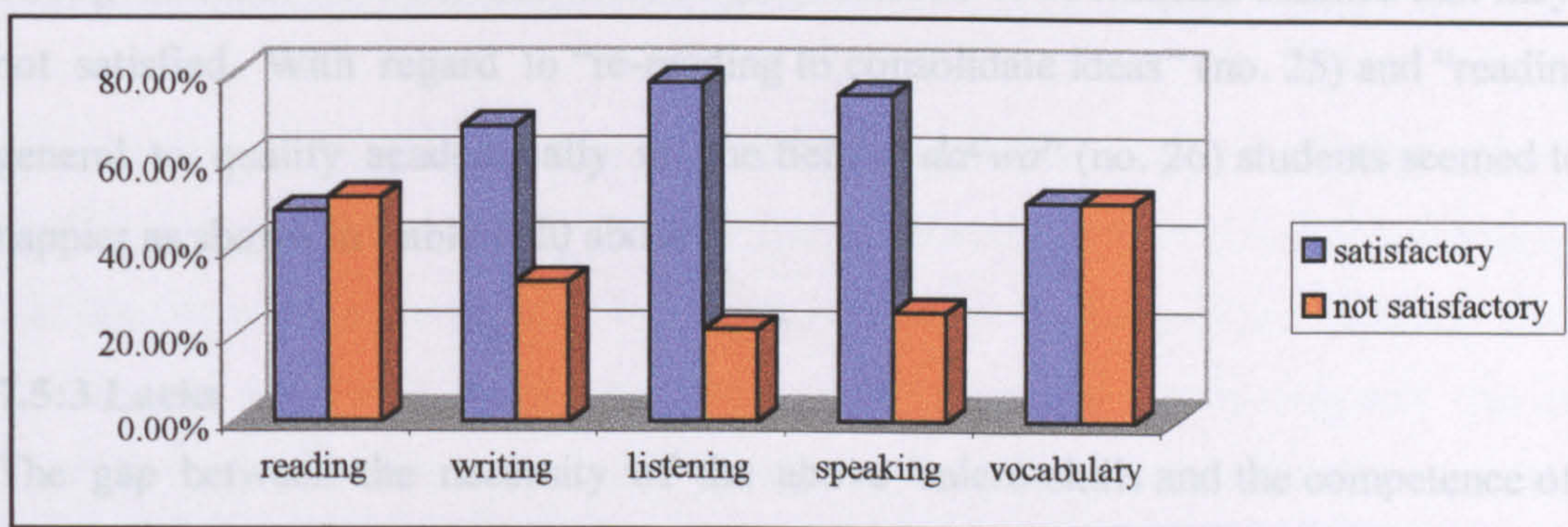


Figure Eleven: Candidates competence in the five concerned areas

Taking the reading macro-skill separately we examined in some detail strategies or micro-skills related to it (Table 7.20); we did this in order to establish a pattern to show which of the micro-skills is considered satisfactory or not.

code	reading micro-skills	university	sample size	satisfactory		not satisfactory	
				freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	IU	146	78	53.42	68	46.58
		IMU	027	13	48.15	14	51.85
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	IU	146	69	47.26	77	52.74
		IMU	027	12	44.44	15	55.56
19	reading a text to extract specific information	IU	146	66	45.21	80	54.79
		IMU	027	10	37.04	17	62.96
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	IU	146	65	44.52	81	55.49
		IMU	027	12	44.44	15	55.56
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	IU	146	50	34.25	96	65.75
		IMU	027	11	40.74	16	59.26
23	reading to discuss ideas	IU	146	58	39.73	88	60.79
		IMU	027	14	51.85	13	48.15
24	reading in depth to understand the message	IU	146	62	42.47	84	57.53
		IMU	027	10	37.04	17	62.96
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	IU	146	105	71.92	41	28.08
		IMU	027	17	62.96	10	37.04
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	84	57.53	62	42.47
		IMU	027	18	66.67	9	33.33
27	reading to pass examination only	IU	146	67	45.89	79	54.11
		IMU	027	17	62.96	10	37.04
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	IU	146	72	49.32	74	50.68
		IMU	027	10	37.04	17	62.96

Table 7.20: The competence in reading micro-skills

In all the above micro-skills (nos. 17-21, 23-24, 27 and 42) there is definitely concern among students of both universities: more than 50 % of students claimed that they are not satisfied. With regard to “re-reading to consolidate ideas” (no. 25) and “reading in general to qualify academically in the field of *da'wa*” (no. 26) students seemed to be happier as shown in Table 7.20 above.

### 7.5:3 Lacks

The gap between the necessity of the above micro-skills and the competence of the candidates in such micro-skills is interpreted as a lack in the candidates' proficiency level in Arabic. This lack should be diagnosed in order to enable the designer to establish the needs of the students clearly and prepare the appropriate remedy to improve the proficiency level of the students in Arabic relevant to their study.

Below, we compare those micro-skills considered necessary (Table 7.18 above) by the candidates with their competence in them (see Figure Eleven above). The focus



here is on the “not satisfactory” level in comparison with those that are “important” as we need to determine what the lacks are.

**I. Micro-skills related to the academic reading**

code	reading micro-skills	university	sample	important		not satisfactory	
			size	freq.	%	freq.	%
17	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	IU	146	124	84.93	68	46.58
		IMU	027	25	92.59	14	51.85
18	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	IU	146	131	89.72	77	52.74
		IMU	027	24	88.89	15	55.56
19	reading a text to extract specific information	IU	146	114	78.08	80	54.79
		IMU	027	18	66.67	17	62.96
20	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	IU	146	122	83.56	81	55.49
		IMU	027	20	74.07	15	55.56
21	reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue	IU	146	98	67.12	96	65.75
		IMU	027	25	92.59	16	59.26
23	reading to discuss ideas	IU	146	117	80.13	88	60.79
		IMU	027	27	100	13	48.15
24	reading in depth to understand the message	IU	146	129	88.35	84	57.53
		IMU	027	22	81.48	17	62.96
25	re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind	IU	146	135	92.46	41	28.08
		IMU	027	24	88.89	10	37.04
26	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	IU	146	118	80.82	62	42.47
		IMU	027	27	100	9	33.33
27	reading to pass examination only	IU	146	80	54.79	79	54.11
		IMU	027	14	51.85	10	37.04
42	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	IU	146	113	77.39	74	50.68
		IMU	027	22	81.48	17	62.96

Table 7.21: The lack in reading micro-skills

The above table reveals an interesting comparison: we noted that the micro-skill of “re-reading to consolidate ideas” (no. 25) was indicated not satisfactory for an average of 32.56% from both universities which means that the majority of the students (67.44%) are happy with their proficiency level. The researcher totally supports this result because reading several times a text may not be considered a proficiency as such; it is simply exercises the memory, a technique so popular in Saudi. Of course we do not include the Qur'an and *hadith*, verses or lines which need to be memorised in the field of *da'wa*. As for the micro-skill of “reading to pass examination” (no. 27) an average of less than 50% of the students of IU and IMU thought it was not good.

In short, all the micro-skills connected to the reading skill were considered essential and 50% and more pointed out that they are not satisfied with their proficiency level in nine of these micro-skills (i.e. 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 26 and 42, Table 7.21

above). Hence, one of the primary results of the main field study indicates that the reading skill should be taken more seriously in particular with an area of study such as that of *da'wa*; this concern will be taken into account on designing a TAAP course in Chapter Ten.

## II. Micro-skills related to academic writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary

Although some micro-skills related to writing and speaking were considered necessary in the study of *da'wa* (Table 7.18), more than 50% of the students of both universities are content with their level of proficiency (see Tables 7.22a and 7.22b below); that means students are able to perform progressively in these macro-skills. As for vocabulary, it was found, to some extent, to be an area of difficulty even though the candidates who form slightly more than 50% showed satisfaction. More details are listed in the table below:

### Islamic University

total number is 146						
code	micro-skills	macro-skills and vocabulary	important		not satisfactory	
			freq.	%	freq.	%
		<b>writing</b>				
28	summarising the main points from a written text		95	65.06	35	23.97
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates		103	70.54	41	28.08
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>		115	78.76	49	33.56
32	writing answers to examination questions		113	77.39	41	23.97
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing		119	81.50	48	32.88
		<b>listening</b>				
34	understanding someone talking to you		116	79.44	28	19.18
35	extracting information from radio and television		72	49.30	40	27.40
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points		115	78.76	40	27.40
37	understanding and following a conversation in class		101	69.17	30	20.55
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture		118	80.82	34	23.29
		<b>speaking</b>				
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>		119	81.50	38	26.03
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>		110	75.33	43	29.45
41	your point of view in your area of specialism		112	76.71	25	17.12

		<b>vocabulary</b>				
22	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology		119	81.50	60	41.10
30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing		108	73.96	69	47.26

Table 7.22a: Lacks in writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary (IU)

**Imam University**

total number is 27						
code	micro-skills	macro-skills and vocabulary	important		not satisfactory	
			freq.	%	freq.	%
		<b>writing</b>				
28	summarising the main points from a written text		22	81.48	03	11.11
29	summarising lectures, discussions and debates		18	66.67	05	18.52
31	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>		22	81.48	09	33.33
32	writing answers to examination questions		22	81.48	12	44.44
33	using grammar correctly in academic writing		26	96.30	18	66.67
		<b>listening</b>				
34	understanding someone talking to you		17	62.96	04	14.81
35	extracting information from radio and television		17	62.96	08	29.63
36	understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points		11	40.74	06	22.22
37	understanding and following a conversation in classes		25	92.59	04	14.81
38	understanding the main topics of a lecture		16	59.26	03	11.11
		<b>speaking</b>				
39	your ability to argue in the field of <i>da'wa</i>		24	88.89	05	18.52
40	delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>		21	77.78	13	48.15
41	your point of view in your area of specialism		19	70.37	03	11.11
		<b>vocabulary</b>				
22	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology		24	88.89	18	66.67
30	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing		22	81.48	12	44.44

Table 7.22b: Lacks in writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary (IMU)

From the above discussion we note that there is a gap between micro-skills that students pointed out as necessary in their study and their actual competence: the weaknesses identified are fluency reading (no. 17), extracting evidence from Islamic texts (no. 18),

intensive reading (no. 20), reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue (no. 21) reading to discuss ideas (no. 23), reading in depth to understand the message (no. 24), scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic (no. 42); in terms of writing areas of difficulty were in using grammar correctly (no. 33); for speaking and listening there were no gaps; and, with regard to vocabulary, we have a weakness in understanding *da<sup>c</sup>wa* terminology.

## 7.6 Methodological needs

Four areas are covered under this heading: classroom size, method of learning, error correction and teaching aids. Each area will be discussed in detail as follows:

### 7.6:1 The classroom size

We asked students to tell us from their experience in Arabic as a Foreign Language how they would wish to have a course in Arabic organised on an individual basis, in pairs, small or large groups. Students were asked to choose only one option of the five in Table 7.23:

code	classroom size	university	sample size	freq.	%
43/1	individually	IU	146	06	04.11
		IMU	27	00	00
43/2	with a class member	IU	146	18	12.33
		IMU	27	03	11.11
43/3	in a small group	IU	146	58	39.73
		IMU	27	11	40.74
43/4	with all class members	IU	146	39	26.71
		IMU	27	11	40.74
43/5	any number of students	IU	146	25	17.12
		IMU	27	02	07.41

Table 7.23: The class size

A normal classroom size in the Saudi TAFL programmes is between 20 and 30 students, a number, in the researchers opinion, which is too high for any foreign language course. However, the result of the above question (no. 43) did not give us a definite size with a majority. Small and normal classroom size was indicated most, but by less than 50%. As a course designer or as a teacher, I would suggest classes with less than 20 students for the TAAP course.

### 7.6:2 Methods of learning

Our next concern was learning methods; we needed to know how students apply themselves to assimilating material on a routine basis. We therefore asked them what

method they used in the learning process: listening and note taking, listening, writing what has been read or heard, memorising, writing new words and expressions, frequent reading and/or copying from the board? The candidates were asked to choose one or more of the methods listed in Table 7.24 below:

code	methods of learning	university	sample size	freq.	%
44/1	listening and note taking	IU	146	95	65.07
		IMU	27	22	81.48
44/2	listening	IU	146	77	52.74
		IMU	27	25	92.59
44/3	reproducing what you have read	IU	146	61	41.78
		IMU	27	17	62.96
44/4	repeating what you have listened to	IU	146	71	48.63
		IMU	27	21	77.78
44/5	Independent study	IU	146	72	49.31
		IMU	27	27	100.00
44/6	memorising	IU	146	100	68.49
		IMU	27	27	100.00
44/7	writing what you hear	IU	146	74	50.68
		IMU	27	19	70.37
44/8	writing new words and expressions	IU	146	74	50.68
		IMU	27	27	100.00
44/9	frequent reading	IU	146	73	50.00
		IMU	27	27	100.00
44/10	copying from the board	IU	146	73	50.00
		IMU	27	21	77.78

Table 7.24: Methods of learning

Traditional methods such as learning by heart, repeating what you hear, copying what you have read and copying from the board are well known among Saudi students. Our candidates, coming from different backgrounds from around the world are equally accustomed to this style of learning. Less than 50% of the IU candidates chose copying, repeating what they hear and independent search for information, whereas IMU candidates excluded none of the methods. Their judgement was influenced by their experience, educational background and personal strategies of learning. We then asked them to choose three methods which they saw, in their opinion, as most appropriate in their field of study. From among the IU students, 73 (50%) chose frequent reading, 75 (51.37%) memorising and 56 (38.36%) listening and note taking; 16 (59.26%) of the IMU candidates chose frequent reading, 13 (48.19%) writing new words and expressions, and 11 (40.74%) learning by heart. Common to both universities were frequent reading and memorising: reading, in particular, is needed by students of *da'wa* as they are expected to read frequently and continuously Classical and Modern Arabic sources for their study and, of course, vocabulary building.

### 7.6:3 Error correction

This is a sensitive area because it is related to the learners' attitude to learning and personality. Teachers must be aware of this sensitivity, especially teaching adult learners. In this context, candidates were asked to choose the preferred way of correcting to be applied if they made errors in class or assignments, Table 7.25 shows their responses:

code	preferred way of correction	university	sample size	freq.	%
46/1	immediately, on your own	IU	146	46	31.51
		IMU	27	7	25.93
46/2	with your peers	IU	146	57	39.04
		IMU	27	11	40.74
46/3	in private, at the end of the class session	IU	146	35	23.97
		IMU	27	6	22.22
46/4	at the end of the class session with colleagues	IU	146	6	4.11
		IMU	27	3	11.11
46/5	none of the above	IU	146	2	1.37
		IMU	27	0.00	0.00

Table 7.25: Ways of error correction

31.51% of the IU and 25.93% of the IMU students preferred the immediate and individual error correction method. This method is highly recommended in the field of foreign language teaching though it is difficult to apply in large classes. Correcting mistakes at the end of the lesson in private is another recommendation which was considered favourably by 23.97% of the IU and by 22.22% of the IMU candidates. What is unusual is that 57 out of the 146 IU students and 11 out of the 27 IMU students opted to have their errors corrected in front of their peers; this is a result, we understand, of their training and upbringing in religious humility and acceptance of human equality.

### 7.6:4 Teaching aids

We inquired about teaching aids to see how familiar students were with using audio-visual equipment, language laboratory, computers, and reading sources such as newspapers and magazines, Table 7.26:

code	type of aids	university	sample size	freq.	%
47/1	language laboratory	IU	146	103	70.55
		IMU	27	20	74.07
47/2	audio visual	IU	146	120	82.19
		IMU	27	24	88.89
47/3	field-work	IU	146	81	55.48
		IMU	27	16	59.26
47/4	newspaper and magazines	IU	146	83	56.85
		IMU	27	26	96.30
47/5	computers	IU	146	24	16.44
		IMU	27	4	14.81

Table 7.26: Teaching aids

The language laboratory seems to be popular (IU 70.55% and IMU 74.07%); newspapers and magazines had also obtained good responses with the IMU students favouring their use (96.30%) and 56.85% of the IU students seeing any relevance to their importance. We asked the candidates (question no. 48) if they thought that such aids would be useful in any TASP course: there was an overwhelming positive response from IMU (100%) and a slightly lower one from IU (91.78%).

### 7.7 Time and Location of a TAAP course

In order to identify location and time of a course in Arabic for Academic Purposes, we asked students what would be the preferred time and place for a course in Arabic for Academic Purposes.

Our question (no. 49) regarding the time was to find out when students actually felt ready to have a course in Arabic in their specialism. We asked them: Would you prefer a course to improve your Arabic in the field of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*? The answer of the question is as follows:

no.	time of the course	university	sample size	freq.	%
49/1	prior to the <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> programme	IU	146	66	45.21
		IMU	27	05	18.52
49/2	during the <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> programme	IU	146	56	38.36
		IMU	27	13	48.15
49/3	during the TAFL programme	IU	146	24	16.44
		IMU	27	09	33.33

Table 7.27: Preferred time for the TASP course

IMU (48.15%) and IU candidates (38.36%) think they would need a course during their *da<sup>c</sup>wa* programme in order to be more experienced in the field: this would give them an opportunity to practise their Arabic in real situations. The IU students indicated that such a course prior to the *da<sup>c</sup>wa* programme could be beneficial (45.21%) while the IMU students seemed to think otherwise (18.52%).

The researcher believes that the ideal time for organising a course for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes for the students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* is during the first semester of the academic year of the *da<sup>c</sup>wa* programme.

Students were asked to suggest a place where the course could be run from a list of four. Table 7.28.

code	place	university	sample size	freq.	%
50/1	TAFL institute	IU	146	86	58.90
		IMU	27	15	55.56
50/2	Faculty of Da <sup>c</sup> wa	IU	146	30	20.55
		IMU	27	00	00.00
50/3	students' club	IU	146	20	13.70
		IMU	27	5	18.52
50/4	social service centre	IU	146	00	00.0
		IMU	27	7	25.93

Table 7.28: Preferred place for the TASP course

The figures above confirm that the TAFL Institute is the most suitable place for a TAAP course to be run. As seen in the table, 58.90% of the IU and 55.56% of the IMU students' responses supported this option. It is also supported by the fact that it is the only place in the university which has all the facilities and equipment that could be used for teaching Arabic as a foreign language.

### 7.8 Subjective needs profile

This Chapter can be achieved by referring to Table 7.29, from which we can state the following overall results:

no.	area of analysis	items covered	findings
I	Learners' background	1. age	adults
		2. nationality	world-wide
		3. mother tongue	various
		4. qualifications	S.S.C +
		5. years of studying Arabic	2 years +
II	Learners' motives and attitudes	1. motives	religious
			academic
		2. attitudes towards past-TAFL:	negative
		academic writing	inadequate
		reading <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> literature	inadequate
		listening to lecture	inadequate
		conversation inclass	inadequate
		practising <i>khitāba</i>	inadequate
3. attitudes towards TASP	positive		
III	learners' general needs	1. current wants, using Arabic for	<i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> study
		2. future needs, using Arabic for	<i>khitāba</i>
			reading
IV	learners' specific needs	3. deficiency analysis: reading	time consuming
		1. necessity	reading
			vocabulary
			speaking
			writing
			listening
		2. competence, not satisfactory	reading
			vocabulary
		3. lacks: overall results	reading
V	methodological needs		vocabulary
		1. classroom size	small groups with all class



		2. methods of learning	no specific
		3. error correction	no specific
		4. teaching aids	no specific
VI	when & where	1. time of the course	during the <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> programme
		2. place of the course	T AFL Institute

Table 7.29: The subjective needs profile

## 7.9 Conclusion

We conclude from the questionnaire that *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students come from forty countries with different linguistic backgrounds; they have attended a two-year course in Arabic prior to studying *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. In general they were not satisfied with the TAFL course, pointing out weaknesses in the macro-skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening. The proportion of a course in Arabic for Academic Purposes was welcomed enthusiastically as their current need is to use Arabic sufficiently in their profession of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. Their future needs are to use Arabic in academic reading and discussing Islam. The analysis shows that students spent a longer time on reading. Regarding the learners' specific needs, students considered reading, vocabulary, speaking, writing and listening as highly important in studying *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, though they indicated that the lack of skills in reading and vocabulary were obstructing their progress.

Attending an Arabic for Academic Purposes course in small groups is considered ideal and students expressed their wish to see such a course during the academic year, preferably at the TAFL Institute.

In Chapter Eight we will look into needs from an objective perspective by analysing the diagnostic test results.

## **Interpreting the results of the diagnostic test**

### **8.1 Introduction**

In this Chapter we will look into the learners' needs from an objective perspective, i.e. the needs identified by the diagnostic test. It is an attempt to assess the needs of the students in terms of analysing the deficiency in certain skills or abilities. The results will be compared with those of the questionnaire and see whether there is a relationship between the subjective and the objective needs of the students. That would give a validity to the students needs as well as confirming the validity of the instruments used in the needs assessment process.

The results of the diagnostic test are interpreted below according to specific principles; at the end of the Chapter, we consider a post-language test interview evaluating the test from the students' point of view.

### **8.2 Analysing and interpreting the results**

The test was designed to assess the academic abilities of reading, writing and speaking for the purpose of studying *da<sup>o</sup>wa* at the Islamic University (Al-Madina) and Imam University (Riyadh). We will, therefore, evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the students in order to identify their needs.

Interpreting the results should serve the aims of the test which are in turn section of the aims related to the First Year Students of Da<sup>o</sup>wa (FSD) (Chapter Six, 6.5:2). The language test is not an end in itself but is considered as an important factor in order to diagnose the students' deficiencies which will be remedied in the course designed for Arabic for Academic Purposes. Hence, the results will be taken as an indicator of the students' level in reading, writing and speaking for academic purposes in the discipline of *da<sup>o</sup>wa* at both universities.

### **Principles of the analysis and interpretation**

The principles of the analysis and the interpretation of the results of the test will run as follows:

1. We determine the level of the students in the reading test by calculating the scores gained by the students. The total maximum score is 34. Students obtaining between 29 and 34 are “excellent” and there is no great need for them to attend a course to improve their academic reading; students gaining between 18 and 28 are “good” but need to improve their level; and finally, students who scored less than 17 are considered to be “weak” and therefore must attend a course.
2. If the number of the students who scored 28 and less is the majority we have in this case to investigate the results of the students in each group of the questions. This investigation is to determine in which strategies and abilities students are weak.
3. The students were asked to write 250 words in two separate essays. Hence, all the results will be considered in the light of the assessment criteria to establish the overall level of the students in academic writing. The essays will be assessed on the basis of a seven-band criteria (8.2:2:1). In the case of the majority not meeting the criteria a diagnostic assessment would take place in order to determine strengths and weaknesses of the candidates in the area of academic writing skills.
4. The results of the speaking test will be evaluated by certain criteria which take into account factors such as pronunciation, grammar, intelligibility and so on (8.2:3:1). Again if the overall result indicates that “fair” and “weak” students are the majority, an inspection will be made to identify the problem.
5. When the results of the three tests take their final shape we will nominate which is the most needed skill (8.4).

#### **8.2:1 Reading test**

The reading test was divided into five main sections (see Appendix H); the focus of each section was as follows:

Section A, strategies of overviewing, understanding the main points and the organisation of a certain passage; these strategies are assessed in three-part questions (nos. 1-3), in which the candidates were asked to choose the appropriate sub-titles for three sections of the first passage in the reading task.

Section B, understanding the main points and summarising micro-skills covered by thirteen-part questions (nos. 4-16); this was a gap-filling exercise.

Section C, information-matching micro-skills with nine-part questions (nos. 17-25).

Section D, the ability to find the required information with four-part questions (nos. 26-29).

Section E, the ability to understand and interpret statistical information, evaluated through seven-part-questions (nos. 30-36).

### **8.2:1:1 Criteria for the assessment**

We firstly believe that providing students of Arabic for Specific Purposes with learning strategies is more advantageous than providing them with specific content. On this basis, the result of the reading test will be assessed, depending on their level in the reading strategies. As a matter of fact, each group of questions in the test reflects a certain strategy or strategies. Bearing this in mind the test will be interpreted according to the following criteria:

1. To look at the test results as a whole.
2. To identify which group of questions has been correctly answered and which not.
3. To identify questions that 50% or more of the candidates could not answer correctly.

The candidates' errors will then be analysed and interpreted to resolve the insufficiency.

### **8.2:1:2 The overall result**

Fourteen students from IU attended the test, thirteen of them answered the reading test as required. The results are as follows:

Islamic University, total number is 13 students																
sec.	qu. no.	students of IU attended the reading test													total ans. per qu.	%
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13		
A	1				●	●	●				●	●		●	06	46.15
	2							●						●	02	15.38
	3	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	11	84.62
B	5	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	13	100
	6	●	●	●		●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	11	84.62
	7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	12	92.31
	8	●	●	●		●	●	●	●		●		●	●	10	76.92
	9	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	12	92.31
	10	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	13	100
	11	●	●	●		●		●	●		●		●	●	09	69.23
	12	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	12	92.31
	13	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●	●	11	84.62
	14	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	13	100
	15	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	12	92.31
	16	●	●	●		●	●	●	●		●		●		09	69.23
	C	18	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	12	92.31
19		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	12	92.31	
20		●		●		●	●			●	●	●		07	53.85	
21			●	●		●	●		●	●	●	●		08	61.54	
22			●	●		●	●	●		●	●	●	●	09	69.23	
23			●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●		09	69.23	
24		●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●		●		09	69.23	
25		●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●	10	76.92
D		26		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	10	76.92
	27	●		●		●		●	●	●				06	46.15	
	28			●	●	●	●	●	●	●				07	53.85	
	29					●		●		●				03	23.08	
	E	30		●	●		●		●			●	●	●	07	53.85
31		●	●		●	●					●			05	38.46	
32					●	●						●		03	23.08	
33		●	●	●	●			●		●	●			07	53.85	
34		●	●			●				●	●		●	06	46.15	
35		●	●	●		●							●	05	38.46	
36		●		●		●	●					●		05	38.46	
Total ans. Per stu.		24	26	27	17	31	22	26	22	22	24	21	19	15		
%	70.59	76.47	79.41	50	91.18	64.71	76.47	64.71	64.71	70.59	61.76	55.88	44.12			

Table 8.1: The overall result of the IU candidates in the reading test

(N.B questions number 4 and 17 were answered as examples)

A close study of the above table reveals that only two out of thirteen (students 4 and 13) achieved 50% or less of correct answers, namely, one of them scored 17 out of 34 and the other scored 15 out of 34 (see the last two rows of the Table). The rest of the students were rated 55.88% or above. It was noticed also that sections A, D and E of the reading test were answered by 50% or fewer of the candidates in average; in other

words, items 1, 2, 27, 29, 31, 32, 34, 35 and 36 were either not answered or were incorrectly answered. In fact, items 1 and 2 constitute 66.67% of section A, items 27 and 29 are 50% of section D, and items 31, 32, 34, 35 and 36 constitute 71.43% of section E. Therefore, only two sections B and C were answered correctly by 50% or more of the candidates. The case of IMU is not very different from the IU. This can be seen from the following Table 8.2:

Imam University, total number is 5 students								
sections	questions numbers	students of IMU attended the reading test					total ans. per qu.	%
		1	2	3	4	5		
A	1		●	●			2	40
	2						0	00
	3	●	●	●			3	60
B	5		●	●	●		3	60
	6		●	●	●		3	60
	7		●	●	●	●	4	80
	8		●	●	●	●	4	80
	9		●	●	●		3	60
	10			●	●		2	40
	11		●	●	●		3	60
	12		●	●			2	40
	13	●	●	●	●		4	80
	14		●	●	●		3	60
	15	●	●	●	●		4	80
	16	●	●	●	●		4	80
C	18	●	●	●	●		4	80
	19	●	●	●	●		4	80
	20						0	00
	21		●	●	●	●	4	80
	22		●	●	●		3	60
	23	●	●	●	●		4	80
	24		●	●	●	●	4	80
	25	●					1	20
D	26	●	●	●	●	●	5	100
	27	●	●	●	●	●	5	100
	28	●	●	●		●	4	80
	29	●	●	●		●	4	80
E	30		●				1	20
	31		●				1	20
	32		●				1	20
	33		●			●	2	40
	34						0	00
	35		●			●	2	40
	36		●			●	2	40
Total ans. Per stu.		12	29	24	19	11		
percentage		32.29	82.29	70.59	55.88	32.35		

Table 8.2: The overall result of the IMU candidates in the reading test

(N.B questions number 4 and 17 were answered as examples)

The worst results, in terms of incorrect answers, came in section E; surprisingly, section D was answered correctly by 80% to 100% of the candidates. We can therefore call D a controversial section, whereas sections A and E were predictably incorrectly answered.

According to the principles and criteria of this analysis, the number of candidates who scored between 29 and 34 in the IU was only one (7.69%); that student of excellent standard and does not need any further course. Ten candidates, (76.92%), scored between 18 and 28; they were to some extent fine but would need to improve their reading abilities. The two candidates who scored 17 or less (15.38%) are weak and they really need a course to strengthen their reading abilities. On similar bases only one IMU candidate (20%) scored between 29 and 34, a first-class student who does not need any TASP course. Two candidates, (40%), are average between 18 and 28 and they extremely need a course. The weaker two students (40%) who obtained 17 or less would probably have to take a course in reading skills. Three sections (A, D and E), 60%, of the total five sections were either not answered or answered incorrectly by 50% or more of IU candidates. For the IMU, two (A and E), (40%), of the total five sections were either not answered or answered incorrectly by 66.67% or more of the total candidates. We have therefore, in the light of what has been briefly discussed above, taken sections A, D and E for further investigation.

### **8.2:1:3 Diagnostic assessment of the reading errors**

Reading is the essential skill required by the students of any language programme for academic purposes (Robinson 1991:102). Reading in this sense is not a single skill; there are in fact different techniques attached to the reading skill according to the different purposes of each reading task and the reader's aims.

Accordingly, our reader in this context should be able to employ various micro-skills or strategies in order to read an academic text. A number of these are described by Garbutt and O'Sullivan (1991:48):

1. Overviewing the text.
2. Understanding the main points in the text.
3. Understanding the relationships in the text.
4. Interpreting diagrams, tables, graphs and statistical information.
5. Understanding the writer's viewpoint.
6. Matching information.
7. Understanding unknown words.
8. Checking references.
9. Understanding the organisation of a passage.

Candidates were good in some of the above strategies but failed to answer sections A, E and partially D, reflecting a lack in their ability in certain micro-skills.

Section A: The question was, "From the following list of 10 titles, choose the most suitable title for each of sections 2, 3 and 4 of the following passage. The title of the first section has been done for you as an example". The aim was to assess the ability of the candidates to overview and understand the main points and also to understand the organisation of the passage, all three strategies required for the candidates' discipline of study.

Indeed, 46.15% of the IU and 40% of the IMU candidates chose correctly the title of section two of the passage. Candidates were expected to differentiate between "al-Muhtasib" (the appointed man to enjoin what is right and to forbid what is wrong) and "al-Mutaṭawwi<sup>c</sup>" (volunteer). Less than 50% of the candidates got the title correct. This indicates a shortcoming in their comprehension ability to extract the main points or ideas from the section. Section three of the passage was more complex and that only a few (15.38% IU and 0% IMU) students chose the title correctly. The section contained three paragraphs and a range of choices from three nearly similar titles having slight differences in their meaning. The length of the section may affected the students' answers but we figured out that in their current and future study they would have to deal with much longer texts, hence the importance of training such candidates in this micro-skill is essential. Section four of the passage included one simple paragraph; its title was straightforward so that 84.62% of the IU and 60% of the IMU candidates chose the title correctly.

Students were good with simple, short and comparative texts, but the whole exercise was to include different texts to test the students' ability to handle all types of texts. The need to improve their reading ability showed up very clearly in the results of the test. In short, the results show that the three micro-skills discussed above are to be given serious consideration when students' needs are discussed in any forthcoming TAAP course.

Section D: This section focused on the strategy of finding the required information from a particular text which requires a reading technique such as scanning. The question was: "Decide which statements from the list answer questions 26 to 29. Write the letter in the



place provided". 50% of IU candidates answered the question correctly and 50% incorrectly while at the IMU, 70% of the candidates answered the question correctly. The results show a secondary need for this strategy.

Section E: It related to the strategy of interpreting statistical information, diagrams and tables. Candidates were asked to look at a table which included items of statistical information about Muslims world-wide. They were also asked to refer to a short passage containing numbers and percentages of Muslims all around the world and then decide if the items from 30 to 36 were true, false or not mentioned in the passage. The result was that 41.76% of the IU and 25.71% of the IMU candidates answered the question correctly. This reflects a major weakness in the reading strategy and should be considered as a primary need to be taken into account in a TAAP course.

The strategies or micro-skills of acquiring a good overview, grasp of a text, comprehending its main points, understanding how a passage is organised and an ability to interpret statistical information with diagrams, tables and graphs have been noted as the main needs, but secondary needs, and in particular that of finding the required information should not be forgotten. All these are essential when needs are analysed in the designing of a TAAP course.

## **8.2:2 Writing**

In this section the results of the writing will be considered:

### **8.2:2:1 Criteria for the assessment**

The criterion included three scales: "Good", for candidates who presented a readable essay with a few grammar and spelling errors; "Fair", for candidates who produced an essay with several errors (i.e grammar, syntax, style) that impair the readability of their work; and "Weak", for students who have difficulties in sentence structure and are unable to express themselves clearly. This assessment will be according to the following bands:

1. organised structure.
2. relevance to the task.
3. appropriate vocabulary.
4. readability (some grammar, syntax, style and orthography mistakes).
5. ability to construct complex sentences.
6. argument and employment of evidence.
7. complete sentence structure.

**8.2:2:2 The overall result**

IU students who attended the test were 14; two candidate were excluded because of their inability to compose sentences coherently. As for IMU, all the five candidates were involved. The overall results are in Tables 8.3 and 8.4:

**IU candidates (first essay of 100 words)**

no.	criteria bands	overall level of the candidates		
		good	fair	weak
1	organised structure	2	1	9
2	relevance to the task		9	3
3	appropriate vocabulary	7	4	1
4	readability (some grammar, syntax, style and orthography mistakes)		1	11
5	ability to construct complex sentences			12
6	argument and employment of evidence		3	9
7	complete sentence structure	5		7
	total	14	18	52
	percentage	16.67	21.43	61.90

Table 8.3: IU candidates (first essay of 100 words)

It must be said in general that the researcher found it very difficult to read essays, some were totally unreadable. The subject teachers in individual discussions have confirmed from their experience similar difficulties. The above Table 8.3 points out several students' weaknesses in writing, the overall result being 61.90% of the total candidates. Practically all the candidates failed to construct complex sentences intelligently; 11 (91.67%) of these candidates produced essays which were difficult to read, mainly because of grammatical, syntactical errors and also orthographic mistakes; 9 (75%) failed in organising their essays in good paragraphs, using arguments and substantiating them with proper references; and, 7 (58.33%) of them could not even construct complete sentences. From the micro-skills listed above in Table 8.3, the candidates demonstrated weaknesses in five areas (1, 4, 5, 6 and 7) which are critical in essay writing.

**IU candidates (second essay of 150 words)**

no.	criteria bands	overall level of the candidates		
		good	fair	weak
1	organised structure		2	10
2	relevance to the task	2	6	4
3	appropriate vocabulary	2	10	
4	readability (some grammar, syntax, style and orthography mistakes)	1	1	10
5	ability to construct complex sentences		1	11
6	argument and employment of evidence		3	9
7	complete sentence structure	1	2	9
	total	6	25	53
	percentage	7.14	29.76	63.09

Table 8.4: IU candidates (second essay of 150 words)

The second essay performance indicates that the majority of the candidates are weak in the overall writing abilities (63.09%). In addition, 11 (91.67%) were unable to form complex sentences; 10 (83.33%) showed a weakness in the format of their essays with a number of grammatical, syntactical and orthographic errors. 9 of the candidates (75%) do not have the skill to argue, employ references where necessary; indeed, some could not construct proper intelligent sentences. In general, however, we can say that using appropriate vocabulary and writing an essay relevant to the task (in spite of the difficulties mentioned above) proved in some respects acceptable.

**IMU candidates (first essay of 100 words)**

no.	criteria bands	overall level of the candidates		
		good	fair	weak
1	organised structure		1	4
2	relevance to the task	2	1	2
3	appropriate vocabulary	2	2	1
4	readability (some grammar, syntax, style and orthography mistakes)	2		3
5	ability to construct complex sentences		2	3
6	argument and employment of evidence		2	3
7	complete sentence structure	1	1	3
	total	7	9	19
	percentage	20	25.71	54.29

Table 8.5: IMU candidates (first essay of 100 words)

It was expected to find some difference of level in the candidates' writing abilities between IU and IMU, but none was found. 4 (80%) of the candidates showed ineptness in organising their essays; 3 (60%) had difficulties with grammar, syntax and orthography, complex sentences, using argument, giving evidence and even producing complete sentences. In many respect the same difficulties seem to recur at the IU.

**IMU candidates (second essay of 150 words)**

no.	criteria bands	overall level of the candidates		
		good	fair	weak
1	organised structure	1		4
2	relevance to the task	2	2	1
3	appropriate vocabulary	1	2	2
4	readability (some grammar, syntax, style and orthography mistakes)	1		4
5	ability to construct complex sentences		1	4
6	argument and employment of evidence		1	4
7	complete sentence structure	2	1	3
	total	7	7	21
	percentage	20	20	60

Table 8.6: IMU candidates (second essay of 150 words)

Table 8.6 indicates that the IMU candidates show the same symptoms of weaknesses as in their first 100 word essay (Table 8.5 above).

### 8.2:2:3 Diagnostic assessment of the writing errors

Following the above results, the types of errors in the candidates' academic writing will be highlighted. It is not the aim of this study to investigate errors in detail; the aim is, however, to give a general background about types of errors and their frequency of occurrence. This experience will help in the designing of a course for TASP academic writing. We should refer here to the criterion of assessment in full detail as follows:

1. Singular/plural confusion (Sip)
2. Wrong verb aspects (Vet)
3. Wrong vocabulary (Voc)
4. Lack and misuse of connectors (Conc)
5. Spelling/orthographic mistakes (Spel)
6. Lack of appropriate paragraphing (Parg)
7. Mixing *fusha* and colloquial Arabic (Fusq)
8. Lack or misuse of conjunctions (Conj)
9. Inappropriate style (Sty)
10. Lack of punctuation marks (Pum)
11. Misuse or omission of articles (Art)
12. Gender confusion (Gdr)
13. Nominal forms (Nf)
14. Numerals (Nmr)
15. Wrong verbal forms (Vef)
16. Word omission (Wom.)
17. Cases (Cas)
18. Lack of concord (Cord)
19. Lack or misuse of pronouns (Pro)
20. Word order (Wor)
21. Adverbs (Adv)
22. Diction (Dic)
23. Word connotations (Wco)
24. Lack or misuse of prepositions (Pre)
25. Idiomatic expressions (Ide)
26. Verbosity (Ver)
27. Figurative expressions (Fgr)
28. Cohesion (Coh)

The results of the diagnostic analysis of the IU and IMU candidates' writing test (Tables 8.7 and 8.8) showing types of errors are presented in the following tables:

#### Islamic University

typology	description	students												total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
1	Sip	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	5	2	1	13
2	Vet	0	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	6
3	Voc	13	9	13	11	10	3	5	9	5	11	15	15	119
4	Conc	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	6
5	Spel	36	10	16	16	5	41	6	17	12	30	17	8	214
6	Parg	1	3	1	3	3	7	2	8	3	3	1	7	42
7	Fusq	2	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	9
8	Conj	4	7	3	0	2	11	4	8	2	3	13	11	68

9	Sty	3	0	1	0	1	0	4	0	2	0	0	0	11
10	Pum	13	16	2	14	10	15	10	17	13	8	25	20	163
11	Art	20	2	5	4	2	0	2	0	4	3	2	28	72
12	Gdr	7	3	6	5	3	2	4	10	3	5	4	10	62
13	Nf	1	1	3	0	2	0	0	0	1	3	1	2	14
14	Nmr	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
15	Vef	0	1	4	2	1	0	2	0	3	1	2	0	16
16	Wom	3	1	0	2	1	3	0	1	1	3	1	1	17
17	Cas	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	2	9
18	Cord	7	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	12
19	Pro	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
20	Wor	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	2	11
21	Adv	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
22	Dic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
23	Wco	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	5
24	Pre	10	4	6	3	1	7	4	1	3	7	6	12	64
25	Ide	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	5
26	Ver	5	1	1	3	4	3	4	0	14	2	7	6	50
27	Fgr	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
28	Coh	2	2	0	2	2	1	6	0	4	1	1	3	24
	total	135	68	65	68	49	94	63	78	76	88	103	133	1020

Table 8.7: Individual academic writing errors of the IU candidates

The students made a remarkable number of errors, the range of the errors is between 49 of student 5 (a first-class candidate) and 135 of student 1 (the weakest in the group). These errors occurred in a total work of 250 words (i.e two essays).

#### Imam University

typology	description	students					total
		1	2	3	4	5	
1	Sip	0	0	0	3	0	3
2	Vet	1	2	0	0	1	4
3	Voc	13	12	11	5	3	44
4	Conc	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Spel	17	7	0	18	6	48
6	Parg	9	4	4	9	3	29
7	Fusq	0	5	2	0	0	7
8	Conj	6	4	5	9	4	28
9	Sty	2	1	0	0	2	5
10	Pum	15	2	2	14	7	40
11	Art	2	6	2	0	2	12
12	Gdr	1	2	2	3	2	10
13	Nf	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	Nmr	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	Vef	0	2	0	1	1	4
16	Wom	1	0	2	5	2	10
17	Cas	2	1	1	0	0	4
18	Cord	0	1	2	2	0	5
19	Pro	2	0	0	1	0	3
20	Wor	3	2	0	2	0	7
21	Adv	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	Dic	0	2	0	0	0	2
23	Wco	4	0	0	4	1	9
24	Pre	6	6	1	10	1	24
25	Ide	3	0	0	0	0	3
26	Ver	5	1	3	2	3	14

27	Fgr	0	0	0	0	0	0
28	Coh	4	1	1	0	1	7
	Total	96	61	38	88	39	322

Table 8.8: Individual academic writing errors of the IMU candidates

To establish the number of errors per candidate per line we need to divide the total errors made by each candidate on the average amount of lines in both essays, which can be established according to this equation: total assumed amount of words for both essays, i.e 100+150 divided by the average amount of words in the line, about 8, namely,  $250 \div 8 = 31.25$  lines for both essays. Accordingly, to find the average errors per line for each student we will divide the total number of errors (see column 3 of Table 8.9) by the average amount of lines i.e 31.25. This mathematical process will lead us to conclude that one error or fewer per line would mean a good candidate; between one and two errors per line means a fair candidate and, more than two errors per line translates that the candidate is weak. The outcome is listed in the following Table 8.9:

candidates	university	total errors	average errors per line	comment
1	IU	135	4.32	weak
2	IU	68	2.176	weak
3	IU	65	2.08	weak
4	IU	68	2.176	weak
5	IU	49	1.568	fair
6	IU	94	3.008	weak
7	IU	63	2.016	weak
8	IU	78	2.496	weak
9	IU	76	2.432	weak
10	IU	88	2.816	weak
11	IU	103	3.296	weak
12	IU	133	4.256	weak
13	IMU	96	3.072	weak
14	IMU	61	1.952	fair
15	IMU	38	1.216	fair
16	IMU	88	2.816	weak
17	IMU	39	1.248	fair

Table 8.9: Average error per line per candidate in both universities

Consequently, 13 (76.47%) candidates were weak; 4 (23.53%) were fair and no one was good in either university. The question is, which type of errors do the candidates have difficulties in? Following the same process as was used above, the average type of errors occurring per line is presented in the following Table 8.10 for both universities:

IU				IMU			
typo logy	description	total errors	average errors per line	typo logy	description	total errors	average errors per line
1	Sip	13	0.416	1	Sip	3	0.096
2	Vet	6	0.192	2	Vet	4	0.128
3	Voc	119	3.808	3	Voc	44	1.408

4	Conc	6	0.192	4	Conc	0	0.000
5	Spel	214	6.848	5	Spel	48	1.536
6	Parg	42	1.23	6	Parg	29	0.928
7	Fusq	9	0.288	7	Fusq	7	0.224
8	Conj	68	2.176	8	Conj	28	0.896
9	Sty	11	0.352	9	Sty	5	0.16
10	Pum	163	5.216	10	Pum	40	1.28
11	Art	72	2.304	11	Art	12	0.384
12	Gdr	62	1.984	12	Gdr	10	0.32
13	Nf	14	0.448	13	Nf	0	0.000
14	Nmr	1	0.032	14	Nmr	0	0.000
15	Vef	16	0.496	15	Vef	4	0.128
16	Wom	17	0.544	16	Wom	10	0.32
17	Cas	9	0.288	17	Cas	4	0.128
18	Cord	12	0.384	18	Cord	5	0.16
19	Pro	2	0.064	19	Pro	3	0.096
20	Wor	11	0.352	20	Wor	9	0.288
21	Adv	2	0.064	21	Adv	0	0.000
22	Dic	2	0.064	22	Dic	2	0.064
23	Wco	5	0.16	23	Wco	9	0.288
24	Pre	64	2.048	24	Pre	24	0.768
25	Ide	5	0.16	25	Ide	3	0.096
26	Ver	50	1.6	26	Ver	14	0.448
27	Fgr	1	0.032	27	Fgr	0	0.000
28	Coh	24	0.768	28	Coh	7	0.224

Table 8.10: The average types of errors occurring per line

We note that orthographic mistakes show a serious weakness among the IU candidates; they occurred about seven times per line. Orthographic errors included: substitution, insertion, deletion, mending, transposition/metathesis, splitting of word, letter/consonant distinction and the so-called seat for *hamza*. Candidates recorded an average of five punctuation marks errors per line [I confidently could say that during all my study, as an Arabic native speaker, in public and higher education no syllabus or teacher makes reference to punctuation marks in any structured form. It was only mentioned incidentally]; using wrong vocabulary was one of their mistakes, occurring 3.808 times per line and, misuse of articles, conjunctions, and prepositions were other types of errors which occurred between two and three times per line.

Unpredictably, IMU candidates faired better than their IU peers, Table 8.10 above. All types of errors happened less than twice per line. This improvement could be due to the small number of students on the IMU-TAFL programme in comparison with that of IU.

To sum up, academic writing has emerged as a problem area among our students: to some extent, they are aware of the importance of the writing skill. The FSD

questionnaire showed that a good number of candidates (48.63% from IU and 48.15% from IMU) put developing academic writing as a second priority after reading. It appeared from the FSD questionnaire also that 58.9% (IU) and 51.85% (IMU) believe that the emphasis on academic writing on the past-TAFL programmes was inadequate.

### **8.2:3 Speaking**

This section is intended to present the results of the final test based on the speaking skill. Firstly, it was found from conversing with the candidates that they were quite happy with their speaking skill. They were capable of expressing themselves with a minimal number of mistakes. Moreover, it was thought that if they were given time to prepare a speech in their field of study they would deliver it well.

Candidates were required to prepare a topic related to their academic study for fifteen minutes and then to talk about it for seven to ten minutes. They were not allowed to read but they could refer to the notes they had prepared. All candidates who attended the previous two tests attended this speaking test.

#### **8.2:3:1 Criteria for the assessment**

Students were assessed in the speaking skill using the following guidelines (questions):

1. Can the candidate be understood easily?
2. Does the candidate's pronunciation disturb fluency of speech?
3. Does the candidate's misuse of grammar interfere the speech's intelligibility?
4. Is the meaning clear?
5. Were only short sentences used?
6. Is appropriate vocabulary used?

The overall result is based on a scale of three variables: "Good", for those who performed well with few mistakes; "Fair", for those who spoke clearly and accurately but with some grammatical and syntactical errors which impaired the message and, "Weak", for those who have serious difficulties with structure and content.

#### **8.2:3:2 The overall result**

According to the above criteria the overall result of the speaking test is presented below:



no.	criteria bands	university	sample size	good	fair	weak
1	easily understood	IU	14	8	3	3
		IMU	5	4	0	1
2	pronunciation	IU	14	12	2	0
		IMU	5	5	0	0
3	grammar	IU	14	8	3	3
		IMU	5	4	1	0
4	clarity of the meaning	IU	14	8	6	0
		IMU	5	5	0	0
5	variety of sentences used	IU	14	7	5	2
		IMU	5	3	0	2
6	vocabulary used	IU	14	8	3	3
		IMU	5	3	2	0
Total				75	25	14
percentage				65.79	21.93	12.28

Table 8.11: The overall result of the speaking test

It seemed that the majority of the candidates (65.79%) are good in this skill. This result is to some extent fair despite the complaint of the subject teachers that the students are weak in speaking. We cannot, however, expect native-speaker ability though students are encouraged to aim at a near-native level. Only a few, of course, achieve this.

### 8.3 Post-language test interview

Taking into consideration the limited experience of the candidates with such a language test, we were concerned of whether the results may have been affected by the new experience of the test itself. We therefore interviewed some candidates, five from each university and asked them fourteen questions to provide a feedback on the diagnostic test (see Appendix G).

Surprisingly, the majority of the candidates considered the language test adequate in general (60%). It was expected, as stated earlier, that having no experience of dealing with this type of language test in Arabic would make it difficult. Despite this general evaluation the candidates regarded section A of the reading test (questions nos. 1-3) difficult (70%); their reasons were that the passage was very long (85.71%), and contained unknown words and expressions (14.29%). It was a long passage and any one who lacks good reading abilities would have struggled with it. In fact, this section (A) indicated that strategies such as overviewing text and understanding the main points were not employed sufficiently. Hence, the length of the passage was aimed at assessing the students' abilities in certain strategies. Section E of the reading test questions was also considered difficult (80%). The difficulty of items 30 to 36 was to do with

statistical information which the majority of the students had a problem with. This exercise is a personal transferable skill which students need after they graduate.

Only a few (40%) indicated that the writing test was difficult, not as a task in itself but due to the time (45 minutes): they thought they would have needed perhaps over an hour. The full results of this interview are presented in Appendix G. In short, it appears that the test was a good exercise despite the students' unfamiliarity with its format.

#### 8.4 Objective needs profile

We are able to sum up the final results of the diagnostic test in terms of needs to be taken into account in a TAAP course in the following Table 8.12:

method of assessment	area of assessment	micro-skills that are lacking
diagnostic test	reading	extracting evidence from religious text
		understanding and discussing ideas in a given text
		reading in depth to understand the message given by the text
		scanning to have a general idea about a certain topic
		intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text
	writing	understanding the writer's points of view on a controversial issue
		wrong vocabulary (Voc.)
		spelling/orthographic mistakes (Spel)
		lack or misuse of conjunctions (Conj.)
		lack of punctuation marks (Pum)
		misuse or omission of articles (Art)
lack or misuse of prepositions (Pre)		

Table 8.12: Subjective and objective needs

#### 8.5 Conclusion

The results of the reading test showed that students are weak in some essential basic reading strategies such as overviewing texts, reading for the main points, finding the required information, understanding and interpreting statistical information and understanding the organisation of texts. Writing is another important area which is considered in our context as a secondary need. In Chapter Nine we will look into the remaining needs and demands of TAFL teachers, subject teachers and administrative staff.

**Looking into the interviews' results and the learning situation needs**

**9.1 Introduction**

In the previous two chapters we identified the objective and subjective needs of the First Year Students of Da<sup>c</sup>wa. In this chapter we will look into the needs and demands of the TAFL teachers (AT) and *da<sup>c</sup>wa* teachers or the subject teachers (ST); and, we will further find out what the administrative staff (AS) of the two universities can provide for the TAAP course.

**9.2 AT Interview**

TAFL teachers from both universities (11 of IU and 18 of IMU) were asked to provide particulars about themselves such as, age, qualification, experience and information about their experience and attitudes towards Language for Specific Purposes/Arabic for Specific Purposes; they also were asked to identify the most important language skills that non-Arab students need to function successfully in Islamic Studies at university level.

**9.2:1 Age**

Looking at Table 9.1 (below) the majority (63.64%) of the teachers from the IU are aged between 30 and 40 years; this means that the future of the TAFL programme looks healthy as many teachers are a good number of years away from retirement age. Only 33.34% of IMU teachers are in the same age bracket. A concern can be expressed here with regard to the age of the Arabic Teachers, though we need to say that IMU has a very good reserve of qualified teachers who are studying or working abroad and can be brought back gradually to the TAFL Institute.

code	Age	IU		IMU	
2/1	30-35	2	18.18%	3	16.67%
2/2	36-40	5	45.46%	3	16.67%
2/3	41-45	-	-	2	11.11%
2/4	46-50	2	18.18%	6	33.33%
2/5	51-55	2	18.18%	4	22.22%

Table 9.1: The AT ages

### 9.2:2 Qualifications and experience

The qualified teachers in the IMU represent 23 (71.86%) of the total 32 TAFL teachers, whereas they are 25.58% of the total 43 TAFL teachers at the IU (see 6.5:3:1). Qualified teachers are those with a university degree, Diploma, MA, or PhD in Applied Linguistics, Education or Arabic Language. One could mention here that the standard of teachers at the IMU is much higher than the IU as the figures show in Table 9.2 below:

code	Qualifications	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
3/1	Ph D	-	-	8	44.44
3/2	MA	3	27.27	6	33.33
3/3	Diploma	8	72.73	4	22.22

Table 9.2: The AT qualifications

It is observed that teachers in both universities have gained over the years good experience in TAFL: around 61% of the IMU teachers have been teaching Arabic for more than 12 years but only 18% of the IU teachers have similar experience, as is shown in Table 9.3 below:

code	period of teaching TAFL	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
5/1	1-4 years	-	-	-	-
5/2	5-8 years	3	27.27	4	22.22
5/3	9-12 years	6	54.55	3	16.67
5/4	More than 12 years	2	18.18	11	61.11

Table 9.3: The AT experience

We also found out that 36.36% of IU teachers had in the last five years attended training programmes in their field, but only 11.11% of IMU had done similar training courses. This may be attributed to the higher level of qualifications held by IMU teachers in their field. Table 9.4 lists training courses attended by IU and IMU teachers:

university	where	freq.	%	Description	freq.	%
IU	home	4	36.36	In-service training course	2	18.18
				Teacher training course	2	18.18
				Academic degree course		
	abroad			Academic degree course		
IMU	home	1	5.56	In-service training course		
				Teacher training course	1	5.56
				Academic degree course		
	abroad	1	5.56	Academic degree course	1	5.56

Table 9.4: Training programmes for AT in the last five years

### 9.2:3 Attitudes towards LSP/ASP

Arabic Teachers were asked the following question about Language for Specific Purposes: To what extent do you think that LSP is important to be applied in the field of

T AFL? The answers varied according to their different backgrounds but the majority commented favourably on the importance of introducing LSP, though IU teachers were not that enthusiastic. This could perhaps be attributed to the fact that none of the IU interviewees have studied outside the Arab World and therefore not been exposed to LSP programmes. One needs to remember that LSP in the Arabic countries is still a novel concept. We present the Arabic Teachers impressions about LSP in Table 9.5:

code	impression	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
7/1	very important	4	36.36	14	77.78
7/2	important	5	45.46	2	11.11
7/3	not important	2	18.18	2	11.11

Table 9.5: Impression of AT towards LSP/ASP

Around 88% of IMU and 63% of IU were positive (very important and important) about a TASP course to non-Arab students in their respective disciplines. In a supplementary question, Arabic Teachers were asked to identify the disciplines which could benefit from this approach. Four areas were given to them to choose from, as seen in Table 9.6:

code	discipline	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
11/1	Islamic Studies	7	63.64	15	83.33
11/2	Linguistics	8	72.73	8	44.44
11/3	Social Studies	1	9.09	6	33.33
11/4	Physics and Applied Sciences	-	-	10	55.56

Table 9.6: Disciplines that TASP is needed for

Non-Arab students would probably need Arabic for Specific Purposes for all these disciplines (nos. 11/1 to 11/4) but because the two universities specialise in Islamic Studies and Humanities it would be considered more appropriate to concentrate on 11/1 and 11/2. It can be seen from above that Arabic Teachers in both IU (63.64%) and IMU (83.33%) are in favour of Islamic Studies as a recommended discipline.

#### 9.2:4 Experience in LSP/ASP

Before planning to introduce Language for Specific Purposes to T AFL in Saudi we considered evaluating the experience of T AFL teachers to see if they are experienced enough to carry out such programmes or not. So, the Arabic Teachers were asked about their experience in LSP/ASP (no. 8): Have you ever experienced the teaching of Arabic for Specific Purposes? Surprisingly, 50% of IMU had former experience in TASP and 100% of IU had none. The time and place of any previous experience of IMU teachers in TASP is shown in Table 9.7:

university	when	freq.	%	where	freq.	%
IMU	1-5 years ago			Riyadh	6	66.67
	6-10 years ago	2	11.11	Al-Madina		
	10 + ago	7	38.89	elsewhere	3	33.33

Table 9.7: Experience of AT in TASP (when and where)

This led to another question regarding whether Arabic Teachers need a training course before becoming involved in any TASP course or not. Around 72% of IU teachers agreed and, interestingly enough, about the same percentage of IMU teachers were not in favour of having such a training course.

### 9.2:5 Skills recommended

Speaking and writing are usually the most recommended skills by teachers of foreign languages. However, in our context the situation is different where the focus is more academic. The teachers were therefore asked, in relation to language for academic purposes, to recommend the skills that they believed that non-Arab students studying Islamic Studies would need. They were asked to put their answers in numerical order putting number 1 as the highest rank of the skills, Table 9.8:

code	skills	university	skill numerically ordered			
			1	2	3	4
13/1	listening	IU	-	-	-	11
		IMU	-	-	-	18
		average total	-	-	-	14.5
		percentage	-	-	-	100
13/2	speaking	IU	3	6	2	-
		IMU	3	10	5	-
		average total	3	8	3.5	-
		percentage	20.69	55.17	24.14	-
13/3	reading	IU	7	2	2	-
		IMU	12	2	4	-
		average total	9.5	2	3	-
		percentage	65.51	13.79	20.69	-
13/4	writing	IU	-	5	6	-
		IMU	1	5	12	-
		average total	0.5	5	9	-
		percentage	3.44	34.48	62.07	-

Table 9.8: Skills recommended to be considered by TASP (in order)

As is shown above, reading is first (65.51%), speaking second (55.17%), writing third (62.07%) and listening fourth (100%). The result reconfirms the importance of reading as was stated by the FSD candidates in Chapter Seven.

Finally, Arabic Teachers were asked to give their impression on the motives of their students learning Arabic as a Foreign Language. Almost all the IMU teachers

(95%) considered their students to be highly motivated but the proportion dropped to 75% in relation to IU.

### **9.3 Subject Teachers' interview**

Subject teachers (ST) who agreed to be interviewed were 24 (70.59%) from the total number (34) who met the conditions of the main field study of the IU and 8 (50%) out of 16 of IMU (see 6.5:3:1).

There were seventeen questions addressed to the subject teachers regarding their personal background, the linguistic and academic standard of non-Arab students, the influence of the students' proficiency in Arabic on their academic studies in *da'wa* and the crucial skills they believe non-Arab students will need to perform well in their academic study in *da'wa*. Teachers were also asked to identify as "very important", "important" and "not-important" micro-skills from a list of 26 according to their experience in this field and their attitudes towards Arabic for Specific Purposes. The results are analysed below:

#### **9.3:1 Qualifications and experience**

The subject teachers have a considerable experience in teaching *da'wa*, the majority (87.5% IU and 75% IMU) have been working between five and twelve years and the remaining for more than twelve years. Well qualified in this field, they all hold PhD degrees in their specialism. Added to this, 82.35% of IU teachers and 62.5% of IMU teachers are assistant professors and the rest are either associate professors, or full professors.

#### **9.3:2 Attitudes towards non-Arab students**

It should be said in this context that the real advantage is that all subject teachers from both universities have experience in teaching non-Arab students in the Faculty of Da'wa and that they are familiar with their Arabic proficiency level, the impression of which was of acceptable standard (83.33% of IU and 62.5% of IMU). By this we mean that students understand and use Arabic but with difficulty. The whole results are presented in Table 9.9:

code	impression	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
7/1	excellent			1	12.5
7/2	fair	20	83.33	5	62.5
7/3	weak	4	16.67	2	25

Table 9.9: The ST attitudes towards non-Arab students' level of proficiency in Arabic

In conjunction with the above impressions, subject teachers were asked to evaluate the general academic standard of non-Arab students in their respective subjects (no. 8): 75% of IU and more than 62% of IMU teachers judged the academic standards “fair” while 12.5% of IU and 37.5% of IMU teachers considered the level “weak”. Teachers were then asked whether such standards were affected by the students' proficiency level in the Arabic language (no. 9) to which about 100% of both universities agreed.

### 9.3:3 Attitudes towards LSP/ASP

We gave the subject teachers information about the new approach of Language for Specific Purposes/Arabic for Specific Purposes before we attempted to ask them about their attitudes towards it (no. 15). Their support was positive (87.5% for both universities), Table 9.10:

code	attitude towards TASP	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
15/1	much supported	14	58.33	6	75
15/2	supported	7	29.17	1	12.5
15/3	not supported	1	4.17	1	12.5
15/4	not supported at all	2	8.33	-	-

Table 9.10: The ST attitudes towards TASP

Subject teachers also supported the idea of developing TASP courses to enable *da'wa* students to acquire the micro-skills needed in their study, Table 9.11:

code	method of improving	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
12/1	TAAP courses	16	66.67	7	87.5
12/2	language practice	11	45.83	3	37.5
12/3	participation of subject teachers in the TAFL course design	9	37.5	5	62.5

Table 9.11: Methods of improving the students' Arabic and their macro-skills

### 9.3:4 The proficiency level: Subject Teachers' view

Subject teachers were asked about the standard of Arabic which non-Arab *da'wa* students are supposed to acquire: four options were given and they were required to answer in numerical order, Table 9.12:



code	standard required	university	numerical order			
			1	2	3	4
13/1	speak proficiently	IU	5%	40%	55%	-
		IMU	2%	38%	60%	-
13/2	read proficiently	IU	75%	20%	5%	-
		IMU	77%	13%	10%	
13/3	write accurately	IU	-	36%	11%	53%
		IMU	12%	29%	14%	45%
13/4	understand and absorb terminology of <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i>	IU	23%	68%	9%	
		IMU	21%	70%	9%	

Table 9.12: The proficiency level required by the students to study *da<sup>c</sup>wa*

Teachers expect students to reach a high level of fluency in speaking Arabic in class and outside and to deliver their knowledge in a good and coherent writing style. They also believe, however, that the most crucial skill is reading. Exercising *da<sup>c</sup>wa* adequately requires understanding the terminology which is generally learnt by a lot of reading. In this respect, reading was ranked first followed by understanding and absorbing the terminology of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* in second place, speaking came in third place and writing last. In the teachers' opinion non-Arab *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students would not make much use of the writing skill when they return back home. This, of course, does not undervalue the importance of this skill because as we have learnt in Chapters Seven and Eight students did show a concern in the writing skill particularly with essays and examinations. But, according to the teachers of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, they suppose that the emphasis, after reading, should be on terminology to assist students to read and understand difficult classical texts and the speaking skill which they would need to use in class sessions.

The role of Arabic in shaping the students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* academically is indeed significant. It can be in terms of understanding *da<sup>c</sup>wa* on a scientific basis, delivering *da<sup>c</sup>wa* or both understanding and delivering *da<sup>c</sup>wa* which is the expected role of such students. Teachers were asked about this role and the results indicated that around 85% of the subject teachers considered understanding and delivering *da<sup>c</sup>wa* (14/3) as a main role of Arabic, Table 9.13:

code	role of Arabic in	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
14/1	understanding	4	16.67	1	12.5
14/2	delivering <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i>				
14/3	understanding and delivering <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i>	20	83.33	7	87.5
14/4	no distinguished role	00	00	00	00

Table 9.13: Role of Arabic in *da<sup>c</sup>wa*

### 9.3:5 Specific skills recommended

Assessing the situation of the non-Arab students in *da<sup>c</sup>wa*, the productive skills (speaking and writing) are considered in some way by subject teachers only temporary which means students need them during their study in limited situations, so communicating with some mistakes is not a big problem. In turn, being weak in reading means a shortcoming in the knowledge of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* which disadvantages them during their experience at work. It is a personal transferable skill which will be crucial in whatever profession they follow after their graduation.

Essentially, teachers were asked if their students were weaker in one or more of the macro-skills (Question no. 10). About 87% of IMU and three quarters of the IU teachers marked reading in particular followed by writing, Table 9.14 below:

code	macro-skills	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
10/3	listening	3	12.5		
10/4	speaking	10	41.67	5	62.5
10/5	reading	18	75	7	87.5
10/6	writing	11	45.83	6	75

Table 9.14: Skills in which students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* are weak

As illustrated above, writing skills came second with 75% according to IMU teachers and around 45% of IU teachers; speaking came in third position, whereas listening dropped to fourth position. The question then put to the subject teacher was to do with which micro-skills were needed, Table 9.15:

code	skills	IU		IMU	
		frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
11/1	reading in depth	12	50	4	50
11/2	<i>khitaba</i>	6	25	1	12.5
11/3	to discuss and persuade	4	16.67	1	12.5
11/4	good academic writing	2	8.33	2	25

Table 9.15: The recommended skills for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* study

Reading in depth was emphasised by half of the teachers as a required micro-skill. A quarter or fewer of the teachers recommended the other three micro-skills (11/2 – 11/4). Question (no.16) of the interview also dealt with skills needed after the *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students had graduated. More than 75% of the teachers agreed that reading and understanding is the most needed micro-skills followed by a strategy to consolidate the terminology of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* which is learnt during the course. Interestingly enough, writing and listening dropped to the bottom of the list despite writing being in second position (Question no. 10 above).

More consideration in relation to the understanding of *da'wa* is given to these micro-skills and subsequently to the learning strategies required by the students and the specialism of *da'wa* will be accurately identified. It is possible to argue that the attitudes of subject teachers towards the importance of the micro-skills listed in items 17/1 to 17/26 (Tables 9.16a and 9.16b) have strong credibility, dependability and are in harmony with the academic requirements of *da'wa* considering that they were produced by teachers who are aware of the nature of studying and performing *da'wa*. First year Students of *Da'wa* on the other hand, have not yet been freed from the influence of the past-TAFL programmes which had a different view towards language skills. That does not mean in any sense that we should dismiss the significance of these micro-skills from the students' point of view that has been established in Chapter Seven. It is a question of attempting to integrate the micro-skills which were established by the First Year Students of *Da'wa* and those by the subject teachers (ST).

A close study of Tables 9.16a and 9.16b would enable us to extract a list of micro-skills for each traditional macro-skill which the subject teachers believe to be the most important for the study of *da'wa*. The micro-skills will be taken into account after comparing them with what had already been determined by the First Year Students of *Da'wa* in Chapter Seven.

#### Subject Teachers of Islamic University

code	micro-skills	very important		important		not important	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
17/1	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	19	79.17	5	20.83	-	-
17/2	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	23	95.83	1	4.17	-	-
17/3	reading a text to extract specific information	21	87.5	3	12.5	-	-
17/4	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	24	100	-	-	-	-
17/5	reading to understand the writer's view points on a controversial issue	22	91.67	2	8.33	-	-
17/6	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology	24	100	-	-	-	-
17/7	reading to discuss ideas	24	100	-	-	-	-
17/8	reading in depth to understand the message	19	79.17	5	20.83	-	-
17/9	re-reading to consolidate ideas	2	8.33	15	62.5	7	29.17
17/10	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	20	83.33	4	16.67	-	-
17/11	reading to pass examination only	2	8.33	19	79.17	5	20.83
17/12	summarising the main points from a written text	-	-	19	79.17	5	20.83
17/13	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	-	-	15	62.5	9	37.5
17/14	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	21	87.5	3	12.5	-	-
17/15	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	2	8.33	20	83.33	2	8.33
17/16	writing answers to examination questions	-	-	24	100	-	-

17/17	using grammar correctly in academic writing	24	100	-	-	-	-
17/18	understanding someone talking	2	8.33	15	62.5	7	29.17
17/19	extracting information from radio and television.	-	-	5	20.33	19	79.17
17/20	understanding a lecture in the area of specialism and writing down the main points	-	-	22	91.67	2	8.33
17/21	understanding and following a conversation in class	1	4.17	17	70.83	6	25
17/22	understanding the main topic(s) of a lecture	10	41.67	14	58.33	-	-
17/23	ability to argue logically	4	16.67	20	83.33	-	-
17/24	delivering a speech prepared by students in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	5	20.83	19	79.17	-	-
17/25	expressing and defending points of view in the area of specialism	19	79.17	5	20.83	-	-
17/26	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	11	45.83	13	54.17	-	-

Table 9.16a: Needs of the present situation: Subject Teachers of *da'wa* (IU)

### Subject Teachers of Imam University

code	micro-skills	very important		important		not important	
		freq.	%	freq.	%	freq.	%
17/1	reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	7	87.5	1	12.5	-	-
17/2	extracting evidence from Islamic texts	8	100	-	-	-	-
17/3	reading a text to extract specific information	7	87.5	1	12.5	-	-
17/4	intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text	8	100	-	-	-	-
17/5	reading to understand the writer's view points on a controversial issue	7	87.5	1	12.5	-	-
17/6	understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology	8	100	-	-	-	-
17/7	reading to discuss ideas	8	100	-	-	-	-
17/8	reading in depth to understand the message	6	75	2	25	-	-
17/9	re-reading to consolidate ideas	1	12.5	4	50	3	37.5
17/10	reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	7	87.5	1	12.5	-	-
17/11	reading to pass examination only	-	-	6	75	2	25
17/12	summarising the main points from a written text	-	-	7	87.5	1	12.5
17/13	summarising lectures, discussions and debates	-	-	5	62.5	3	37.5
17/14	correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing	7	87.5	1	12.5	-	-
17/15	writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>	-	-	7	87.5	1	12.5
17/16	writing answers to examination questions	-	-	8	100	-	-
17/17	using grammar correctly in academic writing	8	100	-	-	-	-
17/18	understanding someone talking	-	-	6	75	2	25
17/19	extracting information from radio and television.	-	-	1	12.5	7	87.5
17/20	understanding a lecture in the area of specialism and writing down the main points	-	-	7	87.5	1	12.5
17/21	understanding and following a conversation in class	-	-	6	75	2	25
17/22	understanding the main topic(s) of a lecture	3	37.5	5	62.5	-	-
17/23	ability to argue logically	1	12.5	7	87.5	-	-
17/24	delivering a speech prepared by students in the field of <i>da'wa</i>	2	25	6	75	-	-
17/25	expressing and defending points of view in the area of specialism	6	75	2	25	-	-
17/26	scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic	4	50	4	50	-	-

Table 9.16b: Needs of the present situation: Subject Teachers of *da'wa* (IMU)

From the above two tables, not many differences were recognised. A combined table which includes an average of the "very important" micro-skills in both universities as well as the average percentage is established below, Table 9.17. In order to create the average we need to sum up the frequency of "very important" answers for each micro-skill in both universities and thereafter to divide the total by 2. Also, in order to find the percentage we need to divide the average of the frequency by the average of the ST in both universities; for example, if we take micro-skill 17/1, the frequency of the IU teachers is 19 (Table 9.16a) and the IMU teachers is 7 (Table 19.16b) the total of which is 26 and the average divided by 2 is 13. In order to establish the average number of the teachers we take the total number of subject teachers of both universities, i.e.  $24 + 8 = 32$  and divided by 2 = 16. The percentage of the average frequency of micro-skill 17/1 is 13 divided by the average number of the subject teachers which is 16 (81.25%) (as in Table 9.17 below). In the following, Table 9.17, we calculated the average frequency and the percentage of the "very important" micro-skills as well as the proportion of the micro-skills that received 75% or more (in the above two tables) in contrast to other micro-skills within the same category that received less than 75% in each category; for example, if we take the speaking micro-skills 17/23, 17/24 and 17/25 (Table 9.17), we will find that the micro-skill 17/25 received a frequency of 75% or more from the teachers' answers. The other two micro-skills (17/23 and 17/24) received only 15.63% and 21.88% successively. Thus, the proportion of micro-skill 17/25 to the other two micro-skills (17/23 and 17/24) in the same category (speaking) is  $1/3$ ; i.e.  $1 \div 3 \times 100 = 33.33\%$ .

code	very important (IU)		very important (IMU)		average frequency of "very important" responses of IU & IMU		proportion of 75% + to the whole category
	freq.	%	freq.	%	average	%	
<b>Reading</b>							
17/1	19	79.17	7	87.5	13	81.25	<b>72.73%</b>
17/2	23	95.83	8	100	15.5	96.88	
17/3	21	87.5	7	87.5	14	87.5	
17/4	24	100	8	100	16	100	
17/5	22	91.67	7	87.5	14.5	90.63	
17/7	24	100	8	100	16	100	
17/8	19	79.17	6	75	12.5	78.13	
17/9	2	8.33	1	12.5	1.5	9.38	
17/10	20	83.33	7	87.5	13.5	84.38	
17/11	2	8.33	-	-	1	6.25	
17/26	11	45.83	4	50	7.5	46.88	
<b>Writing</b>							
17/12	-	-	-	-	7.5	46.88	<b>20%</b>
17/13	-	-	-	-	-	-	
17/15	2	8.33	-	-	1	6.25	
17/16	-	-	-	-	-	-	
17/17	24	100	8	100	16	100	
<b>Listening</b>							
17/18	2	8.33	-	-	1	6.25	<b>0%</b>
17/19	-	-	-	-	-	-	
17/20	-	-	-	-	-	-	
17/21	1	4.17	-	-	.5	3.13	
17/22	10	41.67	3	37.5	6.5	40.63	
<b>Speaking</b>							
17/23	4	16.67	1	12.5	2.5	15.63	<b>33.33%</b>
17/24	5	20.83	2	25	3.5	21.88	
17/25	19	79.17	6	75	12.5	78.13	
<b>Vocabulary</b>							
17/6	24	100	8	100	16	100	<b>100%</b>
17/14	21	87.5	7	87.5	14	87.5	

Table 9.17: Summary of the present situation needs: Subject Teachers of *da'wa*

We were not surprised to find that micro-skills related to vocabulary was given top priority (100%), whereas those related to reading came in second position (72.73%). The other micro-skills dropped to less than 35%. It is expected therefore, that Subject Teachers consider the importance of vocabulary and reading to be taken into account in designing a TAAP course. The following list includes the micro-skills that should, in our opinion, be emphasised in any forthcoming TAAP course.

### 1. Vocabulary

17/6 Understanding *da'wa* terminology

17/14 Correct usage of *da'wa* terminology when writing

### 2. Reading:

17/1 Reading fluently material set by the lecturer

- 17/2 Extracting evidence found in Islamic literature
- 17/3 Reading a text to extract specific information
- 17/4 Intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text
- 17/5 Reading to understand the writer's point of view on a controversial issue
- 17/7 Reading to understand and discuss ideas given in the text
- 17/8 Reading in depth to understanding the message given in the text

### **3. Speaking:**

- 17/25 Expressing and defending one's point of view in the area of specialism

### **4. Writing:**

- 17/17 Using grammar correctly in academic writing

## **9.4 Administrative Staff Interview**

Designing a course is neither an individual decision nor a single process, it is a far more complex matter. Students, teachers and administrative staff are all factors to be taken into consideration. We have so far established in the current study the needs and demands of the learning situation, students, TAFL teachers (AT) and subject teachers (ST). We wanted to find out what the administrative staff of the TAFL Institutes and Da<sup>c</sup>wa Faculties in both IU and IMU would provide for a TAAP course. We have, therefore, interviewed the Deans of the Faculties of Da<sup>c</sup>wa and their deputies, the Deans of TAFL Institutes, the deputy of the TAFL unit in the Islamic University, Heads of the Da<sup>c</sup>wa Departments in both IU and IMU and the Head of the Arabic and Islamic Studies Department at the TAFL Institute (IMU).

They were asked five questions regarding their attitudes toward Language for Specific Purposes/Arabic for Specific Purposes, their support, when and where the course should take place and the facilities they would be able to provide the course with. The sixth question, addressed to the Deans of TAFL Institutes, was related to training teachers prior to a TASP course (see Appendix F). In as far as place and facilities, all expressed willingness to provide whatever is needed for such a course.

#### 9.4:1 Attitudes towards LAP/AAP

Administrative staff were asked if they thought that teaching language for academic purposes was necessary for the purposes of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. All agreed that it would be of great benefit and guaranteed full assistance.

#### 9.4:2 Time and Place of a TAAP course

Three periods of time options to run the TAAP course were given to the staff to choose,

Table 9.18:

code	time suggested	freq.	%
3/1	before students start their courses at the Faculty of Da <sup>c</sup> wa	2	20
3/2	during the time students are studying at the Faculty of Da <sup>c</sup> wa	7	70
3/3	during the time students are studying at the Language Institute	1	10

Table 9.18: The preferred time for the TASP course: Administrative Staff

Preferring the second, 70% favoured the time during which students are taking courses in the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa. Regarding the place for the TAAP course, the majority (80%) thought that the TAFL Institute would be an ideal location. There are three reasons for this: first, each university has its departments at the same location so students can move easily from one department to another to attend courses; second, facilities for language teaching already exist; and, third, the TAFL teachers who would teach Arabic for Specific Purposes normally work in the TAFL Institutes. It is important to mention here that the AS responses are similar to those proposed by First Year Students of Da<sup>c</sup>wa in their questionnaire Chapter Seven).

#### 9.4:3 Facilities, equipment and teaching aids

Equipment, teaching aids and other facilities would all be provided on the course, such as rooms, boards, textbooks, overhead projectors, language laboratory, tape recorders and audio-visual aids.

#### 9.4:4 Teacher training

Deans of the TAFL Institutes welcomed the idea of training teachers in the area of Arabic for Specific Purposes and they would endeavour to provide facilities for such a course.



## 9.5 Conclusion

In this chapter we analysed the needs and demands of Arabic teachers, subject teachers, administrative staff and explored what support and facilities a TAAP course would have and, importantly, what training teachers would be provided if with such a course were to run.

Our survey shows that Arabic teachers and subject teachers are well qualified: their attitudes towards TASP/TAAP are positive; they believe that this new approach is the right step forward to improve TAFL programmes in Saudi Arabia. Subject teachers and learning situation needs are in harmony with the subjective and objective needs of the First year Students of *Da'wa* emphasising reading as the most important skill as a priority in a TAAP course. It was found that Arabic teachers at IMU are more experienced in teaching language for specific purposes than those at IU. Finally, it was suggested that an ideal time for a TAAP course would be during the academic year at TAFL institute.

In Chapter Ten we will employ the needs in designing a TAAP course for the students of *da'wa*.

### **Course design for TAAP: Students of *da<sup>l</sup>wa*.**

#### **10.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapters we pointed out that apart from the course run by the Institut Français d' Études Arabes in Damascus, no other TAAP courses were found in the Arab world. An actual need for such courses in Saudi Arabia emerged from the results of the initial field survey (Chapter Three) and *da<sup>l</sup>wa* was considered an area of consideration.

We set out to inquire what framework would be needed in designing a course for teaching language for specific purposes: to do this we investigated all possible theories in the field of Language for Specific Purposes and Language for Academic Purposes (Chapter Five). Applying a framework to the field of Arabic for *da<sup>l</sup>wa* required us to identify the learners' needs, demands such as teachers, learning situation and institutes, and types of syllabuses. In the course of our inquiry we became aware of available factors and constraints which surround the course design process. In this Chapter we will focus on designing a course for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes tailored to the needs of *da<sup>l</sup>wa* students.

#### **10.2 General preliminary facts**

There are some important facts that need highlighting before we discuss the course design, namely that:

1. No tuition fees are charged in Saudi universities to both home and foreign students. We have experienced that our students though mature are less motivated than their peers in English for Academic Purposes where students pay for the course.
2. Despite the fact that most teachers are academically qualified they have no experience in teaching language for specific purposes or, for that matter, Arabic for Specific Purposes. Any success in running such a course depends on the quality of trained teachers by qualified people in the area which means, in the case of Saudi Arabia, that prospective teachers would have to be sent abroad for at least one academic year.
3. Teachers in Saudi Arabia are used to teaching from pre-designed textbooks and other materials are generally not permitted, whereas in a TAAP course creativity and

improvisation are essential. Teachers are expected to make suggestions within the course in order to modify or adjust content or methodology of the course according to the classroom circumstances.

4. The nature of the educational system in Saudi Arabia could impose certain constraints on the course designer and teachers as well. Thus, to introduce a new course or make major changes in an existing course is the decision of the State, bureaucratic as it may be. [The proposed course of TAAP, as a result, should be designed flexibly, so that any minor changes could be made immediately by teachers or designers.]

### 10.3 A model for TAAP course design

The diagram (Figure Twelve) below describes the procedures for designing a TAAP course for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students at IU and IMU: This model consists of several factors classified under four groups: external factors, course objectives, internal factors and evaluation.

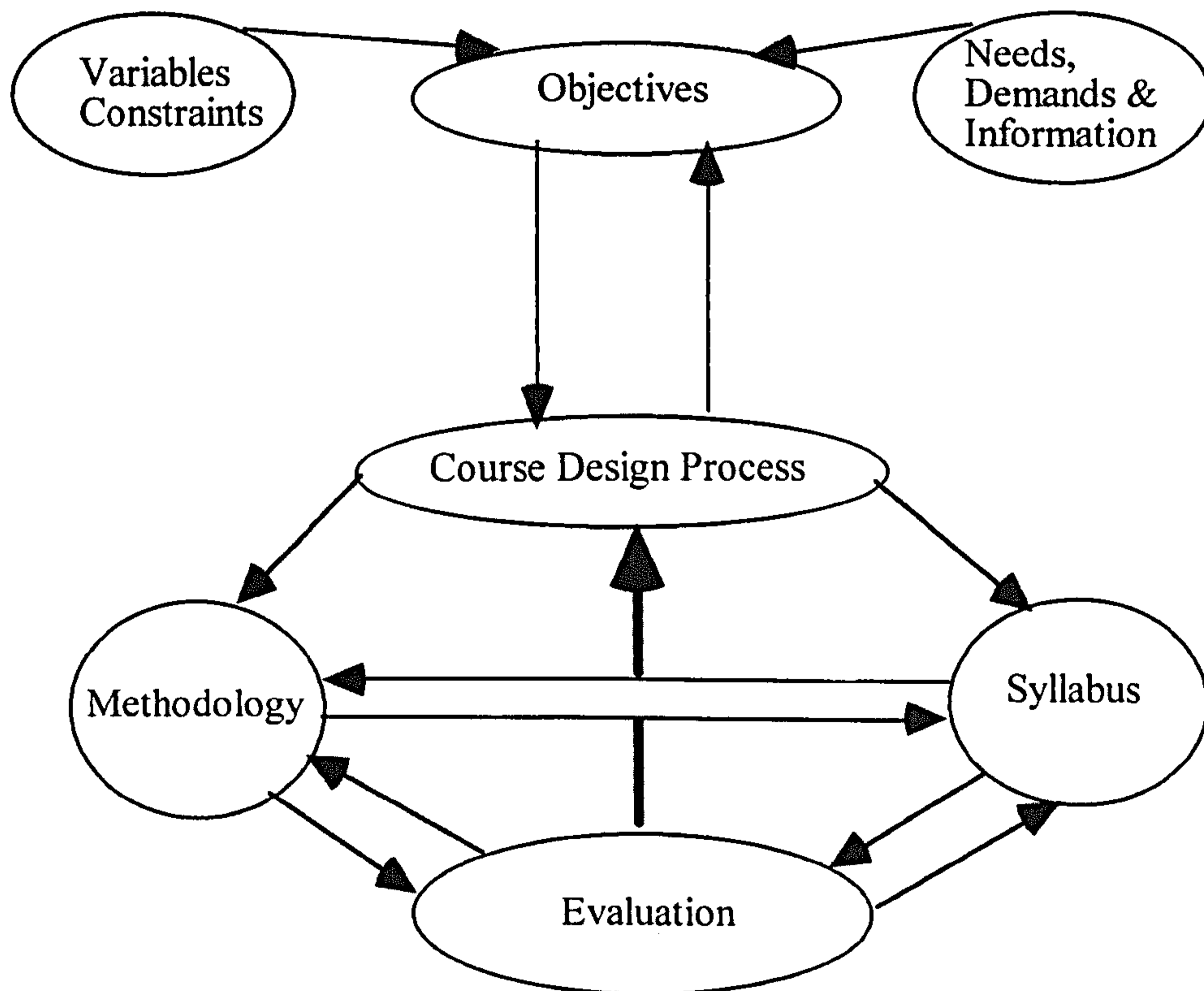


Figure Twelve: A model for designing a TAAP course for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students

### **10.3:1 External factors**

The external factors consist of two components, availability and constraints on the one hand and needs, demands and information on the other. They should be identified before having the course designed because the margin given to the course designer or teacher to adjust these two factors is either very narrow or non-existent. The designer/teacher in order to establish these two factors (i.e. the availability/constraints and the needs) has to seek the decision makers' agreement which would involve long and complex procedures, the result of which could lose time and students. Stopping the course in the middle and waiting for an agreement to make changes in the course is disruptive and unproductive. One solution to this is to have a team of course designers to monitor the progress of a TAAP course and make adjustments which would be implemented in the following or future course after the higher authorities have approved them.

Finally, the designers/teachers, though constrained by external factors, can, in fact, make changes in terms of adjusting the objectives and the course components of the syllabus and or methodology.

### **10.3:2 Course objectives**

First of all we need to state that course objectives are formulated from the needs, demands, availability and constraints that have been gathered from the learners, teachers, discipline and authorities. Therefore, objectives are an operational restatement of the external factors.

Course objectives should be located in a position between the external factors and internal factors. This location will allow for a possibility to change the internal factors by making a change in the course objectives. The change should be in the light of the existing external factors' scope. That is to say, if evaluating the course and students' progress a deficiency in both or either areas is seen, the course designer/teacher has to make some alterations in the internal factors. If these alterations are relating to the syllabus or methodology they can be made immediately, but if they relate to the course itself then amending the objectives of the course is required before making any alteration to the course. Any adjustment to the objectives should occur within the limitations of the needs, demands, availability and constraints that have

already been determined. Hence no extreme change can be expected; instead sequencing, re-ordering or even omitting certain objectives can be expected.

### **10.3:3 Internal factors**

The internal factors include the course design process, syllabus and methodology. Course design process in this model is not a one-off process. It is a continuous process which starts before the actual teaching alongside the classroom activities and lasts until the results of the final evaluation are ready. Many changes can therefore be made according to the course continuous assessment results. Again the changes should be within the range of the course's external factors.

Syllabus in this context refers to the content of the course and the teaching materials which should be selected within the course design process according to the objectives of the course. Syllabus, therefore, should reflect the needs of the students.

Methodology is responsible for determining how the syllabus is implemented; in other words, how the course is going to be taught inside the classroom as well as how the material is being selected and presented in the syllabus and then in the classroom.

The interaction between syllabus and methodology should be easily guaranteed to enable teachers to benefit from a two-way exchange between these important components as will be explained later in this chapter (10.3:5).

### **10.3:4 Evaluation**

Evaluation is the final component of the model. If it shows that there is a need for minor or major modification, the course designer/teacher deals through specific procedures (see 10.4) to amend, whenever it is possible, the deficiency.

### **10.3:5 Administering the model**

Looking back at Figure Twelve would help in administering this model as follows:

1. Translating the gathered needs and demands into specific objectives bearing in mind the constraints and availability.
2. Taking the objectives to the stage of the course design process which could be considered as an operations room for the course. In this operations room, the type of course, syllabus, materials and methodology are being worked on.

3. Establishing effective evaluation procedures for the course.
4. Content and methodology are decided from the operations room. If a deficiency emerges from the assessment an open consultation can be made between syllabus and methodology to clear up the problem. The classroom teacher can adjust the content or methodology according to the type and size of the problem that he/she has got. The consultation can also be made between evaluation and syllabus on one hand and evaluation and methodology on the other to solve any problems.
5. If the same deficiency persisted or another appeared in the second assessment results, the teacher has to go in this case to the operations room to consult the course designer(s). At this point, any change should not be made without referring to the course objectives.
6. If the same deficiency persisted or another appeared in the third assessment results, that means a shortcoming or mistake had occurred during the process of needs assessment and should be reported to the designers of future courses. The current course has to be run to the end with group or personal attempts to reduce any insufficiencies during the course.

#### **10.4 Developing a course for TAAP for students of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* in Saudi Arabia**

This course will be based on the suggested framework discussed earlier in Chapter Five (5.3).

##### **10.4:1 Needs Analysis**

The three instruments we used in our survey, the questionnaire, diagnostic test and interviews were to assess the needs of the learners, teachers and administrative staff. To summarise the principal facts in our preceding chapters (Chapters Six, Seven, Eight and Nine) we established from the questionnaire that students are adults (18+) of various nationalities and who speak different languages. They have already studied Arabic for more than two years and their proficiency level is intermediate and above. In general, students were not satisfied with the TAFL programmes pointing out that they were inadequate in terms of academic writing, comprehensive reading of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* literature, listening to lectures, discussion and public speaking skills. Having been explained what Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes could offer students welcomed the idea that such a course would improve their Arabic for *da<sup>c</sup>wa*. Reading indeed was considered as the most needed skill in this respect. We list the main points below:

**a) Learners' needs**

1. The current need is to use Arabic for *da'wa*.
2. The future need is to read primary religious sources in Classical Arabic and the secondary sources in Modern Standard Arabic.
3. The deficiency is in reading Islamic resources in general and understanding *da'wa* terminology specifically.
4. The specific needs are:

**Reading:**

- Reading fluently texts set by the lecturer.
- Extracting evidence in religious literature.
- Scanning to have a general idea about a certain topic.
- Reading intensively to extract most information from the text.
- Reading to understand the writer's views on a controversial issue.
- Reading to understand and discuss ideas given in the text.
- Deep reading to understand the message given by the text.
- Repeat reading to consolidate ideas.

**Vocabulary:**

- Understanding *da'wa* terminology.
- Correct usage of *da'wa* terminology when writing.

**Speaking:**

- Ability to take part in debate and argument about *da'wa* concepts.
- Delivering a speech or sermon.

**Writing:**

- Short essays and assignments.
- Answering examination questions.
- Using grammar correctly when writing in the field of specialism.

**5. Methodology**

A small group size of learners is preferable. Regarding the learning strategies, several were recommended such as:

- Listening and note taking.
- Listening without note taking.
- Reproducing what is read.
- Repeating (by way of speaking or writing) what was heard.
- Obtaining information by oneself.
- Memorising.
- Graphing a notebook with new words and expressions.
- More reading.
- Copying from the board.
- Role-playing.
- Simulation.

As for error correction, no specific method is recommended by the students, but we believe that correcting errors individually is a good way.

Several teaching aids were experienced and students were happy to see them being used in a TAAP course: these aids included language laboratory, audio-visual tools, fieldwork, newspapers and magazines. The researcher would like to use the computer as a learning aid whenever it is possible. The preferred place for such a course would be in a TAFL Institute where, it was suggested, it would run during the academic year.

### b) Target/learning situation needs

Learning situation needs are to equip students of *da'wa* with a competence in reading using different strategies to understand Islamic resources in both Classical and Modern Standard Arabic.

### 10.4:2 Means Analysis

The results of the main field study pointed to a number of constraints and availability which are summarised below:

no.	factors	constraints	availability
1	Culture	Due to the set-up of the IU and IMU as religious universities, the following are prohibited: i) television programmes which contain music and/or females; ii) music; iii) female pictures and iv) pictures of people or animals.	1. Being Muslims, students can integrate easily in the Saudi culture. ii. Television and video programmes can be shown after being censored.
2	Tutors	Teacher training in TASP is non-existent at the moment.	A number of them have generally good teaching qualifications.
3	Students	Different language background may interfere with their learning process in Arabic	Students' proficiency level in Arabic is suitable for a TAAP course.
4	Administrative, technical and other related staff		Administrative staff: secretaries, technicians, workers and cleaners are available.
5	Time	Academic year, evenings, part-time course for no longer than six hours a week	In-session part-time course for one or two semesters is appropriate.
6	Space		Any number or size of classrooms is available.
7	Facilities/equipment	No computers are available.	All the universities' facilities/equipment are provided free.
8	Accommodation		University accommodation is free and close to classrooms.
9	Finance		No restrictions



11	Other influences	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Shortage of ready TAAP materials.</li> <li>2. Lack of experience in LSP would affect students, response for the first weeks.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Designer will run the first course and will train teachers to develop their own materials.</li> <li>2. First week will be an introduction to the course.</li> </ol>
----	------------------	---	---

Table 10.1: Means analysis for a TAAP course

Thus, the scope of the course can be drawn as an in-session part-time course for ten weeks. The academic year in a university in Saudi Arabia is divided into two semesters of 16 weeks each, the first three are registration and orientation weeks and the last three are devoted to examinations; thus there are ten teaching weeks. Two days a week for this course will be ideal, the first being Sunday and the second Tuesday giving Monday off. Two sessions of ninety minutes each are recommended for each teaching day, in addition thirty minutes as a break for refreshments and *Cishā* (evening) prayers. The total hours are seven per week i.e. seventy hours for ten weeks for each semester.

#### 10.4:3 Goals and objectives

The goals and objectives are divided into three categories:

##### 10.4:3:1 General goals of the course

1. The purpose is to develop an in-session TAAP part-time course for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students at IU and IMU.
1. The course is designed for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students whose level in Arabic is intermediate and above.

##### 10.4:3:2 Course objectives

1. To develop main skills in reading Arabic for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* and improving secondary skills in academic writing, listening and public speaking.
2. The course is addressed to non-Arab undergraduate or postgraduate students at the Faculties of Da<sup>c</sup>wa.

##### 10.4:3:3 Students' objectives

The TAAP course is aimed to meet students' needs in order to:

1. grasp *da<sup>c</sup>wa* texts.
2. master skimming and scanning strategies.
3. comprehend main points in texts related to *da<sup>c</sup>wa*.
4. interpret statistical information.
5. understand the organisation of a passage.

6. improve the vocabulary of *da<sup>o</sup>wa* terminology.
7. improve academic writing.
8. improve public speaking.

#### **10.4:4 Syllabus design**

The syllabus is Arabic for Specific Academic Purposes (ASAP) as the focus is on *da<sup>o</sup>wa*. It can also be considered as Arabic for General Academic Purposes (AGAP) because it focuses on several skills, micro-skills and strategies which help in *da<sup>o</sup>wa* and in other academic disciplines.

Students will be users of Arabic rather than learners, so that the focus of the syllabus will be on providing them with skills and strategies that help them to obtain information which they need, thus working independently. In other words the syllabus will focus on making students aware of their potential competencies to employ them during the course and then stimulate them to undertake the texts on their own after the end of the course. That of course will enable them to carry on to improve their abilities in the required situations even after the completion of the TAAP course.

#### **10.4:4:1 Selecting the content**

The content of the syllabus is closely related to the learners' needs and learning situation demands. It is selected from the field of study and represents the whole subject that relates to the students' discipline and future work. Most of the texts must be selected from primary Arabic sources relating to *da<sup>o</sup>wa* and Islamic Studies in general. Some related texts can be selected from academic journals and newspapers and magazines. Materials can also be generated from audio-visual resources within the restrictions of the two universities as mentioned above. Indeed, the actual teaching in the Faculty of Da<sup>o</sup>wa is an appropriate environment in which to devise the teaching materials for a TAAP course.

#### **10.4:4:2 Setting up the skills**

To take advantage of the various texts it is important to set up the skills that are needed by the students and their particular study needs: these macro-skills and their micro-skills are listed as follows:

1. Reading
  - Predicting.
  - Scanning.

Skimming.  
Deducing unknown words.  
Extracting main points and evidence from texts.  
Distinguishing between factual and non-factual information.  
Distinguishing between important and less important information.  
Distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant information.  
Distinguishing between explicit and implicit information.  
Distinguishing between ideas, examples and opinions.  
Overviewing texts related to *da<sup>c</sup>wa*.  
Understanding and interpreting graphics and statistical information.  
Understanding the organisation of passages.

## 2. Public speaking

Statement of purpose-  
Introductory remarks.  
Content.  
Information in details.  
Giving evidence and references.  
Concluding remarks.

## 3. Writing

Relevance of vocabulary.  
Construction of sentences, paragraphing.  
Correct usage of *da<sup>c</sup>wa* terminology.  
Correct usage of spelling, conjunctions, punctuation marks.  
Correct usage of articles and prepositions.  
Correct use of aspects, conditionals and negative.  
Coherence of thought and logic sequence.

## 4. Listening

Decoding.  
Comprehending the main and subsidiary points.  
Taking notes.

### 10.4:4:3 Order and adaptation of texts

Written texts, audio-visual materials devised from authentic sources should be modified, ordered and adapted to the skills required. Frequent meetings and discussion should solve most of the problems that arise regarding to type and quality of texts selected for students. Primary sources are essential as mentioned in Chapter Six (6.4:4).

On selecting texts, priority should be given to the areas that are frequently used. In our experience, it is important to re-write or adjust the text according to the skills needed in the class (and that vary from one year to another), adapt them with drills, exercises and activities for classroom and after-class assignments.

## **10.4:5 Methodology**

### **I. Reality control (see 5.3:1:5)**

In principle, no serious difficulty is expected regarding the level of texts. The students are not beginners and can cope with complicated texts. A margin for unpredictable difficulties should be taken by the course designers; it can be the result of diversity in the students' level in Arabic and the nature of certain topics or teaching techniques used. In such a case, reality control can play a significant role in two ways:

1. The teacher has to give reasonable time to explain, clarify and employ appropriate teaching aids to simplify the task.
2. Topics, as often emphasised, should be inherent to the students' study purpose (*da'wa*). This will reduce the inadmissibility of the students to the topics and make the teaching more simple and enjoyable.

### **II. Nontriviality**

Students sometimes, especially in LSP courses, require every topic and activity to be related to their specific purposes. It is believed that determining and understanding the needs of the students and their discipline of study will help course designers to avert triviality. The advice is to avoid topics that serve no need to students. Naturally, some topics may attempt to remedy a deficiency resulting from the needs assessment stage, but in this case things should be clarified to the students. Avoiding triviality can also be guaranteed by not selecting topics that are very much lower than the level of the students.

### **III. Authenticity**

The principle of authenticity is undoubtedly ascertained in this course because most of the texts are generated from the students' field of study. Even those selected from other sources are strongly connected to the students' specific purpose (see 5.3:5).

### **IV. Teaching techniques**

The appropriate techniques used should be selected with regard to the nature of the target skills and strategies. They are not regarded as objectives on their own, but as tools which should be employed in the teaching process in a perfect way; for example, gap-filling, multiple-choice, open-question and matching can all be used in teaching academic reading lessons.

Naturally, each activity presumes certain techniques which are usually decided by the course designer in principle but can later be replaced by other techniques in the classroom. For this reason a list of teaching techniques are listed below to guide teachers where there is a need for it (Hutchinson and Waters 1994:139-142): 1) Gaps, designed to encourage students to think. This technique includes: gaps of information to allow students to share knowledge about a specific topic; option-gaps to distinguish between important and less important information on the one hand and relevant and irrelevant information on the other; and certainty-gaps to decide what is certainly known, what can be supposed or predicted and what sort of information that is not in hand at all; 2) Variety, which is practised to keep the mind attentive. So, different types of materials can be used such as texts, tapes, pictures and speech. In addition, the whole class can be involved in the activities as well as pairs or individual groups. The focus can be on accuracy, fluency, discourse or structure; 3) Prediction, which is important to both the use and learning of language. It is to establish students' confidence by enabling them to appreciate the potential information about the target activity. Teachers, by employing this technique, will be able to identify the gaps in the information and work from there to make the teaching closer to the needs of the students. It also motivates students to continue to the next step of the lesson where their predictions will turn out to be true or false; 4) Enjoyment, where all techniques and activities should be designed to make the teaching process enjoyable; 5) Coherence, where the lessons are designed and implemented coherently, each step depending on the former and leading to the next one; 6) Preparation, to warm students up before lessons and make them ready to learn; 7) Involvement, by asking questions. They should not be silly nor difficult and students should be given a reasonable time to answer; and 8) Creativity, where lessons should enable students to produce different answers, ideas and opinions about the same topic.

#### **10.4:6 Evaluation**

The course will include three types of tests: placement, progress/diagnostic and achievement/attainment. There will also be a final evaluation to find out about the course, teachers and students from both students and teachers.

##### **1. Placement test**

To save time, students should attend this test at least a week before the beginning of the TAAP course. Depending on the result of the test students will be grouped according to their level in Arabic.

## **2. Progress/diagnostic test**

This test has to be done three times during the course. At the end of weeks three, six and nine. These tests are to assess the progress of the students and their responses to the teaching process as well as to identify areas of difficulty that students are weak in. Results of the tests may lead to some changes in the syllabus, in the methodology or even in the course.

## **3. Achievement/attainment test**

This test takes place at the end of the TAAP course (week Ten) to evaluate the students' level and whether they have learned what they have been taught. Results of the test should be used to improve the next course.

All tests should be done and marked by the teachers of the TAAP course and the results reported to the course organiser. In the final week (week Ten) an evaluation questionnaire should be distributed to evaluate the students and the course from the teachers' perspective, and to evaluate the teachers and the course from the students' point of view. These tests are to be conducted by the course organiser.

## **10.5 Syllabus specifications**

The following, Table 10.2, is what we propose. It is a syllabus which includes the course contents week by week in terms of topics, skills, objectives and micro-skills.

weeks	topics	skills	objectives	micro-skills
One	1. Introducing the TAAP course 2. Overview of <i>daʿwa</i> , Arabic and skills	All macro-skills will be involved	1. To provide students with transparent notion of a TAAP course 2. To be aware of the language and skills that <i>daʿwa</i> students should acquire	No specific micro-skills required
Two	Tafsīr (Qurʿanic exegesis)	Reading	To be aware and be able to employ micro-skills such as summarising, skimming, scanning and comprehension in order to understand the given texts	Overview, scanning, skimming, comprehension and distinguishing between ideas, examples and opinions
Three	Ḥadīth (sayings and deeds of the prophet Muḥammad)	Reading and speaking	To be able to: 1 - read <i>ḥadīth</i> correctly. 2 - extract the main points in a <i>ḥadīth</i> . 3 - identify the chain of authorities in <i>ḥadīth</i> literature.	1. Prediction, scanning and skimming 2. Deducing unknown words 3. Extracting main points and evidence from texts 4. Distinguishing between explicit and implicit information 5. Understanding relationships between and within sentences 6. Recognising the specific language used in the text 7. Reading aloud
Four	Muṣṭalahāt al-ḥadīth (ḥadīth terminology)	Reading Writing Speaking	To be able to: - identify authenticity of <i>ḥadīth</i> . - discuss different examples of <i>ḥadīth</i> . - make written notes on the topic. - write short paragraphs about the topic. - read aloud.	Same as Week Three above + - recognising semantic markers and their functions. - construction of sentence, paragraphing. - correct usage of <i>daʿwa</i> terminology, spelling/ orthography, conjunctions, articles, and punctuation marks in writing
Five	Daʿwa workshop	Reading writing, speaking and listening	To be able to: - work in the actual field of <i>daʿwa</i> - evaluate what students have learned from the course	Employing all the previous micro-skills and strategies
Six	Tawḥīd (Theology)	Reading and speaking	To be able to: - differentiate between concepts - read in depth to understand the fine partitions in meaning - deliver a talk about the topic	Same as Weeks Three and Four above + understanding text organisation To prepare and deliver a <i>khutba</i> (sermon)
Seven	Ṣīra (The biography of the prophet Muḥammad)	Reading	To be aware and compare different historic, religious, and cultural components in a text	Same as Weeks Three, Four and Six above (except for the preparation and deliverance of a <i>khutba</i> )

Table 10.2: Designing course for TAAP; syllabus specifications

weeks	topics	skills	objectives	micro-skills
Eight	Islamic education	Reading and writing	To be able to: - extract the main and significant points from primary sources 1 - search through text (s) for relevant/irrelevant, important/less important and explicit/implicit information 2 - write short and meaningful paragraphs	Same as Weeks Three, Four, Six and Seven
Nine	Fiqh (jurisprudence)	Reading Listening Writing	To be able to: 1 - recognise methods of extracting <i>ahkām</i> (verses to prove that some- thing is either acceptable or not) from the Qur'an and <i>sunna</i> (tradition of the prophet) 2 - follow ideas on controversial issues 3 - listen to various <i>fatwās</i> (religious decrees) and extract the main points 4 - take notes from listening to lectures, radio and television programmes	Same as Weeks Three and Four + 1. understanding text organisation 2. decoding what has been said 3. comprehending the main and subsidiary points 4. taking notes
Ten	Da'wa workshop	The four traditional macro-skills	To assess and evaluate students' progress	Employing all the previous strategies and micro-skills

Table 10.2: Designing course for TAAP; syllabus specifications (continued)

### 10.6 Framework for experimental unit

In this section an overview will be given about how a unit can be designed and conducted. The reading task is divided into three stages: pre-reading, while-reading and after-reading; the focus is on the technique of scanning as it is the appropriate one to the strategy of reading for information. Of course, several techniques, such as, skimming and understanding the organisation of the text were not dismissed. The unit prompts students to play a role in the teaching process instead of giving the teacher the whole thing. Hence, all the activities are shared between small groups of two or three students and at the end of the activity the knowledge should be shared with the whole class, including the teacher.

The teacher is a leader and guide for the class, so he has to introduce the topic to the students in the appropriate way. In this unit the teacher has to warm the students up with a prediction question about what type of points can be discussed under the title of the text. The teacher has also to explain some concepts related to the reading techniques and strategies as well as involving students in discussion. The final responsibility is to



control the time for the unit as a whole and for each activity. The overall time for the unit is 210 minutes divided into 120 minutes for reading, 35 minutes for writing and 25 minutes for speaking, allowing 30 minutes for prayers followed by refreshments (see Appendix J). Teachers are provided with a detailed guide (see Appendix K).

Here is an outline of these important stages during the reading session:

### **I. Pre-reading stage**

1. Motivate students and animate their interest by relating the topics to their specific purposes. Pre-reading questions to warm the class up may help.
2. Use teaching aids, news or even short story or quiz to encourage students to read the text to find more about these starters.

### **II. While-reading stage**

1. Reading through is essential: it enables students to globally understand the text. When the students understand the overall meaning of the text then move towards activities of detailed understanding (Grellet 1981:6).
2. Suggest or let students suggest points to search for during the while-reading stage
3. Students should answer the following questions while reading (Beaumont 1983:26-34):
  - What is the text for?
  - Who is it written for?
  - How does it achieve its purpose?
  - What are the topic and the main points?
  - What are the supporting points?
  - How it can be distinguished between the main and the supporting points?
  - What are the author's points of view?

In order to answer the above questions and to improve the students' skills in reading, several strategies should be followed, such as:

1. The main point or ideas in the text can be identified by skimming.
2. The details can be obtained by scanning.
3. Predict what type of information likely to be found next in the text.
4. Do not stop to understand each word and especially difficult ones.
5. Deduce the unknown words, phrases or sentences (infer from context).
6. Identify and analyse cohesive devices. Students in this context should recognise four types of cohesion:

6.1. Reference and substitution which could be pronouns such as *huwa* (3ms), *hiya* (3fs), *hum* (3mpl), *hunna* (3fpl), etc, or could be demonstratives such as *hādhā* (ms), *hādhān* (md), *hādhihi* (fs), *hātāni* (fd), etc.

6.2. Ellipsis, when a word or even more is completely dropped such as, when one person says: *man rawā al-ḥadīth?* (who has recounted this *ḥadīth?*) Another answers: *al-Bukhārī*. That means: *al-Bukhārī rawā al-ḥadīth* (*al-Bukhārī* related the *ḥadīth*).

6.3. Conjunctions or links which are used to connect sentences such as: *wa-* or *fa-* (and, then therefore etc.), *alā r-raghm min dhālik* (in spite of that), *lākin* (but, however etc.), *bimā anna* (in view of the fact that, since, as, inasmuch as, because) , etc.

6.4. Lexical cohesion where related words are used in different sentences such as *sunna* which can be *ḥadīth*, *fiḥl* (act) or *sukūt* (no comment to a question raised to the prophet).

### III. After-reading stage

Depending on the type of the reading text, written or oral activities can follow the reading in order to strengthen and substantiate information and skills that have been gained or employed during the reading stage. In addition, each reading lesson is usually followed by drills and exercises to make sure that students have achieved the objectives of the reading lesson.

#### 10.6:1 Designing the experimental unit

This unit is basically designed to teach academic reading. Writing and speaking are integrated in the TAAP course and therefore we have sampled their related importance in this experimental unit (the whole unit is presented in Arabic in Appendix J). The text is selected from a classical source called: *Tanbīh al-ghāfiḥīn* (alerting the inadvertent) by al-Samarqandī (d. 373/983-4 or 393/1002-3): this selection is intended because it fits well with the students' needs of exploring classical texts.

The topic (the first day of Week Four) will be presented through a classical text entitled “*Al-Amr bil-maḥrūf wa- l-nahī ʿan al-munkar*” containing about 350 words in its original form. It deals with aspects and effects of “commanding the good and forbidding the

evil” (Netton 1997: 34) on the lives of Muslims. For this unit, the skills employed are mainly reading 70%, writing 15% and speaking 15% of the total time.

### 10.6:1:1 Administering the unit

Learners are supplied with handouts and teachers follow instructions in the teachers' guide. This is a two hundred and ten-minute unit of day one of Week Four, the objectives of which are a) to identify the authenticity of *ḥadīth* involving learners in a discussion of different types of *ḥadīth*, b) note-taking techniques, c) writing short paragraphs about a topic, and d) reading aloud and discussing some examples verbally. Micro-skills for this unit include i) enabling students to explore Classical Arabic texts, ii) practising skimming and scanning, iii) using the strategy of reading for information, iv) understanding text organisation, v) reading aloud, vi) practising punctuation marks, and vii) involving learners in discussion groups.

### Organisation of the unit

#### First: reading task

Title of the reading passage is “*Al-Amr bil-ma<sup>r</sup>rūf wa l-nahī<sup>r</sup> Can al-munkar*”.

#### A. Pre-reading stage (warming up):

1. What kind of topics do you predict to be discussed under this title?
2. Match the word in list (A) with its synonyms or antonyms in list (B)

#### List A

الأمر	طوبى	الأخيار	شأن	مفاتيح	العامّة
				أحب	محبيا

#### List B

أبغض	الخاصة	ويل	الأشرار	مغاليق	بغض
				محمودا	النهي

#### B. While reading stage

1. Skim the following text in three minutes and then discuss with your peer what points you remember:

(قال الفقيه) أبو الليث السمرقندي رحمه الله حدثنا أبو القاسم عبد الرحمن بن محمد حدثنا فارس بن مردويه حدثنا محمد بن الفضل حدثنا علي بن عاصم تلميذ أبي حنيفة رضي الله تعالى عنه عن يحيى بن سعد عن إسماعيل بن أبي حكيم قال قال عمر بن عبد العزيز رضي الله تعالى عنه إن الله لا يعذب العامة بعمل الخاصة ولكن إذا أظهرت المعاصي فلم ينكروا فقد استحق القوم جميعا العقوبة وذكر أن الله تعالى أوحى إلى يوشع بن نون عليه الصلاة والسلام أنني مهلك من قومك أربعين ألفاً من خيارهم وستين ألفاً من شرارهم فقال يارب هؤلاء الأشرار فما بال الأخيار قال انهم لم يغضبوا بغضبي وأكلوهم وشاربوهم\* روى أبو هريرة رضي الله تعالى عنه عن النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - قال مروا بالمعروف وان لم تعملوا به وانها عن المنكر وان لم تنتهوا عنه\* وروى أنس بن مالك رضي الله تعالى عنه عن النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - أنه قال إن من الناس ناساً مفاتيح للخير مغاليق للشر وان من الناس ناساً مفاتيح للشر مغاليق للخير فطوبى لمن جعل الله تعالى مفاتيح الخير على يديه وويل لمن جعل الله تعالى مفاتيح الشر على يديه\* يعني الذي يأمر بالمعروف وينهى عن المنكر فهو مفتاح للخير ومغلاق للشر وهو من المؤمنين كما قال الله تعالى - المؤمنون والمؤمنات بعضهم أولياء بعض يأمرون بالمعروف وينهون عن المنكر فأما الذي يأمر بالمنكر وينهى عن المعروف فهو من المنافقين كما قال الله تعالى - المنافقون والمنافقات بعضهم من بعض يأمرون بالمنكر وينهون عن المعروف - قال أمير المؤمنين علي بن أبي طالب كرم الله وجهه أفضل الأعمال الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر وشنان الفاسق يعني بغضه فمن أمر بالمعروف فقد شذ ظهر المؤمن ومن نهى عن المنكر فقد أرغم أنف المنافق\* وروى سعيد عن قتادة قال ذكر لنا رجل أن رجلاً أتى النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - وهو يومئذ بمكة فقال أنت الذي تزعم أنك رسول الله قال نعم قال فأي الأعمال أحب إلى الله تعالى قال الإيمان بالله قال ثم ماذا قال صلة الرحم قال ثم ماذا قال الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر قال فأي الأعمال أبغض إلى الله سبحانه وتعالى قال الشرك بالله قال ثم ماذا قال قطيعة الرحم قال ثم ماذا قال ترك الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر\* قال سفيان الثوري رحمه الله إذا رأيت القارئ محبباً في جيرانه محموداً عند أخوانه فأعلم أنه مدهن\* (قال الفقيه) حدثنا محمد بن الفضل قال حدثنا محمد بن خزيمة قال حدثنا محمد بن الأزهر بإسناده عن عبد الله بن جرير عن أبيه قال قال رسول الله - صلى الله عليه وسلم - ما من قوم يكون فيهم رجل يعمل بالمعاصي ويقدر أن يغيروه فلا يغيرونه إلا عمهم الله بعذاب

قبل أن يموتوا (قال الفقيه) رحمه الله تعالى قد اشترط النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - القدرة يعني إذا كانت الغلبة لأهل الصلاح فالواجب عليهم أن يمنعوا أهل المعاصي من المعصية إذا أظهروا المعاصي لأن الله تعالى مدح هذه الأمة بذلك قال - كنتم خير أمة أخرجت للناس تأمرون بالمعروف وتنهون عن المنكر وتؤمنون بالله \*

2. Scan the text in order to find information to support or match the following statements:

- أ. اسم لأحد طلاب العلم على يد الإمام أبي حنيفة  
ب. إن شيوع الذنب قد يؤدي إلى عذاب المذنب وغير المذنب  
ج. وجوب الأخذ على يد العاصي  
د. زيارة وبر ذوي الأرحام من أفضل الأعمال  
هـ. عدد أسماء الرواة في سند حديث عمر بن عبد العزيز  
و. عدد الآيات القرآنية التي وردت في القطعة  
ز. علامات المنافقين

### C. After- reading stage

1. Re-read the text to locate the evidence from the Qur'an or *hadith* on the following statements:

- أ. وجوب الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر حتى وإن لم يلتزم الداعي بذلك  
ب. إن من مقتضيات الإيمان الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر  
ج. إن تغيير المنكر مقيد بالقدرة  
د. إن الإيمان بالله وصلة الرحم والأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر من أحب الأعمال إلى الله

2. Underline the main points in the text.  
3. How many paragraphs would you divide the text into: (tick the appropriate answer)  
( ) three ( ) four ( ) five or ( ) six  
4. Are the *hadiths* in the passage mentioned in al-Bukhārī and/or Muslim's text?

### **Second: Writing task**

1. Re-read the text and put in the appropriate punctuation marks.
2. Identify the main *da'wa* terminology in the text and describe it in writing.
3. Write a short paragraph on any topic of the text.

### **Third: Speaking task**

1. Sufyān al-Thawrī said in the passage that:

"إذا رأيت القارئ محبباً في جيرانه محموداً عند أخوانه فاعلم إنه مداهن"

- a) in your opinion is this a fact or a comment?
- b) discuss what you think with your peer
- c) let one of you present what you think to the whole class

2. Now read the passage aloud in fully vocalized form.

### **10.6:2 Teacher' s guide**

We will now provide information about the teacher's guide for the above mentioned unit (10.6:1). Teachers are given detailed instructions regarding each task and each activity. Teaching time is 180 minutes for the whole unit and an extra thirty minutes for a break. In the following (see instructions in Arabic in Appendix K) the teachers' instructions as to how to teach the unit will be briefly outlined.

The time allocated for each exercise is considered on the basis that the unit presented here is in Week Four which that students had already been briefed earlier on the application of micro-skills and techniques. The timing of the exercises in this experiment unit is flexible and teachers might need to re-distribute it according to the students' needs and levels.

#### **First: reading task**

1. Warm-up. The students are asked question no. A1 in the pre-reading stage. Students should be divided into small groups of pairs or threes and each group asked to make notes and present their prediction about the topic to the class. Time given is three minutes for you to introduce the prediction technique and seven minutes for the students to guess, totalling ten minutes.
2. The students have to answer question no. A2 in the pre-reading task individually. The class is then divided into small groups to discuss and compare their answers. At this point you need to go around to check their work. The correct answer is given to you in your guide. The approximate time is eight minutes.
3. For B1 explain to the students what skimming means and what the aim of this technique is, then ask them to skim the text in three minutes to pick-up some essential points from the text. The time is seven minutes for you to explain the skimming technique, three minutes for them to skim the text and six minutes for discussion linking the points they remember from the skimming, totalling sixteen minutes. Do not allow them to refer to the text during the discussion.

**Note 1:**

Skimming is to read through a text quickly to understand the main points without bothering about the meaning of the new vocabulary or the details.

4. Ask the students to re-read the text to find the correct answers to question B2, the information they collect individually should be discussed in small groups and then the correct answers given to them (provided for you in your guide). Before anything else, you need to explain to them what is meant by reading for information (see note 2). Take seven minutes to explain the technique, ten minutes for the students to scan the text and five minutes to check the answers with you. B2 should take twenty two minutes in total.

**Note 2:**

Scanning means reading for certain information. To make a successful scan students should: 1. Focus on the aims of reading ignoring irrelevant information; 2. Search for the required information in the likely places, and 3. run your eyes rapidly over the text looking for hints associated with the information sought.

5. Question C1 in the reading task asked students to read to locate some certain evidence from the text. Advise them to use the scan technique to establish the target evidence. Divide the students into groups in pairs after the reading to compare their answers and then give them the correct answers, which are provided in the guide. Give them ten minutes for the whole activity.

6. In question C2 in the reading task students are asked to underline the main points in the text. Explain that to them and give them the first point as an example. The main points are already underlined in the guide. Give seven minutes for procedural techniques in underlining main points, ten minutes to underline the main points and eight minutes for the discussion. C2 should take twenty five minutes in total.

7. For C3 give them ten minutes to divide the text into paragraphs after giving them the first paragraph as an example; then ask them to discuss their answers in pairs and with you. The answer is provided in your guide. The total time for C3 is fifteen minutes.

8. For C4 you should bring to the class handouts from al-Bukhārī and Muslim to teach them how to find information about the authorities of *ḥadīth*, take five minutes for this explanation; then give the students nine minutes to look at *ḥadīth* in the handouts provided and to discuss their work.

### **Second: Writing Task**

1. Explain to the students what is meant by punctuation marks and when they are used. Provide them with a list of these marks and the way they are used (see note 3). Give five minutes to the explanation and eight minutes for them to put the marks on the passage and to discuss with them the answer.
2. Make clear what you mean by *da'wa* terminology (two minutes) and then ask the students to locate the terminology in the passage in four minutes; then, give them six minutes to describe this terminology by writing short definitions. Twelve minutes is allocated for the whole exercise.
3. Ask each student to choose a topic from the text and to write (ten minutes) short paragraph (s) about it.

#### **Note 3:**

Prepare yourself for this activity by reading the guide entitled *Mu'allim al-ilmā' al-ḥadīth lil-tullāb wa-l-mu'allimīn wa-l-ʿāmiyyīn* by Muḥammad Ibrāhīm Sa'īm: (Cairo, 1407/1987), pp 193-208.

### **Third: Speaking Task**

Give the students hints about how to express their opinion, how to listen to the opinion of others and what kind of language can be used to express one's views. Give them 10 minutes for question no 1 in this activity; try to join in the discussion. Different views make a discussion interesting. For reading aloud give the students fifteen minutes to read. From time to time give them examples of the ideal reading.

### **10.7 Conclusion**

We have worked on general principles to make the course match the country's specific conditions. The researcher thereafter introduced a model for a course in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes containing some external and internal factors, objectives and evaluations. The chapter focused on designing the TAAP course based on the data collected from the main field study such as learners' needs, teachers and organisation demands as well as the learning situation needs. We prepared at the end a unit for teaching academic reading, writing and speaking in such a course.



### Conclusion

Coming up with this research was firstly a response to the Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in sending the present researcher to study course design in TAFL at the University of Leeds. The question was what type of course is really needed in Saudi TAFL programmes and how can it be designed? In order to answer this question we had to conduct an initial field study in which we investigated the TAFL programmes and whether or not the needs of the TAFL students were met. The results of the initial field study led us to conclude that the students' primary concern was to improve their level of Arabic in Islamic Studies and *da'wa* in particular. One other serious concern in Saudi Arabia is the lack of TAFL programmes addressed firstly to non-Arabs and their families who live in the country for short or long periods. With this in mind and with the strong belief in the importance of *da'wa* studies the researcher set out to inquire about the specific needs of non-Arab students studying *da'wa* at Imam University (Riyadh) and Islamic University (Al-Madina).

Establishing a theoretical framework for learners' needs assessment and analysis was a crucial point in this project as we understand that learners' needs are the most important factor in the field of Language for Specific Purposes. In fact, learners' needs were not important as a target in itself but rather to employ them in designing a course. Our review of the literature on teaching languages for specific purposes helped us to establish a theoretical framework for a course design focusing on Arabic for *da'wa*. To make things more pragmatic we presented an experimental unit as an example of how this course can be implemented.

In more detail, we did base our investigations on two field studies: the first involved the final level students of TAFL and a sample of the non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia; the second was concerned with non-Arab students in the Faculty of Da'wa at Imam University and Islamic University.

In the initial field study candidates listed several fields and disciplines they think that Arabic is needed for, eg. 77 (79.38%) TAFL students indicated the need of Arabic for religious purposes, 40 (41.24%) for education and 19 (19.59%) required Arabic for day-to-day activities. Non-Arabs working in Saudi Arabia, on the other hand, pointed to the need of Arabic for communicating with their Arabic-speaking colleagues (49.05%), read in Arabic for work purposes (45.50%) and represent their organisation in Arabic-speaking professional circles (41.42%).

Among the majority of TAFL students (79.38%) that need Arabic for religious purposes we found that 78.35% of them were generally weak in several areas of Islamic Studies. This cause for concern urged the researcher to examine the reasons behind their weakness, in particular that 80.41% of the students indicated that they need Arabic specifically for *da'wa* studies. Our attention was therefore drawn to design a course with these pressing needs in mind.

Consistently, we looked into several frameworks in the EFL/ESP literature. Our survey showed "reading" to be the most required skill for students in academic situations. Our students have already completed a course in Arabic as a Foreign Language and reached an intermediate level or above in Arabic. Indeed, they are users of the language more than learners and what they would need is reading micro-skills to enable them to improve their Arabic to be used during the target course and after the course is over. Thus, one of the results of this survey indicated that designing courses for Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes should rely on improving the skills and strategies that help students to study at the university alongside Arab native speakers.

Accordingly, principles and bases of course design in English for Specific Purposes and English for Academic Purposes were intensively surveyed emphasising those concentrating on skills-oriented approaches rather than content-oriented approaches. We proposed a framework for a TASP course design consisting of several integrated stages (Table 5.1), the principles of which are: i) needs analysis, including target situation, learners, educational organisation and teachers; ii) setting the general goals and specific objectives; iii) means analysis, including availability and constraints; iv) syllabus design, emphasising a skills-based syllabus; and v) methodology and assessment.

Needs assessment was given particular attention in the second (main) field study. We did not focus on the learners' needs only but extended to the learning situation, believing it to be the more objective and reliable source for needs, reflecting the nature of study and the type of language used as well as the skills required. Likewise, needs, demands, advice and suggestions of the subject teachers and Arabic teachers were assessed. We also investigated the facilities and support that can be provided by the educational organisation by interviewing the administrative staff at the two universities.

The most important results of the needs assessment process supported what was to us clear in the analysis of the learning situation, that reading was the most essential skill for learners to cope with Classical and Modern Arabic. The TAFL programmes, in the candidates' view, were inadequate in equipping them with academic macro-skills. The diagnostic test results showed that students were weak in several reading strategies: over-viewing texts, skimming, scanning, comprehending the main points in a text and understanding the organisation of a passage. As for writing, students suffered from a lack of using the appropriate *da'wa* terminology, as well as using correct grammar and syntax. Regarding teachers, we found that Arabic teachers in Imam University were more qualified in teaching than their peers in the Islamic University though *da'wa* teachers proved to be well qualified in both universities. All teachers were supportive of a TASP course and suggested reading as a top priority for *da'wa* studies.

Taking into account various factors affecting the process of designing a course under the umbrella of the Saudi educational system and recognising the needs and demands that were identified by the main field study, we proposed a model for a course design in Teaching Arabic for Academic Purposes. This model embraces external and internal factors, objectives, syllabus design, methodology and evaluation. The external factors involved needs, demands and information about the learning situation, on the one hand, and constraints and availability on the other. These are usually set up at the beginning of the course as a result of a needs assessment process and are not subjected to any changes during the course. From the external factors we extracted the objectives of the course and according to these objectives the syllabus was designed and the methodology defined. The last factor was the evaluation. If evaluation at any stage shows a deficiency there can be a discussion on the internal factors, i.e. we can find out if the problem is posed by a shortcoming in the syllabus content or by the methodology

used. In fact we put an open channel of communication between syllabus and methodology and any problem could be solved. If the problem persists, consultation with the course designer could resolve it by going back to the objectives of the course and making any possible change. If, however, the problem remains, then it has to be related to the external factors; in this case it would not be solved until making another needs assessment.

Subsequently, we developed a ten-week course in Arabic for *da'wa* students. The course is projected to take place during the academic year twice a week in the evenings, each session lasting three and half hours (including thirty minutes break). All the micro-skills reported in the needs analysis stage will be covered within several topics related to the students' study.

How the course can be implemented was discussed in detail in an associated unit. We chose Week Four from the syllabus specification section (Table 10.2) and set it up ready to be taught for one hundred and eighty minutes (180), giving reading 70% of the time, writing and speaking about 15% each. This unit is summarised in Chapter Ten (10.6:1) and presented in Arabic in Appendix J.

The researcher believes that TAFL should be extended outside the university to include non-Arabs in the Saudi community. This could be achieved through the universities or the Ministry of Knowledge by developing short courses for learners at different levels in Arabic or by launching private centres to run TAFL as well as TASP programmes. Any innovation in this direction should be based on evaluating the current TAFL programmes to see whether or not they have achieved what they were designed for.

Our findings in this thesis lay the foundations for future studies and planning not only in the context of Saudi Arabia but in other centres outside the country. Arabic for specific purposes is an inevitable development and should be introduced to the field of TAFL within the university context and in terms of non-degree courses. It is our belief that TAFL short courses should be available to non-Arab adults as well as including TAFL programmes for children of non-Arabs in the private and public sectors.

The model presented in this thesis can be applied to other disciplines in Islamic Studies; furthermore the framework introduced in our study can in fact be adapted to any area including the arts, sciences or, for that matter, any profession. We also think that Arabic for Academic Purposes concentrating on study-skills is an area which justifies exploration among Arab students in our universities.

## Bibliography

Abboud, Peter *et al.* 1991.

*Modern Standard Arabic: Intermediate Level.* Michigan: University of Michigan Press; first published 1971.

Abboud, Peter *et al.* 1983.

*Elementary Modern Standard Arabic, Parts I-II.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; first published 1968.

Agius, Dionisius. 1988.

*Arabic Language Teaching in the United Kingdom 1988 Directory.* Leeds: Folia Scholastica.

Agius, Dionisius. 1997.

*Mabruk: Level One Arabic Course*, revised Saadia Gamir. Leeds: University of Leeds; first published 1989.

Allen, J. P. B. 1984.

“General-purpose language teaching: a variable focus approach”, in *General English Syllabus Design*, ed. C. Brumfit (Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon): 61 - 73.

Attar, Samar. 1988.

*Modern Arabic: An Introductory Course for Foreign Students*, Books I-II. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Baccouche, Balkacem and Azmi, Sanaa. 1984.

*Conversations in Modern Standard Arabic.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Bachman, L. 1981.

“Formative evaluation in specific purpose program development”, in *Language for Specific Purposes Program Design and Evaluation*, eds. R. Mackay and J. Palmer (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, INC): 106 – 116.

Bachman, L. 1990.

“The development and use of criterion-referenced tests of language program evaluation”, in *The Second Language Curriculum*, ed. R. Johnson (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press): 242 - 258.

Badawi, al-Said Mohammad. 1983-1993.

*Al-Kitāb al-Asāsī*, Part I-III. Tunis: Arab League Cultural, Educational and Scientific Organisation.

Al-Batal, Mahmoud (ed.). 1995.

*The Teaching of Arabic as a Foreign Language, Issues & Directions*. Provo, Utah: American Association of Teachers of Arabic.

Berwick, R. 1990.

“Needs assessment in language programming: from theory to practice”, in *The Second Language Curriculum*, ed. Robert K. Johnson (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press): 48 - 62.

Blue, George. 1988.

“Individualising academic writing tuition”, in *Academic Writing: Process and Product*, ed. Pauline C. Robinson [ELT Documents, 129] (London: Modern English Publications and the British Council): 95 - 99.

Blyth, Maria. 1996.

“Designing an EAP course for postgraduate students in Ecuador”, in *Teachers as Course Developers*, ed. Kathleen Graves (New York: Cambridge University Press): 86 - 118.

Breen, Michael. 1984.

“A process syllabuses for the language classroom”, in *General English Syllabus Design*, ed. Christopher Brumfit (Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon): 47 - 60.

Brown, J. 1990.

"Language program evaluation: a synthetic of existing possibilities", in *The Second Language Curriculum*, ed. Robert K Johnson (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press): 222 - 241.

Brumfit, Christopher. 1977.

"Commonsense about ESP", in *English for Specific Purposes*, ed. S. Holden (London: Modern English Publications): 71 - 72.

Brumfit, Christopher. 1984 a.

*General English Syllabus Design*. Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon.

Brumfit, Christopher. 1984b.

"Function and structure of a state school syllabus for learners of second or foreign languages with heterogeneous needs", in *General English Syllabus Design*, ed. C. J. Brumfit (Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon): 75 - 82.

Brustad, Kristen. 1995-1997.

*Al-Kitaab fii Ta'allum al-ʿArabiyya: A Textbook for Arabic*, Parts I-II. Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Candlin, C. 1984.

"Syllabus design as a critical process", in *General English Syllabus Design*, ed. C. Brumfit (Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon): 29 - 43.

Chambers, F. 1980.

"Are-evaluation of needs analysis in ESP", *ESP Journal*, 1: 25 - 33.

Ben Chik, Abdul-Rahman. 1988.

*Teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes (ASP) in Malaysia with reference to Teaching Reading skills at the International Islamic University*. MA Dissertation. University of Salford.



Clarke, D. 1989.

“Communicative theory and its influence on materials production”, *Language Teaching*, 22: 73 - 86.

Crocker, T. 1981.

“Scenes of endless science: ESP and education”, in *The ESP Teachers: Role, Development and Prospects* [ELT Documents, 112] (London: English Language Information Centre): 7-15.

Dubin, Fraida and Olshtain, Elite. 1992.

*Course Design Developing Programs and Materials for Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; first published 1986.

Garbutt, Michael and O'Sullivan, Kerry. 1991.

*IELTS Strategies for Study Reading , Writing, Listening & Speaking at University and College*. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research-Macquarie University.

Garcia, Dolores. 1976.

“Decisions and variables in curriculum construction: their implementations for syllabus design in English language teaching”, in *Curriculum Development and Syllabus Design for English Teaching*, ed. Geoffrey H. Wilson (Singapore: Regional English Language Centre): 1 - 20.

Graves, Kathleen. 1996.

*Teachers as Course Developers*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Grellet, F. 1981.

*Developing Reading Skills*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Holme, Randal. 1996.

*ESP ideas: Recipes for Teaching Professional and Academic English*. Harlow: Longman.

Howatt, Anthony. 1974.

“The background to course design”, in *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics*, ed. J. Allen and S. Corder, volume III (Oxford: Oxford University Press): 1 - 23.

Hutchinson, Tom and Waters, Alan. 1994.

*English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-Centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; first published 1987.

Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University 1403/1983.

*Prospectus: Institute of Teaching Arabic to non-Arabs*. Riyadh: The University Press.

Inlow, Gail. 1970.

*Education: Mirror and Agent of Change*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Inlow, Gail. 1973.

*The Emergent in Curriculum*. New York: John Wiley; first published 1966.

Jāmiʿat al-Imām Muḥammad Ibn Saʿūd al-Islāmiyya. 1408/1987.

*Silsilat taʿlīm al-lughat al-ʿarabiyya, al-mustawā l-awwal: Daʿlil al-muʿallim*. Riyadh: Maṭābiʿ al-Jāmiʿa.

Jāmiʿat al-Imām Muḥammad Ibn Saʿūd al-Islāmiyya. 1415/1995.

*Daʿlil Jāmiʿat al-Imām Muḥammad Ibn Saʿūd al-Islāmiyya*. Riyadh: Maṭābiʿ al-Jāmiʿa.

al-Jāmiʿat al-Islāmiyya. 1410/1990a.

*Manhaj taʿlīm al-lughat al-ʿarabiyya li-ghayr al-naṭiqīn bihā*. Al-Madina: (Unpublished Draft).

al-Jāmiʿat al-Islāmiyya. 1410/1990b.

*Manhaj al-dirāsa fī Kuliyyat al-Daʿwa wa Uṣūl al-Dīn*. Al-Madina: Maṭābiʿ al-Jāmiʿa.

al-Jāmi'at al-Islāmiyya. 1414/1994a.

*Al-Jāmi'a l-Islāmiyya bil-Madīna l-Munawwara khilāl 33 'ām.* Al-Madina:  
Maṭābi' al-Jāmi'a.

al-Jāmi'at al-Islāmiyya. 1414/1994b.

*Silsilat durūs fī ta'lim al-luġhat al-'Arabiyya wa thaqāfat l-islāmiyya.*  
Al-Madina: Maṭābi' al-Jāmi'a.

Jāmi'at Umm Al-Qura. 1406/1986.

*Da'il shāmil li-ma'had al-luġhat al-'Arabiyya bi-Makka l-Mukarrama.*  
Makkah: Maṭābi' al-Jāmi'a.

James, C. V. 1974.

“Estimating adult needs”, in *Teaching Languages to Adults for Special Purposes*, ed. G. Perren (London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research): 76 - 90.

Johnson, Mauritz. 1967.

“Definitions and models in curriculum theory”, *Educational Theory*, 17: 127 - 140.

Jordan, R. R. 1997.

*English for Academic Purposes a Guide and Resource Book for Teachers.*  
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kelliny, Irone. 1994.

*Needs Analysis and Language Awareness in an EFL/ESP Context: A Case Study.* Ph.D. Thesis. University of Liverpool.

Kennedy, Chris and Bolitho, Rod. 1991.

*English for Specific Purposes.* London: Macmillan; first published 1984.

Kerr, John. 1968.

“The problem of curriculum reform”, in *Changing the Curriculum*, ed. John Kerr (London: University of London Press): 13 - 38.

Kerr, L. 1977.

“English for special purposes”, in *English for Specific Purposes*, ed. S. Holden (London: Modern English Publications): 11 - 12.

al-Khayāt, Khālid. 1411/1991.

*al-Uslūb al-tarbawī lil-da<sup>ḥ</sup>wa ilā-Allāh fil-<sup>ḥ</sup>aṣr al-ḥādir*. Jeddah: Dār al-Mujtama<sup>ḥ</sup>.

King Saud University. 1407/1987.

*Arabic Language Institute Catalog*. Riyadh: The University Press.

Lewis, Arthur. and Miel, Alice. 1972.

*Supervision for Improved Instruction: New Challenges, New Responses*. California: Wadsworth.

Littlewood, W. 1983.

*Communicative Language Teaching an Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Longman. 1992.

*Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Essex: Longman; first published 1978.

Mace, John. 1996.

*Arabic Today: a Student, Business and Professional Course in Spoken Arabic*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Mackay, R. and Mountford, A. 1972.

“A programme in English for postgraduate students in the faculties of science, applied science and agriculture in the University of Newcastle Upon Tyne”, in *Modern Language Teaching to Adults: Language for Special Purposes*, eds. M. De Greve, *et al* (Brussels: Aimav): 135 - 164.

Mackay, R. and Mountford, A. 1978.

“The teaching of English for special purposes: theory and practice”, in *English for Specific Purposes a Case Study approach*, ed. R. Mackay and A. Mountford (London: Longman): 2 - 20.

Mackay, R. 1981a.

“Developing a reading curriculum for ESP”, in *English for Academic and Technical Purposes: Studies in Honor of Louis Trimble*, eds. L. Selinker et al (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers): 134 - 145.

Mackay, R. 1981b.

“Accountability in ESB programmes”, *ESP Journal*, 1: 107 – 121.

Mackay, R. and Palmer, J. (eds.) 1981.

*Language for Specific Purposes: Program Design and Evaluation*.  
Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Mackay, R. and Bosquet, M. 1981.

“LSP curriculum development from policy to practice”, in *Language for Specific Purposes: Program Design and Evaluation*, eds. R. Mackay and J. Palmer (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers):1 - 28.

Maḥmūd, ʿUshārī. 1983.

“Taʿlīm al-lughat al-ʿarabiyya li-āghrāḍ muḥaddada”, *Arab Journal of Language Studies*, 1:115-127

Mansoor, M. 1965.

*Legal and Documentary Arabic Reader*, volumes I-II. Leiden: E.J. Brill.

McCarus, Ernest and Rammuny, R. 1974.

*A Programmed Course in Modern Literary Arabic Phonology & Script*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

McCarus, Ernest *et al.* 1975.

*First Lessons in Literary Arabic.* Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

McDonough, Jo. 1984.

*ESP in Perspective.* London: Collins.

Munby, John. 1994.

*Communicative Syllabus Design.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; first published 1978.

Al-Nāqa, M. 1985.

*Barāmij taʿlīm al-ʿarabiyya lil-Muslimīn al-nāṭqīn bi-lughāt ūkhrā fī daw' dawāfīʿhim.* Makkah: Mṭābiʿ Jāmicat Umm Al-Qura.

Neagley, R and Evans, D. 1967.

*Handbook for Effective Curriculum Development.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Netton, Ian Richard. 1992.

*A popular Dictionary of Islam.* Lincolnwood, Illinois: NTC Publishing Group.

Nicholls, A. and Nicholls, H. 1978.

*Developing a Curriculum: A Practical Guide.* London: Allen and Unwin; first published 1972.

Noss, Richard. and Rodgers, Theodore. 1976.

“Does English for special purposes imply a new kind of language syllabus?”, in *Curriculum Development and Syllabus Design for English Teaching*, ed. G. Wilson (Singapore: Singapore University Press): 51 - 78.

Nunan, David. 1994a.

*The Learner-Centred Curriculum.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; first published 1988.

Nunan, David. 1994b.

*Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; first published 1988.

Oppenheim, A. N. 1993.

*Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitudes Measurement*. London: Printer Publishers; first published 1966.

Perren, G. 1974.

"Introductory: the past five years", in *Teaching Languages to Adults for Special Purposes*, ed. G. Perren (London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research): 7 - 11.

Phillips, M. 1981.

"Toward a theory of LSP methodology", in *Languages for Specific Purposes Program Design and Evaluation*, eds. R. Mackay and J. Palmer (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers): 92-105.

Pragnell, Fred. 1992.

*Arabic in Action: a Basic Course in Spoken Arabic*. London: Lund Humphries.

Qotbah, Mohammed. 1990.

*Needs Analysis and the Design of Course in English for Academic Purposes: A Study of the Use of English Language at University of Qatar*. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Durham.

Rammuny, Raji. 1978.

*Modern Standard Arabic*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan.

Rammuny, Raji. 1991-1995.

*Programmed Arabic-Islamic Readers, Books I-II*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre

Rammuny, Raji. 1993.

*Advanced Business Arabic (Part I)*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

Remache, Abdel Ghani. 1992.

*A Needs Analysis Approach to ESP Syllabus Design with Special Reference to English for Science and Technology in the Algerian ESP Centres.* Ph.D. Thesis. University of Wales, Cardiff.

Richards, Jack *et al.* 1992.

*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics.* Essex: Longman; first published 1985.

Richards, J. 1990.

*Language Teaching Matrix.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richterich, R and Chancerel, J. 1987.

*Identifying the Needs of Adults Learning a Foreign Language.* Cambridge: Prentice-Hall International.

Robinson, Pauline. 1980.

*ESP The Present Position.* London: Pergamon.

Robinson, Pauline. 1991.

*ESP Today: a Practitioner's Guide.* London: Pergamon.

Ryding, Karin. 1990.

*Formal Spoken Arabic: Basic Course.* Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Salīm, Muḥammad. 1407/1987.

*Muḥallim al-Imlā' al-ḥadīth.* Cairo: Maktabat Ibn Sīā.

Sahpier, J. and Gower, R. 1987.

*The Skilful Teacher.* Carlisle, Massachusetts: Research for Better Teaching.

Sawaie, Mohammed. 1995.

“[Review of] *The Teaching of Arabic as a Foreign Language: Issues and Directions*”. ed. Mahmoud al-Batal. *Al-ʿArabiyya*, 28: 153 - 155.



Seliger, Herbert and Shohamy, Elana. 1990.

*Second Language Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; first published 1989.

Simpson, J.A. and Weiner, E.C. 1989.

*Oxford Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Siény, M. 1997.

"An interview", *Al Thagafiah*, (London: Saudi Cultural Bureau) 21: 24-26.

Siény, M and al-Kasho, R. 1995.

*Al-Marjīʿ fī taʿlīm al-luġhat al-ʿArabiyya lil-nāṭiqīn bi-luġhat ukhrā*.  
Tunis: Arabic League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation.

Siény, M *et al.* 1403/1983.

*Al-ʿArabiyya lil-nāshiʿīn*. Riyadh: Wizārat al-Maʿārif.

Siény, M *et al.* 1991.

*Reading Arabic for Muslims*, Book I. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Silva, T. 1990.

"Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues and directions in ESL", in *Second Language Writing*, ed. B. Kroll (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press): 11-23.

Stenhouse, Lawrence. 1975.

*An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development*. London: Heinemann.

Stern, H. 1983.

*Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H. 1984.

"Review and discussion". in *General English Syllabus Design*, ed. C. Brumfit (Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon): 5 - 12.

Stern, H. 1987.

“Directions in syllabus design”, in *Language Syllabuses: State of the Art*, ed. Makhan Tickoo (Singapore: Regional English Language Centre): 19 – 32.

Stern, H. 1993.

*Issues and Options in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; first published 1992.

Stevens, P. 1971.

“Alternatives to daffodils”, in *Science and Technology in a Second Language*, ed. G. E. Perren (London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research): 7 -11.

Stevens, P. 1978.

“Special-purpose language learning: a perspective”, in *Language Teaching & Linguistics: Surveys*, ed. V. Kinsella (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press): 185 - 203.

Stevens, P. 1979.

“Differences in teaching for different circumstances, or the teacher as chameleon”, in *On TESOL '79 the Learner in Focus*, eds. Carlos Yorio et al (Washington DC: TESOL): 2 - 11.

Stevens, Peter. 1980.

*Teaching English as an International Language from Practice to Principle*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Stufflebeam, Daniel et al. 1985.

*Conducting Educational Needs Assessments*. Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff Publishing.

Şālih al-Suḥaybānī. 1412/1992.

*Al-Muṣṭalahāt al-siyāsiyya l-shā'ra fī l-ṣuḥuf al-sa'ūdiyya wa kayfiyyat tawzīfihā fī ta'lim al-diblūmisiyyīn al-nāṭiqīn bi-ghayr al-ʿarabiyya*, MA Dissertation. Imam University, Riyadh.

Taba, Hilda. 1962.

*Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Tanner, Daniel and Tanner, Laurel. 1980.

*Curriculum Development: Theory into Practice*. New York: Macmillan Publishing; first published 1975.

Tyler, R. W. 1949.

*Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

White, R. 1993.

*The ELT Curriculum Design, Innovation and Management*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Widdowson, H. 1979.

*Explorations in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. 1981.

"English for specific purposes: criteria for course design", in *English for Academic and Technical Purposes: Studies in Honor of Louis Trimple*, ed. L. Selinker *et al* (Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers): 1 - 11.

Widdowson, H. 1983.

*Learning Purpose and Language Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. 1984.

"Review and discussion", in *General English Syllabus Design*, ed. C. Brumfit (Oxford: The British Council and Pergamon): 23 - 27.

Widdowson, H. 1987.

"Aspects of syllabus design", in *Syllabus Design: the State of the Art*, ed. M. Tickoo (Singapore: Regional English Language Centre): 65 - 89.

Wilkins, David. 1976.

*Notional Syllabuses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wong, V. et al. 1995.

"The use of authentic materials at tertiary level", *ELT Journal*, 49: 318 - 322.

Yalden, Janice 1987.

"Defining 'syllabus': Problems and proposals", in *Language Syllabuses: State of the Art*, ed. Makhan Tickoo (Singapore: Regional English Language Centre): 44 - 49.

Yalden, Janice 1991.

*Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; first published 1987.

Younus, Fathi. 1977.

*A curriculum for the Teaching of Arabic as a Second Language at the beginning level*. Ph.D. Dissertation. University of Minnesota.

Zaydan, 'abdul-kariym. 1407/1987.

*Uṣūl al-da'wa*. Baghdad: Mu'assasat al-Risāla; first published 1395/1975.

Az-Zaini, Ibrahim. 1992.

*An Arabic Teaching Methodology for Muslims*. Beirut: Librairie du Liban.

Ziadeh, Farhat. 1964.

*A Reader in Modern Literary Arabic*. Troy, Michigan: International Book Centre.

## The Appendices

Appendix A: The Initial Field Survey: Results of the TAFL students' questionnaire	249
Appendix B: The Initial Field Survey: Results of Non-Arabs' Questionnaire	253
Appendix C: The Main Field Study: FSD Questionnaire	258
Appendix D: The Main Field Study: Arabic Teachers' Interview	264
Appendix E: The Main Field Study: Subjects Teachers' Interview	266
Appendix F: The Main Field Study: Administrative Staff's Interview	269
Appendix G: The Main Field Study: Post-test Interview and its Results	270
Appendix H: The Main Field Study: The Diagnostic test	272
Appendix I: The Main Field Study: Pre-test Assessment	285
Appendix J: The Experimental Unit: Student's Section	286
Appendix K: The Experimental Unit: Teacher's guide	288

**Appendix A**

**The Initial Field Survey: Results of the TAFL students' questionnaire**

**A. Personal information**

1- Age: (18+ adults)

2- Gender

code	gender	frequency	percentage
2/1	male	97	100
2/2	female	00	00

3- Religion: (100% Muslims)

4- Nationality

no.	nationality	frequency	percentage
1	Afghan	14	14.43%
2	Albanian	03	03.09%
3	Bosnian	06	06.18%
4	Chinese	06	06.18%
5	Filipino	03	03.09%
6	Ghanaian	02	02.06%
7	Hungarian	03	03.09%
8	Indian	10	10.30%
9	Indonesian	02	02.06%
10	Liberian	02	02.06%
11	Malaysian	02	02.06%
12	Nigerian	04	04.12%
13	Pakistani	08	08.24%
14	Russian	06	06.18%
15	Somali	03	03.09%
16	Turkish	02	02.06%
	total and percentage	76	78.35%

5- Present place of study

University in which the institute belongs to	freq.	%
1. Umm Al-Qura University (Makkah)	16	16.49
2. Imam University (Riyadh)	36	37.11
3. King Saud University (Riyadh)	12	12.37
4. Islamic University (Al-Madina)	33	34.02

6- Mother tongue

no	mother tongue	frequency	percentage
1	Bosnian	04	04.12%
2	English	04	04.12%
3	Hausa	04	04.12%
4	Malay	04	04.12%

5	Pushtu	13	13.40%
6	Russian	04	04.12%
7	Urdu	13	13.40%
		46	47.42%

7- Future plans

code	future plans	frequency	percentage
7/1	teachers	33	34.02
7/2	du <sup>ḥ</sup> at (missionaries of Islam)	40	41.24
7/3	specialised in Islamic Studies	24	24.74

8- Educational standard:

code	educational standard	frequency	percentage
8/1	General High School Certificate.	67	69.07
8/2	Specialist Diploma	20	20.62
8/3	BA and MA	10	10.31

9. Expected areas of study at university

code	expected area of study	frequency	percentage
9/1	medicine	2	2.06
9/1	engineering	3	3.09
9/3	sharī <sup>ḥ</sup> a (Islamic law)	15	15.46
9/4	fundamentals of religion	12	12.37
9/5	da <sup>ḥ</sup> wa	31	31.96
9/6	Arabic language	16	16.49
9/7	social sciences	18	18.56

**B. Attitudes towards foreign languages**

10. Do you think that learning a foreign language is necessary?

code	necessity of learning a foreign language	yes		no	
		freq.	%	freq.	%
10		92	94.85	5	5.15

11. Why learning a foreign language is necessary?

code	reasons for learning a foreign language	frequency	percentage
11/1	to obtain a good job	30	30.09
11/2	to further your study	48	49.49
11/3	sensitive to the world's values and traditions	33	34.02
11/4	to have access to world literature	41	42.27
11/5	to follow current world affairs	48	49.49

**C. Needs for studying Arabic**

12. You are studying Arabic, is that because of:

code	reasons for studying Arabic	frequency	percentage
12/1	daily life needs	19	19.59

12/2	religious needs	77	79.38
12/3	need to continue academic studies	40	41.24
12/4	need to find a job	9	9.29

13. What do you like to read?

code	type of readings	frequency	percentage
13/1	textbooks	68	70.10
13/2	newspapers and magazines	43	44.33
13/3	instructions and directions on food and medicine containers	27	27.84
13/4	religious books in general	75	77.32
13/5	literary books in general	37	38.14

14. The academic field that you feel that your Arabic will not help you to study at university level:

code	the academic field in which their Arabic is weak	frequency	percentage
14/1	Islamic Studies	76	78.35
14/2	Arabic and its literature	31	31.96
14/3	science and medicine	15	15.46
14/4	social sciences	34	35.05
14/5	none of the above	10	10.31

15. On the strength of being in an Arabic environment, do you find it difficult to understand one or more of the following areas?

code	areas of difficulty (vocabulary)	frequency	percentage
15/1	religion	60	61.86
15/2	politics	19	19.59
15/3	engineering	45	46.39
15/4	medicine	52	53.61
15/5	security and military	34	35.05

16. In which areas do you want to strengthen your Arabic?

code	areas to improve Arabic	frequency	percentage
16/1	Islamic Studies	89	91.75
16/2	politics	15	15.46
16/3	engineering	05	5.16
16/4	medicine	2	2.06
16/5	security and military	1	1.31

(In case you ticked number 16/1, go to number 17)

17. If you have chosen Islamic Studies then is it:

code	reasons behind choosing the perspective fields	frequency	percentage
17/1	to study and perform <i>da'wa</i>	78	80.41
17/2	for prayers and daily basis	19	19.59



18. When do you prefer to attend a course to improve your Arabic in the perspective field?

(Choose only one)

code	preferred time for a TASP course	frequency	percentage
18/1	during the first year of the TAFL programme	2	2.06
18/2	during the final year of the TAFL programme	30	30.93
18/3	after completing the TAFL programme and before beginning of the academic year	19	19.59
18/4	during the first academic year	42	43.30
18/5	any time during the evening	4	4.12

19. Questions from 12 to 18 focused on an approach for teaching languages for specific purposes (LSP) suitable to learners' needs. Do you have any previous experience in this approach?

code	experience in LSP	yes		no	
		freq.	%	freq.	%
19	previous experience in LSP	12	12.37	85	87.63

20. From your experience in LSP, if any, and from what you have extracted from the above questions, do you support a course in Arabic for Specific Purposes?

code	attitudes toward TASP	yes		no	
		freq.	%	freq.	%
20	supportive	76	78.35	21	21.65

**Appendix B**

**The Initial Field Survey: Results of Non-Arabs' questionnaire**

**A. Personal information.**

1-Name (Optional) .....

2- Age (Between 20 and 60)

3- Gender

code	gender	frequency	percentage
3/1	male	309	84.20
3/2	female	58	15.80

4- Religion

code	religion	frequency	percentage
4/1	Muslim	189	51.50
4/2	Christian	133	36.24
4/3	other	45	12.26

5- Nationality

no.	nationality	frequency	percentage
1	American	66	17.98
2	British	55	14.99
3	Indian	89	24.25
4	Indonesian	5	1.36
5	Pakistani	68	18.53
6	Filipino	41	11.17
7	Swedish	5	1.36

6- Mother tongue

no.	mother tongue	frequency	percentage
1	English	123	33.52
2	Indonesian	5	1.36
3	Pilipino	41	11.17
4	Swedish	5	1.36
5	Urdu	159	43.32

7- Occupation (actual work)

no.	occupation	frequency	percentage
1	accounting	13	3.54
2	general administration	22	6.00
3	computer	7	1.91
4	military forces	96	26.16
5	diplomatic services	51	13.90
6	engineering	20	5.45

7	marketing	10	2.73
8	medical services	46	12.53
9	secretariat	50	13.62

8- Present place of work

No.	place of work	frequency	percentage
1	Abha	36	9.81
2	Jeddah	81	22.07
3	Riyadh	250	68.12

9- Educational background:

code	educational background	frequency	percentage
9/1	Bachelor of Arts	218	59.40
9/2	Diploma	51	13.90
9/3	Master of Arts	59	16.07
9/4	Doctor of Philosophy	7	1.91
9/5	Secondary School Certificate	32	8.72

**B. Attitudes towards foreign languages**

10- In your opinion, is it necessary to know a foreign language(s)?

code	necessity of FL	frequency	percentage
10/1	yes	277	75.48
10/2	no	90	24.52

Language(s) is / are necessary?

no.	language(s)	frequency	percentage
1	English	178	48.50
2	Arabic	176	47.96
3	French	74	20.16
4	German	24	6.54
5	Spanish	24	6.54

11- Do you think that learning a foreign language can help you to:

code	reasons for learning a foreign language	frequency	percentage
11/1	obtain a good job	211	57.49
11/2	further your studies	114	31.06
11/3	be more sensitive to the world's values and traditions	134	36.51
11/4	have better access to world literature	106	28.88
11/5	keep yourself better informed about the current world affairs	181	49.32

12- Can you read in a foreign language(s)?

no.	reading in FL	frequency	percentage
12/1	yes	234	63.76

12/2	no	133	36.24
------	----	-----	-------

13- How frequently do you read in this / these language(s)?

no.	frequent reading in FL	frequency	percentage
13/1	daily.	181	49.32
13/2	weekly	60	16.35
13/3	monthly	13	3.54
13/4	occasionally	113	30.79

14- what do you read in this / these languages?

code	type of reading	frequency	percentage
14/1	professional journals.	99	26.98
14/2	newspapers and magazines	189	51.50
14/3	theses / dissertations	00	00
14/4	religious books in general	249	67.85
14/5	literary books in general	56	15.26

15- Languages used at work?

code	language used at work	frequency	percentage
15/1	Arabic	139	37.87
15/2	English	265	72.21
15/3	Pilipino	41	11.17
15/4	Indonesian	5	1.36
15/5	Urdu	128	34.88

### C. Your needs from studying Arabic.

16- Have you ever studied AFL (privately or formally)?

no.	experience in AFL	frequency	percentage
16/1	yes	126	34.33
16/2	no	241	65.67

17- Are you presently attempting to improve your AFL?

no.	involvement in an AFL course	frequency	percentage
17/1	yes	197	53.68
17/2	no	170	46.32

If yes, please specify:

no.	way of improving Arabic	frequency	percentage
1	Arabic evening classes	105	28.61%
2	self-attempt	92	25.07%

18- Is a knowledge of Arabic necessary for success in your job?

no.	necessity of Arabic at work	frequency	percentage
18/1	yes	248	67.57
18/2	no	119	32.43

19- Do you think that your knowledge of Arabic will make it possible for you to earn more money or to advance professionally?

no.	importance of Arabic financially	frequency	percentage
19/1	yes	182	49.59
19/2	no	185	50.41

20- Do you think that your knowledge of Arabic will make it possible for you to deal successfully with customers?

no.	importance of Arabic to deal with customers	frequency	percentage
20/1	yes	280	76.29
20/2	no	87	23.71

21- Is Arabic used to discuss business or technical matters at work?

How frequently and with whom?

code	discussing business	how frequent				
		daily		other times		
		many times	at least once	weekly	rarely	never
		%	%	%	%	%
21/1	managers or directors	22.89	10.63	4.63	16.35	45.50
21/2	colleagues	32.70	10.90	5.45	11.44	39.51
21/3	workers	24.53	7.63	5.18	13.62	49.05
21/4	clientele	39.24	10.90	3.81	12.81	33.24

22- Need for Arabic outside work:

code	needs for Arabic	freq.	%
22/1	reading popular material (books, newspapers, etc.) for pleasure	159	43.32
22/2	reading literature (novels, plays, etc.)	115	31.34
22/3	reading for professional advancement	152	41.42
22/4	listening to radio, watching television	251	68.39
22/5	writing formal letters and reports	157	42.78
22/6	writing personal letters	137	37.33
22/7	improving your knowledge of Islam	229	62.40

23- Suppose you wish to learn AFL, is it because:

code	reasons for learning Arabic	freq.	%
23/1	the main language of your work is Arabic	62	16.89
23/2	you are working with Arabic-speaking colleagues	180	49.05
23/3	some / most / all of the written or printed material connected with your job is / are in Arabic	167	45.50
23/4	you have to convey information or instructions in Arabic to the workers	116	31.61
23/5	some / most / all correspondence has to be conducted in Arabic	116	31.61

23/6	you have to follow training courses conducted in Arabic	45	12.26
23/7	to represent your company/organisation well	152	41.42

24- Do you need Arabic in order to: (list by frequency of need)

code	Arabic skills needed	frequency	%
24/1	understand	300	81.74
24/2	speak	334	91.01
24/3	write	250	68.12
24/4	read	269	73.30

25- Where do you prefer to study AFL?

(Choose only one answer)

code	where to study AFL	frequency	%
25/1	in any institute belonging to a Saudi University	233	63.49
25/2	in private schools	92	25.07
25/3	in your organisation	218	59.40
25/4	by radio	110	29.97
25/5	by TV	175	47.68

26- How many hours per week would you prefer to study AFL?

(Choose only one answer)

code	hours per week to study AFL	frequency	%
26/1	5 hours	206	56.13
26/2	10 hours	111	30.25
26/3	15 hours	50	13.62
26/4	25 hours	00	00
26/5	more.	00	00

27- Would you prefer to study AFL

(Choose only one answer)

code	frequency of to study AFL	frequency	%
27/1	daily (full-time)	00	00
27/2	daily (part-time)	158	43.05
27/3	once a week	107	29.16
27/4	twice a week	102	27.79

**Appendix C**

**The Main Field Study: FSD Questionnaire**

**University of Leeds**

**Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies**

**Questionnaire**

First Year Students of Islamic Mission (*al-da'wa*) at the Islamic University (IU) [Al-Madina] and the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMU) [Riyadh]

**Academic Year 1417/1418 AH (1996/1997)**

**Instructions:**

*Tick (✓) the appropriate box*

**A. General information:**

Name: ( Optional).....

1. Age:

- 18-22 years
- 23-26 years
- 27-29 years
- more than 29 years

2. Nationality (.....)

3. Place of residence Al-Madina  Riyadh

4. Mother tongue (.....)

5. Do you speak any other languages? Yes  No

(If yes, please specify) (.....)

6. Qualifications:

- Secondary School Certificate
- Diploma
- University degree and above

7. Years you have spent studying Arabic

- One year
- Two years
- More than two years

**B. Motives for studying Arabic:**

8. Please be specific in choosing your reasons for learning Arabic and explain the degree of importance of each reason you choose by ticking a box against the reason and the degree of its importance as in the following example:

**Example:**

no.	motives	very important	important	fairly important	not important
8/1	Studying at university				✓

**Now answer:**

no.	motives	very important	important	fairly important	not important
8/1	To improve your social status				
8/2	To improve your financial situation				
8/3	To improve your job position				
8/4	To find a job				
8/5	To study at a university				
8/6	To perform <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i>				
8/7	Find it easy to learn AFL				
8/8	To understand Islam				
8/9	To work in an Arab country				
8/10	Enjoy learning foreign languages				

**C. Your attitude towards learning Arabic:**

9. How do you rate the teaching of the following skills in the past-TAFL programme on which you studied? Was it:

no.	skills	extremely inadequate	inadequate	adequate
9/1	Academic writing			
9/2	Comprehensive reading of <i>da<sup>c</sup>wa</i> literature			
9/3	Listening to lectures			
9/4	Conversing with the teachers			
9/5	Practising speech			

10. If the Arabic Institute or the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa at which you are studying were to offer lessons to improve your Arabic and understanding lectures, would you think this idea to be?:

(Please choose only one answer)

- very useful
- useful
- not useful

11. To what extent would you be concerned to continue to improve your proficiency level in Arabic, particularly that language that assists you in understanding *da<sup>c</sup>wa* literature?:

(Please choose only one answer)

- very much concerned
- concerned
- not concerned



**D. Your needs from learning Arabic:**

(Please choose only one answer from the following)

12. In which of the following areas do you want to improve your Arabic?

no.	areas	very much want	want	fairly want	not want at all
12/1	In general daily life				
12/2	In <i>da'wa</i> study				

13. In which areas is it important to you to continue using Arabic after graduation?

no.	areas	important	not important	will never be used
13/1	Public speaking			
13/1	Reading			

**E. The importance of skills to the student:**

14. From your understanding of the nature of studying *da'wa* and the requirements of your work after graduation, particularly in your capacity as a caller to Islam, please re-prioritise the following four skills according to your study needs and tick (✓) numerically in the order of importance.

**Example:**

skills	1	2	3	4
Listening	✓			
Reading			✓	
Speaking		✓		
Writing				✓

**Now answer:**

skills	1	2	3	4
Listening				
Reading				
Speaking				
Writing				

15. Apart from class context, how many hours do you spend daily in using the following skills? For instance, listening to a lecture, reading academic works, using reference works and doing homework:

(Put a tick (✓) under the appropriate time for each skill)

code	macro-skills	less than 1 hour	1-2 hours	3-4 hours	5-6 hours	More
15/1	Listening					
15/2	Speaking					
15/3	Reading					
15/4	Writing					

16. Which of the following language macro/micro-skills take a long time for you to revise and to practise? Put your answers in numerical order ticking number 1 for the longest time spent and number 10 for the shortest time.

**Example:**

code	micro-skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16/1	Listening to recorded sermons			✓							
16/2	Public speaking					✓					
16/3	Ordering the information you have read										✓

Now answer:

code	strategies and micro-skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16/1	Listening to recorded sermons										
16/2	Public speaking and preaching										
16/3	Ordering the information you have read										
16/4	Distinguishing between facts and views in text										
16/5	Summarising what you have read										
16/6	Storing information										
16/7	Linking ideas during reading										
16/8	Understanding new vocabulary during reading										
16/9	Reading <i>da'wa</i> materials										
16/10	Writing a <i>khutba</i>										

**E. Importance and competence in using language skills that are connected with *da'wa*?**

Mention the importance of each skill and your knowledge of it by putting a tick (✓) under the number you think is suitable for you:

[(1) very important, (2) important, (3) fairly important, (4) not important, (A) satisfactory (B) fairly satisfactory and (C) not satisfactory].

**Example**

code	micro-skills	Importance				Competence		
		1	2	3	4	A	B	C
17	Reading fluently texts set by the lecturer	✓					✓	
18	Extracting evidence from Islamic texts			✓		✓		
19	Reading a text to extract specific information				✓			✓

Now answer:

code	micro-skills / strategies	Importance				Competence		
		1	2	3	4	A	B	C
17	Reading fluently texts set by the lecturer							
18	Extracting evidence from Islamic texts							
19	Reading a text to extract specific information							
20	Intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text							
21	Reading to understand the writer's points of view on some controversial issues							
22	Understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology							
23	Reading to discuss ideas							
24	Reading in depth to understand the message							
25	Re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind							
26	Reading to qualify academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>							
27	Reading to pass examination only							

28	Summarising the main points from a written text							
29	Summarising lectures, discussions and debates							
30	Correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing							
31	Writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>							
32	Writing answers to examination questions							
33	Using grammar correctly in academic writing							
34	Understanding someone talking to you							
35	Extracting information from radio and television							
36	Understanding a lecture in your area of specialism and writing down the main points							
37	Understanding and following a conversation in class							
38	Understanding the main topics of a lecture							
39	Your ability to argue with your teacher in the field of <i>da'wa</i>							
40	Delivering a speech that you have prepared yourself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>							
41	Expressing and defending your point of view in your area of specialism							
42	Scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic							

**F. Preferred methods of learning:**

43. From your experience of learning Arabic, do you prefer a lesson to be directed to you:

(Choose one answer only by ticking (✓) the appropriate box)

- 43/1. Individually
- 43/2. With a class member
- 43/3. In a small group
- 43/4. With all class members
- 43/5. Any number of students

44. Do you like learning by:

(In case of more than one answer, please arrange in numerical order in accordance to the method you think is more important by ticking (✓) the appropriate box)

- 44/1. Listening and taking notes
- 44/2. Listening
- 44/3. Reproducing what you have read
- 44/4. Repeating what you have listened to
- 44/5. Independent study
- 44/6. Memorising
- 44/7. Writing what you hear
- 44/8. Writing new words and expressions
- 44/9. Frequent reading
- 44/10. Copying from the board

45. What are the most important three methods from the above in the light of the requirements of your specialism?

- 45/1.....
- 45/2.....
- 45/3.....

46. If you make a mistake in a class session, when and how would you like your teacher to correct your mistakes?:

(Choose one answer only by ticking (✓) the appropriate box)

- 46/1 Immediately, on your own
- 46/2 With your peers
- 46/3 In private, at the end of the class session
- 46/4 At the end of the class session with colleagues
- 46/5 None of the above

**G. The role of Teaching Aids in assisting you to learn quickly:**

47. Which of the following aids did you use whilst studying AFL?

(In the case of choosing more than one teaching aid, arrange your answers in numerical order according to their importance by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate box)

- 47/1. Language laboratory
- 47/2. Audio/visual aids
- 47/3. Field work
- 47/4. Newspapers and magazines
- 47/5. Computer

48-In case you join an Arabic course that suits your area of specialism do you wish to benefit from one or more of the aids mentioned above?

Yes  No

**H. Place and time preferred for a TASP course:**

[Choose one answer only by ticking (✓) the appropriate box]

49. When would you prefer a course to improve your Arabic language in the field of *da'wa*?:

- 49/1. Prior to the *da'wa* programme
- 49/2. During the *da'wa* programme
- 49/3. During the TAFL programme

50. Would you suggest this session be held at the:

- 50/1. TAFL Institute
- 50/2. Faculty of Da'wa
- 50/3. Students' club
- 50/4. Social Service Centre

Thank you for filling in the questionnaire

**Appendix D**

**The Main Field Study: Arabic Teachers' Interview**

**The University of Leeds**

**Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies**

Interviewing the TAFL teachers at the Islamic University (Al-Madina) and the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University (Riyadh).

Academic Year 1417/1418 AH (1996/1997)

1. Name..... 2. Age.....

3. Qualification.....4. University.....

5. How long have you been teaching AFL?

(1-4) years       (5-8) years       (9-12) years       More than 12 years

6. Have you attended a training course in teaching Arabic/English to speakers of other languages in the last five years?  Yes       No

If yes, please say when, where and what was it like?

.....  
.....  
.....

7. There is what is known as teaching Arabic for occupational and academic purposes (LSP), to what extent do you think this is important for TAFL?

Very important       Important       Not important

8. Have you ever experienced teaching Arabic for specific purposes?  Yes       No

If yes, tell us when and where?.

.....  
.....  
.....

9. If you were to teach Arabic for specific purposes, do you think you would need training?

Yes       No

10. To what extent do you think that this new approach of teaching Arabic would help students in studying successfully in their specialism?

- Very helpful                       Fairly helpful                       Not helpful

11. If you see the importance of this approach, which academic discipline(s) you think non-Arab students might need more improvement in their Arabic?

- Islamic Studies                       Linguistic Studies                       Social Studies

- Physics and Applied Sciences

12. How do you see students' motivations in AFL?

- Strong                       Weak

13. Which of the following macro-skills do you think that non-Arab students need in their Islamic Studies? (Please put your answer in numerical order)

- Reading                       Writing                       Speaking                       Listening

**Appendix E**

**The Main Field Study: Subjects Teachers' Interview**

**The University of Leeds**

**Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies**

---

---

Interviewing the subject teachers of Faculty of Da<sup>ʿ</sup>wa at the Islamic University (Al-Madina) and the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University (Riyadh).

Academic Year 1417/1418 AH (1996/1997)

---

1. Name.....2. Age.....

3. Qualification.....4. University.....

5. How long have you been teaching *da<sup>ʿ</sup>wa*?

(1-4) years     (5-8) years     (9-12) years     More than 12 years

6. Have you ever taught non-Arab students *da<sup>ʿ</sup>wa*?

Yes     No

7. What is your general impression about the students' preparation in Arabic?

Excellent     Fair     Poor

8. What is your opinion on the general academic standard of non-Arab students in your subject?

Excellent     Fair     Poor

9. Is the academic standard affected by their Arabic level?

Yes     No

10. Do you think that students are weaker in certain language skills?

Yes     No

If yes, what are they? (Choose only two)

Listening     Speaking     Reading     Writing

11. Do you think that certain strategies or language micro-skills are more important than others?

Yes     No

If yes, what are they?

(Please put your answer in numerical order according to the importance of the skill from your point of view)

Reading in depth     Speaking  
 Discuss and persuade     Good academic writing

12. In your view, how can students acquire such strategies or micro-skills?

- Holding language courses  Correct practice of Arabic at the institute  
 Designing a language programme involving linguists and teachers of the *da'wa*

13. What is the level of Arabic non-Arab students are supposed to reach before their study at the Faculty of Da'wa?

(Please put your answer in numerical order)

- Speak proficiently  Read proficiently  
 Write proficiently  Understand and absorb *da'wa* terminology

14. One of the important bases of the *da'wa* process is to correctly understand the role of Islam and society; what is the role of Arabic in shaping academically the non-Arab candidates of *da'wa*?

(Please put your answer in numerical order)

- Important role in understanding Islam  
 Important role in delivering the knowledge of Islam  
 Important role in understanding and delivering the knowledge of Islam  
 No distinguished role

15. There is a new approach of teaching foreign languages for specific purposes, how far do you support this approach for teaching Arabic?

- I support it very much  I support it  
 I do not support it  I do not support it very much

16. If non-Arab students who graduate from your faculty returns home to practice *da'wa* which Arabic language skills do you think they might need?

(Please choose two language skills only)

- Reading and understanding  Writing  Good listening  
 Update *da'wa* terminology

17. Choose from the following list of micro-skills those you think are important to the student of *da'wa*.

code	micro-skills	very important	important	not important
17/1	Reading fluently texts set by the lecturer			
17/2	Extracting evidence from Islamic literature			
17/3	Reading a text to extract specific information			
17/4	Intensive reading to extract most of the information from the text			
17/5	Reading to understand the writer's view points on a controversial issue			
17/6	Understanding <i>da'wa</i> terminology			
17/7	Reading to understand and discuss ideas given in the text			
17/8	Reading in depth to understand the message given by the text			



17/9	Re-reading to consolidate the ideas in mind			
17/10	Reading to qualify you academically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>			
17/11	Reading to pass examination only			
17/12	Summarising the main points from a written text			
17/13	Summarising lectures, discussions and debates			
17/14	Correct usage of <i>da'wa</i> terminology when writing			
17/15	Writing short reports relating to <i>da'wa</i>			
17/16	Writing answers to examination questions			
17/17	Using grammar correctly when writing in the field of specialism			
17/18	Following a conversation with someone			
17/19	Extracting information from radio and television.			
17/20	Understanding a lecture in the area of specialism and writing down the main points			
17/21	Understanding and following a conversation in class			
17/22	Understanding the main topic(s) of a lecture			
17/23	Ability to argue logically in the field of <i>da'wa</i>			
17/24	Delivering a speech that the candidate has prepared himself in the field of <i>da'wa</i>			
17/25	Expressing and defending one's point of view in the area of specialism			
17/26	Scanning reading to have a general idea about a certain topic			

**Appendix F**

**The Main Field Study: Administrative Staff's Interview**

**The University of Leeds  
Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies**

---

---

Interviewing the administrative staff of Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa and TAFL Institute at the Islamic University (Al-Madina) and the Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University (Riyadh).

Academic Year 1417/1418 AH (1996/1997)

---

Name:..... Academic qualification.....  
Occupation:.....University.....

1. In the light of teaching languages for specific purposes to speakers of other languages, do you think it would be necessary to adopt this approach to teach Arabic for the purposes of *da<sup>c</sup>wa*?

Yes       No

2. If you think it would be necessary, would you be able to assist in organising a course for *da<sup>c</sup>wa* students at your university?

Yes       No

3. When would you prefer to organise such a course?

- Before students start their programme at the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa
- During the period students are studying at the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa
- During the period students are attending AFL programme at the Language Institute

4. Where would you like the course to be organised?

- At the Language Institute
- At the Faculty of Da<sup>c</sup>wa
- At the Students' Club
- At the Social Services Centre

5. Would you be able to provide the following:

5/1 Space

- One room       Two rooms       Three rooms       More than three rooms

5/2 Teaching aids

- Whiteboards
- Textbooks
- Chairs and tables
- Language laboratory
- Tape recorders
- Overhead projectors
- Audio/visual equipment

6. Would you be able to organise a course for TAFL teachers at the institute to enable them to teach Arabic for specific purposes?

(This question was addressed to the Deans of the TAFL Institutes only)

Yes       No

**Appendix G**

**The Main Field Study: The Post-Test Interview and its Results**

1. How can you evaluate the language test in general? Was it:

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency	2	6	2
Percentage	20%	60%	20%

2. If it was difficult is that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
2/1	the content was higher than your level		
2/2	the content was difficult to be understood		
2/3	you were not familiar with the way of the test was designed		
2/4	the place of the test was not comfortable		
2/5	you were careless about the test		
2/6	you could not control the time successfully		
2/7	the content was unusual		
2/8	the design of the test was complicated		
2/9	the time given was not enough	2	100

3. Regarding part A of the reading test questions (1-3), were they:

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency	7		3
Percentage	70%		30%

4. If they were difficult, is that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
4/1	the passage was very long	6	85.71
4/2	the passage contained unknown words and expressions	1	14.29
4/3	you were not able to understand the questions		
4/4	the instructions were not clear		
4/5	other		

5. Regarding Part B of the reading test questions (4-16), were they:

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency		8	2
Percentage		80%	20%

6. If they were difficult, is that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
6/1	the passage was very long		
6/2	the passage contained unknown words and expressions		
6/3	you were not able to understand the questions		
6/4	the instructions were not clear		
6/5	other		

7. Regarding Part C of the reading test questions (18-25), were they:

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency	1	8	1
Percentage	10%	80%	10%

8. If they were difficult, is that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
8/1	the passage was very long	1	100
8/2	the passage contained unknown words and expressions		
8/3	you were not able to understand the questions		
8/4	the instructions were not clear		
8/5	other		

9. Part D of the reading test questions (26-29), were they:

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency	4	5	1
Percentage	40%	50%	10%

10. If they were difficult, was that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
10/1	you were confused by the choices	3	75
10/2	you were not able to understand the questions		
10/3	the instructions were not clear	1	25
10/4	other		

11. Part E of the reading test questions (30-36), were they:

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency	8	1	1
Percentage	80%	10%	10%

12. If they were difficult, is that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
12/1	the passage includes complicated statistical figures	6	75
12/2	passage contained unknown words and expressions	2	25

13. Was the writing test

	difficult	easy	reasonable
Frequency	4	6	
Percentage	40%	60%	

14. If it were difficult, is that because:

no.	areas of difficulties	frequency	%
14/1	the time given was not enough	3	75
14/2	you were not familiar with the topics	1	25

Appendix H

The Main Field Study: The Diagnostic Test

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

جامعة ليدز

قسم الدراسات العربية والشرق أوسطية

اختبار لتحديد الكفاءة اللغوية لطلاب المستوى الأول من غير العرب في كليتي  
الدعوة بالجامعة الإسلامية بالمدينة المنورة وجامعة الإمام بالرياض  
(المملكة العربية السعودية)

ملحوظة مهمة جداً: الوقت المسموح به هو:

(٢) - ٤٥ دقيقة للكتابة

(١) - ٦٠ دقيقة للقراءة وأجوبتها

أولاً:- القراءة

الإسم:- (اختياري) ..... الجامعة:- .....

القسم الأول:

أنصحك بالمحافظة على الوقت بحيث لا يتجاوز زمن الإجابة عن الأسئلة (من ١ إلى ١٦) خمس وعشرين دقيقة.

١. الأسئلة (من ١ إلى ٣)

قطعة رقم ١ : عنوان هذه القطعة هو: (المحتسب) على الصفحات ٢ . ٣ . ٤ . والقطعة مقسمة إلى خمسة أجزاء. والمطلوب منك أن تختار عنواناً مناسباً لكل جزء من هذه الأجزاء من بين العناوين العشرة المرقمة (من "أ" إلى "ي") على الصفحة رقم ٤.

من فضلك أجب في المكان المخصص للإجابة صفحة ٥.

٢. قطعة رقم ١ :

## المُحْتَسِبُ

جزء (١)

المحتسب هو من يقوم بالاحتساب أي بالأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر، إلا أنه شاع عند الفقهاء اطلاق هذا الاسم على من يعينه ولي الأمر للقيام بالحسبة، وأطلقوا عليه أيضا اسم والي الحسبة، أما من يقوم بها دون تعيين من ولي الأمر فقد أطلقوا عليه اسم المتطوع ثم راحوا يفرقون بين المحتسب والمتطوع.

جزء (٢)

والاحتساب فرض متعين على المحتسب بحكم الولاية أي بحكم تعيينه محتسبا، أما فرضه على غيره فهو من فروض الكفاية، ومن ثم لا يجوز للمحتسب أن يتشاغل عما عين له من أمور الحسبة بخلاف المتطوع.

وقال بعض العلماء إن المحتسب عليه أن يبحث عن المنكرات الظاهرة حتى يتمكن من إزالتها كما أن عليه أن يبحث عما ترك من المعروف الظاهر حتى يأمر بإقامته، أما المتطوع فلا يلزمه ذلك. وقالوا إن للمحتسب أن يستعين على أداء مهمته بالأعوان، فيتخذ له من الأعوان والمساعدين بقدر ما يحتاج لأداء مهمته التي عين لها، وليس للمتطوع ذلك. كما أن للمحتسب أن يعزر على المنكرات الظاهرة، ولا يتجاوزها إلى إقامة الحدود، وليس للمتطوع ذلك. وللمحتسب أن يأخذ على عمله أجرا من بيت المال، وليس للمتطوع ذلك. وأخيرا فإن للمحتسب أن يجتهد في المسائل المبنية على العرف فيقر ما يراه صالحا للاقرار وينكر منها ما يراه مستحقا للانكار، وليس للمتطوع ذلك.

جزء (٣)

والواقع أن الحسبة من فروض الإسلام فلا يتوقف القيام بها على التعيين من قبل ولي الأمر ومن ثم كانت تسمية غير المعين بالمتطوع تسمية غير دقيقة لأنها تُشعر بأن القيام بالحسبة من قبل غير المعين لها هو من قبيل القيام بالأمر المستحبة غير الواجبة.

ومع هذا فإن تنظيم الحسبة وضبطها من قبل ولي الأمر وتعيين الأكفاء لها، حتى لاتسود الفوضى في المجتمع باسم الحسبة، يعد من الأمور الحسنة ولكن بشرط أن لا يكون هذا التنظيم مانعا من قيام الآخرين بواجب الحسبة على الوجه المشروع. ولأن اتخاذ الأعوان على الحسبة يعد من

باب التعاون على البر والتقوى فلا ينبغي منع من يقوم بالحسبة من هذا التعاون بحجة أنه غير معين من قبل ولي الأمر مادام صالحا للحسبة وتتوفر فيه شروطها. كما أنه لا يُرى منع المتطوع من التعزير على المنكرات الظاهرة أو على الأقل لا يُرى منعه من التعزير مطلقا لأن التعزير درجات فينبغي أن لا يمنع ألامن بعضها لاكلها، كأن يمنع من الضرب والجلد.

وولاية المحتسب يستمدّها من الشرع الحنيف لأن المسلم مكلف بالحسبة وحيث يوجد التكليف توجد الولاية على القيام بما كُلف به ، الا أنه في حالة قيام ولي الأمر بتنظيم أمور الحسبة وتعيين الأكفاء لها فإن المُعَيَّن يملك من الولاية أكثر مما يملكه غير المعين ، ومع هذا فإن ولاية ( المحتسب) المعين من قبل ولي الأمر يستمدّها من الشرع وإن جاءت عن طريق ولي الأمر باعتبار أن تنظيم ولي الأمر للحسبة سائغ مشروع فكان الشرع خوله ذلك. ومقصود ولاية المحتسب سواء عُيِّن من قبل ولي الأمر أو لم يُعَيَّن هو إقامة شرع الله في الأرض وتطهيرها من الفساد لتكون كلمة الله هي العليا وكلمة الذين كفروا هي السفلى. وهذا هو مقصود كل ولاية في الاسلام، وكل الفرق بين ولاية وأخرى هو في سعتها ومتعلقاتها وهكذا تعمل جميع الولايات منسجمة لتحقيق مقصود واحد هو إقامة شرع الله في الأرض وتطهيرها من الفساد والمفسدين.

جزء (٤)

من جانب آخر فإن علاقة أخرى يراها العلماء بين ولاية المحتسب وولاية القاضي وقالوا إنه يجوز للناس الإدعاء أمام المحتسب في حقوق الأدميين من أمثال الدعاوى المتعلقة ببخس أو تطفيف في كيل أو وزن ، أو متعلقة بغش أو تدليس في بيع أو ثمن أو متعلقة بمطل أو تأخير لدين مستحق الأداء مع القدرة على الوفاء. وإنما جاز للمحتسب أن ينظر في هذه الدعاوى دون غيرها لأنها كما قالوا " تتعلق بمنكر ظاهر هو منصوب لإزالته، واختصاصها بمعروف هو مندوب إلى إقامته". وللمحتسب كما للقاضي أن يلزم المُدَّعَى عليه بأداء الحق الواجب عليه إلى مستحقه في الدعاوى التي له حق النظر فيها إذا ثبتت تلك الحقوق بإقرار المُدَّعَى عليه وثبتت قدرته على الوفاء. وإنما كان للمحتسب إلزام المُدَّعَى عليه بأداء هذه الحقوق لأن تأخير وفائها مطل ، والمطل منكر نهى الشارع عنه، قال صلى الله عليه وسلم " مطل الغني ظلم يُحلُّ ماله وعرضه" والمحتسب منصوب لإزالة المنكر.

جزء (٥)

الآن ولاية المحتسب تُقصر عن ولاية القاضي من وجهين: الأول، ليس للمحتسب سماع الدعاوى التي تخرج عن نطاق المنكرات الظاهرة أي التي تخرج عن نطاق الدعاوى الثلاث التي أشير إليها في الفقرة السابقة. الوجه الثاني، له النظر في الحقوق المُعترف بها، أما ما يدخله التجاهد والتناكر فلا ينظر فيه لأن الحق لا يثبت عند ذلك إلا ببينة من المدعي أو تحليف المنكر اليمين وهذا للقاضي فقط.

ومن جانب آخر تزيد ولاية المحتسب على القاضي بأن له أن يأمر بالمعروف وينهى عن المنكر وإن لم يرتفع إليه في ذلك خصم ولم يتقدم إليه أحد بدعوى ، وليس للقاضي ذلك إلا برفع دعوى ومطالبة خصم. كما أن للمحتسب من سلطة السلطة فيما يتعلق بالمنكرات الظاهرة مالمس للقاضي ، لأن الحسبة - كما يقول الفقهاء - تقوم على الرهبة ، فلا تجافيهما الغلظة وإتخاذ الأعوان وسلطة السلطة، أما القضاء فموضوع لإنصاف الناس واستماع البيئات حتى يتبين المحق من المبطل فكان الملائم له الأناة والوقار والبعد عن الغلظة والخشونة والرهبة.

### خيارات العناوين:

أ- ولاية المحتسب

ب- أوجه الاتفاق بين ولاية المحتسب وولاية القاضي

ج- رأي في الفرق بين المحتسب والمتطوع

د- أوجه الاختلاف بين ولاية المحتسب وولاية القاضي

هـ- آداب المحتسب

و- تعريف المحتسب

ز- معنى الاحتساب

ح- شروط المحتسب

ط- معنى ولاية المحتسب

ي- الفرق بين المحتسب والمتطوع

الآن وبعد أن قرأت القطعة والخيارات السابقة أجب عن الأسئلة من ١ إلى ٣ بوضع العناوين المناسبة للأجزاء التالية من القطعة علما بأن عنوان الجزء الأول قد حُلُّ مساعدة لك كما في المثال:

### مثال:

عنوان الجزء الأول قد وضع مساعدة لك على النحو التالي:

الجزء الأول: عنوانه (و)

إجابتك:

( )

ج ١ : عنوان الجزء الثاني هو

( ) ج ٣ : عنوان الجزء الرابع هو ( )

ج ٢ : عنوان الجزء الثالث هو



٣. الأسئلة (من ٤ إلى ١٦)

فيما يلي تلخيص للقطعة السابقة. هذا التلخيص حُذفت منه بعض الكلمات والتعبيرات ووضعت لك تحت عنوان اختيارات (من "أ" إلى "ع") على الصفحة رقم ٦ ، ووضعت بدلا عنها في القطعة أرقام (من ٤ إلى ١٦). من فضلك ضع الحرف الذي أمام الإجابة المناسبة أمام رقم الفراغ في المكان المخصص لإجابتك صفحة ٦.

تلخيص القطعة السابقة (المحتسب)

إن من (٤).. بالأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر يسمى المحتسب، و شاع عند (٥).. اطلاق هذا الاسم على من (٦) ولي الأمر للقيام بالحسبة. والاحتساب فرض (٧).. على المحتسب بحكم (٨).. أي بحكم تعيينه محتسبا، أما فرضه على غيره فهو من فروض (٩).. ومن ثم لا يجوز للمحتسب أن (١٠).. عما عين له من أمور الحسبة بخلاف المتطوع. وولاية المحتسب يستمدّها من الشرع الحنيف لأن المسلم مكلف بالحسبة وحيث يوجد (١١).. توجد الولاية على القيام بما كلف به، الا أنه في حالة قيام ولي الأمر بتنظيم أمور الحسبة وتعيين الأكفاء لها فإن المعين يملك من الولاية أكثر مما يملكه غير المعين .

وهناك علاقة يراها العلماء بين ولاية المحتسب وولاية (١٢).. وقالوا إنه يجوز للناس الإدعاء أمام المحتسب في (١٣).. من أمثال البخس أو التطفيف في كيل أو وزن ، أو الغش أو (١٤).. في بيع أو ثمن أو (١٥).. أو التأخير لدين مستحق (١٦).. مع القدرة على الأداء.

الاختيارات:

أ. الولاية	ب. من يعينه	ج. الكفاية
د. الفقهاء	هـ. المتطوع	و. التكليف
ز. مستحب	ح. المطل	ط. الوفاء
ي. أهل السنة والجماعة	ك. متعين	ل. يتشاغل
م. حقوق الأدميين	ن. يقوم	س. القاضي
ع. التدليس		

## إجابتك:

للإجابة عن الأسئلة (من ٤ إلى ١٦) ضع الحرف المناسب أمام الرقم المناسب. علما بأن رقم ٤ قد حُلَّ لك كما في المثال التالي.

## مثال

٤. .... ن ...

٥. .... ٦. .... ٧. .... ٨. ....  
٩. .... ١٠. .... ١١. .... ١٢. ....  
١٣. .... ١٤. .... ١٥. .... ١٦. ....

## القسم الثاني:

أنصحك بالمحافظة على الوقت بحيث لا يتجاوز زمن الإجابة عن الأسئلة (من ١٧ إلى ٢٥) خمسة عشر دقيقة.

٤. الأسئلة (من ١٧ إلى ٢٥)

من خلال قراءتك وفهمك للقطعة رقم ٢ (مكانة العدل في الإسلام) على الصفحات ٧.٨. هل الفقرات المرقمة (من ١٧ إلى ٢٥ في الجدول على الصفحة رقم ٩) صحيحة أم خاطئة أم أنها لم ترد في القطعة أصلا. ضع دائرة على الحرف المناسب. علما بأن رقم ١٧ قد حُلَّ لك كمثال.

٥. القطعة رقم ٢

## مكانة العدل في الإسلام

للعدل في الإسلام مكانة عظيمة، لأن به صيانة حقوق الرعية، وأمنها على نفسها وأموالها وأعراضها، وتقلبها في البلاد آمنة مطمئنة. كما أنه ضمان لاستقرار الدولة الإسلامية ونظامها، وعلامة على قوتها وهيمنتها على غيرها، ولذلك قيل: العدل أساس الملك. يقول الماوردي معددا القواعد التي بها صلاح الدنيا وانتظام أحوالها: "وأما القاعدة الثالثة فهي: عدل شامل يدعو إلى الألفة، ويبعث على الطاعة، وتَعْمُرُ به البلاد، وتنمو به الأموال، ويكثر معه النسل، ويأمن به

السلطان" ويقول ابن تيمية في هذا الصدد " إن العدل نظام كل شيء، فإذا أقيم أمر الدنيا بالعدل قامت، وإن لم يكن لصاحبها من خلاق، ومتى لم تقم بالعدل لم تقم، وإن كان لصاحبها من الإيمان ما يجرى به في الآخرة". وهذا يعني أن العدل سمة اجتماعية للقوة والتمكين، أيا كانت هوية الدولة المطبقة، وأولى بهذا الدولة المسلمة التي تطبقه على خير ما يكون.

لقد جاءت آيات قرآنية عدة وأحاديث نبوية كثيرة أمرة بالعدل ومؤكدّة عليه. ومن الآيات قوله تعالى: ( إن الله يأمركم أن تؤدوا الأمانات إلى أهلها وإذا حكمتم بين الناس أن تحكموا بالعدل إن الله نعمًا يعظكم به إن الله كان سميعا بصيرا) [النساء، ٥٨]. قال محمد بن كعب وزيد بن أسلم وشهر بن حوشب: إن هذه الآية إنما نزلت في الأمراء، يعني الحكام بين الناس. وقال تعالى (إن الله يأمر بالعدل والإحسان وإيتاء ذي القربى وينهى عن الفحشاء والمنكر والبغى يعظكم لعلكم تذكرون) [النحل، ٩٠]. وقال تعالى (يا أيها الذين آمنوا كونوا قوامين بالقسط شهداء لله ولو على أنفسكم أو الوالدين والأقربين، إن يكن غنيا أو فقيرا فالله أولى بهما فلا تتبعوا الهوى أن تعدلوا وإن تلووا أو تعرضوا فإن الله كان بما تعملون خبيرا) [النساء، ١٣٥]. والعدل لا توقفه العداوة والبغضاء ولا يحول دون تحقيقه الأهواء قال تعالى: (ولا يجرمنكم شنآن قوم على ألا تعدلوا، إعدلوا هو أقرب للتقوى) [المائدة، ٨].

ومن أحاديث الرسول صلى الله عليه وسلم قوله: " إن المقسطين عند الله على منابر من نور عن يمين الرحمن عزوجل، وكلتا يديه يمين،: الذين يعدلون في حكمهم وأهليهم وما ولّوا". وقوله صلى الله عليه وسلم: " ما من والٍ يلي رعية من المسلمين فيموت وهو غاش لهم إلا حرم الله عليه الجنة" ومن الغش للرعية عدم العدل فيها. ويقول الرسول صلى الله عليه وسلم أيضا: " ما من أمير يلي أمر المسلمين ثم لا يجهد لهم وينصح إلا لم يدخل معهم الجنة". قال ابن حجر: ويحصل ذلك بظلمه لهم بأخذ أموالهم، أو سفك دمايهم، أو انتهاك أعراضهم وحبس حقوقهم، وترك تعريفهم ما يجب عليهم في أمر دينهم ودنياهم، وبإهمال إقامة الحدود فيهم وردع المفسدين منهم، وترك حمايتهم، ونحو ذلك. فهذا كله من ظلمه لهم والظلم لاشك نقيض العدل.

وللعدل صورتان: الأولى سلبية بمنع الظلم وإزالته عن المظلوم، أي بمنع انتهاك حقوق الناس المتعلقة بأنفسهم وأعراضهم وأموالهم وإزالة آثار التعدي الذي يقع عليهم وإعادة الحقوق اليهم ومعاقبة المعتدي عليها. والصورة الثانية للعدل إيجابية تتعلق أكثر ما تتعلق بالدولة من اسناد الأعمال إلى أهلها دون محاباة، ومن القيام بحق أفراد الشعب في كفالة حرياتهم وحياتهم المعاشية حتى لا يكون فيهم عاجز متروك ولاضعيف مهمل ولافقير بانس ولاخائف مهدد. وهذه كلها من واجبات الحاكم في الإسلام .

ولاشك أن تحقيق العدل بصورتيه هاتين له آثاره الطيبة على النظام وعلى الرعية معاً. قال عمرو بن العاص رضي الله عنه : " سلطان عادل خير من مطر وأبل وعدل قائم خير من عطاء دائم، وسبع حطوم خير من والٍ غاشم، وعدل السلطان خير من خصب الزمان".

## الإجابة

الرقم	الفقرات	صح	خطأ	لم ترد في النص
١٧	يكفي الدولة عدلاً رفح المظالم عن الرعية فقط	أ	ب	ج
١٨	جاء في الحديث القدسي: (ياعبادي إني حرمت الظلم على نفسي وجعلته بينكم محرماً فلا تظالموا)	أ	ب	ج
١٩	العدل يحفظ أمن واستقرار البلاد والعباد	أ	ب	ج
٢٠	وال ظالم خير من سبع سنوات عجاف	أ	ب	ج
٢١	العدل يبعث الطمأنينة في قلب الحاكم وقد قيل لعمر: عدلت فأمنت فمنت.	أ	ب	ج
٢٢	العدل قاعدة مهمة من قواعد صلاح الدنيا	أ	ب	ج
٢٣	يكون العدل في الحكم فقط	أ	ب	ج
٢٤	متى استعبدتم الناس وقد ولدتهم أمهاتهم أحراراً؟ قالها الخليفة العادل لعمرو ابن العاص وابنه.	أ	ب	ج
٢٥	تقوى شوكة الدول بالعدل وإن كانت كافرة	أ	ب	ج

## القسم الثالث:

من المفترض أن تقضي في حدود عشرين دقيقة في قراءة القطعة التالية والإجابة عن الأسئلة (من ٢٦ إلى ٢٩).

٦. الأسئلة (من ٢٦ إلى ٢٩)

من خلال قراءتك وفهمك للقطعة رقم ٣ تحت عنوان (التربية والتعليم كأسلوب من أساليب الدعوة) على الصفحات ١٠، ١١. أجب عن الأسئلة (من ٢٦ إلى ٢٩ على صفحة ١١) باختبار إجابة من العبارات المرتبة من ("أ" إلى "ز" على الصفحة نفسها) بوضع الحرف الذي أمام الإجابة أمام السؤال المناسب له.

## التربية والتعليم كأسلوب من أساليب الدعوة

إن أسلوب التعليم أسلوب تربوي إذا سارت فيه التربية مع التعليم جنباً إلى جنب، أما الحال في عصرنا الحاضر بهذه الصورة: التعليم في واد والتربية في واد آخر فلا يمكن أن يستفاد من أسلوب التعليم إلا بإخراج أشباه مُربين وأشباه مُتعلّمين. والسر يكمن في عدم وجود تخطيط مبني على تصور إسلامي لكل من التربية والتعليم. فالتخطيط شبه مفقود، وإن وجد فهو على أبد تربت في الشرق والغرب لم تستطع أن تصمد على فكرها وعقيدتها أمام الانبهار المادي في الخارج، فأتت تصوراتها وبرامجها بما لا يناسب البيئة التي تعمل فيها، فأخذ هؤلاء الأخوة القادمون بشهاداتهم يتقلدون المناصب العليا في مراكز التربية والتعليم، وكلما أتى فوج نقض برامج وتخطيط سابقه، ووضع برامج وخطط فرضية عشوائية لم تأخذ نصيبها من الاختبار والتقويم، بعيدة كل البعد عن خطط التنمية ومبادئ وسياسات التعليم، غريبة على أذهان الناس، لم تُسبق باستفتاء وتأيد من قبل الناس ورجال التعليم. حتى أصبح التعليم ومناهجه ضرباً من التجارب غير المبنية على أساس علمي وإسلامي فلم يعد التعليم يحقق أهدافه ويستوعب أعداد الخريجين في مختلف التخصصات، لدرجة أنك ترى العشرات بل المئات أحياناً في التخصص الواحد ولم يجدوا فرص العمل، حتى ازدادت البطالة، بالإضافة إلى قلة الميزانية المخصصة للتعليم والبحث العلمي فانعكس ذلك على المعلم أو المربي في أغلب أقطار العالم العربي والإسلامي.

والحل لهذا التدهور من وجهة نظر مؤلف كتاب (الأسلوب التربوي للدعوة إلى الله في العصر الحاضر) هو العمل الجماعي بين رجال التربية والتعليم والإعلام من المسلمين الموثوق في عقيدتهم وسلوكهم الاجتماعي من مختلف الأقطار العربية والإسلامية من غير أن يُطلب منهم ذلك رسمياً، ثم إنتاج خطة عمل تتوفر فيها صفة الشمولية والموضوعية والواقع المشاهد مع الأخذ بالتدرج في تطبيقها وتقديمها للمسؤولين. مشدداً على ضرورة تكامل السياسات الإعلامية والتربوية والاستفادة من الخبرات العالمية كل في مجال تخصصه بعد عرضها على معيار العقيدة الإسلامية. وبذلك يمكن لأساليب التربية والتعليم أن تسهم في رفع المستوى المتدني للأفراد وتؤثر فيهم إيجابياً بإصلاح أوضاعهم الداخلية في الأسرة وأوضاعهم الخارجية في المجتمع.

وخلاصة الأمر أن الداعية اللبيب هو الذي يستطيع استخدام الأسلوب المناسب في المكان المناسب والزمن المناسب، مع الشخص المناسب، عندها يعتبر الأسلوب التربوي ناجحاً في أداء التغيير المناسب والمطلوب بمشيئة الله. وكل أسلوب دعوي يجب أن يشمل عنصرين أساسيين حتى يكون تربوياً: أولهما الإيجابية المتمثلة في التغيير في الوسط المحيط من أفراد وغيرهم. والعنصر الثاني: المشروعية والمتمثل في اتباع الدليل.

## الاختيارات:

- أ- أن يعاد تأهيل مدرسي المرحلة الابتدائية.
- ب- هو العمل الجماعي بين رجال التربية والتعليم والإعلام من المسلمين الموثوق في عقيدتهم الإسلامية وسلوكهم.
- ج- عندما تسير فيه التربية والتعليم جنباً إلى جنب.
- د- قلة الإمكانيات الممنوحة للمنظمات الإعلامية والتعليمية العربية والإسلامية.
- هـ- السبب هو أن التربية في واد والتعليم في واد.
- و- هو أنها لم تسبق باستفتاءات ولم تحظ بتأييد رجال التعليم والمجتمع.
- ز- عندما تعاد صياغة معايير اختيار المعلمين

## الإجابة

## الأسئلة:

- ٢٦- ماهو الحل المناسب لإيقاف التدهور الحاصل في ميدان التربية والتعليم؟ .....
- ٢٧- ماهو سبب انتشار ظاهرة أشباه المعلمين والمتعلمين؟ .....
- ٢٨- متى يعد أسلوب التعليم أسلوباً تربوياً؟ .....
- ٢٩- ما هو سبب عشوائية برامج التعليم وتخبطها في العالم الإسلامي؟ .....

٨. الأسئلة (من ٣٠ إلى ٣٦)

حدد ما إذا كانت العبارات المرقمة (من ٣٠ إلى ٣٦ في الجدول على صفحة ١٢) صحيحة أم خاطئة أم لم ترد أصلاً في المعلومات الإحصائية على صفحة ١٢. ضع دائرة على الحرف المناسب.

## ٩. إحصائية عن أعداد المسلمين في بعض دول العالم

في إحدى الإحصائيات المختصة ظهر أن نسبة المسلمين في ماليزيا هي أكثر بقليل من ٥٠٪ من عدد السكان البالغ نحو ١٨.٥٠٠.٠٠٠ نسمة. وبينما يبلغ عدد المسلمين في الهند أكثر من ١٥٠ مليون شخص فإن نسبة هؤلاء المسلمين لا تتجاوز ١٨٪ من عدد السكان الأصليين. وبلد مثل أندونيسيا يسكنها نحو ١٨٤.٨٠٠.٠٠٠ شخص ويمثل المسلمون منهم حوالي ٩٠٪. أما باكستان فإن نسبة المسلمين تصل إلى ٩٧٪ من عدد السكان البالغ نحو ١٣٠.٠٠٠.٠٠٠ شخص. وينظر فاحصة يتبين أن هناك كثافة سكانية مسلمة في البلدين المتجاورين الهند وباكستان تصل إلى نحو ٢٧٠.٠٠٠.٠٠٠ مسلم. وإذا أخذنا بلداً أخرى من العالم العربي مثل تونس نجد أن نسبة المسلمين هي ٩٨٪ من عدد السكان البالغ ٨.٥٠٠.٠٠٠ شخص.

الإجابة

رقم	الفقرات	صح	خطأ	لم ترد في النص
٣٠	عدد المسلمين في تونس أكثر من عدد المسلمين في ماليزيا	أ	ب	ج
٣١	نسبة عدد المسلمين في الهند إلى سكانها تزيد عنها في باكستان	أ	ب	ج
٣٢	عدد المسلمين في الهند أكثر منه في باكستان	أ	ب	ج
٣٣	نسبة المسلمين إلى عدد السكان في تونس تزيد عنها في ماليزيا	أ	ب	ج
٣٤	مجموع عدد المسلمين في الهند وباكستان وأندونيسيا يزيد عنه في العالم العربي	أ	ب	ج
٣٥	عدد المسلمين في بنغلاديش أكثر منه في تونس بكثير	أ	ب	ج
٣٦	عدد المسلمين في كل من باكستان والهند يزيد عنه في ماليزيا وأندونيسيا	أ	ب	ج







Appendix I

The Main Field Study: The Pre-test Assessment

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

جامعة لينز

قسم الدراسات العربية والشرق أوسطية

[ المملكة المتحدة ]

الاسم:..... ( الرجاء كتابة الاسم )

من فضلك أجب عن هذه الأسئلة جميعاً بوضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب:

السؤال الأول: أي الجمل التالية صحيح؟

كان يجب على أحمد ألا يخبرني بما قيل له، ولكنه فعل.

كان يجب على أحمد ألا أخبرني بما قيل له، ولكنه فعل.

كان يجب على أحمد ألا تخبرني بما قيل له، ولكنه فعل.

السؤال الثاني: ماذا تعني الجملة التالية : "كان يجب على عبد الرحمن الأبيوح لي بالسـر" ؟

هل تعني:

أن عبد الرحمن ربما لا يبوح لي بالسـر.

أن عبد الرحمن أفشى السـر لي وكان هذا خطأ منه

أنه كان من صالح عبد الرحمن ألا يخبرني بالسـر وقد فعل.

السؤال الثالث: في الكلمات التالية أكثر من كلمة تناسب كلمة ( إجهاض )، من فضلك ضع علامة (✓) أمامها:

إجلال  إلهام  إلهام  إلهام

منع  تسمية  تعزيز  اختبار

السؤال الرابع: أي الجمل التالية تحمل علامات الترقيم الصحيحة

قال الرسول صلى الله عليه وسلم خيركم خيركم لجاره.

"قال الرسول صلى الله عليه وسلم خيركم خيركم لجاره."

قال الرسول: "صلى الله عليه وسلم" خيركم خيركم لجاره.

قال الرسول صلى الله عليه وسلم: "خيركم خيركم لجاره."

## Appendix J

## The Experimental Unit: Student's Section

## دورة في تدريس اللغة العربية لطلاب الدعوة غير العرب

## وحدة تجريبية

## أولاً: القراءة

## الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر

١- ماذا تتوقع أن يناقش تحت عنوان الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر؟  
(ضع بعض النقاط التي تتوقع أن تناقش تحت هذا العنوان ثم قارن توقعاتك مع توقعات زميلك المجاور لك)

٢- أوجد المضاد أو المرادف للكلمات في القائمة (أ) من الكلمات في القائمة (ب):

م	القائمة (أ)	القائمة (ب)	المتضادات
١	العامة	بغض	
٢	مفاتيح	الأشرار	
٣	شنان	ويل	
٤	الأخيار	الخاصة	
٥	طوبى	النهي	
٦	محبيا	أبغض	
٧	الأمر	محمودا	
٨	أحب	مغاليق	

٣- اقرأ القطعة التالية قراءة سريعة في ثلاث دقائق فقط ثم ناقش مع زميلك المجاور لك النقاط التي تتذكرها:

(قال الفقيه) أبو الليث السمرقندي رحمه الله حدثنا أبو القاسم عبد الرحمن بن محمد حدثنا فارس ابن مردويه حدثنا محمد بن الفضل حدثنا علي بن عاصم تلميذ أبي حنيفة رضي الله تعالى عنه عن يحيى بن سعد عن إسماعيل بن أبي حكيم قال قال عمر بن عبد العزيز رضي الله تعالى عنه إن الله لا يعذب العامة بعمل الخاصة ولكن إذا أظهرت المعاصي فلم ينكروا فقد استحق القوم جميعا العقوبة وذكر أن الله تعالى أوحى إلى يوشع بن نون عليه الصلاة والسلام أني مهلك من قومك أربعين ألفاً من خيارهم وستين ألفاً من شرارهم فقال يارب هؤلاء الأشرار فما بال الأخيار قال انهم لم يغضبوا بغضبي وأكلوهم وشاربوهم\* روى أبو هريرة رضي الله تعالى عنه عن النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - قال مروا بالمعروف وان لم تعملوا به وانتهوا عن المنكر وان لم تنتهوا عنه\* وروى أنس بن مالك رضي الله تعالى عنه عن النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - أنه قال إن من الناس ناساً مفاتيح للخير مغاليق للشر وان من الناس ناساً مفاتيح للشر مغاليق للخير فطوبى لمن جعل الله تعالى مفاتيح الخير على يديه وويل لمن جعل الله تعالى مفاتيح الشر على يديه\* يعني الذي يأمر بالمعروف وينهى عن المنكر فهو مفتاح للخير ومغلاق للشر وهو من المؤمنين كما قال الله تعالى - المؤمنون والمؤمنات بعضهم أولياء بعض يأمرون بالمعروف وينهون عن المنكر فأما الذي يأمر بالمنكر وينهى عن المعروف فهو من علامات المنافقين كما قال الله تعالى - المنافقون والمنافقات بعضهم من بعض يأمرون بالمنكر وينهون عن المعروف - قال أمير المؤمنين علي بن أبي طالب كرم الله وجهه أفضل الأعمال الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر وشنان الفاسق يعني بغضه فمن أمر بالمعروف فقد شد ظهر المؤمن ومن نهى عن

المنكر فقد أرغم أنف المنافق\* وروى سعيد عن قتادة قال ذكر لنا رجل أن رجلا أتى النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - وهو يومئذ بمكة فقال أنت الذي تزعم أنك رسول الله قال نعم قال فأي الأعمال أحب إلى الله تعالى قال الإيمان بالله قال ثم ماذا قال صلة الرحم قال ثم ماذا قال الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر قال فأي الأعمال أبغض إلى الله سبحانه وتعالى قال الشرك بالله قال ثم ماذا قال قطيعة الرحم قال ثم ماذا قال ترك الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر\* قال سفيان الثوري رحمه الله إذا رأيت القارئ محببا في جيرانه محمودا عند إخوانه فأعلم أنه مDAHن\* (قال الفقيه) حدثنا محمد بن الفضل قال حدثنا محمد بن خزيمة قال حدثنا محمد بن الأزهر بإسناده عن عبد الله بن جرير عن أبيه قال قال رسول الله - صلى الله عليه وسلم - ما من قوم يكون فيهم رجل يعمل بالمعاصي ويقدر أن يغيروه فلا يغيرونه إلا عمهم الله بعذاب قبل أن يموتوا (قال الفقيه) رحمه الله تعالى قد اشترط النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - القدرة يعني إذا كانت الغلبة لأهل الصلاح فالواجب عليهم أن يمنعوا أهل المعاصي من المعصية إذا أظهروا المعاصي لأن الله تعالى مدح هذه الأمة بذلك قال - كنتم خير أمة أخرجت للناس تأمرون بالمعروف وتنهون عن المنكر وتؤمنون بالله\*

٤- أعد قراءة القطعة باحثا عما يؤيد أو يناسب مايلي:

- أ - اسم لأحد طلاب العلم على يد أبي حنيفة
- ب - إن شيوع الذنب قد يؤدي إلى عذاب المذنب وغير المذنب
- ج - وجوب الأخذ على يد العاصي
- د - زيارة وبر ذوي الأرحام من أفضل الأعمال
- هـ - عدد أسماء الرواة في سند حديث عمر بن عبد العزيز
- و - عدد الآيات القرآنية التي وردت في القطعة
- ز - علامات المنافقين

٥- أعد قراءة القطعة السابقة مستخرجا منها أدلة من القرآن الكريم أو السنة النبوية المطهرة على القضايا التالية:

- أ - وجوب الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر حتى وإن لم يلتزم الداعي بذلك
- ب - إن من مقتضيات الإيمان الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر
- ج - إن تغيير المنكر مقيد بالقدرة
- د - إن الإيمان بالله وصلة الرحم والأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر من أحب الأعمال إلى الله

٦- ضع خطا تحت النقاط الرئيسية في القطعة

- ٧- إلى كم فقرة يمكن تقسيم القطعة: (قارن إجابتك مع الزميل المجاور لك)
- ( ) ثلاث فقرات ( ) أربع فقرات ( ) خمس فقرات ( ) ست فقرات

٨- هل وردت الأحاديث المذكورة في القطعة في البخاري ومسلم؟ راجع المصدر المناسب للتأكد من إجابتك.

ثانيا: الكتابة

- ١- راجع القطعة السابقة واضعاً علامات الترقيم المناسبة في أماكنها الصحيحة.
- ٢- حدد المصطلحات المتعلقة بالدعوة في القطعة ثم اكتب تعريفا مختصرا لكل منها.
- ٣- اكتب فقرة قصيرة حول أي من الموضوعات التي تناولتها القطعة.

ثالثا: المناقشة الشفهية

- قال سفيان الثوري: "إذا رأيت الرجل محببا في جيرانه محمودا عند إخوانه فأعلم أنه مDAHن"
- أ - من وجهة نظرك هل ما قاله سفيان الثوري أعلاه حقيقة أم رأي؟
  - ب - ناقش رأيك مع زميلك
  - ج - رشحا أحدكما لينقل رأيكما في هذا القول لبقية طلاب الفصل

**Appendix K**

**The Experimental Unit: Teacher's Guide**

دورة في تدريس اللغة العربية لطلاب الدعوة غير العرب

وحدة تجريبية

(دليل المدرس)

أولاً: القراءة (١٢٠ دقيقة)

الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر

(مقتطفة كما وردت في باب الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر في كتاب تنبيه الغافلين للسمرقندي المتوفى سنة ٣٧٣هـ)

١- حاول أن تهيء الطلاب لموضوع القراءة من خلال السؤال رقم (١) في الوحدة. قسم الطلاب إلى مجموعات صغيرة مكونة من طالبين أو ثلاثة: اسأل كل مجموعة أن تسجل توقعاتها عن موضوع القطعة ثم تناقشها فيما بعد مع بقية الفصل.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: ثلاث دقائق لشرح أسلوب التوقع والتخمين وأهميته في القراءة. ثم أعط الطلاب سبع دقائق لحصر ومناقشة توقعاتهم. (١٠ دقائق)

٢- يجب أن يجيب الطلاب على السؤال رقم (٢) منفردين ثم بعد ذلك قسم الطلاب إلى مجموعات صغيرة مكونة من طالبين أو ثلاثة لمناقشة ومقارنة إجاباتهم. عليك أن تتجول للاطلاع على الإجابات وتصحيح الخاطئ منها. علماً بأن الجواب الصحيح معطى لك أدناه.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: ثمان دقائق. (٨ دقائق)

إجابة السؤال رقم (٢)

م	القائمة (أ)	القائمة (ب)	المترادفات	المتضادات
١	العامة	بغض	محبياً = محموداً	العامة × الخاصة
٢	مفاتيح	الأشرار	شنان = بغض	مفاتيح × مغاليق
٣	شنان	ويل		الأخيار × الأشرار
٤	الأخيار	الخاصة		طوبى × ويل
٥	طوبى	النهي		الأمر × النهي
٦	محبياً	أبغض		أحب × أبغض
٧	الأمر	محموداً		
٨	أحب	مغاليق		

٣- أشرح للطلاب ماهية القراءة السريعة وكيف تؤدي وما الغرض منها. وبعد ذلك اطلب منهم قراءة القطعة في ثلاث دقائق فقط ومن ثم استخراج بعض النقاط المهمة منها. اطلب منهم مناقشة وربط النقاط المستخرجة مع بقية الفصل. لا تسمح للطلاب بالعودة إلى القطعة أثناء المناقشة.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: سبع دقائق للشرح. ثلاث دقائق للقراءة. ثم أعط الطلاب ست دقائق للمناقشة وربط النقاط المستخرجة ببعضها. (١٦ دقيقة)

ملحوظة رقم (١):

القراءة السريعة هي أن تقرأ نصاً بسرعة كبيرة لفهم النقاط الرئيسية فيه غير متوقف أمام معاني الكلمات الصعبة أو التفصيلات.

٤- عليك أن تشرح للطلاب طريقة القراءة من أجل الحصول على معلومات محددة مستعينا بالملحوظة رقم (٢) أدناه. اطلب من الطلاب معاودة القراءة من أجل الحصول على معلومات تتناسب مع المعلومات المحددة في السؤال

رقم (٤) في الوحدة. يقوم الطلاب بالتوصل للمعلومات كل بمفرده وبعد ذلك تناقش في مجموعات صغيرة. عليك أن تتجول بين المجموعات لمراجعة صحة الإجابات الصحيحة المعطاة لك أدناه.  
الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: سبع دقائق للشرح. عشر دقائق للقراءة. ثم خمس دقائق للمناقشة ومعرفة الإجابات الصحيحة. (٢٢ دقيقة)

### الإجابات الصحيحة:

٤- أعد قراءة القطعة باحثاً عما يؤيد أو يناسب مايلي:

- أ - اسم لأحد طلاب العلم على يد أبي حنيفة (علي بن عاصم)  
ب - إن شيوع الذنب قد يؤدي إلى عذاب المذنب وغير المذنب (حديث عمر بن عبد العزيز)  
ج - وجوب الأخذ على يد العاصي (ما من قوم يكون فيهم رجل يعمل بالمعاصي ...)  
د - زيارة وبر ذوي الأرحام من أفضل الأعمال (حديث أي الأعمال أحب إلى الله ...)  
هـ - عدد أسماء الرواة في سند حديث عمر بن عبد العزيز (٧ رواية)  
و - عدد الآيات القرآنية التي وردت في القطعة (٣ آيات)  
ز - علامات المنافقين (الأمر بالمنكر والنهي عن المعروف)

### ملحوظة رقم (٢):

١. ركز على أهدافك من القراءة مغفلاً أي معلومات غير مناسبة لأهدافك.
٢. ابحث عن المعلومات التي تريدها في الأماكن المحتمل وجودها فيها.
٣. حرك عينيك بسرعة ماسحاً القطعة وباحثاً عن كلمات أو عبارات متصلة بالمعلومات التي تبحث عنها.

١ - يقرأ الطلاب هذه المرة للوصول إلى الأدلة المطلوبة في السؤال رقم (٥) في الوحدة. عليهم الاستفادة من أسلوب القراءة للحصول على معلومات محددة الذي شرحته لهم آنفاً.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: عشر دقائق. (١٠ دقائق)

### إجابات السؤال الخامس:

- أ - وجوب الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر حتى وان لم يلتزم الداعي بذلك (حديث أبي هريرة رضي الله عنه... مروا بالمعروف...)  
ب - إن من مقتضيات الإيمان الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر (الآية: المؤمنون والمؤمنات بعضهم أولياء بعض ..)  
ج - إن تغيير المنكر مقيد بالقدرة (حديث عبد الله بن جرير عن أبيه: ما من قوم يكون فيهم رجل يعمل بالمعاصي ....)  
د - إن الإيمان بالله وصلة الرحم والأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر من أحب الأعمال إلى الله (حديث سعيد عن قتادة: إن رجلاً جاء إلى النبي صلى الله عليه وسلم فسأله: أي الأعمال أحب إلى الله ....)

٦- اشرح للطلاب كيف يتوصلون إلى النقاط الرئيسية وكيف يحددون بدايتها ونهايتها. أعطهم مثالا من القطعة ثم بعد ذلك اطلب منهم أن يضعوا خطأ تحت أي نقطة مهمة يجدونها في النص السابق. النقاط الرئيسية قد وضع تحتها خطوط لمساعدتك في إعطاء الطلاب الجواب الصحيح.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: سبع دقائق للشرح. عشر دقائق لتحديد النقاط الرئيسية ووضع الخطوط تحتها ثم ثمان دقائق للمناقشة والمراجعة. (٢٥ دقائق)

### الجواب الخاص بالسؤال رقم (٦):

(قال الفقيه) أبو الليث السمرقندي رحمه الله حدثنا أبو القاسم عبد الرحمن بن محمد حدثنا فارس ابن مردويه حدثنا محمد بن الفضل حدثنا علي بن عاصم تلميذ أبي حنيفة رضي الله تعالى عنه عن يحيى بن سعد عن إسماعيل بن أبي حكيم قال قال عمر بن عبد العزيز رضي الله تعالى عنه إن الله لا يعذب العامة بعمل الخاصة ولكن إذا أظهرت المعاصي فلم ينكروا فقد استحق القوم جميعاً العقوبة وذكر أن الله تعالى أوحى إلى يوشع بن نون عليه الصلاة والسلام أنني مهلك من قومك أربعين ألفاً من خيارهم وستين ألفاً من شرارهم فقال يارب هؤلاء الأشرار فما بال الأخيار قال إنهم لم يغضبوا بغضبي وأكلوهم وشاربوهم\* روى أبو هريرة رضي الله تعالى عنه عن النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - قال مروا بالمعروف وان لم تعملوا به وانهموا عن المنكر وان لم تنتهوا عنه\* وروى أنس بن مالك رضي الله تعالى عنه عن النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - أنه قال إن من الناس ناساً مفاتيح للخير مغاليق للشر



قال فأي الأعمال أبغض إلى الله سبحانه وتعالى قال الشرك بالله قال ثم ماذا قال قطيعة الرحم قال ثم ماذا قال ترك الأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر\*  
قال سفيان الثوري رحمه الله إذا رأيت القارئ محبباً في جيرانه محموداً عند اخوانه فأعلم أنه مدهن\* (قال الفقيه) حدثنا محمد بن الفضل قال حدثنا محمد بن خزيمة قال حدثنا محمد بن الأزهر بإسناده عن عبد الله بن جرير عن أبيه قال قال رسول الله - صلى الله عليه وسلم - ما من قوم يكون فيهم رجل يعمل بالمعاصي ويقدر أن يغيروه فلا يغيرونه إلا عمهم الله بعذاب قبل أن يموتوا (قال الفقيه) رحمه الله تعالى قد اشترط النبي - صلى الله عليه وسلم - القدرة يعني إذا كانت الغلبة لأهل الصلاح فالواجب عليهم أن يمنعوا أهل المعاصي من المعصية إذا أظهروا المعاصي لأن الله تعالى مدح هذه الأمة بذلك قال - كنتم خير أمة أخرجت للناس تأمرون بالمعروف وتنهون عن المنكر وتؤمنون بالله\*

٨- وزع على الطلاب نسخ من البخاري ومسلم لتدريبهم على التأكد من درجة صحة الحديث. اطلب من الطلاب مراجعة الأحاديث الواردة في النص لمعرفة هل وردت في البخاري ومسلم أم لا.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: خمس دقائق للشرح و تسع دقائق للتطبيق. (١٤ دقائق)

ثانياً: الكتابة (٣٥ دقيقة)

١- اشرح للطلاب ما المقصود بعلامات الترقيم ( راجع ملحوظة رقم (٣)). ثم اطلب من الطلاب وضع علامات الترقيم في أماكنها المناسبة على القطعة.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: خمس دقائق للشرح و ثمان دقائق للتطبيق. (١٣ دقائق)

ملحوظة رقم (٣):

يمكنك مراجعة كتاب: معلم الإملاء الحديث للطلاب والمعلمين والإعلاميين لمؤلفه محمد إبراهيم سليم ( القاهرة ١٤٠٧هـ) ص ص ١٩٣-٢٠٨.

٢- وضح للطلاب المقصود بمصطلحات الدعوة ثم اطلب منهم استخراج أكبر عدد منها من النص السابق. اطلب منهم بعد ذلك تعريف هذه المصطلحات كتابة في جمل قصيرة.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو: دقيقتان للشرح و أربع دقائق للاستخراج وست دقائق للكتابة. (١٢ دقائق)

٣. اسأل كل طالب أن يختار موضوعاً معيناً من القطعة ثم يكتب عنه فقرة أو عدة فقرات قصيرة. تجول بينهم مصححاً ما تراه من أخطاء.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو عشر دقائق. (١٠ دقائق)

ثالثاً: مهارة الحديث (٢٥ دقيقة)

١- اشرح للطلاب كيفية التعبير عن النفس وعرض الرأي والدفاع عنه والاستماع لآراء الآخرين. بعد ذلك اطلب منهم عرض ومناقشة آرائهم حول رأي سفيان الثوري. يجب أن تنخرط معهم في المناقشة.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو عشر دقائق. (١٠ دقائق)

٢- اقرأ فقرة من القطعة بصوت واضح وبالتشكيل المناسب ثم بعد ذلك اطلب من كل طالب أن يقرأ فقرة منها. راقب قراءة الطلاب وبين الفينة والأخرى اقرأ إحدى الفقرات قراءة نموذجية.

الوقت المعطى لهذا السؤال هو خمسة عشر دقيقة. (١٥ دقائق)