A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PRESENT PREPARATION PROGRAMMES FOR TEACHERS OF ARABIC FOR NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS IN THE RIYADH UNIVERSITIES

By

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the similarities and dissimilarities between two types of Arabic language teacher preparation programmes: Teachers of Arabic as a Native Language (TANL) and Teachers of Arabic as a Foreign Language (TAFL) at King Saud University (KSU) and Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), both in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

The research is thorough and goes beyond a comparison of mere descriptive programme elements and practices as the data were collected through questionnaires, interviews and the practical observation of programmes.

The thesis basically comprises two broad parts: the first half contains the background to the study, related literature, the historical development of teacher preparation programmes and the research methodology followed in this work. The second half deals with the analysis and evaluation of the data from a variety of angles.

Among the most salient findings of this study are the following: the overemphasis on both programmes of theory at the expense of practice; the antiquated teaching approach and methods used; and, the overwhelming consensus for the necessity of programme evaluation and renovation. The programmes involved in this comparative study were found to be distinctly dissimilar in terms of clarity and specificity of
their aims, admission policies, course components, structure and outcomes.

**Keywords:** Arabic Language Teacher Preparation Programmes, Teachers of Arabic as a Native Language, Teachers of Arabic as a Foreign Language, Teacher Training, Comparative Education, Programme Evaluation, Teacher Education in Saudi Arabia.
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Contents

Abstract ......................................................................................................... i
Acknowledgements ....................................................................................... iii
Contents ........................................................................................................ iv
List of Figures ............................................................................................... viii
List of Tables ................................................................................................ xi
Abbreviations Used ...................................................................................... xii
Transliteration Scheme ................................................................................. xiii

Chapter One: Introduction & Background to the Research
1.1 Foreword ............................................................................................... 1
1.2 Background to the Research ................................................................. 5
1.3 The Value and Significance of the Study ............................................. 10
1.4 The Selected Research Approach ....................................................... 13
1.5 The Aims of the Study ......................................................................... 15
1.6 The Scope and Limitations of the Study ............................................. 16
1.7 The Study Instruments ........................................................................ 19
1.8 An Outline of the Study ..................................................................... 20

Chapter Two: Literature Review
Introduction ................................................................................................ 22
First Section: Studies Concerning the Preparation of Teachers for TANL 23
Second Section: Studies Concerning the Preparation of Teachers for TAFL 51
An Appraisal of the Previous Related Studies ........................................... 66
Conclusion ................................................................................................. 70

Chapter Three: The Historical Background to ALTPPs in Saudi Arabia
Introduction ................................................................................................ 72
Section One: The Historical Background to ALTPPs for Native Speakers 72
Historical Phases in the Preparation of Teachers of Arabic for TANL .. 74
3.1.1 The First Phase (1902-1924) ............................................................ 74
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Chapter Six: Questionnaire Results, Analyses &amp; Discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.1 Aspects of the Programmes Weaknesses</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.2 Aspects of the Programmes Strengths</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.3 Curriculum Content</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4 Teacher Education Components</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4.1 Specialisation Aspects</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4.2 Cultural Aspect</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4.3 Professional Aspects</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4.4 Teaching Practice</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.5 Teaching Methods, Teaching Aids and the Length of TPPs</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.5.1 Teaching Methods</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.5.2 Teaching Aids</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.5.3 The Length of the Programmes</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.6 Research and Extra-Curricular Activities</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.7 Assessment Methods and Organisational Aspects</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.8 Programme Standards and the Need for Evaluation</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.9 Programme Distinctiveness</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Chapter Seven: Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.1 Summary</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.2 Conclusions</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.3 Recommendations</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.4 General Suggestions</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.5 Suggestions for Further Studies</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Bibliography</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendices

Appendix (A): Official Correspondence for Permission to Apply Study on Selected Population ................................................. 304
Appendix (B): Teaching Staff's Questionnaire [English Version] ....... 312
Appendix (C): Students' Questionnaire [English Version] ............... 322
Appendix (D): Teaching Staff's Questionnaire [Arabic Version] ........ 331
Appendix (E): Students' Questionnaire [Arabic Version] ............... 338
Appendix (F): List of Names of Jurors' Validation Committees ........... 344
Appendix (G): Samples of Interview Questions ............................. 347
Appendix (H): The Style of Observation Card ................................ 349
Appendix (I): Detailed Responses of Students and Teachers Relative to their Degree of Satisfaction with Professional & Specialisation Components on TPPA & TPPB ............ 351
Appendix (J): General Suggestion made by Teachers & Students for the Developing their Programmes ........................................ 354
Appendix (K): Sample of Hand Written Suggestions and Comments as Revealed by the Participants ..................................... 360
## List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Graphic representation of selected TPPA</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Graphic representation of selected TPPB</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>The Structure of the Arabic Language Institute at KSU</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>The Structure of the Arabic Language Institute for Non-Arabic Speakers</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>The Structure of the Institute for Teaching Arabic</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>The Number of graduates from the preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers in SA</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>The distribution of students by age on programme A</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>The distribution of students by age on programme B</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>The age distribution of teaching staff on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>The distribution of nationality among teaching staff on both programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>The nationality distribution of students on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>The marital status distribution of the students on TPPA &amp; TPPB</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>The distribution of the teaching staff members according to their academic status</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Students' grades for their previous qualifications on entry to programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>The distribution of teaching staff according to their teaching experience</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>The active professional participation of teaching staff members</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.11 The teaching staff's command of foreign languages ......................... 152
4.12 The overriding reasons for students joining programme A or B .......... 154
4.13 The distribution of students regarding their desire to work in the teaching profession ................................................................. 157
5.1 Percentage distribution of the total teaching hours among the four teacher education components on both programmes A & B .......... 168
6.1 Teaching staff's opinions on whether programmes A & B contain weaknesses ................................................................. 202
6.2 Students' opinions on whether programmes A & B contain weaknesses 203
6.3 Students and teaching staff's reactions over whether the present curricula are adequate for their preparation as teachers ................. 217
6.4 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the specialisation aspect of the ALTPPs .................................................. 223
6.5 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the cultural component of the ALTPPs ..................................................... 228
6.6 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the professional aspect of the ALTPPs .................................................... 231
6.7 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with length of the teaching practice period ......................................................... 235
6.8 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the teaching method used on their programmes ........................................ 237
6.9 The teaching staff make frequent use of a variety of teaching aids ...... 241
6.10 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the length of their course ................................................................. 244
6.11 Teaching staff’s judgement on whether their programmes promote scientific research activities ................................................................. 248

6.12 Students and teaching staff’s level of satisfaction with the extracurricular activities .............................................................................. 250

6.13 Students and teaching staff’s level of satisfaction with the assessment methods used on their programmes ...................................................... 252

6.14 Students and teaching staff’s degree of satisfaction with the organisational aspects of their respective programmes ............................... 255

6.15 Students and teaching staff’s level of satisfaction with the standard of the present programmes .............................................................. 257

6.16 Students and teaching staff’s responses as to whether the teacher preparation programmes are due for an evaluation ............................... 258

6.17 The teaching staff’s awareness of the differences between programmes A & B .......................................................................................................... 260
List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Taught subjects in the College of al-Shari'ah and Islamic Studies</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Subjects taught in the Teachers' College in Makkah</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>The cultural component course's subjects</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>The specialist component course's subjects</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>The professional component course's subjects</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Teaching staff's perceived weaknesses on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Students' perceived weaknesses on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Teaching staff's perceived strengths on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Students' perceived strengths on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>Course subjects considered important by students on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Course subjects considered important by teaching staff on programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>Opinions about whether programmes A &amp; B encourage scientific research activities</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>Students and teaching staff's degree of satisfaction with specialisation components of programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>Students and teaching staff's degree of satisfaction with professional education aspects of programmes A &amp; B</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Abbreviations Used**

The following abbreviations are used throughout this research.

The list includes:

**ALECSO** = The Arab League Educational, Cultural Scientific and Organisation

**ALTPP** = Arabic Language Teacher Preparation Programme

**ALTPPs** = Arabic Language Teacher Preparation Programmes

**HEI** = Higher Education Institution

**HEIs** = Higher Education Institutions

**IMSIU** = Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University

**KSU** = King Saud University

Programme A = Teacher Preparation Programme for Native Speakers

Programme B = Teacher Preparation Programme for Non-Native Speakers

**SA** = The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

**TAFL** = Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language

**TANL** = Teaching Arabic as a Native Language

**TAPPs** = Teacher of Arabic Preparation Programmes

**TP** = Teaching Practice

**TPP** = Teacher Preparation Programme

**TPPA** = Teacher Preparation Programme for Native Speakers

**TPPB** = Teacher Preparation Programme for Non-Native Speakers

**TPPs** = Teacher Preparation Programmes
Transliteration Scheme

The transcription of Arabic sounds and words in this thesis generally follows the Library of Congress system (LC) with some modifications. The scheme used is as follows:

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</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Short Vowels</th>
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</tr>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 FOREWORD

The success of an educational programme depends on several factors, the most important of which is the teacher (Allen & Valette, 1972: 3). The teacher's role in shaping a student's character and his/her outlook on life is well documented and all scholars and educationalists are in agreement about the teacher's indispensable contribution to the education system. Authors such as Gross (1974: 49); Taylor (1979: 3); Watts (1984: 11); Dubin & Olshtain (1986: 31); Wright (1991: 10); Richards (1994: 100) and many others emphasise in different ways the vital part played by the teacher. Moreover, some scholars such as, Flanders (1969: 1429) and Al-Bazzāz (1989: 180) have even attempted to measure in percentage terms the contribution of the teacher in comparison with other factors and estimate that the teacher's role in the process of education is between 60%-70%.

Hence, this study emphasises the importance of the teacher's role which remains paramount despite the huge technological advances in teaching aids and their significance in the educational process. Far from diminishing his/her role, such progress necessitates that their preparation be further adequately updated so that they are equipped to keep pace with new advances and reap the maximum benefit from their use. For this reason, the teacher continues to be a very crucial and
effective factor in the educational process. Thus, Girard (1972: 110) states that:

"It is generally known that any good educational system depends largely on the quality of the teacher."

Similarly, Taylor (Ibid.) maintains that:

"... the effectiveness of the educational system depends on the quality of its teachers."

Likewise, Papalia (1976: 159) considers that:

"The quality of the teacher is the key to the success of an educational programme. A poor teacher will impart little to his pupils in spite of the best possible materials, while a superior teacher will transcend a poor textbook or faulty organisation and will make learning interesting and relevant."

Husain and Ashraf (1979: 108) have also arrived at the same conclusion: that the central pivot of any system of education is the teacher who, when properly prepared for his profession, can convert even inadequate materials into useful resources adapted to the needs of his students so as to produce the desired teaching outcome.

The adequate preparation of teachers is appropriately the dominant factor in determining the state of any educational system and it is the key to the success of any educational programme (Freeman, 1966: 7).

The Arabic language teacher has traditionally assumed a high level of importance in the Arab World due to the role of Arabic as the instrument of study of all disciplines including the Holy book of the Qurʾān. The language teacher’s competence is perceived by many as an
important indicator of the success or failure of the educational process itself (Al Aradi, 1988: 3).

Accordingly, any attempts at educational reform are doomed to failure unless they include some plans for promoting the language teacher and improving his/her preparation programmes (ALECSO, 1972: 262). For instance, it would be useless to establish new teaching methods, write new syllabus books, set modern educational programmes and allocate means and ways of developing educational technology without preparing a competent teacher who is capable of applying them effectively, especially at the initial stages of language learning. This is partly because it is the teacher who can lend the above their vitality and reflect their usefulness (Saleeba, 1967: 355).

Hence, the importance of the adequate preparation of the Arabic language teacher constitutes one of the main themes of this research. Teacher preparation and training is an issue which has occupied the minds of many educational authorities and experts in various countries, such as the USA, where recent studies and reports, which have dealt with reforming initiatives for training teachers, Tozer, [ed.] (1988: 31) led the organisations that are responsible for education to think seriously about reviewing the training and preparation programmes for teachers. This was because the stages of these programmes needed a detailed analysis and comprehensive studies were undertaken in the light of the teacher-students' future needs. Such was the case in the UK where research and evaluation studies conducted over the past three
decades have led to substantial developments and reforms in teacher preparation programmes in order to assess the standard of the programmes.¹

Calls for carrying out similar programme evaluation studies have been made at several conferences and symposia held in various parts of the Arab World regarding TPPs.²

Moreover, most of the previous research relating to this issue recommends undertaking comprehensive studies designed to assess and evaluate the efficacity of current teacher preparation programmes in the light of contemporary potentialities (Muzcil, et. al., 1985: 51). By comparing various studies, it is possible to come to an understanding of the similarities and dissimilarities between their findings and to perceive the strengths and weaknesses of each programme (Mukhtar, 1992: 16). Unfortunately, in the area of Arabic language teacher preparation programmes, as far as the researcher knows, no such comparative studies are presently known to be available in the Arab World, including SA.


² See for illustration, Salamah, et. al. (1990:75) who referred to such events, for example, the Symposium about the Preparation of the Arab Teacher which was held in Beirut in 1957 and the Conference about the Preparation of the Arab Teacher which was held in Cairo in 1972. Many other symposia were held, for instance, the Symposium about the Preparation of Teachers in the Gulf states, which was held in Doha in 1984, and the First International Symposium about the Teaching of the Arabic Language to Non-Native Speakers, which was held in Riyadh in 1980.
Consequently, this study will attempt to compare the programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic for native speakers and non-native speakers at the two Universities of Al-Imam (IMSIU) and King Saud (KSU) in Riyadh. These two universities have been chosen because they are considered to be the oldest and the biggest in SA with respect to this field of study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

The teaching of Arabic, be it to native or non-native speakers, is a challenging undertaking in which many variables and invariables interrelate. According to Awadh (1993: 1), the teacher needs to be fully prepared professionally in order to be able to achieve the results that are expected from him. Thus, concern with the Arabic language teacher and his preparation, in a way that will enable him to discharge his duties, is gaining more and more consideration from various organisations and educational institutions in the Arab World. This is reflected in various governments' keen interest and active contribution to numerous Arab ministerial educational conferences.

The language teacher's position, status and situation in the educational process differs from that of teachers of other specialities, as pointed out by Al Hammadt (1987: 23). This is particularly so because s/he is the person who teaches the national language which conveys and ".... represents the tongue of the nation, its heritage and the crucible of its culture and civilisation." (Azazl, 1991: 79)
In addition to this, the Arabic language is the principal medium of education for all the other study subjects with regard to textbooks and other teaching materials in most educational establishments throughout the Arab countries, including SA.

Education policy makers in SA are convinced that, generally speaking, there is no value in designing and promoting modern teaching methods, curricula and the use of new sophisticated teaching materials without the full and adequate preparation of the teacher who will be responsible for their implementation in the classroom. For this purpose, a number of colleges and universities have been allocated the task of meeting the country's need for teacher training institutions specialising in the training and preparation of Arabic language teachers.

In SA today, all Arabic language teachers must undergo special undergraduate teacher preparation courses at one of the establishments distributed throughout over the country. These institutions play a significant role in the education and quality of teachers and in providing their recruits with a basic career start in their life as professionally competent educators.

However, despite the efforts that have been made with respect to the preparation of Arabic language teachers, whether to native or non-native speakers, there is a general view shared by many experts who have conducted a number of relevant studies, that the standards of preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic are falling, or at least
not keeping up with the linguistic demands of contemporary advances in scientific and the educational knowledge. Khāṭir (1987: 185) illustrated this point in his questionnaire study and later, both Fallātah (1988: 222) and Al Othaim (1993: 3) suggested that the programmes which are currently applied in SA were far below the real requirements of the present time.

This belief had already been widespread for over two decades. Amer (1980: 172) pointed out that the conditions of the programmes for the preparation of Arabic language teachers had contributed considerably to a truly endemic disease manifested in the poor language performance of students at all educational stages.

These judgements certainly reiterate some of the opinions expressed by educational experts and specialists in Oman as early as 1974 who gave rather negative descriptions of the standard of Arabic language teachers. Many of these specialists demanded a review of teacher preparation programmes (Al Tulijah, 1980: 22). It goes without saying that if there is doubt about the success of the programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic as a national or native language, then the success of the preparation programmes of teachers of Arabic as a foreign language cannot, surely, be guaranteed.

There is no doubt that the reason why specialists and experts have demanded a review of these programmes and a reassessment of their content is because the process of preparing teachers is a dynamic one
that has to keep up with the socio-cultural and economic development, the circumstances and the needs of the Arabic communities as well as with the stages of development of their respective educational systems, the teachers who serve them and the students who benefit from them.

Additionally, the message conveyed by the teachers as well as their responsibilities have increased hugely this century, as Stanikova (1974: 35) remarked, so that they include elements which have not before appeared to be as acutely and extensively needed as they are in modern time. Among these is the wider use of increasingly more sophisticated teaching aids, computers, etc. However, no one knows for sure whether the teacher preparation institutions in SA are keeping up with the changing role of the modern Arabic language teacher or not.

Indeed, more than four decades have passed since the establishment of the Faculty of Arts at King Saud University. The Faculty of Arabic Language has been operational at Al-Imam University in Riyadh for more than forty years. Furthermore, it is more than twenty five years since any studies were undertaken at the institutes for teaching Arabic at the Universities of Al-Imam and King Saud. Moreover, there have neither been enough scientific studies nor have there been any contrastive studies between these institutions. However, there have been two or three studies which have dealt with one limited part of these programmes, such as the evaluation of the professional preparation of Arabic language students at the Faculty of Education of King Saud University (Madkur, 1988).
A reappraisal of the whole system of teacher preparation is long overdue, particularly with regard to curriculum structure and content. It is suggested in this piece of research that a comparative study of selected teacher preparation programmes can make a useful contribution towards establishing the degree of competence each programme can achieve as well as discovering the inherent deficiencies which may call for amendment or reform. This study is a step towards achieving this goal.

Incidentally, it is also worth mentioning that the researcher of this present study graduated from Al-Imam University in 1988, where the same programmes for the preparation of teachers are still taught. In 1989, he followed a course of study which dealt with programmes for the preparation of teachers of the Arabic language to non-native speakers. Additionally, he has also spent approximately five years teaching Arabic as a national language at different stages of general education including primary, intermediate and secondary levels and is now teaching the Arabic language to non-native speakers in SA and abroad.

Finally, among the reasons which led to this research is the question of whether the common practice of employing new graduates from TPPA to teach on TAFL programmes is suitable and efficient. All of these factors have motivated the researcher to investigate this matter in some depth, draw conclusions and make a number of recommendations on the subject.
1.3 THE VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken in response to repeated calls by experts and specialists for someone to study the programmes for the preparation of teachers, in general, and the Arabic language teacher in particular (Al Tuºmah, 1980: 22). They perceived a weakness in the standards of graduates from these institutions arising from the training they were undergoing (Khætir, 1987: 185).

Furthermore, there is presently an acute shortage of research materials pertaining to the preparation and training programmes for teachers of Arabic in SA and so, hopefully, the results of this study might provide some useful information that can be made available specifically to Saudi Arabian libraries and researchers in this field. This is essential as planners, educators, administrators, teachers and others currently lack hard information for evaluating and assessing current practices and for planning future developments. This study may also provide information which might be of use for university policy-makers at local and national levels.

It is also hoped that this study will entice others to undertake further research in this and other related fields of education in order to improve the teaching of Arabic, in general, and further enhance its development in specific areas such as the teaching and promotion of Arabic as a foreign language and as a valuable medium of international communication.
This study owes its originality to the following factors:

1. It was indicated earlier that the teacher is considered one of the most essential elements in the educational process. Consequently, success largely depends on the teacher and the method that has been pursued in preparing and qualifying him for the profession (Hindti, 1992: 232). It is, therefore, both legitimate and essential to study the nature of teacher preparation programmes in order to assess the real situation through a detailed and objective description of the facts. This will also highlight the problems encountered by students during their preparation so that adequate solutions can be found for them.

2. Educational progress, revival or reform movements in any social community must start with the teacher because s/he is both the stepping stone and the corner stone in the educational process (see Al-Bazaž, 1989: 181 and also Khudayr, 1980: 33). We live in an era that is permeated with changes and which is distinguished by a proliferation of knowledge and the spread of science and technology. Consequently, a study of the programmes for the preparation and qualification of teachers should be regarded as an essential and major undertaking as the results will effectively contribute to the progressive growth of education and the development of society as a whole (see also Taher, 1972: 18).

3. Despite the fact that the programmes for the preparation of Arabic language teachers to native and non-native speakers in SA were started about four decades ago for the former and about twenty-five
years ago for the latter, they have not yet been researched as deeply as they deserve nor have they been evaluated or assessed with respect to the needs and requirements of the present time.

4. This study will provide a general overview of the present situation of the programmes for teachers of the Arabic language to native and non-native speakers at the Universities of Al-Imam and King Saud in Riyadh, using as research instruments, questionnaires, observation and interviews in order to allow a balanced judgement to be made about their standards, potential formation, structural organisation and other relevant elements, such as teaching aids and assessment methods.

5. Research indicates that no other scientific study has, as yet, compared and contrasted the programmes for the preparation of teachers of the Arabic language to native and non-native speakers in the Arab World either. Thus, this study will partially fill a gap in this research area.

6. Once the shortcomings of the programmes have been determined by this study, the results can then be used to contribute towards the development of new programmes for the preparation of teachers of the Arabic language to native and non-native speakers before they join the teaching service. This can be achieved by helping those who are responsible for these programmes to take decisions and design new policies which will increase the quality and effectiveness of the programmes so that they can attain the objectives that they have set out to achieve.
1.4 THE SELECTED RESEARCH APPROACH

The approach selected for the investigation of the two ALTPPs in this study is comparative. Comparative education in its most general sense refers to research activities aimed at thoroughly documenting the characteristics of two or more national educational systems in terms of organisational structure, goals and pedagogical processes (Thomas, 1990: 1). The aim is to discover how such systems are alike and how they are different (Theism & Adams, 1990: 286).

Comparative education has for a long time been predominantly associated with international comparisons and is primarily conducted for ameliorative purposes (King, 1985: 209). Thus, there is a prodigious amount of international comparative education research available in the literature. However, not all comparative studies reported provide information about more than one education system. Some research focuses on a particular issue of education in only one country, such as literacy rates, levels of achievement in inner cities, etc. (Thomas, ibid.: 1-5).

This study is a one-nation study and is restricted to a description and comparative analysis of two types of teacher preparation programmes for TANL and TAFL. A wide variety of elements of course

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4 E.g. research conducted under the umbrella of UNESCO.
structure, experiences and practices are examined and contrasted from diverse points of view.

In general, the choice of a comparative method of research is partly justified by the incentive it gives the researcher to leave no stone unturned and because it affords him/her the opportunity to truly comprehend what is being described in the context of other similar entities (Halls, 1990: 12-13). Both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the units of comparison can be looked at analytically and critically and the knowledge gleaned can conceivably constitute an important source of information for programme evaluation and development.

Comparative studies in education are mostly empirical and descriptive in nature. They aim essentially at providing information (Halls, ibid.: 304). (This in itself is not to be belittled in the SA context, where reliable information is often scarce and difficult to obtain).

Nonetheless, this study does not merely confine itself to a comparison of descriptive data or inventories of facts, it additionally attempts to evaluate the elements involved in the comparison.

In sum, the intended outcome of this research is hoped to be not only informative but also evaluative and possibly to be of some use to reform-minded educationalists for the purpose of improving the preparation of Arabic language teachers in SA.
Finally, another merit of the comparative technique which is worth mentioning here is the fact that it can potentially stimulate the imagination and contribute to a sharpened perception of the educational issues concerned. It can also lead to a heightened awareness of the flaws and virtues of the systems involved in the comparison, as well as to an identification of possible solutions to common problems.

1.5 THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this research is to compare the programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to native speakers with those of non-native speakers at the Universities of Al-Imam and King Saud in Riyadh. These universities run the oldest and the largest preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic to both native and non-native speakers in SA. In order to provide a clear focus for the research, this study will concentrate on prospective teachers as students at these two universities, as they represent a cross-section of the community and are considered to be one of the most crucial elements in the whole educational process.

At present, it is not clear how the different programmes affect the prospective teachers' skills and competence and to what extent the outcomes of the programmes are predetermined by the level of the students' academic performance and progress in the Arabic language prior to university admission. Hopefully, this study will provide answers to such questions. More specifically, it will attempt to achieve the following aims:
1. To identify the situation of the current programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to both native and non-native speakers of Arabic at the two universities (Al-Imam and King Saud) through a descriptive presentation of the programmes and their potential contents.

2. To compare the programmes set for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to native speakers with those of non-native speakers at the two universities.

3. To identify the strengths and weaknesses of the two programmes.

4. To examine the teachers as well as the students' views towards the nature of the programmes and the extent to which they meet their aspirations.

5. To collate and analyse the results of the study in a statistical form for easy reference so that they can be used in future programme planning.

6. To provide suggestions and recommendations which may help to bring about changes and promote the development of higher programme standards at the various levels of learning.

1.6 THE SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is limited to a comparison between the programmes set for the preparation of male teachers of Arabic to native and non-native speakers at the Universities of Al-Imam and King Saud in Riyadh, SA. This study is specifically limited to the following programmes:
1. Programmes for the Preparation of Teachers of Arabic to Native Speakers:
   
   A) The Faculty of Arabic Language at IMSIU.
   
   B) The Faculty of Arts (The Arabic Language Department) at KSU.

2. Programmes for the Preparation of Teachers of Arabic to Non-native Speakers:

   A) The Institute for Teaching Arabic at IMSIU.
   
   B) The Arabic Language Institute at KSU.

Figures 1.1 and 1.2 summarise this point:

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![Diagram 1.1](image1.png)

**Figure 1.1** Graphic representation of selected TPPA for study

![Diagram 1.2](image2.png)

**Figure 1.2** Graphic representation of selected TPPB for study
This study is limited to a comparison of programme elements, including aims, admission requirements, the study systems, the assigned curriculum, evaluation and assessment procedures, the teaching materials and aids used, the teaching methods, the teaching staff and students' background characteristics and reactions towards the programme structure, content and quality.

The research is based in Riyadh, SA and involves two universities, which prepare teachers of Arabic for native and non-native speakers (see Figures 1.1 & 1.2).

In order to obtain results in which some confidence can be placed, the sample comprises the totality of the teaching staff, together with all final year students in the Arabic Departments and Institutes at the two universities mentioned above, namely students of the Faculty of Arabic Language, IMSIU, and students of the Arabic Language Department in the Faculty of Arts, and students of the programme for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers at the two universities.

The study focuses on the above variables for the following reasons:

- The variables are manageable and controllable.
- The variables studied here are expected to have more of an influence than others on the learners' and teachers' success or failure in the whole educational process.
• Achievement of prospective teachers will be reflected in native or non-native students' achievements and their success at the Arabic language.

• Student teachers and their tutors' reactions as "consumers" have been demonstrated to be of great importance in empirical programme evaluations. They can provide reliable and valid information on the quality of courses and instruction (Schotta, 1973: 502; Rivers, 1975: 22; Eisner, 1979: 181; Jarvis and Adams, 1979: 11). Such data is also of potential value for the improvement of programmes, teaching effectiveness and outcomes.

1.7 THE STUDY INSTRUMENTS

Data was collected in three different ways, including the administration of questionnaires, observation and interviews. The questionnaires were administered to the teaching staff and students who participate in the programmes at the two universities. When collecting direct observational data, a case study approach was used. Both closed and open-ended questions were used as the latter allowed more detailed responses which threw more light on the theme of the study. The validity and reliability of the instruments was achieved, among other procedures, by consulting a number of specialists in the Arabic language, linguistics and curriculum design experts.
1.8 AN OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter One (Introduction & Background to the Research):

This chapter introduces the thesis and includes a discussion of the research background, the aims, its significance, the research approach and the limitations of the study.

Chapter Two (Literature Review):

This chapter is a literature review of the previous research and studies in the Arab World and elsewhere that deal with programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to native and non-native speakers. Differences between the present study and past research are also highlighted here.

Chapter Three (The Historical Background of ALTPPs in Saudi Arabia):

This chapter provides the historical background to the programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to native and non-native speakers in SA, with particular reference to the Universities of Al-Imam and King Saud in Riyadh.

Chapter Four (Research Methods, Procedures and Background Information):

This chapter outlines the field design, including the data collection tools and the steps followed when using the three instruments of the study, namely, the questionnaires, active observation techniques, and interviews. It also includes a definition of the variables and
objectives; a rationalisation of the validity and reliability of the instruments used, and how the items were constructed; and an outline of the format of the study, letters contacting universities, the follow-up and the data analysis procedures, and the students and teachers' backgrounds.

**Chapter Five (A General Comparison Between TPPA & TPPB):**

This chapter discusses and compares the variables involved in the acceptance conditions and requirements, the aims, the teaching methods, the assigned curriculum, the teaching aids, the assessment procedures, and extra-curricular activities.

**Chapter Six (Questionnaire Results, Analyses & Discussion):**

This chapter analyses and discusses the students and teachers' responses to the questionnaires.

**Chapter Seven (Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions):**

This chapter presents the conclusions, and recommendations and suggestions for further studies.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

-Introduction

A survey of the available literature relevant to this study was carried out through personal visits and contacts with several colleges, centres and institutions in a number of Arab countries which are concerned with the preparation of teachers of the Arabic language, with regard to teaching it to native and non-native speakers. The research also took place in the form of written correspondence with educational establishments in countries which the researcher was unable to visit, namely Iraq, Lebanon, Algeria and Libya.

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of past studies related to the topic of this study up to the end of the year 1997. The review of the related literature will be classified into two groups and presented in chronological order:

a. Studies concerning the preparation of Arabic language teachers to native speakers;

b. Studies concerning the preparation of Arabic language teachers to non-native speakers.
FIRST SECTION: STUDIES CONCERNING THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR TANL

2.1.1 ALECSO (1977)

"Nadwat khubarä’ wa-mas'ülin li-baḥth wasā’il taṭwfr ʾiḍād muʾallimī al-lughah al-ʾArabiyyah fi al-waṭan al-ʾArabī".¹

More than twenty different topics were presented at the above symposium, but only a few of them dealt with teacher preparation in the field of Arabic as a national language. Chief among these studies were those of Shawqī Dhaif, Shukrī Ayyād, Maḥmūd Khāṭir and Mohammed Othman. These studies presented various theories and approaches for the adequate preparation of the Arabic language teacher and, despite their limitations, they are still generally regarded as pioneering efforts which left the doors open for further discussion in the field.

Dhaif presented a paper entitled: (Al-dirāsāt al-lughawiyyah wa-al-naḥwīyyah wa-al-ʾadabiyyah al-lāzimah li-muʾallim al-lughah al-ʾArabiyyah). In this paper, (ALECSO, 1977: 81-86) he explained those linguistic aspects which need to be observed when preparing teachers of Arabic who should not only master the language and be

¹ This symposium, attended by linguists and educationalists was organised by the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation (ALECSO), at the University of Riyadh, [Currently, King Saud University] in the period between 5-10 March, 1977.
perfectly fluent in it, but must also be equipped with linguistic resources that go beyond the basic morphology of the language to include, for example, aspects of phonology, lexicography, contrastive linguistics, and philology (Ibid.: 81).

Dhaif also referred to the significance of literary studies in the preparation of the Arabic language teacher. He stated that most of the literary studies conducted at that time were concerned with teaching about personalities rather than literature and that the studies dealt in detail with historical and literary periods without dealing with poetry and prose (Ibid.: 84). Dhaif called for the separation of literature teaching from the history of literature so that it would be possible to train teachers in the aesthetic appreciation of literature, the analysis of styles, and the recognition of the semantic characteristics of literature (Ibid.: 86).

Ayyāḍ’s contribution dealt with “‘Anāṣir al-thaqāfah al-lāzimah li-mu‘allim al-lughah al-‘Arabiyyah”. He defined the term ‘culture’ and its link with language and stressed the importance of the cultural component in the preparation of teachers. Ayyāḍ called for the recognition of the following three principles in the area of the teacher’s cultural preparation:

- the specialist subject material itself.
- adequate amounts of auxiliary subjects.
a variety of cultural subjects which would broaden the scope of the specialist’s consciousness and enable him to communicate within, and influence, his community (Ibid.: 175).

Ayyād referred to the fact that these principles have been considered by many international educational institutions in most countries in the world. However, he stated that there were some observations that needed to be considered during the application of these principles (Ibid.). Chief among these is the lack of integration among the three aspects referred to above, as “culture” seems to be a matter outside the profession and tends to be relegated to third place as compared with the other factors.

However, as Ayyād stated, in reality both the second and the third (the auxiliary and other general cultural subjects) items are natural extensions of the first aspect (vocational culture), which enables one to perceive the three aspects together as three interlinked circles with one central focus.

Khātīr’s topic was about “Al-ʾīdād al-mihant li-muʾallim al-lughah al-ʾArabiyyah”. He dealt with the significance of the professional preparation of Arabic teachers and underlined the following two determining factors:

a. The multi-faceted roles which teachers of Arabic have to assume in their profession.
b. The evolutionary development of the teaching profession which arises from disciplines such as the education sciences and psychology (Ibid.: 182).

Moreover, Khâtir also dealt very briefly with the traditional methodology for the professional preparation of teachers of Arabic. He made a number of observations about traditional teaching in Egypt for preparing Arabic language teachers and he presented a few recommendations for developing and reviewing such methods including the following:

- The course content selected for the preparation of teachers should be permeated with insights from educational psychology, without losing sight of the contribution the subject will make in enabling teachers to meet the challenges and demands made upon them both in the classroom and within the school at large. Thus, newly qualified teachers would be enabled/helped to achieve the performance that was required of them.

- The methodology for preparing Arabic language teachers should be modernised in the light of relevant contemporary sciences and subjects, and only those which contribute to the educational cultivation of the teacher's mind and the improvement of his teaching performance should be selected.

- Training opportunities, for using classical Arabic language in speech and in writing, should be provided (Ibid.: 190).
The title of Othman’s paper was “Al-tadbib al-camalt li-mu’allim al-lughah al-cArabiyyah”. In this paper (Ibid.: 193-197), Othman discussed the importance of teaching practice (TP) and explained ways of directing trainers and of providing them with constructive professional criticism. He also touched upon the final follow-up stage in the field of TP and considered that it should not extend beyond a period of three months.

Othman mentioned the experience that he had gone through at the Institute of Education at Bakht al-Ridä in the Sudan. However, this paper lacked any recommendations or suggestions that could contribute to the preparation of Arabic language teachers.

2.1.2 Al Bayyati (1985)

Taqwîm barnâmaj tarä’iq tadris al-lughah al-cArabiyyah ft ḍaw’î ahdâfih al-sulûkiyyah.

This study aimed at evaluating the student teachers’ practical performance and conduct in teaching two programme units, namely grammar and reading comprehension at the intermediate and secondary levels. When compiling the data, Al Bayyati relied on the overall performance (as shown by the results) of the students in effectively teaching the two subjects. The study also attempted a gender comparison to discover whether there were any differences in
the efficiency of men and women in teaching the programme units in question.

Al Bayyati's sample consisted of thirty-six men and women randomly selected. This number represented only 40% of the overall population of fourth year student teachers in the Arabic Department at the Faculty of Education at Baghdad University. He used a descriptive approach and undertook the evaluation in two ways: first, examining what had been obtained from the sample by means of questionnaires and, secondly, using observation cards to estimate performance. The programme's behavioural objectives were derived from the general aims of the programme and were intended to measure the extent of the students' performance with regard to their achievement of the programme's aims.

The study revealed that the programme for the methodology of teaching Arabic at the Faculty of Education represented only 11.5% of the time available in contrast with 88.5% allocated for other academic preparation programmes, which received a huge focus of attention and much greater concern. The study also found that the sample students' overall performance, with regard to their effectiveness of teaching grammar and the selected reading comprehension passages, was below the standard required by the programme's aims (Al Bayyati, 1985: 9).
Furthermore, the study showed that women were superior to men in achieving the aims of the programme in terms of teaching effectiveness as far as grammar and reading comprehension were concerned (Ibid.: 11).

Al Bayyati also made several recommendations, the most important of which were the following, which emphasised the necessity of:

- specifying the behavioural objectives of the programme (and other similar programmes) so that they would be clear, procedural and amenable to observation and measurement, so as to help learners to attain the required level of performance, and to guide their application to the learning process in an orderly manner.

- making sure that, during their period of study, students came into contact with the different teaching methods, were made aware of the merits of each one of them, and knew how to use them in certain educational situations, although the programme itself should not emphasise any particular teaching method.

- running evaluative research programmes, similar perhaps to the one described above, in order to evaluate the programme in a complementary manner (Ibid.: 12).

In his study, Al Bayyati described a significant portion of teaching practice programmes for students in their final year at the Arabic Department in the Faculty of Education. However, he did not investigate the teaching methods employed to prepare
these students bearing in mind that they were to teach Arabic at the general education level. The scope of his study was narrow and the sample was small, nevertheless, he was able to obtain significant results that, in general, contributed to the progress of the preparation programmes.

2.1.3 Fallātah (1988)

Dirāsah īstīlā'īyyah taqwīmīyyah li-barnāmāj tadrīb mu'allimī al-lughah al-'Arabiyyah bil-marḥalah al-'ibtidā'īyyah 'athnā' al-khidmah fi ḍaw'i ḥājātihim fi madinat Jiddah.

The main aim of this study was to assess the extent to which the training programmes fulfilled the needs of the trainees. This was achieved by the following: (i) determining the skills and knowledge required at this stage, and, (ii) investigating the extent to which each department needed training programmes (Fallātah, 1988: 6).

Fallātah used a descriptive method to characterise the general content of the programmes. He used questionnaires to collect data of two kinds: the first was to determine the degree of significance that teachers attributed to particular skills and, the second, indicated the degree to which the respondents felt there was a need for further training in areas not covered by the programmes.
He restricted his sample to one hundred and seventy-nine teachers who were working at several primary level schools in the city of Jeddah, SA. These teachers consisted of ex-colleagues from the Secondary Teachers’ Institute (S.T.I) and the Complementary Studies Centre (C.S.C). The latter was established at a later date than the Secondary Teachers’ Institute, for the purpose of developing the competence and abilities of graduates from the S.T.I. Both S.T.I. and the C.S.C. are now abolished.

Fallāṭah’s study tackled the importance of training, including its styles and its sources, during the teachers’ period of service. He also touched upon language skills and methods of teaching them to primary level students. The most significant results of his study were the following:

a. The subjects of knowledge and skills that needed to be made available during the training programme for Arabic language teachers at the primary level comprised one hundred and sixty-four topics in different areas.

b. According to the sample, it was found that the in-service training programmes covered only 48% of the total proscribed requirements.

c. Graduates from the S.T.I, which prepared teachers, needed more conduct or behaviour related subjects than graduates from C.S.C.,
whose needs were centred on other non-behavioural or conduct related subjects (Fallātah, ibid.: 222-225).

At the end of his study, Fallātah presented a number of suggestions and recommendations, the most important of which were the following:

- It is necessary for programme planners of future courses to concentrate on professional subjects and on ways of developing the teaching skills which were identified as top priority by the sample teachers, namely, modern language teaching methods and training in the use of teaching aids.
- New training requirements for teachers should be compiled after a few years in order to monitor the changes that might emerge as a result of changing the curriculum, either at the primary stage, or for the preparation of teachers.
- Similar studies should be undertaken in the rest of SA in order to determine the needs of Arabic language teachers in other regions, particularly in the region around Jeddah (Ibid.: 225).

Thus, it could be argued that this study was satisfactory within its own limitations, but no consultation with experts and specialists in the field of the Arabic language was included. It also disregarded the teachers who constituted the research sample, particularly with respect to its specification of the essential skills needed by Arabic language teachers at the primary level.
Moreover, the research worker was not clear with respect to the limitations of his study as he did not specify when the courses were undertaken, what their entities were, the contexts, how many courses there were, who the lecturers were and other unanswered questions. However, it can be considered as a pioneering study as it was not preceded by any similar research and it could help future researchers to avoid repeating the mistakes which were made in this study.

2.1.4 Madkûr (1988)

*Taqwîm barnâmaj al-‘i’dad al-tarbawt li-tullâb al-lughah al-‘Arabiyyah ft Kulliyat Al-Tarbiyah bi-Jâmi’at Al-Malik Sa’ûd ft ādâf al-marjuwwati minhû.*

Madkûr’s study attempted to determine clear aims for the programmes which prepared Arabic language teachers at both the intermediate and secondary levels, at the Faculty of Education, KSU. He tackled the problem from the perspective of both the teaching staff and the students. The study also investigated the students’ perception of the effectiveness of the programme in furthering their professional preparation, and of its degree of clarity and coherence. It also attempted to conceptualise a new perception or image for alternative programmes that could make up for any shortcomings in the existing programme.
The sample for the study comprised twenty-six students from the Arabic Language Department at the Faculty of Education, KSU, in addition to ten members of the teaching staff from the same Department.

Madkur limited his study to specific areas of the professional aspect of teacher preparation, and took into account the following points:
1. The professional programme was to be restricted to Arabic language students in the Faculty of Education.
2. The most prominent elements in the programme were the aims, the content, the teaching methods and the methods of assessment.
3. The evaluative programme was set by the Faculty of Education at KSU and it was concerned with the preparation of Arabic language teachers only, however, the programme in question was abolished four years ago.

Madkur conducted his study in the following manner: firstly, he identified the general programme aims for the preparation of Arabic teachers at the intermediate and secondary schools and then showed them to a group of experts in Arabic teaching, curriculum planning and teaching methodology, so that he was able to arrive at the final specific aims. After that, he drew up a questionnaire, and administered it to the students who were about to graduate from the Department. Next, he distributed the questionnaire to the members
of the teaching staff at the Faculty in order to determine the extent to which the programme had achieved its prospective aims. Finally, he collected the information and analysed it. Madkür obtained several results, chief among which were the following:

1. He determined clear aims for programmes for the preparation of Arabic language teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels in the Faculty of Education, KSU.

2. The recognition that not all of the aims specified by Madkür for his study had been completely achieved, although most of them had been achieved to some degree.

3. The programme was too extreme in its concern with details and trivialities at the expense of language creativity and the main language skills.

4. The programme had no unified direction, particularly with regard to its professional aspects, as most of the syllabuses for psychology and teaching methodology were based on paradoxical philosophies (Ibid.: 59-64).

However, it is not clear how Madkür was able to obtain all of these important results as he did not explain this in his study and, as far as it is known, he did not analyse in detail the content material used in the programme. It is also noteworthy that this study did not make any recommendations which would benefit experts, specialists, and those concerned with the programme. Nevertheless, at the end
of his study, Madkur did draw up a theoretical schema of a complementary system, which he suggested as a possible programme for the preparation of Arabic language teachers at both the intermediate and secondary levels (Ibid.: 65).

Unfortunately, this was characterised by a theoretical approach and did not include any practical suggestions, as Madkur expounded it as a group of concepts, general definitions, and prosaic expressions, devoid of criteria and of any real framework. Moreover, the study sample was too limited, consisting as it did, of only ten members of the teaching staff and twenty-six students (Ibid.: 1). Had the sample been bigger, the results generated would have been more valid, more reliable and more accurate.

Furthermore, Madkur's study differed from the present research in several respects. First of all, the aims of the two studies are different. In this study, the element of comparison between the programmes is dominant, but general aspects concerning the teaching staff and the students are not ignored. Madkur's study was an evaluative assessment of only a limited part of the programme and looked at only one professional dimension. Secondly, the sample sizes differ in the two studies. Madkur's study consisted of only twenty-six students, whereas the number of subjects in the present sample is fifteen times as large as that in Madkur's study. Thirdly,
Madkūr’s study was limited to the Faculty of Education, KSU, during an earlier period, when a different scheme was operative. The particular programme which Madkūr evaluated and assessed has now been superseded and so has the system of contact hours which was then prevalent.

Furthermore, seven years have elapsed since Madkūr’s study was carried out. During this period, several crucial changes and developments have taken place which will definitely contribute to this present study’s distinctiveness and originality.

2.1.5 Al Aradi (1988)

This study dealt with the relationship between the professional preparation of women teachers and the standard of achievement of their students. It also undertook to present the relationship between different variables such as nationality, years of teaching experience, and social/marital status of the students, in addition to the attitudes of the women teachers and the attainment levels of their students.

To achieve these aims, Al Aradi’s study used a descriptive methodology. In addition, she used an attitude measurement scale which had previously been adopted by other researchers, but she
modified it to suit the circumstances of this particular study. Al Aradi gathered information about the phenomenon that she was studying and then described it by identifying its main characteristics and the factors that influenced it. Next, she interpreted the data and analysed them.

The study was restricted to female Arabic language teachers in 1987, who were teaching the third secondary class at the general educational schools in Riyadh, SA. The sample consisted of one hundred and seven women teachers of whom only sixty-six had undergone professional preparation.

Through a comparison of percentages from the results obtained, Al Aradi’s study confirmed that the women teachers who had undergone professional preparation were more positive in their attitudes towards the teaching profession than those who had not. The study also showed that married women teachers who had children of their own had the most positive attitude towards the teaching profession and that their students’ achievements were higher than average.

Moreover, the study also found that women teachers with more teaching experience at the secondary level had a more positive attitude towards the profession and their students achieved higher results than those with fewer years of teaching experience (Al Aradi, 1988: 121-126).
Al Aradi's study put forward several recommendations including the necessity of providing an opportunity for all women teachers who had had no professional preparation to join professional teaching courses, so as to adequately complete their teacher preparation.

The study also suggested that at the primary levels, including girls and boys, the teaching profession should be open to women teachers because women, as the study revealed, were more predisposed to the teaching profession than men (Ibid.: 127,128). However, it is not clear how the study was able to arrive at such a sweeping generalisation regarding men’s lower disposition towards the teaching profession. This frequently voiced assertion remains an unverified hypothesis until it is supported by valid empirical evidence.

Al Aradi also recommended further scientific studies in order to reveal other factors which influence students’ attainments and the extent of their relevance to the variables associated with the individual teacher, namely, his/her professional preparation, nationality, experience, social/marital status, etc.

Finally, one can reasonably conclude that Al Aradi’s study did present some invaluable information to those responsible for the preparation of women teachers at the secondary level which will no doubt be of some benefit to educational planners in the future.
2.1.6 Azazī (1991)

Fa'āliyyāt barāmij 'i`dād mu`allīmī al-lughah al-`Arabiyyah fī Kullīyyāt al-Tarbīyah fī minṭaqat Daltā.

The subject matter dealt with in this study, as specified in the title, was the level of effectiveness of the preparation programmes for Arabic language teachers in Faculties of Education at three Egyptian universities located in the Delta region. An attempt was made to perceive the variation between the experiences presented by these programmes and the roles that teachers have to assume in this area.

The study used the descriptive method to present the theoretical aspects and describe the programmes. Azazī also used personal interviews and recorded observations, in addition to administering two sets of questionnaires to students and teachers.

When drawing up the two questionnaires, Azazī's aim was to investigate those factors which were influential in the preparation of the teacher before s/he joined the service. He attempted to show the relationship between the preparation of teachers, the requirements of the profession, and the practical impact of these on teachers of the Arabic language. However, he limited his study to teachers whose period in the profession was five years or less, and he concentrated
on those teachers who had graduated from the same faculty which constituted the population of the study (Azazf, 1991: 82).

Azazf took several steps in order to achieve the aims of his study. First of all, he acquired information and then described in general terms the demands and needs of teachers, and the specific requirements of Arabic language teachers. He also briefly described one of the three programmes that he had specified. Next, he distributed the two questionnaires to the samples of students and teachers and, afterwards, he reviewed the results which he had obtained from them. The most important findings were as follows:

1. According to 74.8% of the subjects in the sample, the specialist preparation for the profession was inadequate and insufficient. The respondents gave several illustrations of this, based on their practical experience, such as the lack of co-ordination between the preparation programmes and the current requirements of the profession.

2. The majority of the teachers in the sample (91.4%) also taught religious education in addition to teaching the Arabic language, but claimed that the religious subjects was imposed on them by the school schedule, without their consent and regardless of their ability or inability to teach it.

3. The majority of teachers (88.7%) also stated that several factors had led to a deterioration in the professional standard of the Arabic language teacher, particularly the current system of admission which
allows unmotivated candidates to join the programmes and absence of in-service training opportunities (Ibid.: 116-118).

Azazt also presented several recommendations in his study which he classified according to those aspects covered by his research. The following recommendations were the main ones:

- Programmes for the preparation of Arabic language teachers should be revised and evaluated in the light of the needs, requirements and demands of the current national and international situation and state of knowledge, so that newly qualifying teachers can benefit and standards can be raised.

- The preparation of Arabic language teachers should take into account the unique competence and qualifications of each individual and should be presented in an integrated style that links its various aspects together.

- Faculties of Education should be independent in terms of teaching staff, so that the teachers can have sufficient time to benefit their students and strengthen their relationship with them, rather than having to second teachers from other faculties (Ibid.: 120-122).

Azazt's study can be criticised in that the researcher limited his work to a description of only one of the three available programmes for preparing Arabic language teachers. He assessed the preparation programmes of the three faculties and concluded that the programmes were similar to each other. For this reason, it may be
said that Azazl did not pay as much attention to the practical application of the programmes as he did to the available papers and evidence, which included programme plans and curriculum outlines.

Consequently, Azazl judged that the programmes were similar and selected only one of them to study without any scientific evidence for such a decision. Therefore, one can to some extent reproach Azazl's study for lacking scientific accuracy and consistency.

Additionally, although Azazl used three sets of instruments in his study, he recorded only the results of the questionnaires, ignoring the results of the personal interviews and observations, without explaining why he did so. He also asked several questions in the introduction to his study which he failed to answer within the study. For example, question number seven, in which he asked: "To what extent can the gap between what is taught in the faculties of education and the requirements of the profession be bridged?" (Ibid.: 81), is not followed up by responses, figures or conclusions.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that this study only dealt with the teachers' views and relied on them to explain the relationship between the preparation programmes before in-service courses at the faculties of education and the actual requirements of the profession. The method itself was adequate but it represented only one point of
view, and ignored the views of those responsible for the programme; the instructors; the experts and the specialists.

Nevertheless, on the whole, Azizl’s study was constructive and beneficial and it can be considered as the cornerstone which helped to establish a clear framework for the study of the preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic to native speakers.

2.1.7 Al Othaim (1993)


The theme of this study is clearly stated in the title, namely, a specification of the professional, cultural and specialist requirements for the preparation of Arabic language teachers at intermediate and secondary levels from both the specialists’ and the instructors’ points of views. To achieve his aims, Al Othaim specified the theoretical framework of the study as general requirements for the preparation of teachers, and specific requirements for the preparation of Arabic language teachers, at both intermediate and secondary school levels. The study consists of five chapters, most of which are theoretical although some are practical.

Al Othaim followed the descriptive method in order to achieve the aims of his study which were very clearly specified. First of all,
he carried out a survey in order to gather specialists’ opinions so that he could determine and categorise the requirements for the preparation of the Arabic language teacher and establish a preliminary questionnaire. After that, he presented it to a Jurors’ Committee to ensure its validity, clarity and reliability. Next, the questionnaire was distributed to a sample of seventeen Arabic language and education specialists from amongst the working teachers at Umm Al-Qura University, and to ten Arabic language instructors from those who were working at the Administration of Education in the Makkah region (Al Othaim, 1993: 74,75).

Finally, after collecting data from the sample population, Al Othaim analysed and interpreted them and arrived at several important results concerning the preparation of Arabic language teachers at intermediate and secondary levels. Chief among them were the following:

1. Several essential needs were identified at the specification level.
2. Forty-nine essential requirements were specified at the professional level.
3. In addition, the study also specified forty-one essential requirements at the cultural level (general education).
4. The study also resulted in a clear categorisation of the three aspects of the preparation of Arabic language teachers according to the views of specialists and instructors, namely:
a. the specialisation aspect,
b. the professional standpoint, and,
c. the cultural factor (Ibid.: 132-134).

In the light of these results, Al Othaim presented several recommendations and suggestions, chief among which were the following:

- The necessity of establishing a programme for the preparation of Arabic language teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels which takes into account all three of the above-mentioned aspects.

- The necessity of conducting scientific studies in order to assess the preparation programmes for Arabic language teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels in SA in order to establish to what extent they are meeting the demands and requirements revealed by the study.

- The need to benefit from the results of this study by organising some in-service courses or training courses to be held at different locations on a rotational basis for teachers of Arabic at intermediate and secondary levels (Ibid.: 134-136).

To sum up, it can be said that this study clearly specifies the requirements for the preparation of Arabic language teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels. However, the sample was small and it was taken from just one location in the Makkah region. Consequently, the study's strength is limited from the point of view of validity and accuracy. It should have ideally included the opinions
of working Arabic language teachers, together with a bigger sample from experts and specialists in the Arabic language.

Nevertheless, Al Othaim’s study is significant and helpful as it pointed out the direction for present and future endeavours and helped to establish the fundamental principles for assessing current programmes for the preparation of Arabic language teachers that the Arab World lacks and needs.

The present researcher has relied on Al Othaim’s work in drawing up the study questionnaires, despite the variability between the populations of the two studies and the differences in the aims. The requirements specified by Al Othaim’s study are significant for all programmes operating in the preparation of Arabic language teachers. Accordingly, the researcher considered Al Othaim’s study as a useful guide when drawing up some of his own questions for this research.

2.1.8 Awadh (1993)

Dirāsah taqwīmiyyah li-‘i`dād mu`allim al-lughah al-`Arabiyyah fi Kulliyyat Al-Tarbīyah bi-Jāmi‘at Al-Malik Faisal.

This study aimed at assessing the preparation programme of Arabic language teachers at the Faculty of Education, King Faisal University in Al-‘Ahsā. Forty-one trainees and their supervisors constituted the population of the study (Awadh, 1993:11). In particular, it concentrated on teaching practice (TP) aspects of the
programme and attempted to suggest some remedies which might overcome the shortcomings experienced at this level. In order to achieve her goal, Awadh assessed the standard of performance of every male and female trainee during TP, paying due regard to their personal points of view and that of the associate teachers who had supervised the trainees during the 1991 academic year.

Like most of the afore-mentioned research projects, Awadh’s study followed a descriptive methodology to achieve its aims. She also used questionnaires to collect the required data, in addition to an observation card, which was distributed to the trainees’ supervisors. However, Awadh fails to explain how the questionnaire was constructed, whether its validity was tested before it was distributed, and which items and features it dealt with. The same is true of the observation card, where no explanation was given as to how it was drawn up, what it contained, and so on. All these factors tend to render the study rather ambiguous, as the questionnaire results and the data gathered on the observation cards constituted three-quarters of the study and were, therefore, the most significant parts of it.

The remainder of the study was made up of the theoretical framework or structure of the project. In this, Awadh refers to the project’s importance and limitations, but she also fails to explain the steps and procedures that she followed when conducting the study.
After her analysis of the observation cards, Awadh's study showed several results, chief among which were the following:

1. The results referred to the high scores obtained by both male and female students trained in TP and, according to Awadh, these scores surpassed what they had obtained in other academic subjects. One explanation put forward by Awadh for the award of sometimes undeservedly good grades during teaching practice was the result of the interdependence of human and other personal factors that were difficult to control.

2. The study revealed some deficiencies in the students' teaching performance both in the assessment area, in giving guidance to enable pupils to correct their own mistakes and, in the use of some of the teaching aids.

3. Awadh also claimed that the TP programme at the Faculty of Education at King Faisal University was compatible with TP programmes in many of the advanced countries, with respect to the standard of performance of both male and female students in making use of the teaching practice material (Ibid.: 23). However, one could challenge Awadh's result on the grounds of its lack of scientific accuracy as no comparative study was carried out to compare it with a programme in an advanced country.

At the end of her short study, Awadh presented a few suggestions for the benefit and support of both male and female students. Chief among them were are the following:
• To increase the period of TP to two university study terms instead of one study season, as is the case in some programmes, in order to give the trainees a greater opportunity to train in different Arabic language courses and to improve their TP skills for longer periods of time.

• To make supervisors specialising in TP material available so that the programme can achieve maximum results.

• To increase the amount of research work and evaluative assessment studies, in order to identify the different standards of the programmes dealing with the preparation of Arabic language teachers, because the teaching profession requires continuous development to ensure that its character and content remain consistent with the changing variables and contemporary trends in language teaching and education (Ibid.: 24,25).

Awadh's study can be criticised for the fact that its title claims more than the study contains. Although Awadh entitled the study, "An Evaluative Assessment of the Preparation of Arabic language teachers at the Faculty of Education, King Faisal University", no comprehensive evaluative assessment study of that programme was carried out. Instead, only the TP aspect of the programme was assessed. A more appropriate and accurate title for her study would have been "An Evaluative Assessment of the Teaching Practice Aspects of the Programme for the Preparation of Arabic Language Teachers at the Faculty of Education, King Faisal University".
SECOND SECTION: STUDIES CONCERNING THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR TAFL

2.2.1 Sieny & Al-Qassimi (1980)


This symposium is considered to have pioneered symposia in the more specialised areas of study, in that it tackled several topics within the field of teaching Arabic to non-native speakers, including research in the development of linguistic materials, teaching methods, and other subjects related to the cultural and civilisation aspects of TAFL to teachers, and to certain types of students.

To achieve its goals, specialists in the field were invited to the symposium to present papers, which included five subjects relating to the area of the preparation of Arabic language teachers to non-native speakers. Despite the fact that most of the papers presented were rather brief (not more than five pages long), they nonetheless touched upon the most fundamental issues raised in this investigation.

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2 The symposium was held at what was then called Riyadh University, currently (King Saud University) between 26-30 March, 1978. It aimed at an exchange of ideas with regard to the experiments and efforts exerted in the area of TAFL. This was in addition to researching the methods, and suggesting the means, for assisting in disseminating the Arabic language and improving and developing its teaching to non-native speakers.
To begin with, Sieny presented a topic entitled “Wasā’il tadrīb mu’allimī al-lughāt al-ajnabiyyah wa taṣwīrihim”. He started his presentation by talking very briefly about the importance of the teacher and explaining his role and position in educational programmes (Sieny & Al Qassimi, 1980: 7-12). He also briefly reviewed the various prevailing methods for preparing teachers of foreign languages, including both long and short training courses, which were then common, and most of what Sieny said was centred on the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers.

Naṣr also spoke in his paper about the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers, and he listed the pillars of successful TAFL teachers as the following: personal characteristics, competence, qualifications, language skills, knowledge of the linguistic sciences, styles, and teaching methods (Ibid.: 13-16). He also briefly mentioned the factors that affect the type of training that teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers receive, including the problem of quality and selection of teachers, the content curriculum of the training course, and the methodology used during the training (Ibid.: 17-18).

Al Tu’mah “Mulāḥaṣāt ḥawla al-jānib al-lughawiyy min ‘iḍād mu’allim al-lughah al-‘Arabiyyah li-ghayr al-nāṭiqīn bihā” actually included a theoretical element in his paper, which related to the linguistic aspects of teacher preparation (Ibid.: 19). He specifically
attempted to determine the basic constituents of the language skills that need to be included in the preparation programmes, as well as the literary and cultural aspects of the language to be mastered. In addition, he insisted that general theoretical dimensions of language, together with studies in applied linguistics, also need to be taken into account in the programmes (Ibid.: 26). Al Tu'mah also briefly explained each constituent separately, stating its importance in the linguistic preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers.

Another contributor, Al Ḥārdalḥ, in his short paper entitled "Iḥdād al-mu'allimin ghayr al-šArab li-ta'lim al-šArabiyyah li-ghayr al-nātiqīn bihā", contended that non-Arab teachers of Arabic were more effective in teaching and in disseminating its cultural concepts than Arab teachers themselves (Ibid.: 43). His claim was based on the view that non-Arab teachers often know more about the problems associated with learning Arabic as a foreign language from experience than its native speakers do. Therefore, Al Ḥārdalḥ suggested that more attention should be given to this group of teachers (Ibid.: 49). He also suggested that the psychological motives of learners should be taken into account and that their essence be incorporated into the preparation of non-native Arabic language teachers.
However, Al Ḥārdalū did acknowledge some important difficulties facing non-native teachers of Arabic, including cultural differences, pronunciation difficulties, and deficiencies in understanding the semantic meanings of some Arabic words and expressions and called for some attention to be focused on them (Ibid.: 51).

In his paper entitled “Barāmij ʾiḍād wa-tadrib muʿallim al-lughah al-ʿArabiyyah li-ghayr al-nāṭiqin bihā ʿalā ḏawʿi al-tajrubah al-Sūdāniyyah”, Al-Khalifa surveyed a 1954 Sudanese experiment which prepared teachers of Arabic, at the Maridi Institute, Southern Sudan. He concluded that the experiment had proved successful in training teachers in the face of many difficulties and despite the fact that there was no specific or consistent strategy for teacher preparation (Ibid.: 61-66).

Al-Khalifa did not explain how he reached that conclusion but he did explain that several factors had threatened attempts to establish a programme for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers. Chief among these were the following: the shortage of experienced teachers, the lack of Arabic references and research papers in this area and the various linguistic backgrounds of the trainees.
Despite the fact that most of the papers presented at the Symposium tended to be sketchy and brief and did not attempt to tackle any one issue in detail, the topics presented and briefly reviewed above did cover some useful ground and set the framework for further studies. The topics are also useful for this particular study as theoretical and general background information. In addition, the valuable views presented in the papers were of benefit when drawing up the questionnaires and when making evaluative assessments.

2.2.2 Bashr (1985)


Bashr's work is considered as one of the earliest scientific studies in this field, and it threw light on the most prominent contemporary trends in the field of the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers. It was also an attempt to determine the criteria for the preparation of competent Arabic language teachers. Additionally, Bashr attempted to evaluate three of the programmes concerned with the preparation of the teacher of Arabic to non-native speakers following the criteria which he had specified after having them agreed upon by a group of experts and specialists in the field.
Bash'tr followed both a descriptive and an analytical approach in order to achieve his aims. He limited his evaluative procedure to three institutes specialising in the areas in which he was interested and looked at their aims and academic syllabuses. The institutes were the following ones: Khartoum International Institute for the Arabic Language, the Arabic Language Institute for Non-Arabic Speakers at Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, and the Arabic Language Institute at KSU, Riyadh. The purpose was to identify to what extent the criteria outlined in the syllabuses were actually applied on these programmes.

However, the evaluative study conducted by Bash'tr appears to have little practical basis because he resorted to interpreting the aims of the programmes and their subject matter through prospectuses and publications issued by the institutes concerned, without actually investigating them thoroughly. He also failed to take into account the views of the staff working at the institutes, including those of the teaching staff, administrators and students who are most closely involved in the programmes. The error lies in the assumption that what is taught on the programmes is the same as what is published in the prospectuses. However, the researcher's experience is that such publications are often outdated or obsolete and cannot be relied upon entirely as a main source for research.
Despite this methodological flaw, Bashfr came to the conclusion that there are thirty-three criteria of competence or excellence which can be used to evaluate programmes for preparing teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers (Bashfr, 1985: 260). These criteria are believed to be the first ones to have been established in this field and he categorised them into specialist, cultural and professional ones. Through this, he presented a wide range of objectives and scientific criteria as aids for assisting in evaluating preparation programmes. Bashfr's work was original and was not preceded by any similar scientific study except Madkour's, which will be discussed later.

The current study benefited from Bashfr's criteria when drawing up the questionnaires. The findings from Bashfr's study show that on all three programmes, fewer cultural criteria were obtained than for either of the other two categories namely the professional and specialisation aspects of teacher preparation (Ibid.: 270).

Accordingly, the study recommended that the programmes' stated aims should specify all the subjects to be included in the curriculum with regard to the specialist, cultural and professional aspects of the preparation of trainee teachers. The study also stated that the cultural aspect should include sufficient information to enable learners to know about Arabic culture in general, the
connection between culture and language, cultural variations, and the relationship between them and their origins.

In addition, the study demanded that all those involved in the field of TAFL should provide an effective and dynamic service so as to contribute constructively to the development of different areas in the field. They should also conduct scientific research and undertake field studies which can contribute to disseminating the Arabic language and improving the methods for teaching it.

Bashtr's study is undoubtedly a praiseworthy effort, as he compiled fragments of information and built a foundation that had previously been lacking in this field. However, it is actually considered to be more of a descriptive study than an evaluative one as most of the study was dominated by theoretical aspects.

Furthermore, the criteria used in the study are of a general nature, and it is not clear whether they proved useful for evaluating the programmes for native or non-native teachers of the Arabic language. This is because there are several differences between the preparation programmes for native and non-native teachers who teach Arabic to non-native speakers. It is obvious that the latter programmes need to include more extensive and comprehensive specialist subjects in order to promote the non-native trainees' language ability and to enhance their specialist skills.
2.2.3 Madkour (1985)

**Evaluation of Training Programmes for Teachers of Arabic to Non-Arabic Speakers.**

This study was published by ALECSO and, to a large extent, it is considered to be similar to Bashtr's study in terms of its aims, the methods employed and the results obtained. However, Madkour also included the following three preparation programmes within the evaluation aspect of his study in addition to the programmes studied by Bashtr, namely, the programmes of (i) the American University in Cairo, (ii) the Institute of Teaching Arabic at IMSIU, (iii) and, Minnesota University in the USA.

The present research has investigated the reasons for the similarities between the two above-mentioned studies and, with the help of the two researchers (Madkour and Bashtr), some academic specialists and colleagues it was discovered that Dr. Madkour had formerly been Bashir’s research supervisor for the study which he later submitted for an M.A. in 1985. Thus, it seems that Madkour may have used some of the information, materials, results and tables that were obtained in Bashtr’s study although Madkour did not refer to Bashtr’s study at all, nor did Bashtr.

Despite this criticism, Madkour's study was useful, as shown in its aims, when trying to identify modern international trends in the
process of preparing programmes for foreign language teachers. It also succeeded in establishing the criteria for assessing and evaluating the preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers. In this connection, the study also attempted to evaluate some of the main preparation programmes in the Arab World using the criteria obtained.

To achieve his aims, Madkour analysed the content of the programmes and also used several criteria that represented a group of characteristics that could define teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers as a result of their preparation.

Madkour's study particularly analysed two main aspects of the programme: one of these was the general orientation of the scheme of work with regard to its aims and requirements, and the other one was its content, which included the three preparation areas, namely, specialist, professional and cultural (Madkour, 1985: 9).

The study was both theoretical and evaluative and, within the theoretical framework, Madkour tried to designate several criteria that would need to be available in any preparation programme for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers. Hence, the criteria obtained in this respect were identical to those shown in Bashfr's study, except for the fact that Bashfr's study had a larger scope and was more detailed.
Madkour also elicited twelve criteria in the area of specialist preparation, fifteen in the area of professional preparation, and eight in the area of cultural preparation for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers (Ibid.: 10-12). These criteria collectively constituted the characteristics to be acquired by the teacher of Arabic after joining the preparation programme.

The other facet of Madkour's work was evaluative. It was concerned with assessing some initial documentation aspects of the main institutes that comprised the sample previously referred to. However, he limited his evaluation to existing evidence and publications that described these programmes, but did not conduct a field study about the nature of the programmes and their actual implementation.

Moreover, he did not conduct an opinion poll among those working on the programmes or those involved in them, notably the students. Thus, one of the main differences between Madkour and Bashtr's studies and the present study emerges. Despite the great benefit that they provided for the researchers, the publications and other materials used were out of date and did not include any changes that might have occurred in the programmes since they were written. Consequently, the present writer perceives that it is better to reassess the actual field situation of the programmes studied through
administering questionnaires to those people either actually working or studying on the current programmes.

The results of Madkour's study also indicate that most of the preparation programmes showed a lack of concern for studying the processes of theoretical planning, curriculum development or the preparation of indispensable materials (Ibid.: 13). It is also stated that these programmes were not concerned with studying certain very necessary aspects of the courses such as educational administration, educational supervision and essential materials for the use of teachers, which helped them to identity the nature of the profession to which they belonged and to perceive the rules and principles that controlled and governed the relationships between the members of an educational establishment (Ibid.: 13).

However, Madkour did not simply put forward specific recommendations for existing programmes as others did before him, instead he outlined a new programme consistent with his own views and principles. Undoubtedly, any praise that Bashtr's study may be eligible for could also go to Madkour's, because, in spite of its drawbacks, it has still enriched the field tremendously.

Despite its merits, the study can also be criticised for failing to fulfil the researcher's own and most important specified aim, namely, to identify modern international trends in the process of preparing programmes for teachers of foreign languages. In fact, the study did
not tackle this major aspect of teacher preparation in any detail. Another point that can be made is that Madkour's evaluative criteria for TAFL teacher preparation may be valid for some cultural environments, but not for others, because every society has its own circumstances and characteristics.

Hence, it would have been better if these criteria had been specifically identified for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers in the Arab countries, and not in foreign countries, such as other Islamic or European countries. The researcher of the present study believes that the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers in the Islamic countries should differ from that of students who are being prepared to teach Arabic in European countries.

2.2.4 Abdul Tawab (1987)


This study attempted, (i) to establish the number of Indonesian teachers who had been trained in TAFL in Indonesia, (ii) to diagnose some of the difficulties that they had encountered, and (iii), to identify their attitude towards TAFL (Abdul Tawab, 1987: 261).
In his introduction, Abdul Tawab stated that he had used three investigative methods. These included the descriptive method, for tackling the theoretical background to the study; the analytical method, for analysing the study curricula applied in the Arabic Department of the Government Islamic University of Shareef Hidayat Allah, Jakarta; and the statistical method, for dealing with the tables and results of the fieldwork that he undertook.

In order to achieve his goals, Abdul Tawab prepared several interviews in order to gauge the opinions of Indonesian Arabic language teachers' opinions regarding (i) the preparation and training of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers, and (ii) how they felt about teaching the subject (Ibid.). He also reviewed some of the methods that were applied in the Arabic Language Department at the above-mentioned university in 1986.

Abdul Tawab distributed questionnaires to, and conducted interviews with, a random sample of Arabic language teachers from higher secondary schools in Jakarta. However, he did not specify the number of subjects in the sample, how many teachers he had selected, or the amount of teaching experience they had, all of which are factors which should have been stated so as to make the study more scientifically acceptable. Nevertheless, this deficiency does not undermine the fact that this study is one of the most valuable works in this area and has inspired many similar studies.
Moreover, Abdul Tawab’s research revealed a serious deficiency, namely, that 61.4% of the staff sample were professionally unqualified to teach in secondary schools, while only 38.6% of the total sample had acceptable qualifications (Ibid.: 269). The study also showed that the most important motivation for joining the Arabic Language Department at Shareef Hidayat Allah University was a religious one, as the percentage of teachers who had joined the Department for that reason was 74.2% of the total number of respondents from the sample. On the other hand, the results also showed that 23.5% of the sample had also joined the Department for vocational reasons in order to teach, while 2.3% of the total sample stated that it was the academic standing of the Department that had attracted them (Ibid.).

Abdul Tawab’s work also showed that there was a serious shortage of in-service training among the Arabic language teachers in Indonesia, as it was found that only 11.4% of the teachers had taken part in in-service training in Arabic language teaching, while 88.6% had never attended any in-service training courses in this area (Ibid.: 274).

In the light of these results, and other important findings, Abdul Tawab put forward several recommendations, including the following:
• It is essential for teachers to increase the effective use of the “audio-visual method” in teaching Arabic as a foreign language, so as to contribute towards “... the growth of the four language skills ...” (Ibid.: 286).

• It is crucial for Arabic language teachers to use classical Arabic in teaching without resorting to the Indonesian language, unless it is absolutely necessary.

• The minimum qualification required to teach Arabic should be a B.A Degree in Education from the Faculty of Education, at the Government Islamic University (Ibid.).

Despite the fact that Abdul Tawab’s study can be considered as an illuminating one in this area, it failed to mention, and compare, the position of the programme for the preparation of the Arabic language teacher with respect to contemporary educational concepts and directions, even though this aim is clearly specified in his title.

**AN APPRAISAL OF THE PREVIOUS RELATED STUDIES**

Having surveyed a selection of the most significant studies connected with the present research, it is now possible to deduce the following points:

a. Most of the studies reviewed in this chapter called for comprehensive reviews and an evaluative assessment of programmes dealing with the preparation of teachers of Arabic as a native and as a foreign language. They were carried out in the light of professional requirements and in view of contemporary demands in advanced fields of learning. It is the belief of many researchers that such
programmes should be characterised by the elements of a speedy response to changing circumstances and progressive development, [See, for instance, Al Bayyati (1985), Fallāṭah (1988), Azazt (1991), Al Othaim (1993), Awadh (1993) and others]. Hence, the theme of this thesis, namely, [A Comparative Study of the Present Preparation Programmes for Teachers of Arabic for Native and Non-Native Speakers in the Riyadh Universities] is undertaken in this spirit and falls into the category of modern scientific research and analysis, and is therefore a worthwhile investigation.

b. In addition to the studies surveyed in this chapter, which have all acknowledged the existence of a problem which needs to be studied scientifically, some responsible government authorities in some Arab ministries of education have taken the initiative with regard to the topic of teachers of the Arabic language and endorsed it on the schedule of their official meetings. This confirms the perceived significance of this area of work and ratifies the effective role of language teachers in social growth and youth development. It also indicates that there is a real problem which deserves to be tackled.³

c. The present research needs to be undertaken as the previous studies outlined in this chapter did not provide answers to the main questions of concern in this research.

³ See for instance: The Symposium of Experts and Responsible Authorities for Researching the Means of Developing the Preparation of Teachers of the Arabic Language in the Arab World, (Riyadh, 1977), and the First International Symposium for Teaching Arabic to Non-Native Speakers, (Riyadh, 1978).
d. The two programmes for the preparation of teachers at the Faculty of Arabic Language, IMSIU and the Department of Arabic in the Faculty of Arts have neither been studied scientifically nor evaluatively until now.

Both Bashtr (1985) and Madkour’s studies (1985) described the aims and the academic curricula at the diploma stages in the programme for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers at the Arabic Language Institute, KSU. However, Madkour also added to this a descriptive study of the aims and applied curricula of the master’s and diploma stages at the Institute of Teaching Arabic, IMSIU. Although he can be criticised for limiting his research data to printed prospectuses and ignoring the field situation, this study is a more comprehensive one than Bashtr’s.

e. The current study has benefited from most of the previous studies, particularly with regard to the preparation of its theoretical framework and the drawing up of the questionnaires.

f. The researcher has tried to avoid some of the difficulties that were encountered in the previous studies such as the limitations imposed by very small samples, the limited number of factors studied, the inadequacies of the evaluative processes used, the unsatisfactory methodology followed, and so on.

g. There are great similarities between Bashtr’s (1985) and Madkour’s (1985) studies, as the criteria upon which the results of the two
studies were obtained were built on semi-identical grounds and those results agree with each other to a large extent.

The previous studies have suffered from a lack of integration of results and the absence of a research centre where researchers can cooperate with one another in order to divide the labour among those who plan the studies. One possible result of this is that the research question that this study is investigating is still open to investigation although one wonders why the problem has existed for such a long time without being studied.

Perhaps the main reason behind the continuation of this problem and the lack of research into the question posed above is the still relatively widespread and mistaken belief that there is no need for special preparation, teaching methods, equipment or programmes to prepare teachers of Arabic as a foreign language. Where such desirable programmes actually exist, they are usually limited, undervalued and generally do not receive the support and encouragement that they deserve for their promotion and development.

Many Arab countries, where the necessity to promulgate Arabic as an international language is acknowledged, would do well to look seriously into this issue with a view to reforming, modernising and updating the existing programmes for teaching and promoting Arabic as a foreign language.
Conclusion

In view of what has been presented in the literature review, it appears that there are several differences between the present study and previous ones, chief of which are the following:

1. It is noticeable that none of the earlier studies mentioned in this chapter undertook a comparison, at any level, between the preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic to native speakers, and those to non-native speakers.

2. Furthermore, this study has endeavoured to seek the link between teachers preparation programmes for TAFL and TANL and between the views of prospective Arabic language teachers for whom Arabic is a native language and those for whom Arabic is a non-native language. As far as the researcher knows, this has never been tried before. For instance, Abdul Tawab’s study (1987) concerns itself with non-native teachers who teach Arabic, while Bashtr (1985) and Madkour’s (1985) studies are non specific and do not cover the entire field. As for the other studies, they mainly discuss native teachers of Arabic.

3. The evaluative aspect of the present study comprises ten different factors, whereas both Bashtr’s and Madkour’s studies only considered two factors. In addition to the factors mentioned above, this research aims to evaluate the system of study, the admittance requirements, the examination systems, auxiliary
teaching aids, the teaching methods used, and the types of students and types of teachers.

4. The size of the sample evaluated in this study is relatively large when compared with those in the previous works. Therefore, it is hoped that this present work will be more accurate, since it is based on information received from approximately four hundred informants.

5. This research has attempted to distance itself from the "armchair" method of investigation, which is too heavily relied upon by other studies, such as Bashâr and Madkour's. Instead, questionnaires, observation techniques and interviews have been used for data collection.

6. This study will also attempt to examine four teacher preparation programmes and it is hoped that such an approach will assure this current work a place among pioneering studies in the Arab World, as the researcher will examine eight different samples, which does not appear to have been achieved before in this field.

7. This study is up to date in comparison with earlier related studies such as those of Bashâr or Madkour's (1985). That is because a period of almost thirteen years has elapsed since they were carried out. There is no doubt that during this period a number of changes have occurred, both in the programmes and in the circumstances that surround them.
CHAPTER THREE

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO ALTPPs IN SA

SECTION ONE: THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO ALTPPs

FOR NATIVE SPEAKERS

-Introduction

According to Nyrop, et. al. (1977: 97) the history of education in SA is not clearly known. The earliest known educational organisations (such as Dār al-ʿarqam and the School of the Prophet Mohammad Mosque) were first established at the dawn of Islam, in the seventh century AD., for the purpose of spreading the teachings of Islam and the Qurʾān. Most of the teaching initially took place in the homes of teachers, then it became a custom to devote a classroom within the precincts of each community mosque for religious education (Alghafis, 1992: 3). Such schools were known as the "Kuttāb", from the Arabic root "to write".¹

Education in the "Kuttāb" schools was dominated by the teaching of the Qurʾān, emphasising rote methods and reverence for Islamic traditions and beliefs (Philby, 1955: 326). Until the beginning of the twentieth century, education in these schools was based on a simple curriculum that included the study of the Qurʾān, some principles of classical Arabic, Islamic law, and basic arithmetic.

¹ Al-Kuttāb (الكتاب) as defined by Dunne (1968: 5), Gaudefory (1950: 145), and Dohaish (1978: 19) is a small room furnished with a simple carpet, where the teacher and children sit down and study the Qurʾān, some principles of classical Arabic, Islamic law, and basic arithmetic.
century, these were the only educational institutions available in substantial parts of the Kingdom of SA (Nyrop, et. al., ibid.). In general, “Formal education in Saudi Arabia was entirely in the Islamic tradition of religious and classical learning, and was available to a tiny segment of the country’s youth.” (Lipsky, 1959: 227)

However, historically, the development of the modern system of education in SA runs parallel to the establishment and strengthening of the Saudi Arabian state. When King Abdul Aziz entered Makkah in 1923, calling for unity and national awakening, one of the first measures he took was to convene an educational meeting with scholars from Makkah in which he urged them to combat illiteracy and expand education to reach the ordinary masses of the population (Sanger, 1954: 35) and (Beg, 1995: 62). In practice, this call laid the foundation of a truly concerted national effort to institute a state system of education for all children of school age in SA. As a result of this, the preparation of teachers of the Arabic language assumed an urgent priority as it is the language of the holy Qur‘ān and the essential tool for the basic language skills, i.e. reading and writing.
Historical Phases in the Preparation of Teachers of Arabic for TANL

The following three distinct periods can be distinguished:

**THE FIRST PHASE (1902 - 1924)**

This period was characterised by erratic and directionless initiatives as there were then no official institutions for the preparation of teachers in SA. Only a small number of schools were in existence and almost all of them were situated in the Western Province of the country at a time when central and local education authorities were only beginning to be established (Qadi, 1980: 50). Due to the critical shortage of teachers and the decision to expand education to the masses of the population, emergency training initiatives designed to attract intending teachers with minimum educational qualifications were taken. Indeed, the need was so crucial, it was enough for the applicant to be able to read and write to be accepted. Such teachers were known as "emergency teachers" (معلم الضرورة).

Additionally, large numbers of teachers were brought from neighbouring Arab countries to fill the vast number of vacant primary teaching posts (Katakura, 1977: 65). Students who successfully completed the primary stage certificate of education were in turn invited to take up teaching positions in the newly founded primary schools all over the

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2 1924 is the year when SA became united as a Kingdom under the rule of King Abdul Aziz Al-Saud. This coincides with the first efforts ever made to set up a national educational system in the country, while 1902 refers to the year in which King Abdul Aziz conquered Riyadh.
country (Oliver, 1987: 37). The beginnings of a state educational strategy led to an awareness of the urgent necessity to plan and produce national Saudi Arabian teachers to meet the short and long term needs of the country. Philby (1955: 327) and Farsy (1978: 49) pointed out that even though the education system used advice from the most advanced education systems in the world, particularly the United States and the United Kingdom, the education system that emerged was geared to fulfil the indigenous needs of SA.

As far as the Arabic language teachers were concerned, until 1949 their preparation was characteristically hurried, traditional and unsophisticated due to the inexperience of the authorities and the overwhelming demand for educational provision. Hence, student teachers continued to be instructed in makeshift conditions, sitting down on the floor of a room in the mosque or in the "Kuttāb" or "Ḥalaqāt", and following no specific programme or direction. The method of teaching at that time was to read a paragraph from the Qur'ān many times and have the students repeat it until they were able to recite it (Attar, 1986: 15). Equally, students did not work for a particular qualification nor was there a fixed period of study. Neither the "Kuttāb" nor "Ḥalaqāt" required

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3 Al-Ḥalaqāt (الحلةات) are traditional Islamic schools connected to mosques in which classes were conducted. Attar (1986: 14) describes them as essentially 'one room schools' in which students sat on carpets and were taught everything the educated Arab needed to know, including Islamic education and conduct, classical Arabic, and Islamic law.
Assessment procedures took into account the students' capacity to read and write as well as to recite all or a large section of the Qur'ān. It also included elements of subjective evaluation of the students' personality and intelligence and a knowledge of arithmetic was not essential. Most children in those days learnt some rudiments of arithmetic through experience in dealing with customers and merchants in the family business of the local market.

**THE SECOND PHASE (1925 - 1960)**

The founding of the Saudi Academic Institute (المعهد العالي السعودي) in 1925, which typifies the second historical phase in the preparation of teachers of Arabic, undoubtedly constitutes the first educational establishment intended to conduct the systematic preparation of teachers in SA. This phase extended over a quarter of a century and was marked by a lack of stability and consistency in the implementation of various educational policies relating to the teaching profession. In this context, in-service training rounds aimed at raising the standards of existing teaching staff, particularly those of "emergency teachers", were initiated. Other similar projects with the same purpose included evening classes, summer courses, etc. Below is a brief overview of some of these initiatives.
3.1.2.1 The Saudi Academic Institute (1925)

This Institute, which was established in 1925 in Makkah only one year after the institution of the General Educational Directorate (مديرية المعارف), historically represents the nucleus of the present Ministry of Education. Initially, the Institute accepted any student with a minimum literacy level and some ability to read the Qur'an without age restrictions (Morsi, 1990: 259). Later, it developed and admitted only students who had finished the primary stage certificate (Al-Zaid, 1981: 58).

The period of study was initially four years, but this gradually increased to five years, then to six years (Abdullah, 1973: 106). From 1945 onwards, the Institute underwent successive modifications of curriculum courses and regulations. Students who graduated from the Institute were directly employed in the new primary schools, which were rapidly multiplying all over the kingdom. Studying at the Institute was divided into two parts:

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4 The Ministry of Education was established in 1953, and replaced the General Educational Directorate, though it had the same role to play in the management of educational services in the country. The Ministry was established at the time the Kingdom completed its modern administrative structure. A new educational system in SA began under the reign of King Fahd.

5 It is worth remembering that due to the slow implementation of compulsory education in the early years of the organisation of a national educational system in SA, (1923 to 1960), a number of children started school at the age of 10 and over. This was mentioned to the researcher by Abdal Aziz Al-Mesned (the former President of the Colleges and Institutes in SA, on 6/2/1997).
Part a. This was a three year period in which the students learnt about various subjects, such as Islamic culture, Arabic, social studies (history, geography) and arithmetic. After three years, successful students were awarded a certificate of achievement.

Part b. This covered a two year period and was known as 'the second level section', during which intending teachers followed a professional curriculum comprising teaching practice and psychology, in addition to lectures in Arabic and English. Teaching practice took place at the end of each year. After two years, successful students were directly employed to teach general education in the primary schools.

A glance at the curriculum content of the Institute reveals a high concentration of religious and Arabic language subjects, constituting approximately 62% of the total set subjects at the different stages of learning.

As for the assessment process at the Institute, there was a written test given at the end of each year. Students who failed to obtain pass marks (minimum 5/10) had to resit the whole year, even if the failure was limited to one subject only.

For a period of time, the Institute carried out its mission well and produced a distinct improvement in the quality of teaching compared with past experiments which lacked orientation and coherence. When an urgent
demand for more national Saudi Arabian teachers occurred some twenty years later (1945), a twin institute was set up in the Madinah area to carry out the same tasks (Al-Zaid, ibid.: 59).

3.1.2.2 The School for the Preparation of ‘Scholarship Students’: (1936)

In 1936, another government educational institution was established in Makkah in order to prepare students for further studies abroad (Ministry of Education, 1978: 7). The study period was for six years and candidates were accepted from those students who had graduated from the Saudi Academic Institute. After a short period, it accepted students who had obtained the Primary Completion Certificate. Al-Zaid, an expert and publisher in educational matters in SA,\(^6\) considers this school as the real beginning of modern education which is now prevalent in the Kingdom (Al-Zaid, ibid.: 69). This is because the school was from the outset involved in the teaching of a much wider range of subjects, such as Chemistry, Physics, European History and English, in addition to religious studies and the Arabic language. It appears that the schools’ curriculum was essentially designed to raise the students’ standards of learning so as to enable them to cope with the secondary school curricula of their host countries, mainly Egypt and Lebanon. The school was almost entirely

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\(^6\) Presently the Director General for Education Administration, in the Western Province of SA.
staffed by qualified teachers from other Arab countries (Katakura, 1977: 65).

In 1941, the first graduate students with government scholarships were sent to neighbouring Arab countries with more advanced educational systems, particularly Egypt and Lebanon, to obtain BA degrees in subjects that were not available for study in SA at that time (Rashid & Shaheen, 1987: 79). Graduates from abroad then returned home to teach in the secondary schools and meet the needs of the rapidly expanding national educational system.

Assessment was through a written annual examination which conformed with the rest of the government schools and other institutions related to the Ministry of Education. 80% of the marks were assigned to the student's examination results and the remaining 20% for coursework (Ministry of Education, 1972: 110). The first year of study was devoted to general education while the last two years were dedicated to the preparation of students for university study. The students were divided according to their selected options into two departments, either science or arts. The School for the Preparation of 'Scholarship Students' continued to play an important role in supplying high quality national teachers until it was closed down in 1946, just before the first higher institutions and colleges were established.
The year 1943 saw the opening of Dār Et-Tawḥīd School in Taif in the Western Region of SA where education was spreading more quickly than in any other region (Thomas, 1968: 59). Its location, in close proximity to Makkah (the pilgrim city) and Madinah (Prophet Mohammad’s city), and its role as a cultural and commercial centre also contributed to the advancement of education and culture in the region.

The purpose of the school was to produce graduates and future experts in Islamic law or "Sharīʿah" (court judges) as well as qualified teachers for the Primary Completion Certificate. Students followed a five year preparation programme before qualifying as teachers. This school enrolled 21 candidates in 1943; 91 in 1949; 206 in 1953; 304 in 1958; 413 in 1960; 429 in 1961, and 497 in 1962 (Ibid.: 58).

Baghdāḏī (1985: 281), a long standing educational expert in teacher preparation in SA, says the following:

"This school (i.e. Dār Et-Tawḥīd) is considered to be a unique educational phenomenon in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, not only for its objectives and its programmes' aims, but also for its prevailing teaching methods at that time. It was distinctive for its flexibility and yet serious scientific character which permeated all its activities throughout the school curriculum. Its success was also attributed to its efficient teachers, most of whom were highly educated graduates of Al-ʿAzhar..."  

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7 Researcher’s own translation from Arabic.
It is worth mentioning that, over the years, Dār Et-Tawheed had built a high reputation for quality and efficiency in its role of catering for the country's needs for professional teachers. Many prominent personalities, writers and lecturers in SA are known to have graduated from this school, which is credited for its contribution to the enrichment of the cultural and scientific heritage of the country.

3.1.2.4 Post-Emergency Phase Measures

As indicated earlier, due to the critical shortage of teachers during the early years of the establishment of a state education system in SA, emergency teachers were recruited with minimum educational qualifications as an urgent solution to the vast demand in teaching staff for the rapidly increasing number of primary stage schools all over the country. According to Rashid and Shaheen (1987: 78) "... a new primary school was being opened every two weeks all year round... An outstanding accomplishment! What renaissance in history could compare with these achievements in the realm of education, and in such a short time?". This historical initiative was, however, intended as a transitional measure which, in due time, would necessarily require adjustment or reform.

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8 At the time of the establishment of the modern primary schools for boys in SA in 1925, there were only four Government schools. During the next year, their number rose to ten schools and the numbers increased annually until there were 306 schools by 1953, when the Ministry of Education was first established. There were more than 40,000 students and approximately 1,500 teachers at that time. Those numbers rapidly increased until, in 1990, there were 4,806 primary schools for boys with about 92,000 students (Al Salloom, 1991: 91). Today, the number of students at all levels of education has reached four and a half million, approximately (Al-Jazeera, 1997:1).
Accordingly, the following training schemes were introduced to remedy the deficiencies in the emergency teachers' skills, while at the same time providing them with an opportunity to obtain a nationally recognised qualification:

a. **Summer Courses (1954):**

The summer courses, which were established in 1954, were initially also intended to raise the teaching standards and competence of the "emergency teachers" as well as constituted an open door for new recruits interested in entering the profession (Thomas, 1968: 60). The courses lasted for approximately three months and focused on practical teaching skills and syllabus application in primary schools. Although the impact of these courses on teaching standards was limited it did, however, reflect an awareness and a recognition of weaknesses in the quality of teaching arising from an emergency situation by the educational authorities. The scheme was closed after being in operation for ten years (Al-Zahrani, 1995: 175). Commenting on the reasons for its closure, Abd-el-Wassie, ⁹ (1970: 27) explained:

"We were dissatisfied with the low level of training offered to teachers in primary schools, but had to accept that this was an expedient dictated by need; in this event, we were obliged to continue training on this pattern for ten years."

⁹ Abd-el-Wassie is an expert and publisher in educational matters in SA. He has held the position of General Director of Education in the Ministry for several years.
b. Evening Institutes for Teachers (1955): "معاهد المعلمين الليلية"

Concern for the quality and quantity of national Saudi Arabian teachers also led to the establishment of evening institutes for teachers in 1955 (Ramadan, 1994: 173). Their main aim was to supplement the effort made by the summer courses in elevating the professional level and competence of the "emergency teachers" as well as to admit new applicants. The courses took place in the evenings and covered a three year period of study (Ministry of Education, 1983: 22). The programmes emphasised curriculum studies and educational psychology, among other subjects. The number of such institutes had reached fifteen when they were closed in 1975 (Ibid.: 23). The scheme had limited success so the task was subsequently taken over by the 'Secondary Institutes for Teachers'.

3.1.2.5 Secondary Institute for the Preparation of Primary School Teachers
"المعاهد الثانوية لإعداد معلمي المرحلة الابتدائية"

The preparation of teachers in SA has undergone numerous changes. In 1960, the Ministry of Education decided to raise the entrance requirements for aspiring primary teachers to the secondary level of education. This was achieved through the gradual upgrading of all teacher preparation institutes and the raising of their preparation programmes to a higher level of instruction.
At this stage, the central education authorities’ aim became twofold: first, continuing efforts towards the improvement of teachers’ intellectual levels and teaching abilities, and; secondly, improving the qualifications of those candidates selected for teaching in intermediate schools. Abd-el-Wassie (Ibid.: 28) reported: “We are still not satisfied with the standard of our primary school teachers and look forward in the near future to being able to require candidates for admission to teacher-preparation institutes to have completed a three-year course in the secondary school.” For this purpose, a number of institutes were created, among which are the following ones:

i. Secondary Institutes for Teachers (1960):

These types of institutes were set up in 1960. Their aim was to prepare teachers for teaching in intermediate schools which followed the primary stage of education. They accepted students with Intermediate Stage Certificates and the period of study was four years. In the first two years, general culture was taught, whereas in the third and fourth years, students could follow one of five avenues or options referred to as the Arabic Language Department section; the Social Studies Department section; the English Language Department section; the Science Department section; and the Arts Department section (Mosa, 1994: 115).

The increasing desire to raise teaching standards and the gradual improvement in the availability of better educated candidates led to the closure of these establishments in 1965. A university degree became the
required level to qualify as a teacher in Intermediate Stage Schools (Ministry of Education, 1983: 18).

ii. Reformed Institutes for the Preparation of Primary Stage Education Teachers:

Once the pressing need for national teachers was fulfilled quantitatively, concern turned towards the qualitative selection of primary teachers to accommodate the rapid progress in Saudi Arabian Education. Hence, in 1965, intending primary school teachers were required to undergo a further three year preparation programme beyond intermediate education to qualify as teachers (Mosa, ibid.: 118). Such was the purpose of the Reformed Institutes for the Preparation of Primary Stage Education Teachers, the number of which reached fifty-one by 1985.

However, a brief overview of the curricula and teaching materials used for the preparation of teachers in these institutes reveals that 70% of the total teaching hours were devoted to general education subjects as opposed to only 15% assigned to professional skills, an imbalance which must have had significant implications for the level of teachers' competence and teaching standards. What is obvious when comparing the previous curricula of the old primary teachers' preparation institutes established in 1924 with those of the Secondary Institutes for Teachers, is the considerable increase in subjects and the improvement in the quality of teacher preparation. The Saudi Academic Institute, which used to admit
candidates with a rudimentary educational background, began to require the successful completion of the Intermediate School Certificate.

THE THIRD PHASE (1949 - to the present day)

The expansion of intermediate and secondary schools in SA led to an increasing need for specialised teachers. Relevant statistical reports estimated the shortage of national Arabic language teachers at approximately 80% in the 1940s, an enormous problem to overcome for the authorities whose ambition was to reduce the high reliance on foreign assistance (Ministry of Education, 1979: 66). Consequently, the establishment of colleges followed by universities became a necessity. This constituted the realisation of the final objective in the improvement of the preparation programmes for Saudi Arabian teachers. The founding of such colleges as 'Al-Shar'ah' and Islamic Studies' in Makkah showed the authorities concern for unifying and integrating the sources of the preparation of teachers and fixing a period of stability and consistency. What follows is an overview of the major colleges and faculties which undertook the task of preparing teachers of Arabic.

3.1.3.1 The College of Al-Sharat'ah and Islamic Studies (1949)

"كلية الشريعة والدراسات الإسلامية"

1949 is regarded as the starting point in the preparation of teachers at both the intermediate and secondary levels, as their preparation became more stable and more systematic when this College was initiated in
Makkah. At that time, the College was independent and consisted of a study period of four academic years for teachers (Mosa, 1994: 92). Courses were initially restricted to Islamic studies and the Arabic language, however, some improvements were later made to the curriculum. In 1953, a professional education component, including psychology and teaching practice, was added to the preparation programmes. The College was subject to several transitional stages of development in its history, until it became part of Umm Al-Qura University, which was founded in Makkah in 1981 (Al Salloom, 1991: 412).

At the opening of the College of Al-Sharī'ah and Islamic Studies, only fifteen students were accepted in the first year. Most of those were graduates from the Saudi Academic Institute and from Dār Et-Tawḥīd School.

Among the subjects taught during the four academic years were the following, presented in Table 3.1 below:
Table 3.1 Taught subjects in the Arabic Department at “the College of Al-Sharifah and Islamic Studies”\textsuperscript{10}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT TITLES</th>
<th>No. of Weekly Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Grammar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Literature &amp; Texts</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Rhetoric</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosody</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Lexicography</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetoric of the Holy Qur’an</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetoric of the Ḥadith</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy Criticism</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philology “Fiqh al-lughah”</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Literature</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of the Arabs before Islam/Islamic History</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of Islamic Civilisation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Theory</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Psychology</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Practice</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education &amp; Administration</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Methods</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>24</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The staff included teachers who were appointed from scholars of Makkah, who were educated in the “Ḥalaqāt” of the Holy Mosque in

\textsuperscript{10} Source: Ministry of Education (1968: 10-11).
Makkah; others were recruited from Al-’Azhar University and from Syria. As for assessment, a general examination was held at the end of each academic year for all students. The maximum grade for any one subject was 40 marks, and 20 marks was the minimum. The student had to obtain no less than 20 marks in any one subject to pass the exam (Abdullah, 1973: 246).

As an encouragement from the government, the sum of 100 Saudi Riyals was awarded to each student, to be paid to him at the end of each month. Four years after the College’s opening and establishment, hosts of graduates provided the secondary and intermediate schools with highly qualified teaching staff (Ibid.: 244).

The College included a special independent department for girl students which prepared female national teachers in the field of Arabic language and religious sciences. Their curricula were the same as those of male students.

3.1.3.2 The Teachers' College in Makkah (1952) "كلية المعلمين"

This College was initiated three years after the Shartcah and Islamic Studies, and was established to join with it in providing the secondary and intermediate schools with qualified national
teachers in different subjects, as well as reducing the necessity to send Saudi Arabian nationals abroad (Dohaish, 1987: 124).

There were only thirty-five students in the first year and they all graduated in 1956 and were awarded a B.Ed degree at the end of a four-year study period. Most of their teachers were from Egypt at that time. The College set the course for a selective system of admission including, age limit (maximum 22 years), high educational standards and good conduct. The admission system of the College allowed part time attendance for applicants who worked as teachers or had a Secondary School Certificate, provided they performed well at the annual college examinations.

The examination system of the College was very strict. Any student whose total absences exceeded 10% of the total set hours was not allowed to attend the final term examinations, of which there were two each year. The minimum grade for passing an examination subject was 60 marks out of 100.

Below is a table showing the subjects provided in the Arabic language Department:
Table 3.2 Subjects taught in the Arabic Language Department at the Teachers’ College in Makkah (1952)\textsuperscript{11}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT TITLES</th>
<th>No. of Weekly Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Grammar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Literature &amp; Texts</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Rhetoric</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philology “Fiqh al-lughah”</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Calligraphy</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tafseer</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tawheed</td>
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<td>Fiqh</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hadith</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Theory and Psychology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Methods</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching Practice</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.3.3 The Faculty of Arabic Language in Riyadh (1953)

This Faculty, founded in Riyadh in 1953, aims at qualifying candidates specifically in the Arabic language and literature to compensate for the deficiency existing in intermediate and secondary school Arabic

\textsuperscript{11} Source: Ministry of Education (1983: 77).
language teachers (IMSIU, 1992: 90). It was designed to fulfil an important role in the emerging education of the country for the provision of highly qualified teachers. The period of study for its candidates is still four academic years and the Faculty follows a semesterial system of study. The study consists of eight terms and, at the end of each term, students sit for a final examination for which successful students are granted a BA degree. This Faculty is considered to be the nucleus of the present IMSIU (Al-Dawud, 1996:194).

From the date of its establishment until 1996, the number of graduates reached approximately 3200. The majority of them probably joined the teaching profession. Details of College aims and curriculum are presented in Chapter Five.

3.1.3.4 Arts Faculties in Saudi Arabian Universities

The Arts faculties at a number of Saudi Arabian universities are additional sources of TANL teacher preparation. These establishments are interested in the specialist preparation of students and leave other areas of the professional or cultural preparation to other departments at the university, such as the Faculty of Arts at KSU in Riyadh, and the Faculty of Arts and Human Sciences at King Abdul Aziz University in

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12 Source: the Statistical Unit, Deanship of Admission and Registration at IMSIU (1997).
13 Statement based on students' career intentions (see Figure 4.12).
Jeddah. These faculties admit students who have finished secondary school with a 60% pass or above (KSU, 1987: 2).

The period of study in these faculties is usually four academic years. Qualified candidates are employed as teachers of the Arabic language in intermediate or secondary schools, the same as those who graduate from faculties of the Arabic language or faculties of education. However, graduates from the latter receive a higher salary as their studies include larger educational and professional components. Details of one such faculty, which is involved in this study is briefly presented below:

- **The Faculty of Arts, KSU (1956)**

This Faculty enjoys a high reputation of excellence among its many qualified graduates presently occupying leading posts in education and literature in SA. It was founded in 1956 in Riyadh and is regarded as the first faculty unit of KSU (KSU, 1989: 23). Student teachers in the Arabic Department follow a programme of approximately a hundred and fifty hours spread over three components: general education, a specialist subject, and optional subjects.

The Faculty which began with only twenty-six students in 1956 presently caters for over ten thousand students. The first graduates to
qualify in 1960 numbed only fifteen, in contrast to 2,400 graduates in 1996.\footnote{Source: Deanship of Admission & Registration, the Statistical Unit at KSU (1997).}

3.1.3.5 Faculties of Education in Saudi Arabian Universities

Most of these faculties which are distributed throughout SA, prepare candidates for teaching the Arabic language at both intermediate and secondary school levels. The period of study is usually four academic years.\footnote{Courses of study in most faculties in Saudi Arabian Universities followed the confirmed contact hour system until it was abolished by the Council of Ministers in 1991.} Admission requirements to these faculties vary: some accept candidates who obtained 65 % pass at the secondary school stage, while others are more selective and only accept those who received 75% pass or more in the literary section.

Some faculties cover all teacher preparation components, namely general education, specialist aspects, professional education and teaching practice. These include the Faculty of Education in Al-Taif, which was established in 1980 and is linked to Umm al-Qura University; the Faculty of Education in Madinah, established in 1977 and linked to King Abdul Aziz University; and, the Faculty of Education in Al-'Ahsa, established in 1987 and linked to King Faisal University. The latter is the most recently founded faculty in the Kingdom of SA. Other faculties named below only teach the professional preparation component aspects of teacher
preparation. Examples are the Faculty of Education in Riyadh, established in 1961, and the Faculty of Education in 'Abhā, founded in 1976, both of which are linked to KSU (Oliver, 1987: 66-72).

3.1.3.6 Middle Colleges for the Preparation of Teachers (1976)

The third stage of the history of teacher preparation in SA was also characterised by the improvement of teachers' preparation at the post-secondary stage level. In 1976, a group of middle colleges were founded for the purpose of raising the efficiency of teacher preparation in an attempt to achieve the last of the Ministry of Education's objectives regarding the quality of teacher preparation (Rashid & Shaheen, 1987: 87, 91). Once enough teachers had been trained to compensate for the deficiency in the number of teachers at the primary stage, a decision was taken by the Ministry of Education that the minimum qualification level for primary stage teachers should be a middle college diploma (Al Salloom, 1995: 78). According to Oliver (1987: 40), an American educationalist with a special interest in the Saudi education system, “The primary purpose is to train teachers now in service who have completed at least three years of elementary (primary) school teaching.” At the present time, approximately eighteen middle colleges exist. These middle colleges replace the older institutions for the preparation of primary school teachers, such as the secondary institutes and primary institutes (Mukhtar, 1984: 14).
The college programmes have succeeded in attracting a large number of new candidates, including mature students and teachers seeking promotion. Recently, the number of students has reached fifteen thousand. The certificate is obtained after the successful completion of 75 hours study. The current admission requirement is the Secondary School Certificate or the old secondary institute certificate (Al Salloom, ibid.).

Middle Colleges comprise the following departments: Arabic Language, Islamic Culture, Education Psychology, Social Studies, Educational Aids Technology, and Mathematics.

The general education subjects constitute 28% of the preparation curriculum which include subjects about Islamic education, Science, Mathematics, Arts and Physical Training. The professional subjects represent 25%, while the remaining percentage is left for specialisation subjects (The Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, 1991: 59, 60).

Students at these colleges study for two academic years to achieve a degree. The first year is devoted to general education, while the second year is reserved for the specialisation component. Again, the desire of the Saudi Arabian authorities to improve and continue the preparation of teachers led, in 1987, to an improvement in the college programmes up to the level of the B.A Degree. To further improve the quality of teachers, the study period was raised to four years in 1988, whereupon candidates
who graduated could be employed as primary stage teachers (Al Salloom, ibid.: 78-79).

By doing this, it was possible for teachers at the primary stage to obtain a university educational qualification comparable to their colleagues at the intermediate and secondary levels. This ended the duality of the teacher preparation sources which, it was hoped, would attract higher calibre teachers and ameliorate the quality of teaching at the primary education stage.

3.1.3.7 Faculties of the Arabic Language in Saudi Arabian Universities (1982)

In addition to the faculties of education mentioned above, there are a number of Arabic language faculties in some of Saudi Arabian universities which assist in the preparation and qualification of Arabic language teachers for TANL. The period of study is usually four academic years, and the current curricula in these faculties vary from one faculty to another in terms of total teaching hours and types of subjects offered.

However, it appears that there is a new system due to be issued in the near future which will integrate and unify all Arabic language faculties' curricula. These faculties presently accept students who complete the secondary level with "good" grades (70-79% pass). Students are introduced

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16 This was explained to the researcher by Dr. Abdul Aziz Al-Auwad, the former Dean of the Faculty of Arabic Language, in Riyadh, IMSIU, during an interview on 17/7/1995.
to all components of their professional, cultural and specialist preparation, such as is the case in the Arabic Language Department at the Faculty of Al-Shari'ah & Islamic Studies in Al-'Ahsa, which was founded in 1982 (IMSIU, 1993: 270).

Faculties introduce only some components of the preparation programmes to the students, such as the Faculty of Arabic & Social Science in Qa'imin and the Faculty of Arabic Language in Southern SA, both linked to IMSIU. These two faculties provide the cultural components in association with other departments. Other faculties only introduce specialist preparation components and leave other components, such as the cultural and professional aspects of teacher preparation, to other faculties of the university, such as is the case in the Arabic Language Faculty at Umm Al-Qura University in Makkah and the Faculty of Arabic Language in Riyadh at IMSIU, as well as the Arabic Language Faculty of the Islamic University in Madinah. Graduates from these faculties are employed as teachers of the Arabic language in intermediate or secondary schools for general education.\textsuperscript{17}

\textsuperscript{17} General education refers to the entire educational system below university level in SA. It consists of three stages; at the primary stage, which lasts for six years, pupils enter primary school at the age of six. On completion of this stage, students follow three years at intermediate level. The secondary school, comparable to high schools in the UK, also comprises three years of study.
SECTION TWO: THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO ALTPPS FOR TAFL

-Introduction:

This section includes a brief historical overview of some of the institutes for non-Arabic speakers in SA in which there are established departments for the ALTPPs. The focus is specifically on the two institutes where the case study was conducted, namely the Arabic Language Institute at KSU, and the Institute of Teaching Arabic at IMSIU.

Until 1974, there was no organised programme operating in the area of teacher preparation for TAFL because the educational authorities were still engaged in the preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic to native speakers, as discussed previously in Section One.

However, from the middle of the 1970s, the education authorities in SA decided to widen the teaching of Arabic beyond its frontiers in order to reach other Islamic nations for whom Arabic is not a mother tongue, in conformity with the Kingdoms' role as a centre for Arabic and Islamic culture as well as an annual pilgrimage venue for Muslims. Since then, thousands of scholarships have been awarded by the Saudi Arabian Government to non-Arab students from all over the world to study at universities in SA. Such students have often required special tuition in the Arabic language to enable them to join the universities. Hence, the need
arose to set up a number of institutes for the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language to non-native speakers and to train TAFL teachers. Below is a description of the three main institutes which fulfil such a function.

3.2.1 THE ARABIC LANGUAGE INSTITUTE (KSU)

This Institute is regarded as the first of its kind in SA. It was established in 1974 to cater for non-Arabic speakers. The opening of the Institute coincided with the first course in TAFL teaching, organised under the auspices of the Department of Arabic at the former Riyadh University, where over two hundred students were enrolled. The Institute was formally inaugurated in 1975.18

3.2.1.1 Aims of the Institute

The Institute offers a wide range of programmes and activities which aim to achieve the following goals listed in the Institute’s Prospectus (1987: 2):

i. “To teach Arabic and the Arab & Islamic culture to non-Arabic candidates preparing to become qualified teachers of Arabic as a foreign language.

ii. To provide further training opportunities for teachers already working in the field of teaching Arabic to non-Arabic speakers.

iii. To promote linguistic and educational research into the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language and the development and selection of new teaching materials.”

18 Source: The Arabic Language Institute Catalogue, KSU (1987: 1), and the King Saud University Prospectus (1993: 30).
3.2.1.2 The Institute's Units

The Institute consists of four units:

3.2.1.2.1 The Teachers’ Preparation Unit:

In this Unit, students are trained for a Diploma in the methodology of TAFL. The study programme consists of a period of twenty-four contact hours, of which fifteen hours are allocated for the study of compulsory subjects, and nine hours for optional subjects. An additional six hours in general education complement the preparatory requirements of the programme. In order to qualify for admission onto this programme, the following conditions must be met:

i. The candidate must at least be in possession of a B.A degree or equivalent with a "good" grade in Arabic or education, specialising in the Arabic language, or in Islamic studies from an Arabic university.

ii. Proficiency in the Arabic language is determined through a competence test conducted by the Institute.

iii. Knowledge of a foreign language, preferably English, is required.\(^{19}\)

Over the past twenty three years, the Unit has been responsible for the graduation of approximately thirty to forty teachers annually.\(^{20}\)

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\(^{19}\) Source: The Arabic Language Institute Catalogue, KSU (1987: 3).

\(^{20}\) Source: The Head of the Teachers’ Preparation Unit.
3.2.1.2.2 The Teacher Training Unit (In-Service Training):

This Unit provides approximately eleven compulsory subjects and students must study all those subjects in one intensive term covering some twenty-five contact hours extending over sixteen weeks. Admission to this Unit is conditional on meeting the following requirements:

a. The candidate must at least be in possession of the General Secondary School Certificate.
b. He must be a teacher of Arabic in SA or elsewhere at the time of application.
c. He must be proficient in speaking, reading and writing Arabic.
d. He must not have obtained a diploma from the same Institute.
e. He must not be over fifty years of age, and should come at the recommendation of an official body or an Islamic organisation in his country.21

3.2.1.2.3 The Language and Culture Unit:

The aim of this Unit is to raise the Arabic language skills of the candidates whose academic credentials are slightly below the official requirements for enrolling on the Diploma programme. A pass on this course for those students is a prerequisite for admission onto the Diploma course at the same institute.

3.2.1.2.4 The Research Unit:

The Unit's objectives are as follows:

I. "Planning linguistic and educational studies and research relevant to Arabic language teaching for non-native speakers as well as monitoring projects and research investigations.

ii. Monitoring curriculum, educational material and teaching aid projects for Arabic language teaching to non-native speakers.

iii. Publishing manuals, school books and other materials consistent with the Institute's objectives and mission." (Ibid.: 7)

The structure of the Arabic Language Institute at KSU is summarised in Figure 3.1 below:

![Figure 3.1 The structure of the Arabic Language Institute at KSU](image)

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22 Researcher's own translation from Arabic.
3.2.2 THE ARABIC LANGUAGE INSTITUTE FOR NON-ARABIC SPEAKERS (Umm Al-Qura University; Makkah)

The Arabic Language Institute for non-Arabic speakers in Makkah is the second of its kind to be established in SA to cater for TAFL. The Institute was founded in 1975 and was at first a centre affiliated to the Department of Al-Shar'ah and Islamic Studies at Umm Al-Qura University. In 1979, the Institute became an independent body and a specialist educational department was subsequently established within it to prepare teachers of Arabic for TAFL. The rapid expansion of the Institute was a result of the success it achieved in attracting students. Another factor was the rapid development and reform of the education system in SA during that period. Both of these factors have enabled the Institute to carry out its role successfully.

The Institute consists of two academic departments: the Department of Arabic Teaching and the Specialist Education Department. Brief details of these are outlined below:

3.2.2.1 The Department of Arabic Teaching

The study period in this Department covers three years and includes three levels: beginners, intermediate, and advanced. A separate department for female students is also affiliated to the Institute.

3.2.2.2 The Specialist Education Department

This Department, which is concerned with the preparation of teachers of Arabic for TAFL, offers the following two programmes:

a. The General Diploma programme, which prepares teachers of Arabic to non-Arabic speakers. The period of study on this programme is four terms (two academic years) and the total number of prescribed hours for this General Diploma is a hundred hours, spread throughout two academic years. In the first year, the students study for a total of fifty hours spread over two terms, that is twenty-five hours per term. The same division applies to the second year, which also consists of two terms and twenty-five hours tuition per term, after which successful students are awarded the General Diploma in TAFL methodology.

b. The Specialist Diploma programme, which is a linguistic and educational qualification for TAFL. The period of study on this programme is two semesters and the total prescribed hours for this Specialist Diploma is fifty hours, spread over one year and divided between the two terms. Upon completion of the prescribed study programme, successful students are awarded the Specialist Diploma. Candidates who have already obtained the General Diploma, or have previously taught Arabic, are enrolled on this programme with a view to up-grading their performance.24 The Specialist Education Department has produced approximately two hundred graduate

TAFL teachers from 1984 (the date of its inauguration) until the end of 1996.25

3.2.2.3 Other Units in the Institute:

There are two other important units within the Institute, namely, the Research and Curricula Unit and the Teaching Aids Unit. The role of the former is to carry out research in the field of TAFL. It is also responsible for setting out plans, syllabuses, teaching aids and textbooks. This is in addition to organising symposia and participating in academic conferences, both of which are intended to achieve and promote the goals and message of the Institute. Until 1997, this Unit published over twenty specialist books in TAFL.

There are various other teaching service units in the Institute that perform different functions, but the Teaching Aids Unit is responsible for producing teaching materials for teachers of Arabic as a foreign language.

A summary of the Institute's structure and the programmes offered by it is presented in Figure 3.2 below:

25 Source: The Dean of The Arabic Language Institute for Non-Arabic Speakers, at Umm Al-Qura University in Makkah.
3.2.3 THE INSTITUTE FOR TEACHING ARABIC (IMSIU)

This Institute was established in 1977. At the beginning, it was a centre operating under the control of the Faculty of Arabic Language in Riyadh. Later, it developed in size and improved in terms of the quality of its courses because of the additional resources which became available to it as the country became more prosperous. At that time, there was a desperate need for the provision of Arabic language courses for visiting students from different Islamic countries who could not speak Arabic in

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order for them to pursue their studies in the various faculties of the University. Therefore, the centre was converted into a teaching unit and was renamed in 1981 as the Institute for Teaching Arabic. 27

3.2.3.1 The Aims of the Institute

The Institute concerns itself with TAFL, together with the following additional aims:

1. "Preparing students linguistically in order to enable them:
   a. to acquire the basic skills in Arabic for daily communication, and
   b. to join courses at the faculties of Islamic Shar'ah (Law) or the faculties of Arabic.

2. To prepare teachers in Arabic and the Islamic religion.
3. To hold training programmes for Islamic education teachers.
4. To qualify students in Islamic studies and the Arabic language.
5. To undertake linguistic and educational research for the purpose of:
   a. planning linguistic and educational research, including Arabic teaching studies;
   b. researching the linguistic, educational and teaching problems characteristic of TAFL learners and designing textbooks and teaching aids." 28

3.2.3.2 The Institute's Departments

At present, the Institute consists of the following departments:

3.2.3.2.1 The Department for Linguistic Preparation (قسم الإعداد اللغوي)

Study in this Department is divided into the following two programmes:

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(i) The Basic Programme (Morning Course):

This programme aims at preparing students linguistically to enable them to study at one of the University’s faculties. The study period is for two years and covers four levels, each lasting one term. The programme is subdivided into the following four units:

- The Religious Science Unit.
- The Basic Language Unit.
- The Grammar Unit.
- The Literature Unit.

Graduates from the above units are awarded the Diploma in Linguistic Preparation.

(ii) The Linguistic Programme (Evening Course):

This programme aims at providing non-Arab workers in the country's public and private sectors with the Arabic skills required for them to fully participate as citizens in their professional and social life. The study period on this free programme is three years.

3.2.3.2.2 The Department of Arabic and Islamic Science

This Department aims at educating and preparing students in Arabic at a higher level and raising their knowledge of the Islamic culture and the teaching methods of Arabic for non-Arabic speakers. The study period is for one year only.
The course is divided into the following three components:

- **Arabic**: 54% (of the total teaching hours)
- **Islamic Culture**: 32%
- **Education & Research**: 14%

When a student passes the final examination, he is awarded a Diploma in Arabic and Islamic Science (دبلوم في العلوم العربية والإسلامية).

### 3.2.3.2.3 The Department for TAFL Teacher Preparation

This Department offers the following three programmes:

a. **The Master's Degree programme**: the study period for this degree is two years with an extra six months for research.

b. **The General Diploma programme**: the study period is one year divided into two terms.

c. **In-service training courses**: in response to popular demand, the Department organises occasional intensive training courses in cooperation with Islamic universities all over the world. The aim of these courses is to raise the standard of non-Arab teachers of Arabic and religious subjects in the non-Arabic speaking countries and to provide these teachers with up-to-date information in the field. The period of this course is usually for one term only. Since its foundation in 1982, the number of graduates has reached over 150.²⁹

²⁹ Source: The Head of The Department for TAFL Teacher Preparation.
3.2.3.2.4 The Research Centre

This Centre conducts linguistic and educational research related to the field of TAFL. It is involved in the planning and supervision of research projects and acts as an advisory body for Arabic and Islamic schools and publishes textbooks as well as teaching aids. The Centre also organises debates and participates in the design and development of improved teaching programmes and methods. It also issues relevant booklets and pamphlets. A summary of the Institute's structure and the programmes offered is presented in Figure 3.3:

Figure 3.3 The structure of the Institute for Teaching Arabic
The following figure shows the number of graduates from the preparatory programmes for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers in SA since the beginning of the scheme in 1974.

Figure 3.4 The number of graduates from the preparatory programmes for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers in SA

**Conclusion**

It is clear from the preceding presentation that the preparation of teachers of Arabic for native speakers has passed through successive developmental stages extending over a quarter of a century. The first phase was characterised by unplanned initiatives and the use of 'primitive' resources. The second intermediate phase was dominated by a concern for quality rather than the quantity of teachers. A number of institutions were
thus established in new intermediate schools, such as the Saudi Academic Institute.

However, despite the contribution made by these establishments, the need for more teachers continued to grow, which required decision makers to request assistance from neighbouring Arab countries, and to develop opportunities for a greater number of nationals to join the teaching profession with minimum requirements. Such teachers came to be known as 'emergency teachers'. Awareness of the sub-standard quality of some teachers led to the organisation of in-service training courses in the summer and evening institutes for teachers.

Finally, old institutes were upgraded and their preparatory programmes were improved by prolonging the period of study and raising the admission conditions from the Primary Stage Certificate to the Intermediate School Certificate. The progression was to give rise to the third and most advanced phase of teacher preparation in the colleges and universities. It is during the latter phase that the effective specialisation of teachers began for the very first time in SA and the shortfall of national teachers began to reduce significantly.

The preparation of teachers of Arabic for speakers of other languages, which only began approximately two decades ago had a distinctly better start with planning, organisation and resources than the
early preparation of teachers of Arabic as a mother tongue. Specialisation in this area is conducted at a postgraduate level culminating in the award of a Diploma or an MA degree.

In assessing the historical phases of the preparation of Arabic language teachers in SA, the following general observations can be made:

- The decision to use teachers whose educational background did not exceed the intermediate stage was imposed by the acute shortage of teachers at the launch of the educational system in SA. Education experts appear to have followed the Egyptian experiments from the beginning of the century with insufficient thought to the consequences on standards which subsequently became evident both in Egypt and SA.

- As a result of the "open door" policy followed during the early phase in the development of the SA education system, a large number of young, immature people were admitted into the teaching profession. Many were ineffective and lacked the required attributes and motivation to fulfil the important role of educators that was thrust upon them.

- The impact of such measures has, for many years, been felt in the low standards of teaching, the high failure rate and the lack of learner motivation at all levels of teaching.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODS, PROCEDURES AND
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

-Introduction

The foregoing chapter of the study dealt with the historical stages through which the preparation of Arabic language teachers for native and non-native speakers in SA has passed. In this connection, it is apparent that the teaching occupation has evolved from a rudimentary stage in terms of human and material resources to the modern skilled profession that it is today.

Whereas this chapter provides a survey of the methodology and the processes undertaken in order to achieve the objectives of this study as well as a general description of the target population and the instruments used (questionnaires, observations and interviews). It also presents the procedures followed in the implementation of the research instruments, in checking their validity and reliability and the process of collecting and analysing the data relevant to this investigation.

4.1 THE RESEARCH METHODS

This study follows a descriptive technique and uses two methods of investigation:

1. A descriptive, analytical-comparative methodology. This involves identifying the contents of the programmes studied and then analysing
the structure of the preparation programmes, the cultural input (general education), the specialist competence and the professional aspects of teacher preparation. Data obtained through this process are analysed so as to highlight the similarities and dissimilarities between the programmes under consideration.

2. The descriptive survey approach of study involves reactions from all the subjects in the sample about specific aspects of the programmes. The reason for using this method of research is, as previously stated, because it endeavours to describe facts obtained through empirical methods of investigation. Then, the results of the survey are compared according to the objective criteria already established. This methodology is considered the most suitable scientific approach for the purposes of this research.

4.2 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Three main instruments were used in this study: questionnaires, observation and personal interviews. As the questionnaire approach was used to elicit written responses, it was decided to supplement it with a direct method of observing actual conduct and practice during the implementation of the programmes. This was in addition to carrying out verbal interviews, so as to assess the results for consistency and accuracy in a way that is not possible when only using questionnaires.

This eclectic approach is in keeping with the opinions of many educational experts. For example, Paton (1990: 245) indicated that
each research tool has its own strengths and drawbacks but a combination of instruments can help the researcher to tap the strength of each of these data sources and thereby reduce the weaknesses of a single method approach. This can also help to improve the validity and reliability of the data so collected.

In a similar vein, Van Dalen (1979: 127) stated:

"One does not master a single method of obtaining data, such as the questionnaire, and apply it to every problem that arises. Each tool is appropriate for acquiring particular data, and sometimes several instruments must be employed to obtain the information required to solve a problem. Researchers, therefore, must possess considerable knowledge about a wide variety of techniques and instruments."

FIRSTLY: THE QUESTIONNAIRES

Oppenheim (1992: 100) views the questionnaire as "... an important instrument of research, a tool for data collection ... (and) measurement." It can be a very valuable and successful technique in research if it is well designed and implemented. In this study, the questionnaire is one of the main instruments that was used for investigation, and so four of them were designed:

- A questionnaire for the members of the staff on TPPA.
- A questionnaire for the members of the staff on TPPB.
- A questionnaire for the students on TPPA.
- A questionnaire for the students on TPPB.

4.2.1 The questionnaires' sources:

The questionnaires were designed and prepared from the following sources:
4.2.1.1 The requirements and objectives of this study:

Since this study has specific aims and certain requirements, the aims have been reformulated as questions to constitute the main text of the four questionnaires. Hence, these aims are the most important sources, from which the questionnaires have been devised.


After studying these books and journals, pointers and specific ideas were obtained and used in the design of the questionnaires, particularly concerning the aspects of the two different preparation programmes.

4.2.1.3 Previous studies which are related to this research, were reviewed in Chapter Two. Al Othaim's study, in particular, dealt with the requirements for the preparation of teachers of Arabic at the intermediate and secondary stages. This has facilitated the drawing up of a set of questions to be included in the questionnaires designed for the students and staff involved in the preparation programmes for the Arabic language teacher. This study has also benefited from
Bashfr and Madkour's contributions, especially from their criteria for evaluations with respect to the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers. Issues raised during conferences held in this area, as well as previous research results, were used to elicit significant trends and major aspects in the preparatory programmes and some material was gathered from them to be included in the questionnaires.

4.2.1.4 The initial pilot study and exploratory interviews:

Before preparing the formal structure of the questionnaires in their final shape, the researcher conducted a number of preliminary investigations and personal interviews with the staff and students on the four programmes and with some members of the authorities responsible for the implementation of the programmes. Although these preliminary interviews were not the main instruments of the study, they did contribute to the formulation of the final research structure and to the identification and focus on the most important issues to be covered in the questionnaires. Such interviews also helped to expose some of the difficulties encountered by trainees and points to be included on the questionnaires, such as trainees' teaching practice and the teaching methods employed by the staff. The length of the programme was also considered, as some non-Arab students on the preparatory programme for teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers expressed their dissatisfaction in this respect, during direct dialogues with them.
4.2.1.5 Prospectuses for the preparatory programmes for teachers of Arabic in SA:

The prospectuses which were used as references were the following ones:

a- The Faculty of Arts prospectus.

b- The Faculty of the Arabic Language prospectus.

c- The Institute for Teaching Arabic prospectus.

d- The Arabic Language Institute prospectus.

The researcher undertook a study of each of the four prospectuses of the programmes which constituted the sample of the study. These were reviewed, and particular attention was paid to the ones dealing with the aims of the programmes and the ways of achieving them. Thus, it became possible for the researcher to design several versions of texts for inclusion in the questionnaires, such as to what extent academic subjects are described accurately in the prospectuses, also whether the number of hours for a particular course of study is stated, or if there are any differences between the actual situation and that which was proposed in the prospectus.

4.2.1.6 The experts and specialists:

Some versions or texts of the questionnaires were elicited from experts and specialists in the field of the preparation of language teachers. After reviewing the questionnaires, other professionals
have put forward a few ideas and suggestions for modifications to the questionnaires’ text or form.

4.2.2 Areas covered by the questionnaires:

After gathering data relating to the questionnaires from the sources referred to above, the researcher started, with the assistance of his supervisor, to determine and delineate the major areas of the questionnaires and to identify the main categories which were to be included in each of the three parts of the questionnaires. These were the following ones: general information; opinions and impressions; and, suggestions.

Section One: This section dealt with background information about the subjects and included age group, educational level, the most recent qualifications attained, the occupation or employment that the subject intended to take up after graduation and the purpose of joining this programme in preference to other occupational programmes.

Regarding the staff members, additional questions were added such as where their current professional position and in what capacity, the number of conferences and symposia attended, as well as the extent of their command of other languages.

Section Two: This section, which was the most significant part of the questionnaire, consisted of several programme aspects and elements, particularly the following:
a. The level of satisfaction regarding the specialist subject content of the programme.
b. The degree of satisfaction concerning the professional aspect of the programme.
c. The level of satisfaction with respect to the cultural content of the programme.
d. The level of satisfaction regarding the length of the teaching practice period.
e. The degree of satisfaction with regard to the methods and organisation followed in implementing the programme.
f. The level of satisfaction regarding the content of the programme in general, such as, academic research activities, assessment methods, etc.
g. The degree of satisfaction concerning the extra-curricular activities organised on these programmes.
h. The extent to which respondents were satisfied with the positive aspects of the programmes.
i. Respondents' dissatisfaction with perceived weaknesses of their respective programmes.

Most versions of the text in this section, which consisted of thirty-seven questions, were provided with a scale of preference. Respondents were asked to choose one of three alternative responses, these being: agree, uncertain or I don't know, and disagree.
Section Three: This section invited the respondents to put forward recommendations in several important areas of the programme, such as: those areas which needed developing and improving; how the modifications could be implemented; as well as any other ideas that could contribute to the amelioration of the programme they were involved in.

4.2.3 The method of recording responses:

To record the responses on most versions of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to put a tick (✓) in front of the preferred answer. This saved time, as far as the respondents were concerned, and facilitated data processing of the closed questions. With respect to the open questions, the respondents were asked to write short sentences in which they could briefly and precisely provide their views, recommendations and suggestions freely but concisely.

4.2.4 Questionnaire validity measurement:

Validity, in relation to a research instrument, is defined by Pidgeon and Yates (1968: 61) as “...a term to indicate the acceptability of a test.” It is also “... the extent to which the procedure actually accomplishes what it seeks to accomplish or measures what it seeks to measure... ” (Fox, 1969: 367). Clearly, the validity of a questionnaire cannot be assumed, but must be established by the researcher. It can be tested by means of several methods (Gronlund, 1982: 125), one of which might be presenting the questionnaire to independent experts to elicit their viewpoints about its content (Heyes, et. al., 1986: 80).
Accordingly, once the preparation and planning of the questionnaires was completed, they were submitted to sixteen jury members, with various areas of expertise, namely:

- three specialists in language teachers preparation programmes;
- four specialists in curriculum design and teaching methods;
- two specialists in applied linguistics;
- four teaching staff members involved in the programmes studied;
- one Arabic language teacher with extensive teaching experience;
- one expert in educational planning; and,
- one expert in academic research activities.

The jurors were invited to give their views on the following areas:

a. The clarity of the questions and the suitability of the questionnaires' structural form.

b. The degree of validity of the questionnaires.

c. The extent to which the questionnaires addressed the topics in question.

d. The degree to which the versions/texts were suitable for their purposes.

e. The strength of the relationship between each item and its section.

f. They were also asked to add any suggestions relating to the issues raised in the questionnaires.

\[1\] See Appendix (F) for the names of the jurors and their specialities.
It was hoped that the jurors would be able to help in identifying areas and aspects of the questionnaires which needed amending or reforming so as to strengthen their validity as a reliable and objective investigative tool. Accordingly, a number of suggestions were made such as the closing of some open-ended questions, the omission of others and the separation of some texts from one another.

Once the amendments recommended by the jurors were made, the questionnaire was again submitted to the committee to double-check its validity and adequacy as a valid tool for measuring the various factors under consideration.

4.2.5 Measuring the reliability of the questionnaires:

The reliability of a questionnaire is measured by the extent to which it gives consistent results when it is administered several times under the same circumstances. In order to achieve a high degree of reliability from the responses, the following procedure was used:

- Re-application of the method:

Response reliability was also tested through the re-application method, in which some questionnaires were distributed to about fifty randomly selected respondents from the original sample group. The application was repeated two weeks later using the same subjects. Once the questionnaires were collected, the reliability of response was tested using Pearson's method for measuring the extent of correlation between the two responses (Pearson Product Moment
Correlation). Following this procedure, the two questionnaire responses were compared, producing a correlation index of 87.9%, which indicated that the responses had shown a significantly high degree of reliability.

4.2.6 The administration of the questionnaires:

After finalising all the technical procedures needed for administering the questionnaires, the researcher undertook the following steps:

1. A letter of recommendation was obtained from the Saudi Arabian ambassador in London addressed to the principals of the two universities in which the study was to be conducted. The ambassador's letter of recommendation helped to facilitate the researcher's mission in enforcing the administration of the questionnaires.  

2. Acceptances were received from the principals of King Saud University in Riyadh and Al-Imam University, giving permission for the research to be carried out within their spheres of jurisdiction. 

3. The researcher was also able to meet the deans of the faculties and institutes and heads of the units and departments, as appropriate to the study. This was in order to determine the convenient days for the distribution of the questionnaires to the sample group,

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2 See Appendix (A) for the text of the Saudi Arabian ambassador's letter of recommendation.

3 See Appendix (A) for the samples of the letters addressed to the faculties and institutes requesting permission for the researcher to administer the questionnaires.
particularly the students, from whom the completed questionnaires were to be collected on the same day. The researcher distributed the questionnaires himself to the students and the teaching staff. The last three months of the final university semester were chosen for the 1995/96 students, when questionnaires were distributed to both staff and students. The aims of the research were explained to them, prior to them completing the questionnaires.

4.2.7 The preparation of the data for analysis:

In order to be able to analyse the data after collecting the questionnaire information, the researcher undertook the following process which covered three stages:

4.2.7.1 Reviewing the information from the collected data:

The questionnaires were provisionally reviewed in order to assess the extent of their validity. Thus, some questionnaires were eliminated because they had not been answered fully or because they contained serious contradictory answers resulting from either inattention, a lack of interest, or a deliberate refusal to cooperate with the researcher. In total, twenty-nine questionnaires were eliminated.

4.2.7.2 Data processing, tabulation and coding:

When preparing the questionnaires which were deemed valid for analysis, each questionnaire was given a serial number and then other serial numbers were allotted, as codes for each item in the
questionnaire. This was in addition to the code number of each answer for every single item, such as the age question:

1 (EG) □ 22 years □ 23 years □ 24 years □ 25 years
4 3 2 1

The analysis was quantitative and was implemented using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences Programmes (SPSS). The data processing, the tabulation and the coding helped the researcher by expediting the entry of data information and by generally facilitating the process of analysis. In the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data, frequencies, percentages and averages were obtained.

4.2.7.3 Conversion and data processing:

The third stage in the organisation of the data for analysis comprised the conversion of the data directly from the questionnaire and its processing by computer in accordance with the chosen coding method with respect to the answers to the closed questions. As for the replies to the open-ended questions and the suggestions provided by the respondents, these were classified and collated in separate files according to the subject and group of answers for each question.

THE SECOND METHOD OF INVESTIGATION: OBSERVATION:

Observation was the second main research instrument used in this study. It was used to strengthen the questionnaire method and to reinforce its results in order to obtain greater validity for the outcomes of the study. The aim was to unveil the actual situation of the programmes being compared rather than depend on what was
described in the printed publications issued by the two universities involved in this research.

The degree of reliability and the truthfulness of the information obtained through this instrument is considerably high, and also revealing. This was because, as Nachmias and Nachmias (1981: 156) stated, careful observation enables the researcher to study the object of research as it appears in that context. However, the success of observation as an instrument of research depends on achieving three conditions which require that the researcher should know; (i) what he observes; (ii) when he observes; (iii) and, how he records his observation (Ibid.: 157).

The researcher observed the students on programmes A and B whilst they were in the lecture rooms, during discussions and general activities, and also during teaching practice process. Nachmias's conditions were recognised in these varying situations. Moreover, the teaching staff members were observed whilst delivering their lectures to the students, and their teaching methods were noted down as well as their methods of assessment, evaluation and other relevant matters.

In order to register comments and remarks during the observation process, a special observation card was devised. The objectives of this card were specifically within the aims of the questionnaires and were consistent with the main aims of this study which were to

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4 See Appendix (H).
identify and compare the current situation of the programmes under study.

The design of the card was accomplished according to the elements required for the study, and also to render the process of recording and decoding the data easier.

Furthermore, this study relied on the following two types of observation, which were:

1. Direct observation, which involved the researcher in personally observing these programmes by attending lectures in the lecture rooms, the teaching practice sessions and in the general activity venues.

2. Indirect observation, where the researcher was able to go through some academic reports and also some official documents relating to these programmes, such as unpublished syllabuses, assessment regulations and attendance requirements.

Incidentally, it is worth mentioning here that the researcher's presence as an observer among the individual members of the study sample initially had an inhibiting influence on the conduct of some members of the teaching staff and most of the students, in that they appeared tense and restrained, especially on the first day of the research. This prompted the researcher to allow for an ice-breaking period before recording data for analysis. Thus, a deliberate attempt was made to establish trust by mingling with both students and
teachers before and after the lectures in the classrooms and halls. After two weeks, the observer's effect on the normal conduct of teachers and students was deemed minimal, whereupon it became possible to conduct the observation task and record meaningful and precise patterns of normal behaviour over a period of two weeks.

THE THIRD METHOD OF INVESTIGATION; INTERVIEWS:

Cohen and Manion (1985: 312) observed that interviews are one of the most frequently used methods of eliciting information in social and educational research. Thus, information which was difficult to secure by questionnaires and direct observation of the subjects in the study was obtained through the interview instrument. The interviews were primarily designed to facilitate the interpretation of the questionnaires and observation results and allow opportunities to explore matters further whenever possible. For this reason, the content of the interviews focused on the issues raised in the questionnaires and during the observation process. Hence, a list of specific questions covering the main points under consideration was recorded on individual cards with adequate space for a written summary of the answers supplied in the encounter. The interview was aimed at three groups of respondents:

1. Senior administrators on programmes A & B, namely the dean of the faculty/institute, the head of department.

2. A number of teaching staff members of both programmes A & B.

3. Some of the students from programmes A and B.
The interviews, which lasted on average 15-20 minutes, were mostly administered informally during the second semester of the 1995/1996 academic year.

4.3 THE STUDY POPULATION:

Yaremko, et. al. (1982: 177) define the population of a research study as the entire collection or set of objects, people or events of interest in a particular context. According to Borg and Gall (1983: 257) "The general rule is to use the largest sample possible. The rule is a good one because, although we generally study only samples, we are really interested in learning about the population from which they are drawn. The larger the sample, the more likely is its mean and standard deviation to be representative of the population mean and standard deviation."

Thus, the sample group for this study totalled 427 individuals, of which 321 were students and 106 were staff members on both programmes. These were selected to represent all the individuals from the original community: students, members of the teaching staff who had been working on these programmes, and those who were present during the period of application. The sampling took place in the last three months of the final academic year for those students who were about to graduate from these programmes.

The sample consisted of those students who were about to graduate and who were considered as the most capable of judging
programmes A & B which remained, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, unchanged during the period of research.

Finally, it is worth pointing out that the target population for the study was exclusively male. This is due to the institutional segregation of the sexes in the Saudi educational system.

The study community can be identified more precisely through the statistical description of the subjects as described included in the following section:

4.3.1 Distribution of the study population according to age

4.3.1.1 The students:

(Programme A)

Figure 4.1 The distribution of students by age on programme A
Figure 4.2 The distribution of students by age on programme B

Figure 4.1 illustrates that, at the time this study was being conducted, the twenty-three year old age group constituted the highest percentage of the student respondents on TPPA, as there were seventy-four students of that age, who thus constituted 32% of the total number of students. The students in the twenty-two and twenty-four years age groups came in second rank, there being fifty-nine students aged twenty-two years and the same number of twenty-four year olds, each constituting 25.5% of the total. The percentage of the sample who were twenty-five years old constituted the lowest proportion, as students of this age numbered twenty-one.

It should be mentioned that the students aged twenty-three, and who constituted the highest percentage here, had not failed, or been left behind, in any one year of their previous years of study, whether at the general education stage or in any one of the previous four university academic years. That is because such as students would normally
graduate at the age of twenty-three assuming they were six years old when they started at primary school, as is usual in SA. They would normally spend six years at the primary stage, then they would move to the intermediate stage to spend three years, which would be followed by the secondary stage, also lasting three years. The university stage would then follow, which normally covers four academic years. When the ages of the students on programme A are compared with the ages of those on TPPB, it is found that the ages of the students in the latter scheme are a little higher than the ages of those on the former programme.

The chart in Figure 4.2 shows that the largest age group on programme B is that in which the ages range between twenty-seven and thirty-one years old, constituting 35.7% of the total number of respondents on this programme, amounting to forty-two students. Next to that, in second rank, comes the age group ranging from twenty-two to twenty-six years old, and likewise the age group ranging between thirty-two and thirty-six years old. These two age groups each constituted 23.8%, of the total number of respondents and the percentage of students on this programme aged thirty-seven years or more did not constitute more than 9.5% of the total number of respondents. From the foregoing comparison of the ages of the students on the two programmes, it would appear that students over the age of twenty-seven and who were studying on programme B, constituted the highest percentage, which amounted to \((35.7% + 23.8% + 9.5% = 69\%)\).
This is clearly different from the ages of the students on programme A, which is due to the fact that the students on programme B were not accepted on the programme unless they had already obtained a university degree (BA).

4.3.1.2 The teaching staff members:

Figure 4.3 The age distribution of the teaching staff members on programmes A & B

Figure 4.3 shows that the age of the teaching staff members on programme B does not exceed forty-four years compared to their counterparts on programme A, whose ages range up to fifty years. This difference in age ranges on the two programmes can be adequately explained by the fact that programme B is relatively new, as compared with programme A. Indeed, programme B is only about twenty five years old, whereas programme A was instituted some fifty years ago. Thus it would seem that once attracted to become staff members, many
are content to continue as such. Be that as it may, the age group which ranges between thirty-five and thirty ranks first on programme B and the teaching staff members in this age group amount to 40%. This is followed by the age groups thirty to thirty-four and forty to forty-four, there being 20% in each of these groups in relation to the total.

On the other hand, the age group forty-five to forty-nine ranks first on programme A with a proportion of 29.1%. It is followed by the age group thirty to thirty-four, who comprise 20%, whereas the age group forty to forty-four comes in 4th place with a percentage of 16.4, while this latter age group comes in second place on programme B.

Thus, it becomes clear that the teaching staff members who are working on programme A are older on average than their counterparts on programme B. This could be interpreted in light of the fact that programme A itself is older than programme B and hence some staff members have served on it for many years. This is in contrast to programme B, which is of much more recent origin than the first programme.
4.3.2 Distribution of the study population according to nationality

4.3.2.1 Teaching staff members:

Figure 4.4 shows the distribution of nationalities and reveals that the number of Saudi Arabian teachers constitutes the highest percentage, compared to non-Saudi Arabian teachers who are mostly Egyptian. Saudi Arabians comprise 60% on programme A, whereas on programme B, the proportion of Saudi Arabians is 80%, that is 20% more than on the former scheme. This is due to the larger number of students on programme A, and correspondingly greater need in teaching staff. At the time of conducting this research, the demand for Arabic language teachers at the universities concerned far exceeds the number of applicants forthcoming from SA.
4.3.2.2 The students:

Saudi Arabian students constitute 91.3% of the students on programme A. Figure 4.5 shows that there are 212 Saudi Arabian students who constitute by far the greater proportion compared to non-Saudi Arabian students who comprise only 4.8%. This reflects the fact that the opportunities allowed for non-Saudi Arabians to join programme A are very limited. This has particularly been so in the last five years, as the programmes for the preparation of Arabic language teachers to native speakers have witnessed a greater number of Saudi Arabians coming to take the course. This has led to a reduction in the
percentage of non-Saudi Arabians accepted, in order to meet the increase in national demand.\footnote{This was stated by the Dean of Admission and Registration Affairs, at IMSIU, during an interview with him in Riyadh on 13/5/ 1996.}

If the percentage of Saudi Arabian students on programme A is compared with that on programme B, it can be noticed in Figure 4.5 that their percentage on programme B is no more than 31\%, whereas the percentage of non-Saudi Arabians on this programme is 61.9\%, out of the total number of students in the study sample. Thus, they constitute first place, whilst on programme A, non-Saudi Arabians come in second place. This is due to the fact that on programme B, the course is set to prepare teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers to teach often outside SA.

Saudi Arabian students are clearly not encouraged to join programme B. This was confirmed during the interviews conducted by the researcher which revealed that most Saudi Arabian students have little inclination for work outside SA. Those who do apply to join programme B are further deterred by stringent requirements, chief of which is the offer of a teaching post in a language department abroad after qualifying. This condition usually creates problems for applicants wishing to pursue programme B, which thus provides greater opportunities for non-native speakers who are at an advantage as they are usually sponsored by their future employers in their own countries. Saudi Arabian candidates on programme B constitute 31\% of the total
number of the students on programme B. Figure 4.5 shows that 3.9% of the respondents on programme A have not indicated their nationalities.

On the other hand, 7.1% of the respondents on programme B have not specified their nationalities. The reason for this omission is unclear. When surveying the nationalities of the students, particularly on programme B, three student characteristics were observed:

1- Arab students, mostly Saudi Arabians and for whom Arabic is the mother tongue. Such students were fewer in number, representing 31% of the overall number of students on programme B.

2- Non-Arab students, for whom Arabic was not the mother tongue, but who have learned Arabic in an Arab establishment and graduated from an Arab university. Such students had benefited linguistically from living in an Arab environment. Their number constituted the greatest percentage among the students on this programme, that is 49%.

3- Students for whom Arabic was not their mother tongue and who had studied Arabic at a non-Arab university. Their percentage did not exceed 20% of the total number of students on programme B.

Clearly, the students' background was expected to have some impact on their academic abilities and achievements. Lessons on programme B were delivered in Arabic and so Arab students would be faster in understanding than their non-Arab counterparts who have studied Arabic in an Arabic environment. They are also likely to be relatively faster learners and achievers than their colleagues who have
not learned Arabic in an Arabic environment. Despite their diverse educational backgrounds, all three types of student study together in the same lecture theatre without any regard or concern for the differences in their abilities and the difficulties they are likely to encounter during their preparation as teachers.

The third type of students defined above obviously require additional language tuition to raise their standards and enable them to benefit more fully from their training. The need to improve their linguistic skills was clearly noticeable during the observation process.

4.3.3 The Marital Status of the students:

One of the obvious differences between programmes A & B in terms of the social content of the study, as shown in Figure 3.6, is the marital status of the students. There were thirty-four married students on programme B, which constituted 81%, whereas on programme A, the
percentage of the married students was only 18.2% of the total number. However, the number of unmarried students ranked first on programme A. This is because the number of unmarried students was one hundred and eighty-four, which works out at 79.7%.

Finally, it was noticeable that 2% of the students on both programmes have for some unknown reason not specified their marital status on the questionnaires. The differences concerning marital status on both programmes A & B appeared to have a strong and clear correlation with age. This was because the ages of the students on programme B, as stated previously, were older than those on programme A.

Moreover, students on programme B were generally more mature and relatively older compared to their counterparts on programme A. In fact, most of them had either been employed in teaching or were still working as teachers at the same time as simultaneously with being involved in full time education. In other words, the future of the students on programme B was clearer in comparison to their colleagues on programme A, who were considered to be on the threshold of adult life.
4.3.4 The distribution of the study population of teaching staff according to their academic status:

Figure 4.7 shows that a number of the teaching staff members who work on programme A have different academic ranks compared to those on programme B, where there are only three professional levels which are: associate professor, assistant professor and lecturer. In contrast, the diagram shows that the teaching staff members who work on programme A hold the following teaching positions: professor, associate professor, assistant professor, lecturer, and assistant lecturer (demonstrator).

The assistant professor status ranks first on programme B as the proportion of the teaching staff members who hold this position is 80%. This is followed by teaching staff members who hold associate professor or lecturer status and the percentage of each of these grades separately
is 10%. On the other hand, the number of associate professors on programme A ranks first with 25.5% of the total number. This is followed by lecturers who hold assistant professor status, who represent 23.6% of the total. Then come those who hold the grade of demonstrator/instructor, with a proportion of 18.2%. This is followed by lecturer status with 16.4%. At 14.5%, an even lower proportion of teaching staff on programme A, hold lecturer status.

4.3.5 Distribution of students achievement in their final (previous) qualification:

A statistical analysis of the results of the last qualification attained by the students on both programmes as shown in Figure 4.8, reveals that the highest percentage on programmes A and B join the programmes with a "very good" pass mark distinction. The proportion
of those who achieved a "very good" pass comment is 48.5% on programme A, numbering one hundred and twelve.

Also, on programme B, 42.9% have received a "very good" pass comment, thus the percentages of "very good" on the two programmes are relatively close to each other. This grade here refers to the secondary level certificate with respect to the students on programme A and the university stage certificate (BA) for those on programme B.

Figure 4.8 also shows that the percentage of students who have been graded as "fair" or "weak" prior to joining programme A is greater than that on programme B, as they represent 27.7% of finalists on programme A, but only 11.9% on programme B. This confirms the fact that the admission rules and regulations are more strict with respect to those who want to join programme B than those joining programme A. This is because according to the admission conditions on programme B, the minimum required pass grade of candidates is roughly 70%.

The chart also shows that students who are in the "excellent" level in their earlier qualification are more in evidence on programme A than on programme B. In the former programme, they constituted 12.1% of the total number of respondents, whereas their percentage

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6 See the admission requirements in the Faculty of Arts Prospectus (1990: 22) and the Prospectus of the Faculty of Arabic Language (1988: 12) which specifies not less than (70%) with regard to programme B.

7 See also the admissions requirements for these programmes in the Prospectus of the Institute of Teaching Arabic in IMSIU (1986: 10) and the Prospectus of the Arabic Language Institute at KSU (1985: 16).
represented only 4.8% on the latter scheme. Those who had achieved a "good" pass remark on programme B are in second place with a percentage of 33.3%. In contrast, the students on programme A who achieved "fair" come in second place.

4.3.6 The distribution of the teaching staff according to their years of teaching experience:

Figure 4.9 The distribution of the teaching staff according to their teaching experience

Figure 4.9 shows that the highest percentage of staff members on both programmes A and B have teaching experiences ranging between five and nine years. On the first programme, they represent 36.4% of the total number of respondents. On the other hand, their proportion increases to 60% in the second programme, which means that the majority of teaching staff members who work on programme B have less than average experience.
The reason why the percentage of the teaching staff members whose experience ranges between five and nine years on programme B is higher than on programme A, is that the majority of the teaching staff members on programme B are Saudi Arabians who have recently achieved a Ph.D. degree. They have specifically been appointed to work on that particular programme and they have done so for not more than nine years. Moreover, there are far fewer teaching staff working on programme B than on programme A.

On the whole, Figure 4.9 also shows that the teaching staff members on programme A are more experienced than their counterparts on programme B. As indicated, the number of teaching staff members on programme A whose experience range between ten and fourteen years is equivalent to 23.6%. Thus they rank second place, followed by teaching staff whose length of experience is fifteen years who constitute 20% of all respondents. Their percentage is compatible with that of other staff members, who have recently begun to work at the university and whose length of experience ranges from one to four years, and whose proportion is also 20%.

On the other hand, the percentage of teaching staff members whose experience ranges between ten and fourteen years on programme B is only 10%. They come in third place, after the teaching staff who have recently started work at the university, and who have not more than four years teaching experience. They constitute 30% of the total number of respondents. The above figure also shows that no teaching
staff member on programme B has teaching experience of more than fourteen years. This is in contrast to programme A on which 20% of the staff have more than fourteen years experience.

However, it is worth mentioning that the years of experience referred to may not have been on the same programme, but merely in the same speciality. This is especially true of the non-Saudi Arabian teaching staff members, who probably have worked in their own countries in the same area of study before coming to join either of the programmes under discussion.

4.3.7 The distribution of teaching staff members with regard to the extent of their participation at in-service training courses and attendance at symposia and conferences in their specialist areas:

![Figure 4.10 The active professional participation of teaching staff members (conferences & in-service training)](image)
Figure 4.10 shows that more than half of the teaching staff members on programme A (56.4%) have participated in several symposia and conferences connected with their particular specialisation. On the other hand, only 40% of their counterparts on programme B have participated in such symposia and conferences. The reason for that could be due to the fact that the teaching staff members on programme A have more years teaching experience than those on programme B. This means they have had more opportunity in terms of conferences and symposia held over an extended number of years.

The figure also shows that the great majority of staff members on both programmes have a strong desire to attend symposia and conferences in their individual areas of specialisation. This is confirmed by their responses, since 87.3% of those working on programme A and 80% of those working on programme B stated that they had attended such conferences.

Strong similarities were also observed between the staff members on the two programmes, particularly as concerns those who had worked as teachers in general education schools, for whom the percentage on the first programme reached 50.9% and 50%, on the second programme (see Figure 4.10).

Among the most conspicuous difference between teaching staff on the two programmes was that not one of the staff members on programme B had attended a single in-service training course in his
speciality, whereas 18.2% of the teachers on programme A had taken part in at least some of these training courses, although their number was very limited. It is possible that the reason why not many staff members on the two programmes had participated in such courses is due to the lack of incentives that might encourage them to take part in these courses. Some teachers pointed out that information details about such courses was poorly circulated and was often not made available to them. ⁸

4.3.8 The teaching staff's competence in foreign languages:

Another difference between the staff members on the two programmes was manifested in their mastery of one or more foreign languages. Indeed, teaching staff members who were working on programme A appeared to master more languages than their colleagues

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⁸ This was mentioned by general staff members on the two programmes during interviews on 2/7/1995 and on 9/7/1995.
on programme B, who had mastered only two languages each. In many cases, one of these was English, mastered by 90% of all staff members as shown in Figure 4.11. French had been mastered by one person only and only one person could speak a little Indonesian.

In contrast, 78.2% of the staff members on programme A stated that they were competent in English in the areas of listening comprehension, reading, speaking and writing skills. There were forty-three such respondents. French came in second place, having been mastered by 16.4% of the staff members. Also, 9.1% of the staff members on programme A were competent in one or more languages, such as Hebrew, Turkish and Syriac (an offshoot of the ancient Aramaic language). Their abilities in the above-mentioned languages varied, according to their own statements, from "fair" to "good".

Finally, the proportion of the staff with a knowledge of German and Spanish to a moderate level, was merely 5.5%. It had been expected that the teaching staff members on programme B would know the languages commanded by their colleagues on programme A and perhaps even more, but not the contrary. This is because it was thought that they would need to know these languages, and others, more than their colleagues on programme A, since they would need them in order to teach Arabic to non-native speakers. Such knowledge would certainly be advantageous for the purposes of comparative and contrastive studies, in etymology and other related areas.
4.3.9 The students’ motivation for joining the course programme:

![Bar chart showing motivation frequencies for students joining programme A or B.]

Figure 4.12 The overriding reasons for students joining programme A or B

Among the questions asked in the first part of the questionnaire was one dealing with the real reason for the students joining programmes A or B, as the case may be. The intention was to elicit information from respondents, which might reveal a proportion of students having negative attitudes towards the teaching profession. It was hoped that such attitudes might be apparent from the answers and so might provide accurate information on the level of their commitment towards the teaching profession from the onset of their education as teachers.

A statistical analysis of the results has shown that one hundred and six students on programme A, representing 45.9%, stated that they had joined the programme because career prospects in teaching presented many attractive advantages. This reason ranks first among all
motives. An even higher proportion of students on programme B at 61.9%, said that wanting to teach was their main aim.

Oddly, 3% of students joined programme A because it was claimed to be an "easy" option. However, the students giving this reason for joining programme B ranked jointly, in percentage terms, with those who said they joined the programme because of the pay. That is to say, 2.4% of students on programme B joined because of the pay and 2.4% likewise, said they joined because it was an "easy" option. Thus, these two responses combine to give an overall figure of 4.8%.

On the other hand, 27.7% of the total number of students on programme A stated that they had joined the programme because it would help them to achieve an "ambition" and "status". This motive came in the second rank, after the professional motivation of desiring to work in the teaching area. On programme B, 11.9% of the students said that their motive for joining the programme was the inability to find a suitable alternative speciality. Also 4.8% of the students on programme B claimed to have joined this programme encouraged by career advice from parents and friends. This reason comes in the third rank on both programmes A & B, as 7.4% of the respondents on programme A gave that reason for joining the programme. This is the same percentage as those who had joined the programme for lack of other suitable choice. Next to that come those who had joined the programme because they had not been accepted by other departments. They represent 5.6%.
However, 3% on programme A and 2.4% on programme B curiously did not give any reason at all for joining the programmes. Some respondents probably consider such question as a personal matter.

Finally, from the background information given by programme B respondents, it is worth noticing that approximately 30% of them work as teachers during the day and pursue their studies in the evenings. Training opportunities are open to such candidates in the Department for Qualifying Teachers at IMSIU. This represents a major difference in the organisation and running of the two programmes, A & B, being contrasted in this study. Predictably, differences in performance and achievement are bound to be affected by fatigue and other related factors on B programme. Also, most students on this programme are married, as previously indicated (Figure 4.6). Students and staff on programme A are at an advantage in that their classes are conducted during the daytime, when they are mentally more alert and receptive, thus optimal performance can be expected from them.
4.3.10 The distribution of students with respect to their desire to work in the teaching profession after graduation:

Figure 4.13 shows that one hundred and sixty-nine students on programme A, which is equivalent to 73.2%, have a strong desire to work in the teaching field after graduation. This constitutes a greater majority than their colleagues on programme B who agreed with them by 45.2% only. The figure also indicates that a considerable number of students on programme B would like to continue their higher studies after graduation, comprising 33.3%. This represents the second rank after those who would like to work in the teaching field. Although those desiring to continue higher studies after graduation constitute only 8.7% of respondents on programme A, coming second in rank, which is compatible with the percentage of those who desire to work in other government occupations.
Also 4.3% of the students on programme A stated that they wished to work in educational occupations other than teaching, as opposed to only 2.4% of their colleagues on programme B.

In sum, it is to be noted with interest that the majority of the students on the two programmes would prefer to work in teaching. It seems that the main factor encouraging them to choose teaching as a career is the high monthly salary in SA, compared to the lower salaries of other occupations, since the pay of the newly qualified teacher in the first year is almost over 1000 pounds, which is about 30% more than the average salary in most other professions.

Conclusion:

This chapter has dealt with the methodology followed in this study and presented some of background information. The approach was identified as descriptive-comparative. The instruments of investigation were defined as (a) questionnaires, (b) direct observation and (c) interviews. Validation of the structure and content of the instruments of investigation and the circumstances under which they were conducted was also discussed.

Next, the various subject samples involved in the study were presented. The backgrounds of the students and staff members were explained and compared. What emerged clearly from the data presented in this chapter is that most programme A students were aged 23, which suggests that their academic achievements were high
since they had followed the normal course of study without repeating the same class over. In contrast, programme B students were all 27 years of age or over and the majority of them (81%) were married. Such students also had to juggle the responsibilities of three tasks, that is those of teaching during the day time, studying during the evenings and those of marital life. It is not surprising that such a heavy working load produced generally negative impressions towards their preparation programmes.

As for the ages of the teaching staff on programme B, these were found to be lower than their counterparts on programme A; the former did not exceed the age of forty four, whereas the latter, in most cases were aged forty five or over. The data shows a degree of resistance to change and adherence to traditional teaching methods and curricula by a large proportion of programme A staff, perhaps due to their age.

When comparing teaching staff status, it can be observed that programme B members held only one of three academic ranks as: associate professor, assistant professor or lecturer, due to the relative late start of these programmes in the 1970s. Programme A’s teaching staff status, however, ranged from professor, assistant professor, and lecturer, to assistant lecturer (demonstrator) reflecting over forty years of teaching experience and promotion.

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9 In SA, all students who fail to achieve adequate exam results in pre-university studies are required to re-sit for exams the following year.
Another difference which emerged between the two programmes was the greater proportion of Saudi national staff members on programme B than on A. Although, generally speaking, no significant differences were observed in their overall responses to the questionnaires, non-Saudis sometimes preferred to adopt neutral positions and so a larger number of "don't knows" were recorded in their replies.

On the other hand, among the strongest similarities between the student backgrounds on both programmes, A & B, is that the majority of candidates joined the programmes with high distinctions (i.e. 'very good' pass remarks) in their final qualification, which is a positive indication that the authorities were deliberately aiming to raise the standards and admission requirements for such programmes in accordance with the recommendations of international conferences relative to the preparation of teachers.

The data also shows that a high percentage of teaching staff on both programmes had taken part in a number of conferences and symposia in their field of speciality, a fact that appears to have contributed to their being keener to cooperate with the researcher. Attendance of such forums may also explain why their views were in some cases severe with respect to programme standards.

Finally, the greatest similarity between the two programmes is evident in the percentage of teaching staff with previous experience in
general education teaching (pre-university). Thus, 50.10% of programme A staff stated that they had worked in teaching prior to their university education. Similarly, 50% of programme B teachers claimed to have been employed in either primary or secondary education before being appointed their university teaching posts.
CHAPTER FIVE

A GENERAL COMPARISON BETWEEN TPPA & TPPB

Introduction

A comparative description and analysis of the main elements of programmes A and B are presented in this chapter. The course descriptions are based on three main sources:

i) course prospectuses and unpublished official documents;

ii) interviews with some relevant academic authorities and a random number of teaching staff and students; and,

iii) practical observations.

5.1 THE GENERAL AIMS OF THE TWO PROGRAMMES

5.1.1 The Aims of Programme A:

The following are the stated aims of the programme:

1. educating specialists in the Arabic language and literature;

2. developing students' ability to compose poetry and prose in order to enrich the literary movement in the country; and,

3. preparing Arabic language teachers to teach primarily in intermediate and secondary schools.¹

5.1.2 The Aims of Programme B:

The programme defines its aims as follows:

1. to prepare Saudi Arabian nationals for the teaching of Arabic as a foreign language in SA and abroad;  

2. to qualify Muslim candidates on government grants as competent TAFL teachers; and,  

3. to provide assistance for Islamic education establishments abroad in the preparation of high quality TAFL teachers and curriculum matters.

When comparing the general aims of the two programmes above, it is obvious that the emphasis on programme A is plainly on the preparation of specialists in the Arabic language and literature, with TANL teacher preparation coming third in order of importance.

In contrast, TAFL teacher preparation is unquestionably the primary aim on programme B, with due focus on the professional development of the candidates. Applicants to the latter course are expected to be proficient in Arabic language skills on entrance, while their counterparts on programme A are expected to acquire those skills during the course of their studies.

It is evident that the aims of both programmes are too general and lack specificity as to how they are to be achieved. To the best of the

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2 In the form of cultural assistance.

3 A large number of foreign students on programme B receive a full grant from the Saudi Arabian Government until they graduate (much the same as British Council sponsored students in the UK).

4 The Faculty of Arabic Language at IMSIU does not consider this as a condition and does not specify the percentage or the average pass mark that the applicant should obtain.
researcher’s knowledge, there are no detailed ancillary objectives available which clarify the interpretation of such abstract goals. Thus, it is easy to understand the difficulties experienced by programme planners when attempting to set programme content and curricula and the impracticability of measuring or evaluating their effectiveness.

Another implication resulting from such broad and unspecific aims is that a number of educational activities which presently exist in the implementation of the programme aims is not incorporated in the set goals, such as research on programme A, and a heavy concentration on Islamic culture and religious subjects.

In addition, since the largest proportion of graduates on this programme go into teaching (see Figure 4.13), there is perhaps a case for redefining programme A’s priorities so as to give teacher preparation the primary concern it deserves. Regarding programme B, the target level of instruction is left unidentified, whereas on programme A, it is explicitly spelt out that students graduating from the programme are intended for intermediate and secondary teaching.

5.2 COURSE ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

To be admitted onto programme A, a student must be in possession of a General Secondary Certificate or its equivalent, and must also pass an interview. Candidates applying for admission into the Department of the Arabic Language at the Faculty of Arts in Riyadh must have a 75% exam pass or above in Arabic language subjects at the
secondary school stage. Final admission is conditional on the applicant's nationality, with the priority being given to Saudi Arabian nationals.

In contrast, the admission requirements for programme B are that the applicant should hold a BA in Arabic, education or Islamic studies with a minimum of at least 'good' in their exam results. In addition, the candidate must show evidence of adequate competence in the Arabic language, particularly if Arabic is not their mother tongue. A test is usually administered to verify this.

Lastly, the Arabic Language Institute at KSU adds to these conditions that applicants should also know another foreign language besides Arabic, preferably English, and that they should not be more than forty-five years old.

An analysis of the admission requirements for the two programmes revealed the following characteristics:

1. The two programmes are similar in that they both require applicants to pass an interview, but they differ in the extent to which they rely on it for a final decision concerning the applicant's suitability.

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5 The Faculty of Arabic Language at IMSIU does not consider this as a condition and does not specify the percentage or the average pass mark that the applicant should obtain.

6 The programme at the Institute for Teaching Arabic at IMSIU differs from the Institute of KSU on this condition as it is required that the average pass mark should not be less than 'very good'.

7 This condition only applies to candidates from the Institute for Teaching Arabic at IMSIU.
2. On programme B, the lowest entry requirement onto the course is a division one university degree, i.e. at least a BA, whereas only a General Secondary Certificate or its equivalent is required for admission onto programme A.

3. Programme B is more flexible and is more open to applicants from other nationalities. This is clearly due to the educational authorities’ keenness to propagate the Arabic language and Islamic culture. Unlike programme B, programme A is inflexible and rigid when it comes to accepting non-Saudi Arabian students, save in exceptional circumstances, such as when the student is on a scholarship or is a legal and permanent resident in SA at the time of application. Even so, the number of such students is very limited and constitutes only a small percentage of the overall number of students on programme A, as was pointed out in Chapter Four (see Figure 4.5).

On the whole, programme A is less demanding in terms of the applicants’ educational characteristics before admission onto the course, despite the relatively recent shift towards higher selective criteria.

4. On programme B, particularly at the Institute of KSU, it is a condition that applicants should know a foreign language, preferably English. There is no such condition on programme A.

5. On programme B, particularly at the Institute for Teaching Arabic at IMSIU, applicants over forty-five years of age are not admitted onto the course, whereas on programme A, no such condition exists.
6. As programme A can be taken on a part-time basis, female candidates have an opportunity to join the course. However, on programme B, no such provision exists, thereby technically making it difficult for women to enrol on the course as they probably have too many domestic commitments to attend on a full-time basis.

The general observation that can be made about the points just outlined is that on both programmes A and B, there is a deliberate policy of attracting more outstanding candidates in order to ensure better teacher education and to produce more competent teachers.

5.3 CURRICULUM PLANNING, DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

Course designers on both programmes A and B distinguish four main aspects in the preparation of teachers: specialist knowledge, cultural and professional aspects and teaching practice (TP). The specialist course objectives are determined by the Arabic Department Committee itself and are then ratified by the faculty or institute and the university councils. Implementation is carried out by teaching staff from the same department. The cultural angle and content are usually set and taught by the departments of Islamic culture at the two universities.

Finally, both the professional and teaching practice components for programme A, are taken on by the education department at these universities. For programme B, they are offered within the same department.
5.4 TEACHER EDUCATION COMPONENTS

Efficient teacher preparation is defined in this study as a compound of four elements:

i. general education and cultural knowledge;

ii. specialist knowledge, i.e. subject matter knowledge;

iii. professional knowledge, i.e. the systematic knowledge of teaching and learning theories; and,

iv. teaching practice.

The distribution of emphasis in terms of teaching hours devoted to each component in the teacher preparation of TANL and TAFL is illustrated in Figure 5.1 below:

![Figure 5.1](#)

Figure 5.1 Percentage distribution of the total teaching hours among the four major teacher education components on both programmes A & B.

Figure 5.1 shows that a very large portion of the ALTPPs is dedicated to the teaching of specialist subjects on both programmes A
and B, which conforms with the recommendations of the Symposium of Arabic Language Teaching Experts for the Research and Development Preparation Programmes in Arab countries (ALECSO, 1977: 15-16). However, this emphasis exceeds the requirement (50-55%) by approximately 15-20% on programme A at the expense of professional subjects and teaching practice (TP), which are underrated by about 9-12% and 10-13% respectively. As for cultural subjects, their representation (25%) on the programme is about right.

Turning to programme B’s second priority, we find that the professional subjects are overemphasised by about 23-26% to the detriment of the cultural component and teaching practice (TP), which are in percentage terms about 11-16% and 10-13% short of ALECSO’s recommended target. The next section tackles each component separately and in detail.

5.4.1 General Education and Cultural Knowledge:

Due to their role as educators, teachers must ideally possess a large body of general knowledge and cultural understanding. General knowledge is defined by Pearson (1989: 104) as the following:

"That knowledge a person has of the world in an undifferentiated, non-specific way. It is the knowledge that one has as a result of living in the world; it is comprised of the information and skills that one acquires in order to live as a reasonably competent and informed person in society. It would include such things as a knowledge of current affairs in one’s society, a knowledge of and the ability to function in one’s economic system, and an acquaintance with the stories, myths, literature or artistic traditions of one’s society."
In addition, teachers must possess the ability to process information, think critically and effectively and be able to discriminate among values. They must also be able to understand and communicate relevant cultural and historical judgements.

Apart from general knowledge, language teachers must be thoroughly conversant in all aspects of the culture of the language they are teaching. As language is rooted in the culture of the people who speak it, it is imperative that prospective language teachers are made aware of the intimate relationship between a language and its culture as meanings expressed in a language are to a large extent culturally determined (Lado, 1964: 9). Hannerz (1973: 237) expresses the view that "... language is at the same time a cultural phenomenon and the major medium of cultural expression", while Takashima (1987: 25) states that a "... language is so mingled with its culture, and vice versa, that it seems difficult to separate them".

Similarly, Applegate (1975:271) acknowledges the strong link between language and culture emphasising that "... communication can only be effective when the student is also sensitive to the social and cultural aspects of language use and how these differ between his first and second language". Therefore, teaching a language necessarily involves the transmission of information about both the language and the culture.

Mindful of the importance of this component, programmes A and B incorporate the following relevant course subjects which are detailed in Table 5.1:
Table 5.1 The Cultural Component Course’s Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TPPA’s Cultural Subjects</th>
<th>TPPB’s Cultural Subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-The Holy Qur’an</td>
<td>-Islamic Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Qur’anic Commentary</td>
<td>-Research and Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Islamic Culture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Islamic Theology (Hadith)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-The Arabic Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Research &amp; Resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated above, from a quantitative point of view, programme A adequately meets ALECSO’S requirements with respect to the cultural component of ALTPP (see above). Indeed, it offers no less than seven relevant subjects on general culture, including knowledge of an international language (English). Also evident is the fact that four out of seven of the subjects contain a heavy religious content.

However, according to Al Othaim’s criteria for TANL teacher preparation programmes, programme A ought to include four additional subjects in order to be efficient: the History and Civilisation of Islam; Political Systems and Institutions; Principles of Administration and Management; and Information Technology (Al Othaim, 1993: 108-118).

In comparison, programme B falls short of ALECSO’s recommendations by more than half the required teaching hours (9%
versus 20-25%). Only two general education and cultural subjects are offered: Islamic Culture and Research and Resources. To comply with Bashir and Madkour's criteria for a good TAFL teacher preparation programme, programme B would have to include four other courses: Islamic History and Heritage; Arab Nations and their Social Systems; Selected Studies of Foreign Civilisations and Cultures; and, a Foreign Language (Madkour, 1985:12; and Bashir, 1985: 289).

5.4.2 Specialist Knowledge:

Specialist or 'subject matter knowledge' is the backbone of all language teacher preparation programmes. It is a vital ingredient of the knowledge base that teachers refer to in the course of their teaching and, without it, teaching is defective and inefficient. Therefore, teaching is enhanced by a high level of subject matter knowledge: the more a teacher knows, the more s/he can teach and assist the students in their learning (Pearson, 1989: 133-138).

Looking at Figure 5.1, one can hardly fail to notice that by far the largest share in the distribution of the total teaching hours on both programmes A and B is taken up by specialist subjects, that is 70% and 51% respectively (see Figure 5.1). On the next page is Table 5.2 which lists the course subjects offered under this component for both programmes:
Table 5.2 The Specialist Component Course’s Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TPPA’s Specialist Subjects</th>
<th>TPPB’s Specialist Subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Arabic Grammar</td>
<td>-Syntax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Arabic Morphology</td>
<td>-General Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Advanced Reading Skills and literary texts</td>
<td>-Arabic Phonology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Arabic Rhetoric</td>
<td>-Contrastive &amp; Error Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-History of Arabic Literature</td>
<td>-Psycholinguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Literary Criticism</td>
<td>-Sociolinguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Philology (Fiqh al-lughah)</td>
<td>-Semantics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Prosody</td>
<td>-Lexicography</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When comparing the two lists above, the first thing that strikes the eye is that they have nothing in common, except numerically (8 subjects each). However, TPPA, which claims to primarily prepare language specialists, (teacher preparation ranking third in its aims, see Figure 5.1) appears to be greatly preoccupied with subject matter content and form, its mechanics, and other matters of expertise, such as, stylistic skills and competence, aesthetic and literary appreciation and grammatical correctness. Collectively, they are dominated by a cognitive character, where mastery of the rules that govern the structure of the language is central.

A further look at the course subjects under the specialist component for TPPA reveals that specialist language courses are given

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9 Source: Unpublished departmental document for course planning at the Faculty of Arabic Language, the Arabic Department at the Faculty of Arts, the Teachers’ Preparation Unit at the Institute of KSU, and the Department for Qualifying Teachers at the Institute of IMSIU.
almost the same weight as the literature courses, both numerically (four subjects each) and in terms of time allocation (49 hrs vs. 55 hrs, respectively).

Contrastively, TPPB's specialist component is comprised exclusively of linguistic-related course subjects. Developing the language skills of the learners, particularly those of prospective teachers whose mother-tongue is not Arabic, is ignored. TPPB's relatively new status partly accounts for its 'progressive' character.

The desire to emulate and benefit from world-wide successes in applied linguistics-based foreign language teaching, especially EFL courses, has undoubtedly played a major part in shaping up the framework of programme B. Whatever the reasons may be, the advantage of TPPB is that there is complete congruity between the programme's target goals (preparing TAFL teachers) and its final outcome (the graduation of prospective teachers).

For all the above reasons, linguistic disciplines occupy a central place in this component. This means that in line with modern applied linguistic trends, TPPB looks at language as a system of communication and a multidimensional living entity in which teacher education is not only concerned with the learning and transmission of the mechanics and structures of language but, also and possibly more importantly, with the communicative functions of the language.
The rationale behind the heavy dose in linguistic subjects under this component for TPPB is based on the belief that there is much to be gained by prospective teachers if their specialist knowledge contains insights into the linguistic sciences. Thus, if a teacher is aware of the psychological dimension of the language, s/he will pay due attention to the learner's development of language skills. If s/he is aware of the sociological dimension of language s/he will, "... strive to go beyond grammatical correctness and develop the learners' ability to produce culturally appropriate forms and increase his level of cultural sensitivity ... and ... the norms of appropriateness." (Elgibali & Taha, 1995: 94). Also, a solid background in contrastive linguistics and error analysis will enable the teacher to devise useful strategies for dealing with language problems, diagnosing students' errors and establishing effective strategies for correcting them, etc.

The potential value of linguistics and its sub-areas for teaching is virtually unlimited, despite the sceptics' views whom Carter (1982:1) repudiates by stating that, linguistics does not claim "... a one-to-one correspondence between the analysis of linguistic facts and the solution of educational and learning problems."

To round off this section, it is informative to look at Al Tu'mah's division of the specialist component in Arabic language teacher education. His model is firmly rooted in linguistic theory and applied linguistics, as can be seen in a summary of his views on this subject below. To him, the fundamental constituents necessary for the Arabic language teacher are the following ones:
1. **The Arabic Language**: this consists of a command of the four language skills, and a grasp of the literary and cultural heritage of the language.

2. **General Theoretical Linguistics**: this comprises general linguistic studies, descriptive linguistics, theories of the mother tongue/national languages and second languages, and sociolinguistics.

3. **Applied Linguistics**: this includes, among other subjects, language learning, contrastive linguistics, error analysis, and guidance in the evaluation and selection of textbooks and other teaching materials, (Al Tu'mah, 1984: 26).

   Based on Al Tu'mah's categorisation, TPPA only fulfils the first requirement of the specialist teacher's preparation and, in a small measure, that of the second constituent (philology). On the other hand, TPPB largely meets the specifications of the second and third constituents, but not the first.

4. **5.4.3 Professional Education:**

   General education and specialist information form an essential and integral part of the professional knowledge base of a teacher. Without them, a teacher lacks the skill to transfer knowledge to his students. Yet, restricting teacher preparation to a focus on those two components alone is decidedly insufficient for the wholesome development of teaching competence in modern times.
Teaching has, historically speaking, only recently turned from a craft acquired through apprenticeship into a genuine profession based on scientific foundations (McFarland, 1973: vii). Developments in many areas of knowledge such as psychology, sociology, educational theory and applied linguistics have made an enormous contribution to our understanding and edification of the role of the teacher as a conveyer of knowledge and an educator. The accumulation of insights from such disciplines is encapsulated in the theoretical aspect of what is referred to as the professional component of teacher preparation.

A glance at Figure 5.1, which shows the percentage distribution of the total teaching hours among the four component parts of teacher preparation as defined in this study, indicates that professional knowledge subjects are the second most important consideration in TPPB (38%) after specialist subjects.

Astonishingly, TPPA's attention to professional knowledge is limited to a mere 3.2%. Table 5.3 on the next page displays a list of the course subjects offered under this component for both programmes:
Table 5.3 The Professional Component Course's Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TPPA’s Professional Subjects</th>
<th>TPPB’s Professional Subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Education Theory</td>
<td>-TAFL Methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Psychology</td>
<td>-Learning Arabic as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Teaching Aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Language Testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Problems of TAFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Principles of Textbook Design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Principles of Curriculum Design for TAFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Methods of Teaching Religious Disciplines</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two course lists above show a striking difference between the two TPPs: TPPB’s strong commitment to the professional preparation of teacher trainees is evident, while TPPA’s meagre concern with it is also plain in the number of courses assigned to this area, i.e. two subjects only.

Looking at TPPB, one can only speculate that the rationale behind such a high concentration of professional subjects is motivated by a belief in the infusion of a heavy dose of accumulated knowledge pertaining to the professional aspects of teacher education onto the programmes to ensure that teacher trainees are professionally well-

\(^{10}\) Source: Unpublished departmental document for course planning at the Faculty of Arabic Language, the Arabic Department at the Faculty of Arts, the Teachers’ Preparation Unit at the Institute of KSU, and the Department for Qualifying Teachers at the Institute of IMSIU.
equipped before joining the practice. This is, as indicated before, in marked contrast with TPPA’s model whose approach seems to be that teachers’ professional qualities and skills are not—as some believe—acquired in pre-service preparation, but ‘on the job’ or by immersion.\textsuperscript{11}

The latter view is not unique. In fact, it is representative of a whole school of thought united under the “swim or sink” dictum. Its advocates maintain that while teacher trainees should have an introduction to some general teaching strategies, they can only build up their skills by on-the-job experience. Davies & Ferguson (1997: 52-53), for example, report that experienced teachers who feel fully competent in professional skills have argued that such skills are not easily acquired within TPPs and that while these are serious gaps in teacher preparation programmes, they could not think of a better way to approach the problem.

They concluded that this was part of teacher preparation which could only be learned by actually ‘doing it’ (Davies & Ferguson, ibid.). Others have also stated that much of their professional competence is picked up from their own teachers and colleagues who themselves learnt how to deal with classroom realities ‘on the job’. This view is also shared by Crookes (1997: 73) who states that “… how teachers are taught and how they are trained has important effects on how they teach”. Also, “… it is certainly

\textsuperscript{11} A view expressed by the Dean of the Faculty of Arabic Language at IMSIU on 17 / 7 / 1995.
likely that how we operate as teachers will, in the absence of other pressures, be strongly affected by how we were taught as students.” (Ibid.)

The researcher agrees that all new teachers struggle to construct their own professional knowledge through trial and error, and he also believes that teachers accumulate and develop a great deal of knowledge in the classroom and mature with more experience and reflective thinking. However, it would be a mistake if we all adhered to a narrow view of the professional preparation of teachers which relies too heavily on the ‘on the job’ acquisition of professional competence, while remaining impervious to the many fast-growing developments in thinking and techniques in all aspects of teaching, in general, and in teacher preparation, in particular. Evidence in this research (Chapter Six) suggests that there is not much support among students on both programmes for the ‘swim or sink’ approach to their professional education.

One final point to be made about TPPA’s professional subjects is that the two subjects offered, education and psychology, are those which are known to have been traditionally included in ‘conservative’ teacher education programmes for many years and throughout most countries in the Arab World.

Unfortunately, an examination of the syllabuses revealed that even those two ‘professional subjects’ had little relevance for the teachers’ reality in the classroom, for school administration and human
relationships, for the role of the deputy head-teacher, for the concept of school leadership and its stereotypes, for the subjects of education, and for psychology, whose themes are often only remotely, if at all, relevant to the professional preparation of teachers, e.g. definitions of psychology, personal modes, intelligence, instincts, etc.

To return to TPPB, the situation here raises different questions altogether concerning aspects of teacher preparation. The list and nature of the subjects offered is impressive and shows an awareness of programme B's precise objectives and a commitment 'to deliver the goods' in line with the requirements and desired outcomes of the programme. Thus, efforts seem to be directed toward developing teaching skills and abilities that are directly and specifically relevant to issues connected with the teaching and learning of Arabic as a non-native language.

Once again, the influence of modern language teaching, particularly that of EFL, is manifest in the subjects included on the programme. Consideration is given to both the teacher whose role it is to facilitate learning, and to processes and problems involved for learners in acquiring and internalising knowledge. The aim is to provide prospective teachers with as much background information as possible so that they can make informed decisions about what to teach, how to teach it, etc.
The best judges of the effectiveness of TPPB’s professional component are the students and teaching staff. Evidence provided in the next chapter shows that the programme authorities and teaching staff’s efforts and dedication in designing and implementing this part of the TPP meet with the students’ unquestionable approval.

Nevertheless, mention was made by the students of an imbalance between theory and practice in the delivery of the courses. This appropriately brings us to a discussion of the fourth and last component of the Arabic language teacher preparation programmes considered, namely teaching practice.

5.4.4 Teaching Practice:

Gower, et. al. (1995: v) describe teaching practice (TP) in general terms as, "... a situation in which a teacher in training teaches a group of students under supervision", while McFarland (1973: 3) defines it as, "... what student teachers do when they go into schools to teach groups of children for limited periods of time under the professional guidance of the regular teachers and of college or university tutors." TP is consistently rated by teachers, prior to and after their graduation, as the most salient experience in their professional preparation (Peck & Tucker, 1973: 940). Students see it as a rewarding experience because it provides them with an opportunity to work with young learners and the chance to try out ideas and theories in a practical situation (McFarland, ibid.: 21).
Research evidence indicates that the new trend in teacher preparation is to accord a much greater proportion of time for teacher trainees to spend in co-operating establishments (schools, institutes, etc.). In fact, as Shaw (1992: 24) reports, trainees frequently regard TP as more useful and more relevant than the input they receive in their own teacher preparation institution itself. This is not surprising because the whole purpose of teacher education is to equip the trainees with a knowledge base embracing all the three components previously discussed and enable them to use it in a real teaching situation. TP is, therefore, an essential part of teacher education. The discussion about TP will be mostly confined to the ‘school experience’, although some mention of other alternative forms of TP will be briefly made later.

The provision of actual TP for both TPPA (1.8%) and TPPB (2%) is very poor, as pointed out previously, and both are underrepresented by approximately 4/5 of the recommended percentage time for this component, according to ALECSO (1977: 15-16).

For both TPPA and TPPB, TP takes the following forms: (a) short term classroom teaching observation in local state establishments (mostly in intermediate schools for A and language institutes for B) in small groups; (b) actual teaching, the latter in point of fact amounting to usually two to three sessions only.\(^{12}\)

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\(^{12}\) With the exception of the Arabic Language Institute programme at KSU, which comprises six sessions on average.
Trainees are not, as one might anticipate, gradually introduced to teaching through a period of guided practice with a student taking increased responsibility for the work of a group of learners. Instead, they are expected to take the full plunge and present at best three lessons for a whole classroom of no less than thirty students with little guidance from the host teacher, particularly for TPPA students, and virtually no co-ordination with the higher education institution (HEI) nor any direct link with the theoretical component of their course.

Supervision for TPPA is carried out by an externally appointed staff member from the Department of Education who is usually not intimately involved in the students' progress and who, because of the large number of students under his supervision, is unable to offer adequate or sufficient evaluation for each individual student.

In contrast, supervision for TPPB is implemented by the students' own course tutor. This has an advantage over TPPA, as the students enjoy a better relationship with the supervisor who is more knowledgeable about their abilities and progress. Support and help are general in nature and restricted to a number of teaching points, techniques and materials. The development of a student’s initiative and personal skills is not considered due to a shortage of time.

Strangely enough, the supervisor himself is noted to be frequently absent from the TPPA practice sessions until the assessment period. Trainee teachers also reported to the researcher that a number of host
teachers occasionally escaped to do other tasks, only returning at the end of the lesson to ask how things had gone. However, this is by no means the rule, as others were full of praise for their host teachers who gave them much support and advice and spent valuable time with them despite their other commitments. Still, consistent quality supervision is lacking on both programmes.

Assessment of students’ TP performance for both programmes is entirely the responsibility of the HEI with the actual final pass or fail decision being the sole province of the HEI tutor. This is patently a mistake that probably accounts for the pervasive disinterest and detachment shown by many participating teachers who feel their efforts and views are not valued enough to require a greater involvement on their part.

The general picture that transpires from the presentation above regarding the place and character of TP on TPPA and TPPB is a rather dismal one: neither quality nor quantity are anywhere near a satisfactory level. Existing opportunities for TP are either not fully exploited or misused and the narrow definition of TP in the minds of the staff, as well as their apparent apathy is, to say the least, incomprehensible.

Well-informed teachers know that TP can take various forms and should include a wide range of different circumstances and experiences. It could, for example, begin with simulated and small group experiences

13 Claims based on interviews with a number of TPPA students on 18 / 6 / 1995.
(micro-teaching) that are independent of school settings, the advantage being that the students and teachers would feel free to test out, interrupt and resume given exercises whenever necessary and proceed with an evaluation immediately following their performance.

The use of live or videotaped demonstration lessons could also form the basis of analytical discussions and reflection. Peer teaching is also an ideal ground for pressure-free experimentation. From there, the students could then move on to more traditional students teaching experiences. This would involve limited teaching in a school under the relatively close supervision of the classroom teacher and/or the supervisor (Pearson, 1989: 142-152) and (Gower, et. al., 1995: 1-7).

Classroom teaching observation is a valuable and integral part of TP. Part of it takes place as a result of the students observing their own teachers but, for the purpose of variety, the students should be exposed to a selection of experienced practitioners in the capacity of guest speakers, for example, in order to have a glimpse at good classroom practice and to serve as models to emulate.

As for the character and quality of TP, these can certainly be enhanced by an injection of enthusiasm, professional commitment and ingenuity. The model of TP experienced by TPPA & TPPB trainees, as observed and described to the researcher by a number of people concerned with it, appears to be severely deficient and ineffective, and the tendency is for subordination to existing routines and conformity,
rather than openness and innovation. It offers no scope for the dynamic and reflective process that teaching could and should be (Pearson, ibid.: 133) and (McFarland, 1973: 1).

Pearson (Ibid.:150-152) recommends that TP should not be rehearsed in such a way as to be limited to doing what is safe and expected, or to demonstrating that certain skills have been mastered. Instead, he advises that it should be more exploratory and adventurous. We are told to view it as ‘a laboratory experience’ where ideas are tried out, hypotheses tested, and outcomes are observed, analysed and reflected upon.

TP is all the more important because it provides prospective teachers with the chance to practise the skills they have learned and put their theories to the test. It offers new knowledge that focuses on what can be learned when one tries to put one’s knowledge base into practice. This involves looking beyond the surface of classroom experience and developing a deeper and more principled understanding of the process of teaching (Lyle, 1996: 5). Thinking and acting rationally in the context of TP are desirable qualities for a good teacher.

Good teachers must also be “...those who bring their potentialities relevantly to bear on their teaching tasks” (McFarland, 1973: 5). This necessarily includes the conceptual understanding that they have gained in their theoretical or professional preparation. Implied in what has just been
mentioned is the need for making links between theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge.

Theoretical knowledge is the one commodity that is not in short supply on TPPB, in particular. There is, indeed, far too much of it and not enough practical application in most course subjects (as will be revealed in the students’ reactions in Chapter Six). But most of all, there seems to be a general consensus among teaching staff and students that there is an unacceptable gulf between the theoretical input afforded by HEIs and the actual classroom skills and knowledge needed to cope with the practical aspects of classroom teaching.

During conversations with the students on both programmes TPPA and TPPB, it became apparent that many of them felt both ill-prepared for the situations that faced them in the classroom and exasperated with what they saw as the irrelevance of much of the course work that constituted the so-called ‘disciplines of education’ (sociology, psychology, etc.) to the challenges of teaching practice.14

There is nothing new in this phenomenon. In fact, issues concerning the balance between theory and practice in teacher education is almost a universal one. In Britain, for instance, during the educational debate of the past two decades, all the ills in teacher preparation and falling standards in education were attributed to an

14 Based on interviews with a number of TPPA students on 18 / 6 / 1995 and with TPPB students on 25 / 6 / 1995.
overemphasis on theory and on the irrelevance of much of the content of teacher education courses (Lawlor, quoted in Cashdan; 1990:214). Blame was levelled at the HEIs, whose programmes were deemed too abstract and too distant from the world of the practitioner and of no practical value. There was a plea for theory to be directly relevant to practice and for priority in teacher education for those areas where theory and practice come most closely together. Gone were the days when it was sufficient for theorists and teacher educators to declare to prospective teachers that they would see the relevance of the theoretical background of their preparation later when they had been teaching for some time.

Getting the balance right between theory and practice was, and still is, seen as the key to better and more efficient teacher preparation and teaching standards. The way to achieve this was, '...to give the practical side of teacher preparation greater weight', (Shaw, 1992: 10) through strengthening the links between HEIs and schools, removing the monopoly from HEIs in teacher education and significantly increasing TP.

Thus, a range of government initiatives were taken and 'partnerships' between schools and HEIs were initially encouraged, which soon became mandatory, signalling the beginning of what was to become the gradual transfer of teacher preparation to schools and the

The desire to shift the balance from the theoretical to the practical by maximising schools' involvement in course planning and delivery in initial teacher preparation in Britain, and the relative success with which the new PGCE has so far met, raises our awareness of the fundamental importance of the practical aspect of teacher preparation in SA. That is, the importance of TP and the need to work more closely with those establishments which are, after all, at the receiving end of the outcome of all the efforts of HEIs, namely schools.

If the planning authorities are to improve the professional competence of Arabic language teachers for TPPA and TPPB in SA, reform efforts must be directed at tackling the issue of raising the level of TP at least to the recommended 10% by ALECSO (1977: 16). A good way of giving TP the prominence and consideration it deserves is to devote a full term exclusively to it, as is in fact the practice in some higher education departments in SA.

5.5 TEACHING METHODS

Observation of a large number of teaching sessions indicated that the methods used for teaching on both programmes relied predominantly

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15 The Articleed Teacher Scheme, a two year teacher preparation programme, approximately 60-80% of which is to be spent in school; and the Licensed Teacher Scheme for mature entrants trained 'on the job' for shortage subjects. Both were intended as a challenge to the old B.Ed and PGCE. Source: Shaw (1992: 11), Elderkin (1992:16), Allsop and Hagger (1993: 102), Haggarty (1995: 38), Williams (1995: 35) and Blake, et. al. (1996: 23).
on old fashioned teaching styles and lacked elements of creativity. Lectures of an oratory character were more dominant on programme A, where an audience of 60+ students was not uncommon. In contrast, programme B audiences seldom exceeded 10 - 25 students.

The teaching approach was noted to be for the most part teacher-orientated in which the learner was a passive recipient with little opportunity for challenge and discussion. Seminars were not followed by consolidation in small group tutorials and, as a result, incomplete or poor learning sometimes prevailed. Individual differences among the students also appeared to be overlooked. What needs to be encouraged here is critical thinking, small group teaching, workshops and activities or micro-teaching.

5.6 TEACHING AIDS

The widespread use of audio-visual teaching aids in modern teaching requires that, ideally, all new teachers should be able to make use of them confidently and competently by the end of their preparation. Properly used, teaching aids such as OHPs, slide projectors, videos, etc. not only stimulate and maintain interest by reason of involving more of our senses, but they also break routine and boredom and can be time-saving devices for teachers during lessons.

Kemp (1986: 6) examined the main benefits to be derived from teaching aids in general, and from audio-visual aids in particular, and suggested that their main contributions in meeting teaching goals are:
"1. increasing the rate of learning at the same time as freeing the teacher to use more time on gainful activities;

2. individualising education, alternative paths and a variety of resources are provided, thus enabling learning to take place at the learner pace;

3. learning becomes real and immediate. The two worlds within and outside the classroom, are bridged;

4. making access to education more equal for all learners; equipment could be moved at any place over any distance; and,

5. giving instructions a more scientific base through providing a framework for systematic instructional planning."

Moreover, Alan and Howard (1988: 9) indicated that: "Sound and vision, together with a great ability to persuade and inspire an audience... (so) millions of people around the world can witness all kinds of events because of the power of A/V (audio-visual)."

Despite the obvious benefits that can be gained from the use of such aids in Arabic language teaching, particularly in the teaching of Arabic for speakers of other languages, teaching staff members of both programmes rarely -if at all- use them, even when adequately equipped audio-visual centres exist within their establishment.¹⁶ This is possibly due to the fact that they are ill prepared, suffer from technophobia, or lack the motivation to develop their own teaching materials for use in

¹⁶ Evidence from direct class teaching observation showed that only three teachers on programme A used other educational aids, such as the OHP, and of all the teachers observed on the two programmes, 78% of them only used the blackboard.
their classrooms. Student teachers who do not become familiar with the technology are unlikely to use it in the future.

During teaching observation it was noted that despite the availability of computer equipment for use by the staff, be it limited, none of them actually made use of it throughout the observation period. This, in the researcher's view, reflects a disturbing level of negligence of a useful teaching aid which is considered as an essential teaching tool at the dawn of the twenty-first century. Computers, according to Ur (1995: 190), are seen by many as an important teaching as well as learning aid. Students these days, are expected to be 'computer literate' if they are to take full advantage of the infinite resources and latest state of the art knowledge available to them at the touch of a button, for example through the 'Multimedia Internet'.

Moreover, as pointed out by Castling (1996: 59), the increase in the degree of interaction attainable through computers today, has opened up various learning opportunities, making the computer itself perform, to some extent, the functions of a tutor. Computer-assisted learning is now common practice in most educational institutions in the developed countries. Overlooking its importance in the preparation of future Arabic language teachers is a mistake.

17 This answer came to light during interviews with a random sample of the teaching staff which comprised five teachers from TPPA on 2/7/1995 and five teachers from TPPB on 9/7/1995.
5.7 THE STUDY SYSTEM

For both programmes A and B, the academic year is divided into two terms and each term consists of a minimum of sixteen weeks of study. The final two weeks being devoted to student assessments.

All students are required to sit comprehensive written tests which examine all the new knowledge covered during the term. Both programmes A and B insist on 75% attendance of the courses as a condition before allowing students to take the tests. Progression onto the next level is conditional on gaining satisfactory test results (60% pass or over).

Finally, programme A offers both full-time as well as part-time opportunities for study, while programme B offers only a full-time system of study.

5.8 EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Visits to libraries, research centres and sports venues, as well as participation in a wide range of other cultural and social activities such as poetry and literary contests, novel and essay writing and festival celebrations and other extra-curricular activities, are considered an integral part of the preparation of the Arabic language teacher. Their purpose is, ‘...to strengthen the relations between students and staff members and between the students themselves’.18 They also contribute

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to widening the cultural horizons of the students, their cultural and artistic talents and developing a positive learning atmosphere.

While observing the programmes, it became clear that adequate efforts were being made on programme A to implement a variety of activities, including group picnics, student meetings, open lectures and visits to libraries and research centres. No such activities were observed on programme B, particularly at the Institute for Teaching Arabic at IMSIU. Interviews with the Dean of the Institute and a number of students indicated that the reasons for such a deficiency were due to the fact that most programme B students were busy with their teaching duties during the day and study commitments in the evenings, making it virtually impossible for them to attend such activities. Students also complained that most activities were unsuitable for them because they ignored the particular interests of mature students. The researcher also noted a general low level of involvement and attendance at activities on the programme.

Among the reasons given was the fact that many such activities were planned and supervised by independent officials from the students' affairs deanships at the two universities and they did not take into account the specific characteristics and objectives of each individual faculty. Another shortcoming was the absence of identifiable aims or status relevant to these activities on the two programmes.

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19 The interview with the Dean of the Institute for Teaching Arabic at IMSIU was on 24/7/1995 and with five students at the same Institute on 25/6/1995.
Finally, interviews with some of the staff members and students revealed the widespread perception that extra-curricular activities were not essential and that they were marginal to their needs, thus reflecting an alarming degree of ignorance in this area.

5.9 STUDENT ASSESSMENT METHODS

Assessment refers to, ‘... the process by which we judge student learning’ or the procedures for ‘... measuring the extent to which students have achieved the objectives of a course’ (Nunan, 1994: 118). For both TPPA and TPPB, progress and achievement are measured by examinations at the end of each academic semester. Students must pass a comprehensive written test covering all subjects studied. The maximum marks for each course subject is 100: 80 for the end of term examination and 20 for coursework. The overall minimum pass mark is 60.

Teaching staff are allowed a degree of flexibility for the distribution of classwork marks. The 20 marks are mostly for a written test or for class participation, oral tests or essay writing.

Both exam papers and coursework questions are entirely set and marked by the subject tutor. Questions are predominantly of the essay-type and tend to reward the accumulation of factual knowledge and rote learning. Whether the system is perceived as an adequate and fair judgement of the students’ abilities and achievement is examined in the students’ reactions in the next chapter.
Finally, both programmes are subject to the same university regulation which requires a student's minimum attendance to be 75% of the total credit hours. Failing that, the student is not allowed to take the end of term tests.

5.10 PROGRAMME EVALUATION

The evaluation of the programmes and the teaching staff's performance is an essential dimension in teaching just as it is in any other academic endeavour. Unfortunately, this appears to be a much neglected area on both programmes A and B.

Officially, there is no co-ordinated effort to conduct basic research into course content, teaching methods or staff performance. It would appear, as stated verbally to the researcher, that the deans of the faculties and institutes involved in this study showed little interest in the value of regular assessments claiming that they were only carried out 'when the necessity arose', without being specific as to the precise circumstances that would call for such action.

However, during the interviews, a limited number of staff members recognised the importance of the evaluation process in identifying aspects of strengths and weaknesses in the system and in their own performance. A minority of them claimed that they usually conducted an end of term survey twice a year but the vast majority of staff members on both programmes stated their conviction that students'
achievements and exam results represented the best indicators of success or failure.²⁰

There is, of course, some truth in the latter statement. However, a truly objective programme evaluation necessitates the application of empirical research methods which are the result of accumulated experience, where all the relevant variables are considered concerning their impact on teacher preparation, where deficiencies are identified, recommendations are made, etc. The results could contribute to higher quality programmes, their better implementation and happier learning and working environments. Suggestions in this context include self-assessment through video filming, peer/colleague feedback and survey questionnaires.

5.11 TYPES OF TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMMES

TPPA operates under two distinct patterns: these are the concurrent system, in which professional studies are pursued over the whole period of the course, rather than separately at the end; and, the consecutive system, in which professional education is deferred to the end of the course and is taken optionally in a department of education.

In the Faculty of Arabic Language, the preparation of teachers of Arabic is accomplished through the concurrent pattern. Comparatively, in the Faculty of Arts at KSU, teacher preparation is run according to the

²⁰ This statement was reported during interviews with a random sample from the teaching staff members on 2/ 7/1995 and 9/ 7/1995.
consecutive system of study.

Graduates from both systems can go directly into teaching, although in the latter case, there are promotion and salary increase incentives for students to obtain a Diploma of Education before entering the teaching profession.

TPPB follows a concurrent system of teacher education. The main advantage of such a system is the programme’s ability to produce graduate teachers in a shorter period of time than the consecutive system, which requires an additional year for professional preparation.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the key elements and features of the two Arabic language programmes being compared in this study. An analysis of the general aims points to the need for more specific programme objectives and the necessity to reconsider and possibly redefine the target priorities of TPPA so as to give the aim of teacher preparation priority over the aims of language and research specialisations.

In reviewing the programme admission requirements, it was noted that TPPA’s increasing concern with improving the quality of its graduates had resulted in the implementation of a more rigorous selection procedure at the point of entry into university, while on TPPB,
the existing selective system of admission was already of a high quality and adequate.

The place of each of the four core components of teacher preparation was the next item examined. The comparison indicated that for both programmes, unequal weight was given to the four areas of knowledge. The most significant difference was TTPA's adherence to a traditional model which stressed language skills at the expense of professional education. TPPB, on the other hand, was much more concerned with the professional education of its students, with linguistic disciplines being central to the programme.

However, both programmes suffer from an over-reliance on the written word to the detriment of active oral communication. The predominance of theory over practice in teaching remains heavy throughout both courses. This theme was examined in some detail in the discussion about the issue of teaching practice and getting the balance right was identified as the most crucial issue. It was also suggested that theory should be firmly rooted in classroom reality and it was recommended that the level of TP should be raised to at least 10% to make it a fruitful and meaningful experience.

Attention was also focused on the nature of the prevailing teaching methods on both programmes. It was found that they were unashamedly old-fashioned and deficient in vitality and the use of teaching aids was judged to be minimal and unoriginal.
Next, when considering the assessment methods used on the two programmes, it was observed that they were predominantly exam-based and that questions in them were mostly of the essay-type where the rote memorisation of facts was encouraged and rewarded.

The discussion about the provision of extra-curricular activities showed that they were marked by an absence of clear guidelines and aims and that they were readily dismissed as marginal to the needs of the students.

Finally, the issue of programme evaluation was examined and it appeared that the authorities lacked knowledge and awareness of its value, relying solely on examination results to determine the success or failure of the programmes.
CHAPTER SIX

QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS, ANALYSES & DISCUSSION

-Introduction

In Chapter Five, the study reported a comparative description of the contents of programmes A and B. This chapter is a contrastive programme evaluation based on the attitudes of the teaching staff and student informants who responded to the questionnaire. The questions tackle various issues regarding the major aspects of strengths and weaknesses of the two programmes concerned.

6.1 ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAMMES WEAKNESSES

One major issue, which the study is attempting to find an answer for, concerns the weaknesses of the present programmes. Both teachers and students were asked their views on this question and an analysis of the responses produced the following results:

Figure 6.1 Teaching staff's opinions on whether programmes A & B contain weaknesses
Figure 6.1 above clearly demonstrates that almost half of all teachers are of the opinion that, on the whole, both programmes A and B suffer from a number of deficiencies, casting doubts about their suitability to produce appropriately qualified teachers. What is significant is that approximately a third of all teaching staff who responded positively to the question were prepared to identify specific areas of weaknesses (30.7%). The rest of them were either unable or unwilling to pinpoint precise areas of deficiency. Just under a quarter of the teachers on programme A (17.6%) and (23%) on programme B thought that the teacher preparation programmes were adequate. Further scrutiny of the responses revealed that out of the third of those teachers who chose to remain uncommitted (uncertain), 23% of them were non-Saudi Arabians. This raises questions about the degree of commitment and involvement that should be required from non-national teaching staff within the educational system in SA. When students were asked the same question, similar findings emerged from their replies:

![Bar chart showing students' opinions on programmes A & B weaknesses]

Figure 6.2 Students' opinions on whether programmes A & B contain weaknesses
As can be seen from the above figure, about half of the students on both programmes A & B expressed negative views about the teacher preparation programmes they were following. Of all the students questioned on programme A, 42.4% were able to be specific about the areas of weakness in question as opposed to 29% on programme B. Results also show that a higher proportion of students on programme B (35%) were either unsure or unwilling to take a clear stance on the question. Informal probing with the students indicated that the most likely explanation for such a level of uncertainty was a genuine absence of comparable courses against which standards and teaching methods and practices could be compared.

Generally, both students and teaching staff on programme A were far more outspoken and specific in their judgements about the programmes. Questions No. 31 and 32 aimed to pursue this issue in detail by asking both students and teachers to identify those academic aspects of their courses which, in their opinion, had not been satisfactorily covered by their preparation programmes.

Overall, it was found that their answers essentially centred around three main areas which related to student teachers' linguistic instruction, their professional development and cultural education. Table 6.1 on the following pages summarises the programmes weaknesses as singled out by the teachers involved in the study:
Table 6.1 Teaching staff’s perceived weaknesses on programmes A & B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME A</th>
<th>PROGRAMME B</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CATEGORY &amp; NATURE OF WEAKNESS:</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational &amp; Administrative</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– lecturing large numbers of students in one single hall.</td>
<td>– shortness of TP period.</td>
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<tr>
<td>– lack of well-planned schemes and subject co-ordination.</td>
<td>– TP restricted to an average of two weeks only.</td>
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<tr>
<td>– too short and crammed academic terms.</td>
<td>– over-reliance on fellow students as classroom audience in TP sessions.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Course contents &amp; structure</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– the excessive length of some courses.</td>
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<tr>
<td>– lack of depth and predominance of superficial and marginal matters over major issues.</td>
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<td>– emphasis on theoretical information with insufficient attention for aspects of application.</td>
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<td>– preponderance of non-specialised subject materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td>– concern with quantity more than quality.</td>
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<tr>
<td>– tendency to encourage rote learning rather than analytical thinking.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Students’ academic standards &amp; learning dispositions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>– poor linguistic competence prior to university entry.</td>
<td>– students lack of readiness to face the programme’s demands.</td>
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<tr>
<td>– lack of interest and readiness for serious study.</td>
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<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME A</td>
<td>PROGRAMME B</td>
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<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>- mental immaturity of some candidates.</td>
<td>- shortage of suitably qualified specialist teachers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- greater preoccupation with exam results than professional preparation.</td>
<td>- inexperience of some staff members in preparing teachers of TAFL.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- some students' lack of conviction about the significance of certain specialisation courses.</td>
<td>- lack of co-ordination with other courses in similar institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lack of incentives and encouragement for high achieving students.</td>
<td>- shortage of strong research in TAFL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Resources</strong></td>
<td>- uncertainty about attainment standards and evaluation methods in this new field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- scarcity of updated educational materials.</td>
<td>- absence of support and incentives for teachers towards research and publication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- shortage of educational aids.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Staff Competence</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>- lack of specialised teachers and low qualifications of some staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- lack of cohesion between programme content and contemporary state of knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- restriction of teaching staff freedom by programme authorities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- absence of support for teachers towards research and publication.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from Table 6.1 above, participant teachers' views are remarkably detailed and specific, which suggests that they can reasonably be relied upon as informed authorities on the subject under study. Attitudes towards programme A appear to show an alarming array of seemingly long-standing, deep-rooted issues and a strong desire for urgent practical solutions. The dissatisfaction with the programme is general and includes most aspects of the course, beginning with the allegedly archaic teaching methods used, the outdated teaching materials and resources as well as the failure of the system to modernise and create incentives and motivations for self-improvement and provide opportunities and means for the advancement and progress of the course.

There was also the all-too-familiar tendency of the respondents to appear in a good light and blame everyone -including other
colleagues- but themselves for the decline in standards and poor commitment on the part of both students and teachers.

Comments on programme B, on the other hand, were far fewer and mostly focused on the desire of all concerned with the course to catch up with modern methods and approaches used for teaching other international languages and applying them to the teaching of Arabic to non-native speakers. Some of the teachers questioned felt that one way to achieve this goal was through encouragement and support of teachers to conduct applied research in the field. The need to promote the importance of the course both locally and among other Arab nations was also emphasised. Awarding autonomous status and independent buildings for such a course was suggested as one way of ensuring progress. Finally, both programmes concur on the need for suitably qualified specialist teachers.

Student respondents, who were also given the opportunity to elaborate their answers for Question No. 31, pinpointed a variety of programme weaknesses condensed in Table 6.2 below:
Table 6.2  Students' perceived weaknesses on programme A & B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational &amp; Administrative</strong></td>
<td>- the intensive nature of the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lecture methods involving large numbers of students in one single hall.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- excessive time allocation for theoretical subject materials.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course content &amp; structure</strong></td>
<td>- shortness of the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- too much emphasis on theory to the detriment of practice and applications.</td>
<td>- obscurity of some course components and their objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lack of comprehensiveness, particularly in connection with the cultural components.</td>
<td>- excessive number of taught subjects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- lack of depth of some courses.</td>
<td>- poverty in cultural subjects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- shortness of the teaching practice period.</td>
<td>- absence of guidance for teaching the cultural aspect of the language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- emphasis on quantity rather than quality.</td>
<td>- shortness of the teaching practice period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- insufficient compatibility of curriculum content with contemporary civilisation and national reality.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching staff competence</strong></td>
<td>- shortage of fully qualified subject area specialists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- subject knowledge insecurity of some staff members.</td>
<td>- subject knowledge insecurity of some staff members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- some teachers' excessive reliance on personal notes and dictated summaries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME A</td>
<td>PROGRAMME B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– teachers’ inability/unwillingness to make use of modern teaching aids.</td>
<td>– restricted and uninspired use of audio-visual teaching aids.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– inattention to variations in students’ linguistic abilities and deficiencies.</td>
<td>– over-reliance on ineffective translations for course materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– overuse of colloquial Arabic during lectures.</td>
<td>– frequent and inappropriate use of spoken Arabic in teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning resources</strong></td>
<td><strong>Learning resources</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– shortage of specialist subject resources including research.</td>
<td>– severe deficiency in suitable specialist course materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– lack of self-study materials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment methods and progress monitoring</strong></td>
<td><strong>Assessment methods and progress monitoring</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– emphasis on rote learning during evaluation.</td>
<td>– tendency of examinations to test and encourage rote learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– undue attention focused on exams rather than individual achievement and progress.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous</strong></td>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– lack of co-ordination between the subjects.</td>
<td>– lack of clear direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– absence of incentives and encouragement for high-achieving students.</td>
<td>– lack of objective course evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– students-teacher status rigidity and communication difficulties.</td>
<td>– perceived failure of the course to produce well equipped and confident TAFL teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– lack of programme flexibility.</td>
<td>– university authorities’ minimal interest and support for the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– insufficient research and links with course progress and amelioration.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What emerges clearly from Table 6.2 above, which outlines the students' perceived programme weaknesses is the fact that there are striking resemblances between their views and those of the teaching staff.

The common theme throughout is a profound preoccupation with standards and the view that the aspiring student teachers are not receiving the quality of education that they need and deserve. There is concern over poor teaching and learning standards, an excessive emphasis on quantity rather than quality, too much theory and insufficient practice, as well as an undue focus on examinations as the sole form of assessment.

Curiously, however, from the students' viewpoint, most of the blame is laid at the door of the teaching and administrative staff. Lack of flexibility in terms of curriculum content, poor communication and the absence of initiative and will to change or improve the substance and methods of delivery of the courses were felt to be the underlying causes of all the difficulties the students were experiencing in their respective programmes, A and B.

Programme B students' main worries seemed to revolve essentially around the intensive nature of the course, its relative newness and the inexperience of some of its staff. Students expressed unreserved criticism about the authorities who had fallen short of making suitable provisions for their course in terms of professionally
qualified staff and teaching resources. They felt insecure and undervalued and feared that without proper grounding their qualification would not adequately prepare them for the practical task of classroom management and teaching.

In contrast, programme A students' dissatisfaction was mostly attributed to what was seen as an antiquated, inflexible and at times sterile system entrenched in stale teaching and learning styles, which had the effect of stifling the spirits of openness to the modern world and creativity.

Here again, but more so than on programme B, the students appeared unconvinced of the appropriateness and overall benefits of their course in preparing them for a teaching career. Indeed, one of their most serious complaints was what they perceived as the insufficient compatibility of the curriculum content with the contemporary age and national socio-economic and cultural reality of the country. There was almost a sense of conspiracy of neglect and apathy or fear of change. Blame was heavily attributed to the poor quality of some teachers, both from the points of view of professionalism and competence, but also to the nature of the course content itself which was seen as greatly lacking in 'freshness' and vitality. Student-teacher's status rigidity, the teacher-centred approach of instruction and the almost exclusive reliance on examination results as a form of assessment, all unsurprisingly contributed to feelings of alienation, resentment and to passive attitudes.
The foregoing presentation conveyed the extent of negative attitudes of both students and teaching staff towards some aspects of the courses they were involved in. In order to offer a balanced evaluation of the courses, the questionnaire equally sought to gauge the informants' judgements on the positive features of the teacher preparation programmes in question. Question No. 33 and 34, aimed at achieving this goal. Table 6.3 below is a comparison of the perceived strengths on programmes A and B as viewed by the teaching staff.

### 6.2 ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAMMES STRENGTHS

Table 6.3 Teaching staff's perceived strengths on programmes A & B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME A</th>
<th>PROGRAMME B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational &amp; administrative</strong></td>
<td>- flexibility of the course system designed to accommodate students' circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the four-year length of the course.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course content and structure</strong></td>
<td>- the rich variety in learning skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the attention given to classical Arabic works and references.</td>
<td>- the modern scientific approach to the nature of language and its structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the wide variety of sources.</td>
<td>- the initiation into modern methods of language teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the richness of the material presented</td>
<td>- the stimulation and heightened interest of a novel discipline in TAFL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the strength and comprehensiveness of the course subjects.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the accumulated wealth in teaching materials and course tradition.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the consideration given to Islamic heritage.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME A</td>
<td>PROGRAMME B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the availability of a wide range of books and other references.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the absence of the need to rely on notes and summaries as learning resources.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the good staff co-operation in academic matters.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the university authority's adequate support and funding of the course.</td>
<td>- the wealth and variety of cultural experiences brought into the course by teaching staff and students of various backgrounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the increasing popularity of the course.</td>
<td>- the programme's compatibility with developments in linguistics and efforts to apply new approaches into Arabic language teaching.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.3 above shows that despite the many reservations expressed previously, the teaching staff did not hesitate to acknowledge the existence of several positive aspects within their respective programmes. Indeed, 64% of all programme A staff informants were happy to do so. Only 11% were totally dissatisfied, and the remaining 25% preferred to adopt a neutral position on the question. What was remarkable was that their positive judgements mainly centred around the richness of the curriculum content and resources available, as well as the adequate support it received from the authorities. The particular attention paid to the Islamic heritage especially met with their approval.
In contrast, programme B staff were almost overwhelmingly unanimous in affirming that their programmes contained many strengths: 79% of them agreed with the suggestion, as opposed to 21% who chose "Uncertain" as an answer. Again, as on A, their satisfaction with the programme could be basically narrowed down to the one main area of 'curriculum content'. The staff appeared to view the modern nature of the course and its compatibility with contemporary knowledge very favourably. It was possibly the one single most important element which stimulated and sustained motivation and interest, despite the numerous difficulties discussed earlier. It is worth remembering that this strong aspect of programme B is precisely the fundamental deficiency which is arguably at the root of many weaknesses and much dissatisfactions on programme A.

Table 6.4 Students' perceived strengths on programmes A & B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME A</th>
<th>PROGRAMME B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational &amp; administrative</td>
<td>- the predominance of small group teaching arrangements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the authorities' determination and firmness in applying the set programme policies.</td>
<td>- the flexibility of the course system and willingness to accommodate to students' circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the implementation of strict rules of attendance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the resolute monitoring of students' progress.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME A</td>
<td>PROGRAMME B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course content and structure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the emphasis on specialist subjects.</td>
<td>- the chosen approach and foundation which is based on modern scientific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the richness and depth of the academic</td>
<td>theories of language and applied linguistics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>material embraced.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the value placed on Islamic heritage and</td>
<td>- the value placed on equipping the students with modern linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>values.</td>
<td>theories and descriptive terminology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the importance given to major classical</td>
<td>- the weight given to language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic works and references.</td>
<td>awareness and competence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the concern shown for improving the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students' language awareness and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the stress on enhancing the learners'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abilities for literary appreciation and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>criticism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the abundance and variety of learning</td>
<td>- the sound competence of some individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>materials available.</td>
<td>teaching staff members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the high quality and experience of some</td>
<td>- the fostering of an open and inquiring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching staff.</td>
<td>mind into the various learning and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teaching resources available world-wide.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the staff's beneficial input resulting from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>their knowledge of other languages and cultures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3 CURRICULUM CONTENT

This section examines whether the present curriculum adequately prepares students for their future teaching career:

More than half of the teaching staff on both programmes generally agreed that the set curricula currently offered are adequate for the preparation of Arabic language teachers, be it for native or non-native speakers, that is 54.4% for A and 60% for B. However, as far as the students are concerned a much wider gap was revealed in their views. Indeed, only 38.4% of programme A students' responses were favourable, while a much higher 52% of programme B students were in agreement with the statement.

On the face of it, confidence in the curriculum appears much higher among the teacher educators than among the students in general, although one must not lose sight of the fact that roughly 40% of all
informants suggested that there were areas of imperfection on the
programmes: a considerable proportion of unfavourable views that
cannot be ignored. The discrepancy could be attributed to fear of, or
resistance to, possible changes and upsets of the present status quo and
apprehensiveness in terms of implications for work load and career
stability.

Undaunted by such fears, it is not surprising that students were
able to be bolder in expressing their reservations. Hence their greater
openness in revealing the lower level of confidence in the curricula,
particularly among programme A students who expressed the least
satisfaction with their course. It is also important to remember that
they are the ones whose future is at stake and who are bearing the full
brunt of the consequences of the programme's weaknesses. This is also
why they were able to be very specific with the wide range of subjects
which they believed to be important but not currently included on their
programmes, as shown in Table 6.5 below:
Table 6.5 Course subjects considered important by students on programmes A & B but not currently included on their TPPs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENTS' VIEWS ON PROGRAMME A</th>
<th>STUDENTS' VIEWS ON PROGRAMME B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Specialisation Subjects</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Functional grammar</td>
<td>- Functional grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic orthography</td>
<td>- Sociolinguistics (more extensive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Applied semantics</td>
<td>- Applied semantics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Creative literary prose</td>
<td>- Comparative linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Applied literary criticism</td>
<td>- Linguistic inquiry and analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Contemporary Arabic literary trends</td>
<td>- Arabic morphology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic literature (of the decadence era)</td>
<td>- Modern linguistic theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Modern Saudi Arabian literature</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Islamic literary tradition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Literary appreciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Play writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Folk poetry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The art of eloquent speech and oratory</td>
<td>- Oratory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Inimitability of the Holy Qurʾān</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic phonology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Short story writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Advanced Arabic reading comprehension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic calligraphy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Professional development subjects</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Educational psychology</td>
<td>- Educational psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Learning assessment methods</td>
<td>- Teaching method evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic language teaching methods</td>
<td>- Lesson design and planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Development and use of teaching aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STUDENTS' VIEWS ON PROGRAMME A</td>
<td>STUDENTS' VIEWS ON PROGRAMME B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic language studies</td>
<td>- The use of computers in language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- National language studies</td>
<td>- Testing methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- National school curriculum studies</td>
<td>- Teaching Arabic to beginners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Child educational development</td>
<td>- Teaching Arabic to adult learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Introducing Arabic literature and prose to non-native speakers of Arabic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. General Education Subjects

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Modern Arab and Islamic civilisations</td>
<td>- Arabic culture and society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Prominent Western literary figures</td>
<td>- Aspects of foreign cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Major world poetry</td>
<td>- Learning a foreign language, such as English or French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Archive studies</td>
<td>- Arabic historical linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Philosophy and logic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A quick look at Table 6.5 above might suggest that the students' judgements are excessive and unrealistic, as no students could possibly be expected to cope with a wealth of knowledge during the course of their teacher preparation. A more sensible evaluation of such a wide variety of suggestions leads us to view them as an array of optional subjects, particularly those which were most frequently cited, although here again, considerations of cost and logistics, among other things, would prove in many ways that it is impractical and onerous to offer such courses.
Comparatively speaking, programme A students' suggestions are more numerous and more evenly distributed within the three areas of specialisation, professional development and general education subjects, while programme B students' proposals mainly focus on the professional development subjects and to a lesser extent on specialisation subjects.

On the whole, the abundance of subjects which the students would wish to see in some way included on their programmes are indicative of a commendable high level of ambition, readiness and a desire to accumulate vast amounts of diverse knowledge and skills. The mistake, however, lies in the students' tendency to expect all forms of knowledge to be provided for them rather than them assuming some responsibility for the pursuit of knowledge in specific areas of personal interest.

Table 6.6 Course subjects considered important by teaching staff on programmes A & B but not currently included on their TPPs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHING STAFF'S SUGGESTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Specialisation Subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Functional grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic orthography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Applied semantics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Comparative literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Contemporary movements in Arabic literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Modern Arabic syntax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Modern linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Oratory and speech fluency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Arabic phonology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Professional Subjects</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- National language teaching and planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- New directions in Arabic language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Language learning assessment methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use of teaching aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Psycholinguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. General Education Subjects</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When comparing the suggestions made by the teaching staff with those of the students concerning the subjects not currently available on the TPPs, and which could be of some benefit to them, it is possible to make a number of observations. The most obvious one is that they are fewer in number and more cautiously selected although most of them are in remarkable correspondence with the suggestions made by the students. Another point of similarity is their shared insistence on innovation and the modernisation of the programmes' content so as to include contemporary movements and trends in scientific and literary knowledge (such as linguistics, programmed teaching, etc.) as well as their desire to maintain a balance between theory and practice and remain in touch with national concerns and reality.

The familiar theme of a higher rate of satisfaction among programme B informants, be it teachers or students, is yet again hinted
at here, by implication, from the limited number of proposed course subjects for improving the courses. Such evidence, which is derived from the staff's judgements can, in the researcher's view, be relied upon as a reasonable assessment of the academic needs of their students, as they are based on accumulated professional teaching experience.

One final point to make in differentiating between the two programmes is that, on programme B, more so than on programme A, more attention is focused on specific elements of knowledge designed to equip and train aspiring teachers in the practical techniques of teaching and linguistic research than on general education.

6.4 TEACHER EDUCATION COMPONENTS

6.4.1 Students and teaching staff's degree of satisfaction with the specialisation aspect of TAPPs:

![Bar chart showing satisfaction levels](image)

Figure 6.4 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the specialisation aspect of the ALTPPs
Programmes A and B produce Arabic language specialist teachers. Hence, their specialisation subjects intimately relate to a detailed knowledge of the Arabic language. These include for programme A, in order of importance:

- Arabic grammar
- Arabic literature & criticism
- Advanced reading skills
- Rhetoric
- Philology
- Arabic morphology
- Prosody

For programme B they are, in order of importance:

- General Linguistics
- Syntax
- Arabic Phonology
- Contrastive linguistics & error analysis
- Psycholinguistics
- Sociolinguistics
- Semantics
- Lexicography

In SA, prospective language teachers for intermediate and secondary schools do not actually specialise in any one of the above subject areas but they do receive in-depth information about them. That specialised subject matter knowledge is necessary for teaching is, of
course, not a novel point but it is a point that matters. Teachers whose subject matter knowledge is weak or 'inadequate' (see Table 6.2) can not efficiently contribute to the effective transmission of knowledge to their students, as they have little substance to impart and are perceived as incompetent by them. Thus, the place of specialisation subjects in any teacher preparation programme (TPP) is crucial for successful teaching. Indeed, the greater the amount of such a knowledge that the students acquire in their preparation, the more resources they have to draw upon in their future classroom work. The possession of such knowledge base is also an essential element in building the teacher's competence and self-confidence. Therefore, it is not surprising that TPPs are typically built around requirements for providing this type of knowledge.

Given the importance of the subject matter knowledge of the various specialisation subjects in question, this study also sought to elicit the questionnaire participants' judgements about the adequacy of the instruction received concerning this aspect of their programmes. Figure 6.4 illustrates the distribution of their opinions and presents an interesting case. More than half of all the teaching staff and students were unanimous in their approval of the nature of this aspect of their TPP. However, as mentioned previously, teachers' confidence in the TPPs on a number of issues was almost consistently higher by 10 to 15% than those of the students, perhaps for vested interest reasons. Here, curiously, programme B students in fact outnumbered their teachers by
2.1% in support of the specialisation aspect of the course. Although the margin is small, it should still perhaps be seen as a vote of confidence in favour of at least this aspect of the course and a recognition of the staff's enormous efforts to succeed in this relatively new area of Arabic language teaching.

Moreover, it is plain to see that the specialisation subjects on programme B are varied, comprehensive and coincide with the recommended TAFL evaluation criteria recommended by Bashtr and Madkour. Closer scrutiny of the data also shows that when combined, teachers' and students' percentages amount to 58% for programme A and 63% for B, a relatively high level of satisfaction with the adequacy of the specialisation subject instruction. As a matter of fact, this is an area where both programme authorities can take due credit as they have placed the correct amount of emphasis on a fundamentally important area of the programmes which is frequently seen by prospective teachers as a vital component of their preparation. In this respect, our survey results are not unique. One study asked teachers what aspects of knowledge should be learned on preparation programmes and which should be acquired through experience Miklos & Green (1987: 191). They found that nothing was rated higher in their view than "understanding one or more subject areas in depth". They also conceded that such knowledge was efficiently conveyed to them by the institution they had attended (Ibid.: 195-205).
Nonetheless, however valuable and rich this corpus of subject matter knowledge is, teacher preparation institutions are not, and should not be, regarded as the only places where such learning should occur; nor should it be relied upon to be adequate and relevant for the next forty years of a teacher’s professional life (Lawton, 1990: 147).

On one sub-issue, the percentage results conceal concern over the insufficient level of co-ordination and integration of the various specialisation disciplines. The breakdown of the four main question ratings relating to the specialisation aspect reveal that, with the exception of programme B’s teaching staff, fewer than 50% of the remaining informants are content with the way the different specialisation branches are brought together as a coherent whole. The accumulation of vast amounts of discrete bits of knowledge are no doubt a useful element of the knowledge base that the teachers appeal to in the course of their teaching, but it is not enough. Students need to know how to make sense of them, attach them to a general framework and link them to other facts, or larger schemes of things.

An integrated approach to learning is what is needed here; an approach which incites reflective thinking and inquiry methods in teaching. The aim is to promote the crossing of subject boundaries and the linking of separate subject fields into wider themes and focuses of interest (Downey & Kelly, 1979: 223-231). This means that teachers

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1 See Appendix (1).
need to be encouraged to draw upon knowledge beyond their assigned teaching areas for the sake of coherence and wholeness of knowledge.

6.4.2 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the cultural component:

As future teachers, students on programmes A and B have emphatically shown their desire for a more comprehensive scope to their cultural education which they see as an essential part of their Arabic language teacher preparation. This is plainly reflected in their previously discussed assessment of the strengths and weaknesses as well as in the many suggested subjects which they perceived as important but which were not incorporated on their programmes (see Tables 6.2, 6.6).

Thus, programme A students made no less than seven suggestions in relation to the cultural aspect of their preparation, as opposed to four...
by their counterparts on programme B. The teaching staff’s awareness of the intimate relationship between the language they are teaching and the culture of its people was also stressed in their perhaps more pragmatic propositions to include two additional cultural subjects. (see Table 6.6)

To establish accurately the extent of their satisfaction with this aspect of the programme, all the informants were questioned on the issue. Figure 6.5 exhibits their reactions.

In view of the conclusions arrived at in Chapter Five and in the above discussion, it was predictable that the responses would show a significant degree of dissatisfaction in relation to the insufficiencies just discussed. The data results showed markedly unfavourable reactions with regard to this component on the part of programme B students (36%) and teachers (47%). Programme A staff and students registered the highest percentages of approval, 84.4% and 64.7% respectively.

The researcher’s experience as a student on the programme confirms the deficiency in cultural subjects on programme B, although the existing programmes of instruction do indeed contain a considerable amount of cultural education concerning Islamic traditions and values that are highly respected and valued. The low score possibly reflects the unreserved approval of a limited number of students in this connection. However, this does not detract the majority of them from expressing a desire for more diversity and openness to a wider
exploration of national, pan-Arab and international cultures and civilisations.

Another possible reason why the results were not unanimous on the obviously limited cultural subjects could be due to the fact that the programme aims relative to the cultural component of the Arabic language teacher preparation are not specific enough to allow the informants to give an accurately informed judgement on what is expected to be taught against its implementation in the classroom. Perhaps again, what rallied some support for the existing programme content, despite the prevailing deficiencies in it, was the powerful and subjective high regard in which Islamic culture is held by the questionnaire respondents.

Objectively, however, there remains a weak correlation between the programme of instruction presented, the set objectives and the systematic evaluation criteria list of competencies proposed by Madkour and Al Othaim which measure the relevance and efficacity of Arabic language teacher preparation programmes (see Madkour, 1985; and Al Othaim, 1993).
6.4.3 Students and teaching staff degree of satisfaction with the professional education aspect of the ALTPPs:

![Graph showing student and teaching staff satisfaction levels](image)

**Figure 6.6 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the professional aspect of the ALTPPs**

Of fundamental importance to the preparation of teachers in their education is the professional aspect of their future role as educators. This vital ingredient in the profile of well informed, competent and confident educator is considered as a determining factor in the success or failure of any teacher preparation programme. It is an area which embraces those elements of knowledge and abilities which enable the practitioner in this field to fulfil his task with skill and wisdom and in the most efficient and beneficial way possible to his students. Included in this aspect are subjects such as general education theory, modern trends in language teaching, teaching methods, the use of teaching aids, course design and planning, educational psychology and assessment and evaluation methods.
The reactions of programmes A and B students to all the above constituent facets of their professional education, prior to joining the teaching force, were sought and collated. Their global perception of the adequacy of their instruction in this area is summed up in Figure 6.6 above.

The most striking observation that can be made is that there is a distinct bias in support of the quality of instruction offered relative to the professional aspect of teacher preparation programmes on the part of both A and B teachers, with programme B teachers being the most favourable (65.7%). The second observation is a renewed confirmation of the established pattern of programme B informants' overall positive inclination towards their TPPs. The third, and perhaps the most significant of all the findings in this respect, is programme A students' very low level of satisfaction and confidence (34%) compared to all the other informants, particularly to programme B students who scored the second highest degree of approval after their own teachers.

However, what gives cause for concern in examining the results is that programme A teachers' opinion in this sphere is only 47.6% supportive of the professional aspect of their instruction, which indicates that more than half of all the teaching staff on programme A are prepared to admit that the programme is failing to equip students with the necessary professional knowledge and skills that they need in order to perform their teaching role adequately after graduation.
Returning to the discrepancy between teachers and students' views, if one examines the professional aspect variables, it is clear that the course subject that receives the least attention, as far as programme A students are concerned, is the modern trend in language teaching, which meets with only 13% approval by the students, compared to 34% for programme B. The next most neglected area identified by the same group is the use of modern teaching aids with only 28.1% and 36% positive reactions for A and B respectively, an issue which gave rise to some severe criticism of the teaching staff by a number of programme A students. They complained that during their teaching, they were seldom, if ever, given the opportunity to observe their own teachers making use of teaching aids, nor had they ever received any guidance or practice in their use personally in preparation for their future teaching career.  

On the whole though, and irrespective of the low figures obtained for some of the variables examined here, the fact is that the teaching staff's attitude is generally more moderate and relaxed, not only because they may have a vested interest in not being too critical towards the programme authorities and colleagues but also, as some of them commented in the case of programme A, 'the emphasis is more on the preparation of Arabic language specialists and researchers, rather than teachers'. The paradox is firstly that teacher preparation IS one of the specified goals of the programme, and secondly a large proportion of

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2 See Appendix (I) for more details about the students and teachers' responses to their degree of satisfaction with professional components on TPPA & TPPB.
programme A graduates go directly into teaching (see Figure 4.12).

Students’ high anxiety about their professional preparation has been extensively reported by researchers interested in the acquisition and development of professional competence by prospective and novice teachers. For example, Needels’ work, (1991: 277) which is based on autobiographical data, found that such a group was characteristically plagued by low confidence and uncertainty, a predictable phase in the growth of professionalism which dissipates with time and experience.

Nonetheless, it is one thing to feel anxious when you have received a reasonable amount of induction into the world of teaching and quite another story when you have received a very negligible introduction to the subject. The latter case clearly concerns the situation on programme A. Still on this issue, a number of programme A teaching staff contended that although a general introduction to the subject of professionalism in teaching was desirable, the development of such knowledge and skills could only be acquired by immersion, or as they put it ‘on the job’. This commonly held view was also observed by other researchers (e.g. Davies & Ferguson, 1997: 52-53).

It is the researcher’s belief that to overlook the value of accumulated wisdom and knowledge, as well as the vast developments in teaching techniques and classroom coping strategies, is to deprive aspiring teachers of an important element in confidence building and a most valuable tool for the efficient performance of their task,
particularly at the early stages of their new careers. Such body of knowledge and experience, when passed on to new recruits of the teaching profession, has at least the beneficial effect of preventing the reoccurrence of past mistakes and equipping new teachers with the ability to predict, and the option to use prior solutions from a repertoire of alternative approaches to recurring practical problems.

In the light of the argument just given, and owing to the fact that programme A incorporates only two subjects (theory of education and psychology) which represents only 3.2% of the total course hours, compared to four on B, programme A students are, in the researcher's view, justified in feeling insecure and ill-prepared to face the challenges of the teaching profession.

6.4.4 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the length of teaching practice period:

![Bar Chart]

Figure 6.7 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the length of teaching practice.
As pointed out in Chapter Five, the periods of teaching practice (TP) are almost negligible and do not exceed three hours for programme A and six hours for programme B. This is distinctly clear in the views of both students and teaching staff (see Figure 6.7 above). Overall, over 50% of all informants questioned on whether they believed that the period of TP was too short, agreed with the statement. Programme B participants scored relatively higher levels of dissatisfaction with 58.4% for the students and 60% for the teaching staff, compared with 53% and 45.6% respectively for programme A. Also, less than a quarter of all the informants believed that the TP period was adequate and sufficient. The rest, less than a quarter of students and teachers, preferred to remain uncommitted or neutral. It is not wholly clear why the results did not show a more overwhelming support for a call for a longer TP duration, apart from obvious apprehension about the additional burden involved in the experience, especially if it was not properly organised and was not seen as a useful and fulfilling one.
6.5 TEACHING METHODS, TEACHING AIDS AND THE LENGTH OF THE PROGRAMME

6.5.1 Students and teaching staff’s level of satisfaction with the teaching methods used on their TPPs:

![Bar chart showing satisfaction levels for different groups.]

Figure 6.8 Students and teaching staff’s level of satisfaction with the teaching methods used on their programmes

The careful selection and planning of teaching methods is an essential part of good and efficient teaching. It is, in the researcher’s view, a pivotal issue which largely determines the nature of the outcome of teaching itself. Prospective teachers’ experience of their preparation under their own tutors is all the more important because they are often perceived as role models for them to emulate. The quality of teaching methods used to prepare them for their future teaching career is, therefore, an appropriate question to explore in this study.
Figure 6.8 shows that opinions on the adequacy of the prevailing teaching methods used for both TPPs are split, with a strong rate of favourable judgements expressed by the teachers on the one hand, and very significantly lower rates of approval by their students on the other. Thus, just over two thirds of all teachers questioned on whether they were satisfied with their own teaching methods responded positively, with a high 61% satisfaction rate for TPPA teachers and a still higher 75% satisfaction rate for TPPB teachers.

That the self-rating percentages by the teachers were high is not surprising in itself. What is astonishing is that a significant minority of them were either uncertain of the quality and efficiency of their own teaching styles, that is 22% for TPPA teachers and 15% for TPPB teachers, or were openly dissatisfied with them, 17% and 10% of the teachers of both programmes respectively.

In contrast, the students' reactions were markedly more unfavourable and critical. Indeed, about half of them on both programmes judged their tutors' teaching methods negatively, with only 9% of 'uncertain' answers. TPPA students were more vociferous in their criticism, scoring 54% rate of disapproval as opposed to 48% rate by their counterpart TPPB students. Both groups of students clearly hold deep reservations regarding the methods of instruction used on their TPPs.
Looking at the problem objectively, it must be remembered, as already mentioned in Chapter Five, that the most predominant teaching method used on both TPPs is the 'traditional' lecture. This fact was duly confirmed during the observation period. It was noted that students were treated as passive recipients, sitting for lengthy periods of time listening and taking notes on their own or dictated to them while teachers raced through large amounts of material. Teacher-student interaction was limited and questions and comments were kept to a minimum. Academic learning within this context consisted for the most part, if not entirely, of repetition, imitation and memorising, with a tendency to view knowledge as already 'revealed' or determined by learned academics. Facts seemed to matter most. They were recorded, learned by heart, frequently tested and ultimately regurgitated on the examination papers. Is it any wonder that so many students in the study were feeling utterly dissatisfied and over worked?

The excessive use of the traditional lecture method in teaching undoubtedly presents serious drawbacks: The students' own interests remain unstimulated, their intellectual potential is untapped, their will to learn is ruined, and their curiosity killed. Such a teaching approach is, nowadays, regarded as wholly inappropriate, particularly in preparing the teachers of the future. There are, of course, administrative and practical reasons for using the lecture method, mainly because they are well suited to large groups of students, such as is the case with TPPA, as well as economical reasons in terms of materials, staff and equipment.
needed, among other things. However, as Ornstein, (1995: 44) argues, no teacher is justified in being locked into a single teaching style, regardless of conventional wisdom and however attractive and 'trendy' it may seem.

It is also true that formal lectures have always been and still are a suitable method of teaching for advanced and mature students, particularly when the information presented is not available elsewhere or is adapted for a particular purpose (Ibid.: 182-183). Still, lectures can easily lead to boredom, especially with a passive audience. Therefore, it is essential for lecturers to liven their talks by intermixing them with questions using prompts, cues, visual aids, etc. when appropriate, and engaging the listeners actively as far as possible.

Needless to say, as outlined by Ornstein (Ibid.: 159-198), there are other methods of teaching such as practice and drill, questioning and debating and problem-solving. The crucial ingredient to remember to include for efficient and effective learning to take place is 'interaction'. Activating, stimulating and challenging students' thinking is highly desirable. Producing teachers who are able to process information and relate it to the real world, to rearrange knowledge and facts, to redefine concepts and make predictions and sound judgements is far more valuable than breeding subdued and narrow-minded educators. For these reasons, as advised by Ornstein (Ibid.: 193) "class time must incorporate experimental, discovery, and/or reflective processes and activities". 
6.5.2 The teaching staff make frequent use of a variety of teaching aids:

The data from the figure above shows a very significant gap between the teaching staff's reactions and those of the students to this statement. Indeed, 56.5% of programme A's teaching staff claim to frequently include diverse educational aids on their programme of instruction, while a lower 44.4% of programme B maintained that they used them in their teaching. Surprisingly, however, such results are in fundamental disagreement with the students' responses. Thus, virtually 2/3 of all students dispute the assertion, which is a massive 68% for programme A and a slightly lower 61% for B, alleging that their teachers make insufficient use of teaching aids and resources.
This discrepancy could be due to a variety of reasons: one likely explanation may be that the teaching staff based their answers on the use of the rudimentary chalkboard, textbooks and handouts only, therefore they were more inclined to respond favourably to the question, whereas the students' understanding of 'teaching aids' was probably taken as a more advanced and sophisticated audio-visual means of instruction, such as the language laboratory, the overhead projector, videos, computers, etc.

Fortunately, the researcher was able to corroborate the findings with observation data collected over a four-week period. Evidence from the observation of 72 lecture sessions showed that 78% of teachers used either one or more of what was referred to above as 'rudimentary' or traditional teaching aids, and approximately 32% used none. Astonishingly, not a single instance was recorded when any of the above-mentioned modern teaching aids and resources were ever used during the whole observation period.

To discover the reasons behind the apparent inattention to such a vital and useful element of modern teaching techniques, it was necessary to resort to the interview method to elicit the information needed from the teaching staff. Asked why their use of modern teaching aids was so limited, the teaching staff on both programmes offered a number of justifications summarised in the five main reasons below:  

3 These justifications were mentioned during the interview with a sample of programme A and B's teachers on 2/7/1995 and on 9/7/1995.
• 'Time is short and the preparation of such educational materials can be very time-consuming'.

• 'Educational teaching aids are scarce'.

• 'Modern teaching aids are not essential'.

• 'Modern teaching aids are not compatible with their subject of teaching'.

• 'Teachers are not familiar with the use of modern teaching aids'.

Whatever the reasons given for the poor utilisation of such valuable and versatile educational resources, one thing is clear: there is a widespread and pervasive general degree of ignorance and scepticism regarding their importance and merits. Some teachers even shrink from the use of some of the most primitive materials and techniques mentioned.

There is little doubt that teachers must share at least part of the responsibility for this sad state of affairs. It is the view of the researcher that it is the duty of all teachers who aspire to be competent in the modern techniques of their profession to learn, as least, the simple domestic skill of operating a video recorder, an OHP, a language laboratory and such like resources, as well as building confidence and skills in actually designing and producing their own aids, e.g. newspaper and magazine cuts, posters, charts, etc. Admittedly, in some cases, teaching aids merely supplement already adequate teaching, but their motivational and enriching role in modern teaching can not be ignored.
6.5.3 The extent of teachers and students’ satisfaction with the total allocated hours for their programmes of instruction:

![Graph showing satisfaction levels](image)

Figure 6.10 Students and teaching staff’s level of satisfaction with the length of their course

Time allocation for the programmes is an important dimension in this comparative study. The prediction was that the results would show a reasonable level of satisfaction among all the groups of informants involved in the study. The results, in fact, exceeded our expectations as far as the majority of those who completed the questionnaire. On average, 74% of all the teaching staff and programme A students responded positively when they were asked whether they were satisfied with the length of their respective programmes.

However, programme B students appeared to deviate from this general consensus, although just over half of them, 53.8%, still agreed that the length of the course was adequate for their teacher preparation.
It was found that the majority of them were, in fact, overseas students whose mother tongue was not Arabic. To determine the reasons behind their departure from the normal reaction pattern, a number of students were invited to comment on their negative stance during the interviews. Among the reasons they gave were the intensive nature of the course, which runs for two years on a full time basis, compared to programme A's four years; and, their desire to extend the period of preparation by one year to alleviate some of the pressure and provide them with more time to consolidate their learning and appreciation of the Arabic language and culture.

However convincing such arguments are in favour of an extension of overseas students' stay in SA, and despite the government authorities generous financial support for them, the cost implications of such a proposition would inevitably have to be taken into account when contemplating a decision in this regard.

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4 The interviews were held on 25/6/1995.
6.6 RESEARCH AND EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

6.6.1 This section examines whether the programmes train and encourage scientific research activities:

• Concerning the students

Table 6.7 Opinions about whether programmes A & B encourage scientific research activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>TEACHERS</th>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree %</td>
<td>Disagree %</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The programme initiates students to research activities</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The programme encourages students to carry out research activities</td>
<td>69.9</td>
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<td></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>19</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEAN %</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>64.5</td>
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All higher education programmes must necessarily incorporate a measure of scientific research activities, including teacher preparation programmes. This is because one of the ways to acquire and accumulate knowledge is through active investigation, fact finding and analysis of data of various kinds and origins. The value and usefulness of research need hardly be underlined. Indeed, research instills and develops in the learner a sense of personal responsibility for his own learning and raises his awareness of the virtually unlimited resources of knowledge available locally and beyond.
In the fields of education and teaching, research is, of course, a major instrument of assessment and evaluation as well as a requirement for many graduate and post-graduate courses. On that account, it was judged relevant to pose the above question (No. 1), to measure the extent to which academic inquiry is valued and fostered within the programmes under investigation.

As far as the first part of the question is concerned, Table 6.7 shows that nearly two thirds of all informants replied that they were receiving guidance and training in research methods and techniques, with programme A students scoring the lowest majority of 52.8%; the rest being situated over 60%. Additionally, the latter group outnumbered all the others in their negative response to the question with a percentage of 37.2%, a difference of 7.2% with their counterparts on programme B.

As for the second part of the question, which sought to determine whether the programme actually promoted and encouraged the learners to engage in research activities related to their teacher preparation, it is clear from Table 6.7 that the figures representing the students’ reactions have shrunk by 4.2% to 7% for programmes A and B respectively. In contrast, an increase of 3% to 9.9% was registered for the views of the teaching staff; a narrow discrepancy which could possibly be attributed to their vested interests.
In sum, although there is an undisputed majority of informants on both sides who are willing to admit that their programmes do make provisions for research activities, the fact remains that a considerable proportion of them either disagree or are unsure of their responses to the question, namely 42.2% of all staff and students on programme A and a lower (38%) for programme B. For an accurate judgement to be made in this respect, one must take into account the fact that officially, programme A does not specifically stipulate any research objectives in its prospectus. Therefore, any efforts made in this direction must be commended. Yet, to omit any mention of research activity within this programme is incomprehensible and hard to justify. Clearly, liability is located at the level of programme authorities here. Regarding programme B, no such omission exists in its set objectives. Hence, any deficiency would be attributable to poor implementation.

• Concerning the teaching staff

![Figure 6.11 Teaching staff's judgement on whether their programmes promote scientific research activities](image-url)
Asked the same question about whether the teaching staff on both programmes were receiving assistance and any form of incentives to carry out research in their areas of academic interest or speciality, the staff produced startling results, summarised in Figure 6.11. Only 27% of teachers on programme A agreed compared to no more than 10% on B. The number of 'uncertain' responses was in the minority, 10% to 18%, not a negligible proportion which possibly points out to either a lack of circulation of information or disinterest in the issue. Finally, programme B teachers outnumbered their colleagues on programme A by no less than 26% negative answers to the question.

These results are a matter of considerable concern, as academic research is important for any educator who is committed to keeping up with and shaping their teaching methods and resource materials in such a way as to produce interesting and relevant lectures, which are backed up by research.

Furthermore, research for teachers should not be an exclusive activity reserved for an ambitious elite freed of their teaching obligations and on full payment. Rather, it should be made accessible to all teachers as an instrument of assessment and evaluation for all their practices, methods and materials. Support for such endeavours is hardly ever wasted as its benefits inevitably have favourable repercussions on both the students, who will reap the fruits of a better education provided by more enlightened teachers, and the teaching staff, whose
career prospects are often enhanced by the results of their research efforts.

To be fair, the university authorities in SA do make provision for teachers wishing to undertake research projects in line with the national higher education regulations which guarantee one year leave on full pay plus promotion for successful applicants. What is perplexing in the teaching staff's responses to the question is that on average 81% of them either deny the existence of such provisions or are unaware of them. Interviewed on this issue, a number of senior lecturers declared that they were too busy with teaching and administrative tasks to devote any time for research. Others pointed out that there were insufficient incentives such as financial rewards and publication of their work.

6.6.2 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the extra-curricular activities:

![Graph showing students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with extra-curricular activities.](image)

Figure 6.12 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the extra-curricular activities
Since education, by its very nature is also a social process, most of us would probably agree that, in their interactions with each other, teachers and students engage in some form of social education. Social learning on TPP institutions is neglected at our peril. Optimal learning conditions are most likely to be achieved in an atmosphere where there is a sense of cohesion and trust among the members of the group. One of the objectives of the extra-curricular activities on TPPs is aimed at the attainment of such ideals.

Staff and students on programmes A and B are all entitled and encouraged to take part in a wide range of social, cultural, athletic and scouting activities organised by the programme authorities. Due to our awareness of the potential benefits of such activities on the personal and intellectual development of prospective teachers, on fostering positive attitudes and on creating a genuinely warm and supportive climate for teaching and learning, it was deemed appropriate to ask our informants for their opinions on the adequacy of the extra-curricular activities.

The results in Figure 6.12 show that less than half the students questioned derived positive enjoyment from the extra-curricular activities organised for them. With only 38.4% approval, students on programme B emerged as the least satisfied group, despite the fact that provisions for them in this area by far exceeded those of programme A, which scored a higher 48.8%. As far as the teachers are concerned, their satisfaction level was yet again markedly higher than the students' (51.4% for B and 59.6% for A), although paradoxically, not many of
them usually participated or attended these activities, as was revealed to us in interviews by some informants.\(^5\)

The obvious conclusion to be drawn, based on the results obtained in relation to this issue, is that approximately half of all the targeted recipients (49.7\%) of the extra-curricular activities appear to be unenthusiastic about or unconvinced of their value and relevance. Among the reasons given for the relatively low turnout at such venues are 'family commitments', "too busy preparing lessons", 'the limited variety of activities' and their 'lack of involvement in the selection of activities'.

6.7 ASSESSMENT METHODS AND ORGANISATIONAL ASPECTS

6.7.1 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the assessment method used in the current teacher preparation programmes:

![Figure 6.13 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the assessment methods used on their programmes](image)

Figure 6.13 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the assessment methods used on their programmes

\(^5\) The interview was on 18/6/1995.
As discussed in Chapter Five, the most widely used instrument of student assessment in SA is the traditional end of term or year examination. Programmes A and B are no exception to this, as they rely heavily on written tests and examinations to measure the performance and achievements of their candidates.

Looking at Figure 6.13 above shows that there were differing views among the various groups of teachers and students questioned about the suitability and effectiveness of the current assessment methods used for the preparation of Arabic language teachers. Programme A teachers scored 49.2%, the highest percentage level of satisfaction in contrast with only 30% satisfaction level by their counterparts on B. The pattern is reversed in relation to the students' views on this question: programme A students scored 26.4% as opposed to 38.5% for programme B students. Overall, confidence in the current system of evaluation is critically low, averaging only 36%, which is considerably less than half of the total questionnaire sample population.

One of the messages that Figure 6.13 sends out clearly is that the level of opposition and scepticism towards traditional learner testing techniques is very high and that there are benefits to be gained from the long-awaited review and evaluation of such methods.

There are a number of reasons for this result. Examinations in many countries in the Middle East, including SA, have remained relatively unchanged for several generations of students and change is
generally slower in this part of the world where stability is valued and desirable. As a result, the potentially harmful effects of traditional methods of testing in the field of education are rarely challenged in the absence of reliable alternatives.

However, research in social psychology and applied linguistics has identified many pitfalls associated with a too strong reliance on examination results, particularly on learners’ achievements and motivation. A large proportion of students are of the view that examinations do not reflect or measure fully many aspects of their abilities and skills, especially those which do not readily lend themselves to written testing, such as practical teaching, personality and emotional development, etc. This is in addition to the fact that such a testing system tends to be employed mainly for the purposes of selection and streaming and is essentially based on a pass/fail principle, hence no wonder it arouses feelings of apprehension and failure. In view of this, it is perhaps not surprising that almost ¾ of all the informants were either unfavourable or uncertain about the efficiency of the predominantly exam-based assessment methods currently used for the preparation of Arabic language teachers.

The ideal appraisal scheme should be devised in such a way that: (i) it does not appear threatening for the recipient learners; (ii) it is perceived as fair, accurate and comprehensive; (iii) its approach emphasises the measurement of the learners' positive achievements; and,
finally, (iv) so that the weaknesses as well as the strengths are equally acknowledged and acted upon in order to promote self-awareness, motivation and progress by learners at all levels of ability.

6.7.2 Teachers and students' degree of satisfaction with the organisational aspects of their respective programmes, A & B:

![Bar chart showing satisfaction levels for teachers and students in Programme A and Programme B.]

Figure 6.14 Students and teaching staff's degree of satisfaction with the organisational aspects of their respective programmes

By 'organisational aspect', what is intended is the way in which the programmes are structured and implemented to fulfil the requirements for the preparation of teachers. Figure 6.14 shows that support for the organisation of the programmes is extensive among both teaching staff groups, i.e. 61.2% for A and 70% for B, but significantly lower among students, particularly programme A students, who appear to be the least contented with the current system of organisation.
Just under a third of all the informants were neutral and approximately 11% of them were uncertain. Overall, however, the results confirm the repeatedly observed trend of positive judgements connected with programme B in a considerable number of its aspects in comparison with programme A's frequently unfavourable opinions regarding numerous issues relating to students' academic preparation.

The justification for the higher rate of approval associated with the participants involved on programme B with regard to the organisational aspects of their course is likely to be due to a number of factors. Most importantly, it may be due to the fact that they are fewer in number and enjoy a degree of flexibility in the application of the regulations, more choice and attention to their academic needs, which is quite the opposite of the predicament of programme A students.

On average, however, just over half of all the students are either dissatisfied or uncertain about the efficiency of the organisational aspects of their respective programmes. This is in keeping with the programme deficiency feature which they previously singled out in Table 6.2.
6.8 PROGRAMME STANDARDS AND THE NEED FOR EVALUATION

6.8.1 Teaching staff and students' level of satisfaction with the standard of the present programmes:

![Bar chart showing satisfaction levels](image)

Figure 6.15 Students and teaching staff's level of satisfaction with the standard of the present programmes

So far in this chapter, an attempt has been made to compare and discuss a number of specific issues regarding teacher preparation programmes A and B based on the views of the teaching staff and students involved in this study. The overriding impression is that there is a consistent level of dissatisfaction with most of the areas considered, although the majority of the respondents readily acknowledge the existence of a number of strengths on the programmes in question.

To verify the accuracy of this judgement, the four groups of informants were questioned about their global evaluation of the standard of their programmes. The data from Figure 6.15 adds credence to the
general pattern of unfavourable reactions noted in the earlier sections. Indeed, the overall rate of dissatisfaction about the programmes among all informants ranges from 46.2% to 59.5%, with an average 8.7% expressing strong dissatisfaction. Again, of some interest is the fact that the teaching staff's views are generally moderately toned down compared to those of the students. It is also clear from the data that reactions to programme B are once again distinctly more favourable than those of programme A.

On the basis of the combined findings relative to a number of areas assessed above, it is possible to conclude that both students and teaching staff's levels of confidence and satisfaction with the current language teacher preparation programmes in SA are low.

6.8.2 On whether there is need for an academic evaluation of the teacher preparation programmes:

![Figure 6.16 Students and teaching staff's responses as to whether the teacher preparation programmes are due for an evaluation](image-url)
In the previous chapter, we looked at the importance of the academic evaluation of teacher education programmes in general and pointed out that, to the researcher's knowledge, and based on interviews with the deans of faculties and institutes, there has never been an attempt at a systematic evaluation of the programmes under study.

In view of this, it was deemed appropriate to gauge the reaction of the questionnaire respondents by assessing the extent to which they were aware of the necessity to appraise the current programmes concerned. The question is intimately related to, and intended to summarise their feelings towards, the programmes generally and give an indication of the urgency for conducting such an evaluation.

A first glance at Figure 6.16 reveals an overwhelming consensus in support of the suggestion made with a percentage distribution ranging from 82% to 94.4%. This is a remarkable result for a number of reasons:

i. There is an unprecedented level of agreement on the single most important question of this investigation among all the groups questioned.

ii. The proportion of respondents who are either unconvinced or uncertain of the necessity for a programme evaluation is very low across the board and is in the region of 10% or less.

iii. Those who are in opposition to the proposal generally represent an insignificant minority ranging from 'none' to 7.2% only.
Furthermore, what is worth noting is that the hitherto established pattern of increased optimism and enthusiasm for positive action, which has characterised programme B students and teaching staff over programme A’s, has been superseded -all be it by a small margin- of 4.4% by programme A teaching staff. What these results confirm is what has been hinted at throughout this study, and emphasised in Chapter One, that it is high time that a systematic evaluation of the teacher preparation programmes in question was conducted in order to not only identify precisely the existing areas of weaknesses which require attention and corrective measures, but also to pinpoint and promote those areas of strength which deserve to be acknowledged and consolidated.

### 6.9 PROGRAMME DISTINCTIVENESS

This section examines whether there any differences in the contents and methods on programmes A and B:

![Figure 6.17 The teaching staff’s awareness of the differences between programmes A & B](image)
The question was aimed at all teaching staff in order to reveal the extent to which they were well informed about the basic distinctions between programme A, which prepares teachers of Arabic for TANL, and programme B, which prepares teachers of Arabic for TAFL. This is an important question because there is a widespread tendency among Arabic language specialists in SA -and other Arab nations- to think that there are no fundamental differences between teacher preparation programmes for TANL and TAFL. Because of this, as well as the insufficient numbers on programme B graduates, a large number of programme A graduates are offered teaching positions directly in TAFL teaching without prior specialist preparation. The impact of such practice on educational standards can be very damaging indeed.

Figure 6.17 above exhibits almost a unanimous positive agreement with the question posed. Thus, programme A scored 87.6% and B 94.2%, much higher levels of agreement than expected. To verify that these claims are truly based on known facts, the teachers were asked to specify what they knew about the existing differences between the two programmes in writing. The data gathered from programme A staff in relation to this question showed that they held somewhat distorted views of the reality between the two programmes. For example, just over a third of them assumed that almost all programme B students were non-Saudi Arabians and total beginners in Arabic. Others stated that the difference lay in the methods and resources used, not in the core course content. A third group believed that programme B was
distinguished by its focus on basic grammar and literature, plus studies of the four languages skills.

In comparison, programme B staff showed no evidence of being misinformed about their programme A counterparts. The regrettable conclusion from this is that there is virtually no co-ordination, cooperation of sharing of information between the two sister programmes, even though they are both based in the same building.

**Conclusion**

The main focus of this chapter has been to present a comparative assessment of the judgements of two sets of respondents involved in two distinct TPPs. The first, labelled programme A, was presumed to prepare TANL teachers, while the second, referred to as programme B, prepares TAFL teachers, both at establishments of higher education in SA.

The ultimate aim was to evaluate and compare the extent to which the existing TPPs are meeting the needs of prospective teachers in providing them with a worthwhile and enjoyable learning experience. More specifically, the questionnaire which was used as the major instrument for tapping the opinions of those concerned with the programmes, sought their views on four fundamental areas of TPPs: general education or “culture”, specialisation, professional education, and teaching practice (the latter identified as a separate component due to the importance this research attaches to it). Other important areas
included in the comparative appraisals are: the organisational aspect of the programmes, the teaching resources, academic research and the provisions for extra-curricular activities.

An analysis of the results points to several broad areas of agreement and disagreement among both teachers and students of both programmes A and B, with a general tendency for the teachers to be less critical than the students on a range of questions. Results also indicate a trend toward negative opinions on the part of programme A students, particularly on issues regarding their professional education.

Among the points on which the students from both programmes reached a positive consensus are:

- the belief that, in theory, the programmes can prepare Arabic language teachers;
- the detail and comprehensiveness of the specialisation subjects;
- the subject time allocation;
- the provisions available for research.

Negative consensus was also obtained chiefly on three points:

- the shortage of the teaching practice period;
- the learning assessment methods; and,
- the teaching methods used.
Contention was located in three main areas:

- the provision for cultural instruction, seen as a source of strength on programme A (64 %) against only 36 % for B;
- the provision of education and guidance, where the situation is reversed, i.e. a source of average satisfaction for programme B (50 %), and a clear disadvantage on A with only (34 %);
- the organisational aspect of the programmes for which programme B students expressed a higher level of approval, 58.6 % versus 40 %.

As for the teaching staff's judgements on the TPPs, they concurred almost fully with those of the students, except on two issues, that is:

- on the use of teaching aids, where curiously more programme A teachers claimed to utilise them (56.5 %) than programme B teachers (44.4 %).
- and on the organisational aspect of the TPPs, for which more reservations were expressed by programme A teachers (40 %) than their counterparts on programme B (58.6 %).
CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

7.1 SUMMARY

In bringing this work to a conclusion, it is convenient to recall that the main purpose behind this research was to compare the existing preparation programmes for teachers of Arabic for native and non-native speakers at two higher education institutions, namely, King Saud University (KSU) and Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), which are both located in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

The investigation specifically sought to elicit and contrast the strengths and weaknesses of the two programmes, TPPA and TPPB. The selected method of research was comparative and included descriptive, analytical and evaluative data which was collected through questionnaires, printed documents, interviews and direct observation.

The study began by highlighting the importance of the teacher's role in the educational process. Teacher preparation was seen to be influential in determining educational standards and the level of knowledge within a society. It also related the widespread concern for the falling standards of Arabic language teachers and the repeated pleas by experts for a review of teacher education programmes in SA. This study was intended to make a modest response to those pleas and to fill
a gap in the field of comparative Arabic language teacher education studies.

Next, a review of the related literature was presented. The studies were classified into two main categories; those concerning the preparation of Arabic language teachers to native speakers and those relating to the preparation of Arabic language teachers to non-native speakers. They all focused on the assessment or evaluation of teacher education within the same domain, TANL or TAFL, but none are known to have tackled a comparison between them, hence the unique nature of this study.

A better understanding of the present state of the existing TPPs necessitated an overview of the historical background of teacher preparation in SA. Various stages of development were identified for TPPA, beginning with the earliest, low-grade, non-specialist stage to the modern, highly-qualified, university graduate teacher preparation. Because of its recent nature, TPPB has remained static in nature since it was founded in 1975.

Following this, the research procedure, method of data collection and the characteristics and background information of the target population involved in the study were reported. Afterwards, a comparative description and analysis of the core component elements of TPPA and TPPB ensued.
Subsequently, the reactions of the various groups of informants, teachers and students to the programmes were related, interpreted and compared. Thereafter, a summary of the study and the main findings and conclusions of this research were presented. Finally, a number of recommendations for the advancement of the two teacher preparation programmes, including students and teachers' suggestions as well as proposals for further studies, were put forward.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

Despite its relatively short history, teacher preparation in SA has achieved a great deal since the foundation of the education system in 1924. To provide a measure of its success, suffice it to say that in its first 25 years it was able to produce 30,000 teachers. The number of teacher preparation institutions rose from 3 in 1953 to 201 in 1983 (Ramadan, 1988: 187). By 1975, these institutes were able to meet 61% of the national needs for primary school teachers. Today, approximately 78% of all teaching posts in SA are filled by Saudi Arabian nationals (Al-Jazeera, 1997: 11).

However, such massive quantitative expansion in the provision of education has been accomplished at an inevitable cost to quality which has, over the past two decades or so, become the new challenge to be faced. A major step towards raising the standard of teachers has been the role played by teacher preparation programmes for higher education institutions (HEIs) which were introduced in the 1950s.
The issue that still remains is the quality of the preparation programmes for Arabic language teachers. Admittedly, there is a heightened awareness of the problem among the authorities and educated elite in SA, which is encouraging in that reforms may take place in the near future. However, to attain this goal, it is essential that sufficient attention be directed towards the systematic diagnosis of the areas of strengths and weaknesses on the programmes concerned. This is precisely what this study has attempted to achieve on a small scale, using a comparative technique.

The findings of the comparative analysis can be summarised under the following categories:

**7.2.1 Background Characteristics of the Respondents:**

An analysis of the questionnaire data revealed the following information:

- 82% of the TPPA students were at the time of the investigation aged 23 years or under, whereas for TPPB, 69% of them were aged 27 years and over. With respect to the teaching staff, 47.7% of the TPPA teachers were aged 45 years and over, while on TPPB, 80% were aged 44 years or under.
- 91.3% of all the TPPA students were Saudi Arabian nationals, compared to a predictably lower 31% on TPPB; the rest were citizens of other nationalities from various parts of the Islamic world. As for the teaching staff, a high 80% of them on TPPB were Saudi Arabians, compared to a surprisingly low 60% on TPPA.
On the matter of teaching experience, it was found that staff on both programmes shared the common feature of previous service in pre-university teaching.

7.2.2 Programme Aims:

The findings indicate that the TPP aims are clearly too abstract and unspecific, which makes their interpretation and formulation into accurate working objectives immensely difficult. Another direct implication of the absence of explicit aims and objectives is the resulting impracticability of measuring or evaluating the effectiveness of their implementation.

The second issue to emerge from an analysis of the data concerns TPPA's attempt to reconcile the pursuit of three career goals in a single preparation programme, namely, those of a language specialist, a researcher and a teacher. In contrast, TPPB's ultimate goal is unified and unambiguous.

7.2.3 Admission Requirements:

An analysis of the admission requirements illustrates that both programmes (TPPA & TPPB) were highly selective and attempted to attract candidates of exceptional abilities so as to ensure the quality of future Arabic language teachers. However, in practice, adequate 'gate keeping' was found to be susceptible to the supply and demand of teachers which allowed a significant number of unmotivated and substandard candidates to slip through the net (see Figures 4.8 & 4.12).
7.2.4 Teacher Education Components:

The comparative analysis showed that both programmes gave unequal and dissimilar weight to the four course components. As far as the TPP's provision for the cultural or general education components were concerned, in terms of emphasis and content, sharp deviations were registered: for TPPA, the percentage was 25%, which is well within ALECSO's recommendations. Comparatively, for TPPB, the percentage was a poor 9%, which is approximately 16% below the recommended level by ALECSO. In view of these results, reactions to TPPA were marked by a resounding 75% satisfaction by both teachers and students. This was, nonetheless, accompanied by a desire for more variety and greater access to major world cultures and civilisations, which was expressed in the many suggestions that were made for improving the component. Predictably, almost half of TPPB's teaching staff and students indicated their dissatisfaction with the content of their cultural component and they judged this to be a major weakness on their programme. Suggestions, included an improvement in the content of the cultural component, including, the learning of an international language, mainly English.

The provision of specialist subject knowledge on both programmes was found to be adequate with TPPA assigning priority to this component over all others, with a percentage of 70%, which is in excess of ALECSO's recommended level (50-55%), while TPPB devoted 51% of the course to it, which is consistent with ALECSO's ideal
requirements. This met with considerable approval on the part of both teaching staff and students, i.e. 58.5% for TPPA and 63.5% for TPPB.

However, informants' reactions were unanimous concerning the imbalance of theory and practice in the delivery of this component and on the very limited opportunities offered for communicative language experiences. Over-reliance on the written word was singled out as the main cause of poor oral competence. Such defects were reflected in the numerous suggestions which were made and which predominantly related to the application of specialist subjects and the development of communicative skills.

Among the positive aspects mentioned were the adequate attention given to major classical works of literature, and the depth of subject coverage for TPPA, while for TPPB, its modern approach to language study and its foundation on modern linguistic theories was most valued.

A comparison of the importance given to the professional component revealed striking differences in emphasis and views. Attention to this component was found to be restricted to a mere 3% for TPPA, thus underrating it by 9-12% by ALECSO's standards. This resulted in a disturbingly low level of satisfaction by the students, [34%], and a curiously higher 47% by their teachers. The discrepancy in levels of confidence here was tentatively attributed to either vested interests, which could have moderated teachers' judgements, or their
declared belief that professional knowledge was nurtured by ‘on the job’ experience and maturity.

Understandably, TPPA students’ suggestions focused on a desire to expand this component and link it more closely with TANL teaching, and to more ‘down to earth’ issues of classroom practice.

In comparison, the professional component was found to be emphasised (38%) by over 20% on TPPB, thus ranking it second in order of importance after the specialisation subjects. The strong commitment to it was also obvious in the due attention paid to the specific problems of TAFL teaching. Yet, only half the students were appreciative in this respect. Reservations were attributed to the heavy dose of theory and -in common with TPPA- students’ preoccupations with classroom reality and the fear of not being able to cope with the impacts of modern technology on the practice of teaching.

Finally, the extraordinary 65.7% degree of satisfaction for this component, which was scored by the teachers on TPPB, reflects an excessive confidence in theory-based knowledge, which was not shared by the students.

Teaching practice (TP) emerged as the thorniest issue of all in this research as the existing provision for it on both programmes amounted to only one fifth of the required percentage, according to ALECSO. Only one third of TPPA’s students and staff said they were satisfied with it, compared to only a quarter on TPPB. It was judged to
be too short and poor in quality in terms of supervision, evaluation and assessment. Further sources of frustration mentioned by the students were the insufficient guidance they received about the practical matters of teaching; the poor co-ordination between HEIs and school curricula; the absence of a close link between theory and practice; and, the imbalance on the course between theory and practice.

Other TP-related deficiencies which were identified by the researcher and were shared by both programmes included the following:

- an inadequate concern with the gradual introduction of students to TP and a close monitoring of their progress when learning to teach;
- the element of luck involved in the allocation of students to qualified teachers, on whose goodwill and competence the quality of TP often depended;
- the pass/fail and unspecific nature of the final evaluation and assessment and the exclusion of qualified teachers when marking students (trainees);
- the unimaginative and restricted use of alternative methods of TP, such as simulations and video-based demonstrations;
- the limited and uninspiring nature of teaching observation; and,
- a failure by the authorities to place adequate value on this component so that students who failed to reach a set required standard could be identified during the course.
7.2.5 Other elements of the programmes:

Broad agreement was obtained on a number of other issues which were also under consideration in this study. There was a negative consensus between the students of the two programmes concerning the teaching methods, which were seen as old-fashioned, teacher-orientated and lacking creativity, with only a 37% degree of satisfaction for TPPA and 42% for TPPB. Likewise, the use of teaching aids, was believed to be insufficient and lacking in diversity, and met with an alarmingly low 18% approval on the part of TPPA students and only 24.3% for TPPB students. The assessment methods, which were essentially exam-based and weighted in favour of rote learning, were judged satisfactory by only 26.4% of students on TPPA and 38.5% of the students on TPPB. However, opinions were diverse on the question of the general organisation of the programmes, as TPPA students rated a low 40% degree of satisfaction, compared to a higher 58% approval by their counterpart students on TPPB.

The teaching staff's reactions to the four afore-mentioned issues tended to be an over positive assessment of the realities of the programmes and current practices, a view based on evidence from observations and the personal experience of the researcher. Hence, the self rating percentages of satisfaction with the teaching methods used were 61% for TPPA teachers and an even higher 75% for TPPB teachers. For the use of teaching aids, the scores were 50.2% for TPPA and an exceptionally lower 44.4% for TPPB. Regarding the assessment
methods, they met with only 49.2% and 44% approval on the part of TPPA and TPPB teachers, respectively. The general organisation of the programme was viewed favourably at a 61.2% and 70% degree of satisfaction by TPPA and TPPB teachers' respectively.

Turning to the question that lies at the heart of this investigation, namely the necessity to carry out programme evaluations, the data from this study, which is based on participant observation, interviews and informants' reactions to questionnaires, confirm the fact that the goals of evaluation are misunderstood and mishandled when implemented (routinely, if at all) and, because evaluation is generally still perceived as threatening to the interests of those involved in it.

In spite of all this, the overwhelming favourable response to the question obtained from the participants in the study (89.2%) forced the conclusion that there was general consensus and awareness that things could not go on as they were without the programmes being checked or measured for their effectiveness.

The comparative perspective adopted in this study contributed tremendously to highlighting the merits and drawbacks of the two teacher preparation programmes, hitherto never compared, to the best of the researcher's knowledge. It was not only useful to compare the two programmes but such a deep analysis has also helped to focus on each individual programme from within as well as in contrast to one another. The study proved to be an illuminating fact-finding venture. The
particular approach followed assisted in the identification of those areas and elements of the programmes that needed improving and those that deserved to be consolidated, promoted and could serve as an inspiration to other programmes.

It also raised the researcher's awareness of the importance of conducting programme evaluation studies, and the advantages of using a comparative approach as an instrument of diagnosis in evaluation.

Furthermore, the researcher believes that this investigation has not been a mere intellectual exercise. It has provoked a multitude of questions on the nature, value and effectiveness of diverse aspects of the two programmes involved in the comparison. The wealth of information gleaned during the process of investigation and the conclusions arrived at are not only informative, but are also conceivably of some value to other researchers, programme reformers and programme designers.

**7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

On the basis of the conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. It is essential that the entrance conditions, criteria and requirements of acceptance on these programmes are seriously observed and enforced so as to be certain that only outstanding candidates in terms of abilities and conduct are selected.
2. A detailed and meticulous objective system should be introduced in order to evaluate the teaching staff's standard of performance annually. Students' complaints that some teachers on the programmes are not dedicated enough in their teaching tasks need to be investigated and taken into account. Thus, any programme evaluation should necessarily involve the students' level of satisfaction with the programmes being studied.

3. There is a crucial need to create effective channels of co-ordination and co-operation between the language teacher preparation programmes and the receiving institutions which will employ their graduates. This study recommends considering the idea of forming a national committee consisting of the deans of these programmes and the authorities of the receiving institutions. The responsibilities of these people could include the following:

   3.1 the co-ordination of training rounds during the service;
   3.2 the evaluation of the graduates standard of work and their performance at these institutions; and,
   3.3 discussions about the curricula and the courses applied on these programmes and the possibility of amending them with respect to the desired outcome.

4. This study also recommends that the Saudi Arabian Universities, which are responsible for the preparation programmes of teachers of Arabic to native/non-native speakers, should be serious in endorsing the results of research and scientific studies which have been carried out in this field. They should also consider research findings as the basis for
developing and improving their existing programmes and they should also initiate and support their own research activities.

5. The results of this study have shown that lecturing was the most widely used form of teaching on these programmes. Other learner centred teaching methods should be encouraged to enable the learners to take an active role and responsibility for their learning.

6. This study also calls for the issuing of two specialist journals which deal separately with studies and research about teachers of Arabic to native and non-native speakers, which could help current teachers/students: they will inform and increase their knowledge and update them to keep up with modern teaching techniques, teaching materials, theories and trends.

7. The researcher recommends that all the programmes involved in this study should take steps to incorporate computer-assisted learning in their courses so as to move with the times and be part of the computer revolution which is currently sweeping the world.

8. This study also recommends that all the faculties and institutes concerned with the preparation of Arabic language teachers to native and non-native speakers should undertake the design of a group of "indispensable competencies" which deal with the teaching of Arabic materials to native and non-native speakers. The existing teacher preparation programmes could then be amended to take into account such basic competencies, giving them the importance and priority they deserve.
9. This study wishes to draw the attention of the programme authorities and teachers to the fact that rote learning should not be relied upon as the sole method of checking that knowledge has been acquired in higher education studies.

10. Since most students on the two programmes expressed dissatisfaction with the imbalance between theory and practice in their professional preparation, this study urges the authorities to review this question and redress the balance to give at least equal weight to both aspects of teacher preparation.

11. This study also recommends that the teaching staff on both programmes only use classical Arabic during their teaching, so as to help both native Arabic speakers and non-Arabic speakers to acquire the accurate use of this language and to avoid the complaints that some students have made.

12. It is also suggested that those in charge of the programmes activate in-service training as it constitutes an integrating dimension to the process of Arabic language teachers' preparation, whether to native speakers or non-Arabic speakers. Therefore, the study suggests organising in-service training programmes for teachers within at least five years of their graduation, with such training including other theoretical and practical features in addition to keeping the teachers briefed about new techniques in language teaching methods and modern facilities as well as a study of the problems they usually face in their teaching and ways of finding suitable solutions for them.
13. It is also suggested that those in charge of programme B concentrate on selecting specialists in Arabic language from the start. It has been noted that some of those admitted onto the programme originally specialised in law, the origin of religion, history, etc., which does not constitute an appropriate background for the programme they are joining.

7.4 GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

1. While carrying out research for this thesis, the author discovered the existence of a wealth of TAFL practices, skills and teaching resources scattered among a number of institutions, such as the American University in Cairo, the Khartoum International Institute, etc., all seeking to achieve the same goals but operating independently. For this reason, this study calls upon the authorities responsible for the preparation of teachers of Arabic as a non-native language to join efforts and forge links with each other in order to share experiences and the many benefits resulting from the close co-operation in this growing field of international interest.

2. This study also calls for the establishment of a central council of TAFL experts whose task would involve the research, evaluation, coordination and harmonisation of all the Saudi Arabian Institutes for teacher preparation programmes. Their results could form the basis of debates in conferences and symposia and research publications for the improvement and development of TAFL teaching in SA and abroad.
3. This study also urges the establishment of a special evaluation unit within each programme which involves representatives from teachers and experts in this area. Its mission would be to set a comprehensive assessment system for evaluating students at all their study stages and to carry out a follow-up of their linguistic, cultural and professional development. The unit would also set about preparing methods of objective examination evaluations and would, at the same time, embark upon analysing the results of the evaluation processes. Moreover, the unit would carry out a systematic and complete evaluation of the programmes and would make suggestions for correcting any weaknesses it found.

4. The finding of this research suggest that for both TPPA and TPPB, there is an overwhelming emphasis on the written word at the expense of oral work. The students’ wish for greater opportunities for oral expression and activities is, in the researcher’s view, justified, judging by the results of the observation period.

7.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

1. Despite their many advantages, comparative studies concerning the preparation of Arabic language teachers for native speakers in the different Arab countries are, as far as the researcher knows, very scarce. TANL teaching could conceivably be enormously enhanced if a pan-Arab database of comparative knowledge was established, which described variations in patterns of teaching and assessment and how these affect teaching outcomes, identified problems and alternative solutions; and
promoted good practices and innovative strategies for continuous programme development and educational improvement.

2. An investigation could be conducted into the effects on the professional profile and performance of newly graduated teachers resulting from the incorporation of various levels of professional education, including teaching practice, as compared with the immersion method.

3. An evaluative study of the current assessment methods used in ALTPPs, the extent of their effectiveness and their effects on teaching and learning standards could prove to be invaluable in identifying effective and inefficient practices.

4. Comparative studies could be undertaken between programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to native speakers and similar programmes dealing with the preparation of teachers of English or French to native speakers, for example.

5. Comparative studies contrasting programmes for the preparation of the Arabic language teacher to non-native speakers with similar programmes for the teacher of English or French, or other languages, could also be undertaken.

6. Research could be conducted into identifying the types of teaching problems and difficulties encountered by newly qualified teachers of the Arabic language both for TANL and TAFL for the purpose of amending and improving current teacher preparation programmes.

7. Comparative research could also examine the impact on the learning outcomes of students resulting from being subjected to teaching by
teachers for whom Arabic is a mother tongue on the one hand, and by teachers for whom Arabic is a foreign language.
Note: The particles "Al" and "The" are treated here as an integral part of the authors’ proper names and are thus taken into account in the alphabetical ordering system.


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APPENDIX (A)

OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE FOR

PERMISSION TO APPLY STUDY ON SELECTED POPULATION
حفظ الله

معالي الأخ الكريم الدكتور عبد الله العجلان
مدير جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

افيد معاليكم بأن الطالب صالح بن حمد السحيمي الذي يحضر الدكتوراه في علم اللغة التطبيقية

بجامعة ليدز في بريطانيا.

يرجى مساعدته في جمع المصادر والإطلاع على القرارات وتطبيق الاستدلالات التي تخدم
دراسةه الحالية (دراسة وضعية تدابيره، مقارنة برامج إعداد معلم اللغة العربية لأناثها ولذكور
الناطقين بها في جامعات الرياض).

أرجو التكرم بتوجيهات على الجهة المتخصصة لتقديم المساعدة اللازمة له، شاكراً لمعاليكم سلفاً

الاهتمام.

مع أطيب تحياتي،

السفير

غازى بن عبد الرحمن القصبي

التاريخ: 18/أبريل/1995م
الموافق: 18/ذو القعدة/1415هـ
حفظه الله

معالي الأخ الكريم الدكتور أحمد الضبيب
مدير جامعة الملك سعود

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أفيد معاليكم بأن الطالب صالح بن حمد المحياني الذي يحضر الدكتوراه في علم اللغة التطبيقية في جامعة ليدز في بريطانيا.

يرجى مساعدةه في جمع المصادر والإبلاغ على القرارات وتطبيق الاستجابات التي تستخدم دراسته الحالية (دراسة في قسم تجاربها) في برنامج إعداد معاهد اللغة العربية لأبناءها ولغير الناطقين بها في جامعات الرياض.

أرجو التكرم بتوجيهه على الجهود المخصصة لتقديم المساعدة اللازمة له، شاكرين لكمالي فضلكم.

مع أطيب تحياتي،

المستقبل

غازي بن عبد الرحمن القصبي

التاريخ: 18/أبريل/1995م
الموافق: 18/ ذو القعدة/1415هـ
معالي الاستاذ الدكتور مدير الجامعة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.

أدركتهما تشير معايكم على خطاب الطالب صالح بن حمد السبحاني المؤرخ في 10/12/1436هـ، ومتضمن رغبته في إجراء دراسة وافية تحليلية بخصوص مقارنة برامج إعداد معلمي اللغة العربية لأبنائها ولغير الناطقين بها في كل من: كلية التربية، وكلية الآداب، ومعهد اللغة العربية (جامعة الملك سعود) مع تلك البرامج في جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية، وبعد مراجعة الاستجابة المرفقة بالخطاب تبين ما يلي:

1. ارفع الطالب استذانين” أهداه ثمن أعضاء هيئة التدريس في الجهات المعنية، والثانية تخص الطلاب والدارسين.

وتتضمن الاستجابة الموجهة إلى أعضاء هيئة التدريس قسمين:

القسم الأول: معلومات عامة عن الشخص، تتمثل في العمر والجنسية ومسمى الوظيفة والمؤهل الأكاديمي ووجامعته التخرج وسنوات الخبرة ومدة العمل وغير ذلك مما يتعلق بطبيعة العمل وشرع التخصص.

القسم الثاني: الآراء والانطباعات حول التفاعل بين عضو هيئة التدريس وأهداف البرنامج التعليمي، وأعداد الدارسين والوقت المخصص للتدريس والحاجة إلى إجراء دراسة تقويمية وما ينتجه البرنامج الدراسي من خروج لاستكشاف المهارات الإنجابية، والمسار الذي ينهى إلى أعضاء هيئة التدريس المسؤولين من أجل اتباع البرنامج واهتمام المسؤولين بإيجاد حلول مشابهة للمستقبل ومنهج خريجي البرنامج، ومدى تحقيق البرنامج لأهدافه المбудومة، بالإضافة إلى معلومات أخرى تتعلق بكيفية إعداد البحوث والمقالات في مجال تدريس اللغة العربية وحث الدارسين على القيام بتنفيذ البحوث وطرق تحضير الدروس 100%.

وتتضمن الاستجابة الخاصة بالدارسين بالإضافة إلى المعلومات العامة آراءهم وانطباعاتهم حول البرنامج
معادة الدكتور مدير معهد اللغة العربية

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته 00 وبعد:

شجرون طيه موراة مواقة معالي الإستاذ الدكتور مدير الجامعة على
توزيع الاستبانة الخامة بالطالب صالح بن حمد السهبياني والذي يحضر
 رسالة الدكتوراه في علم اللغة التقليدي بجامعة ليدز في بريطانيا
 ويقوم بعمل دراست مقارنة لبرامج إعداد معلمي اللغة العربية
 لأبنائها وليفس الناطقين بها في جامعتي الملك سعود والأمام محمد بن
 سعود الإسلامية.

ارجوا تفضل معايضتها التوجيهية بشهيل مهتمه للاشته في النهاية استبانة المرفقة وتجميعها لدى
 سكرتارية رؤساء الأقسام لدينا لاستلامها.

ولكم خالص تحياتي وتقديري،

المشرف على إدارة
الدراسات والتطوير الجامعي

000/00

عبد الرحمن بن أحمد مانع
سعادة الدكتور عمي كلية الآداب
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبركاته 00 وبعد:
تجدون طية موافقة معالي الإستاذ الدكتور مدير الجامعة على توزيع الاستبتابة الخاصة بالطالب صالح بن محمد السويسي والذي يحض رسالة الدكتوراه في علم اللغة العربية بجامعة ليدز في بريطانيا، ويدعو مسيرة مقارنة لبرامج إعداد علمي اللغة العربية لأبنائها ولغير الناطقين بها في جامعة الملك سعود والأمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية.

ارجو تفخم سعادته التوجه بتسهيل مهامه للاتصال بالأخوة أعضاء هيئة التدريس لمساعدة في تعمية استبتاباته المرفقية، وجمعها لدى إدارتهات رؤساء الأقسام لديكم لتسليمها.
ولكم خالص تحياتي و تقديري.

المشرف على إدارة الدراسات والتطوير الجامعي
أ.د. عبد الرحمن بن أحمد صائغ
فخ伊拉 عبده، معهد تعليم اللغة العربية بالرياض
والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته... أما بعد:
فيрафه صورة من خطاب سعادة سفير خادم الحرمين الشريفين في لندن متضمنا التوصية بتقديم المساعدة اللازمة للمبتعثة، سماحة بن حمد السبحاني، للإطلاع على المقررات وتطبيق الاستبيانات التي تخدم دراسته الحالية.
نأمل إقبال اللادم، تقديم المساعدة اللازمة فيما يخدم بحثه المتعلق بدراسته في مرحلة الدكتوراه.
وأطم خالص تحياتي...
وكيل الجامعة المساعد
علي بن محمد الفضل

1118
صورة: القضية وكيل الجامعة الشؤون التعليمية.
صورة لوكنيل
صورة: صورة لإدارة الخدمات بالتطوير الإداري.
صورة للحفل.
APPENDIX ( B )

TEACHING STAFF's QUESTIONNAIRES

( English Version )
The Teachers' Version

Dear Dr ......................

The attached questionnaire is part of my postgraduate doctoral research which is a comparative study that is attempting to detect the strengths and weaknesses of the current situation of the preparation programmes for teachers of the Arabic language to native and non-native speakers, at the Universities of King Saud and Al-Imam, both in Riyadh (Saudi Arabia).

As a result of your academic expertise and sound knowledge of this programme, I would appreciate it if you could spend some time providing frank and thorough answers to the attached questionnaire. Your responses will be held in strict confidence and will only be used for research purposes.

Thank you for your co-operation and response.

Yours sincerely,

Saleh Al- Suhaibani
Ph.D. Candidate

Supervisor: Dr. A. Shivtiel
Address: The Department of Arabic & Middle Eastern Studies
University of Leeds
Leeds LS2 9JT U.K.

Questionnaire Instructions

Please follow the instructions given below:

1. Read the questions carefully and then put a tick (✓) in the blank space provided next to the answers that express your opinion.
2. There are some open questions on this questionnaire and so you are free to present your views: some spaces have been provided for you to write your ideas, comments, recommendations, suggestions, etc.
3. The word “programme” is used here to refer to the collective body of knowledge, expertise, skills, curricula, means and methods of evaluation and all the activities that the university or institute uses to prepare students for the profession of teaching the Arabic language.
THE FIRST SECTION

**Personal Information**

Please put a tick (✓) in the appropriate space:

1. Name: (optional) ..............................................................

2. Age:
   - ( ) 30 - 34
   - ( ) 35 - 39
   - ( ) 40 - 44
   - ( ) 45 - 49
   - ( ) 50 or over

3. Nationality:
   - ( ) Egyptian
   - ( ) Jordanian
   - ( ) Palestinian
   - ( ) Saudi Arabian
   - ( ) Sudanese
   - ( ) Syrian
   - ( ) Other (specify, please) ...................

4. Name of the University:
   - ( ) Al-Imam University
   - ( ) King Saud University

5. Name of the Faculty:
   - ( ) The Faculty of Arabic Language
   - ( ) The Faculty of Arts

6. Present Academic Status: (please write)
   - ( ) Professor
   - ( ) Associate Professor
   - ( ) Assistant Professor
   - ( ) Lecturer
   - ( ) Instructor/Demonstrator

7. Last Qualifications obtained:
   - ( ) Ph.D.
   - ( ) M.A, M.ED
   - ( ) Other (specify, please)

8. Name of university where your last qualification was obtained:
   .....................................................................................................

9. How long have you been teaching in this field?
   - ( ) 1 - 4 years
   - ( ) 5 - 9 years
   - ( ) 10 - 14 years
   - ( ) 15 years or more

10. Have you taught in the field of general education before?
   - ( ) Yes
   - ( ) No
11. If the answer is (Yes), for how long?
   ( ) 1-4 years   ( ) 5-9 years
   ( ) 10-14 years   ( ) 15 years or more

12. Have you had any training in the field of your present work?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No

13. Have you attended any symposiums or conferences in your field of specialisation?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No

14. Have you participated in any of the symposia or conferences in your field of specialisation?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No

15. If the answer is (Yes), how many symposia and conferences in your field of specialisation have you attended?
   ( ) 1-4   ( ) 5-9
   ( ) 10-14   ( ) 15 or more

16. What language(s) other than Arabic do you speak? Please put a tick (✓) to comment on your proficiency in each language:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Above Average</td>
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<td>Below Average</td>
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<td>French</td>
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<td>Above Average</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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<td>Above Average</td>
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<td>Average</td>
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<td>Below Average</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
THE SECOND SECTION

Opinion and Impressions

A = Agree        UN = Uncertain        D = Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Statement</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>D</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is necessary to conduct an evaluative study of this programme in the</td>
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<tr>
<td>light of the present day requirements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Generally, the present curricula greatly contribute to preparing students</td>
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<tr>
<td>adequately for the teaching profession.</td>
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<td>3. The cumulative number of assigned hours on this programme is sufficient.</td>
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<td>4. The programme provides sufficient opportunities for the students to</td>
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<tr>
<td>acquire the necessary language skills which Arabic language teachers need</td>
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<td>at the present time.</td>
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<td>5. There is cohesion and integration between the specialisation subjects</td>
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<td>which are applied on this programme.</td>
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<td>6. The programme provides students with opportunities to acquire the widest</td>
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<td>scope of knowledge possible in their specialisation and to follow it up</td>
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<td>with relevant subjects.</td>
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<td>7. The specialisation standard of graduating students from this programme is</td>
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<td>good.</td>
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<td>8. The programme contributes to the general intellectual education of</td>
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<td>students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Statement</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>UN</td>
<td>D</td>
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<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>9. The programme helps students to learn professional ethics and rules of conduct.</td>
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<td>10. Presently, the educational theory and psychology syllabuses on the programme adequately contribute to the preparation of students for the teaching profession.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. The programme introduces the students to a wide variety of language teaching methods.</td>
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<td>12. The programme trains students adequately in the use of teaching aids.</td>
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<td>13. The present programme provides adequate explanations about modern trends in language teaching.</td>
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<td>14. This programme contains an adequate study of assessment methods and how to prepare them in the future.</td>
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<td>15. The programme includes training students in lesson planning and curriculum design.</td>
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<td>16. A sufficient period is allocated for teaching practice.</td>
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<td>17. The programme introduces students to research activities in their field of study.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. The programme encourages students to conduct research activities in their area of specialisation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. The University provides incentives and sufficient awards for staff members who undertake research work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Statement</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>UN</td>
<td>D</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. The assessment methods applied on this programme are sufficient to measure the students' academic achievement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. The teaching methods used by teachers on this programme are satisfactory.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. The extra-curricular activities which are organised on this programme are satisfactory.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. This programme provides opportunities for students to use their new knowledge and to put it into practice in various situations.</td>
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<td>24. The programme helps to prepare students to participate effectively and adequately in the community.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. There is an organised curriculum within this programme which guides us towards overcoming student weaknesses.</td>
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<td>26. The number of students in one hall makes it difficult to evaluate the extent of their achievements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27. The authorities are keen to find suitable solutions for the problems which may disrupt the programme.</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. I use a variety of different teaching aids in my lectures.</td>
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<td>29. The course organisation is satisfactory.</td>
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<tr>
<td>30. Generally, I am completely satisfied with the academic standard of the current programme.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
31. Which assessment methods are you presently applying to the students on this programme?
(Please rank them in order according to the priority of their use)
( ) Written Tests. ( ) Assignments.
( ) Practical Work. ( ) Homework.
( ) Other (specify, please) .................................................................

32. Are there any other subjects which you feel are important in the area of the preparation of Arabic language teachers but which are not taught on the present programme?
( ) Yes ( ) No ( ) I don't know

33. If the answer is (Yes), please mention some of them:
...........................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................

34. I can see that there are many positive aspects on the programme:
a-( ) Agree b-( ) Uncertain c-( ) Disagree

35. If your answer for the statement is (a), would you please briefly specify them:
1- ...................... 2- ...................... 3- ......................
4- ...................... 5- ...................... 6- ......................

36. I can see that there are many weak areas on this programme:
a-( ) Agree b-( ) Uncertain c-( ) Disagree

37. If your answer for the above statement is (a), would you please briefly mention these weak areas:
1- ...................... 2- ...................... 3- ......................
4- ...................... 5- ...................... 6- ......................
THE THIRD SECTION

Suggestions:

1. Some areas on the present programme must be developed in order to achieve the desired aims:
   a-( ) Agree   b-( ) Uncertain   c-( ) Disagree

2. If your answer for the above statement is (a), would you please indicate which areas you find it necessary to develop and improve on the programme:
   ( ) the curricula;
   ( ) the contents of the subjects and syllabuses;
   ( ) the length of the programme;
   ( ) the teaching methods;
   ( ) the assessment methods;
   ( ) organisational and administrative aspects;
   ( ) teaching aids used;
   ( ) the standard of teachers and lecturers;
   ( ) other (please specify). .....................................................

3. How do you think the above developments can be achieved?
   (please specify briefly)
   ....................................................................................
   .....................................................................................

4. There must be differences on the programmes for the preparation of teachers of Arabic for native and non-native speakers?
   a-( ) Agree   b-( ) Uncertain   c-( ) Disagree

5. Which one of the two programmes do you think must be given the most consideration and concern?
   ( ) The programme for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to native speakers.
   ( ) The programme for the preparation of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers.
   ( ) Both programmes.
6. Please specify some of the differences between the two programmes which you are aware of according to your own knowledge and experience:

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

7. Do you have any more suggestions which you think may make a significant contribution towards making the present programme more effective?

( ) Yes  ( ) No

8. If your answer is (Yes), please specify:

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

Thank you for your co-operation and participation

******
APPENDIX (C)

STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRES

(English Version)
The Students' Version

Dear Colleague ......................

The attached questionnaire is part of my postgraduate doctoral research which is concerned with the comparative study of the current situation of the programmes for the preparation of teachers of the Arabic language to native and non-native speakers at the Universities of King Saud and Al-Imam, both in Riyadh (Saudi Arabia), in order to detect their weaknesses and strengths.

As you have spent a long time studying, you will be able to throw light on some aspects of these programmes. I am confident that you will be willing to give a little of your time to provide frank and thorough answers to these questions. Your responses will be held in strict confidence and will only be used for research purposes.

Thank you in advance for your help.

Yours sincerely,
Saleh Al -Suhaibani
Ph. D. Candidate

Supervisor: Dr. A. Shivtiel
Address: The Department of Arabic & Middle Eastern Studies
University of Leeds
Leeds LS2 9JT  U.K.

Questionnaire Instructions

Please follow the instructions given below:

1. Read these questions carefully and then put a tick (✓) in the blank box provided with respect to the answers that express your opinion.
2. There are some open questions in this questionnaire and so you are asked to present your views. Some spaces have been provided for you to write your ideas, comments, criticisms, recommendations, suggestions, etc.
3. The word “programme” is used here to refer to the collective body of knowledge, expertise, skills, curricula, means and methods of evaluation and all the activities that the university or college facilities have to prepare you for the task of being a professional teacher of Arabic to non-native speakers.
THE FIRST SECTION

General Information

Please put a tick (✓) in the appropriate space:

1. Name: (optional) .................................................................

2. Age: ( ) 22-26 ( ) 27-31 ( ) 32-36 ( ) 37 or over

3. Marital Status: ( ) Married ( ) Single

4. Nationality: ( ) Saudi ( ) Non-Saudi (specify please) ............

5. Last academic qualifications achieved:
   ( ) B.A. degree specialising in ..............................................
   ( ) Diploma /Certificate specialising in ................................
   ( ) Other (specify, please) ....................................................

6. The year in which you gained your degree /certificate:
   ( ) 1414/1994 ( ) 1413/1993
   ( ) 1412/1992 ( ) Other (specify, please) ..............

7. Your grade:
   ( ) excellent ( ) very good ( ) good
   ( ) acceptable ( ) weak

8. The town/city in which you studied:
   ( ) Riyadh ( ) Other (please, specify) ..... 

9. Name of University where you are now studying:
   ( ) Al-Imam University
   ( ) King Saud University

10. Name of Institute in which you are now studying:
    ( ) The Institute for Teaching Arabic
    ( ) The Arabic Language Institute
11. Your previous occupation before joining this programme:
   ( ) Teacher.
   ( ) Working for the government but not in teaching.
   ( ) Working in the private sector.
   ( ) University level student.
   ( ) Other (specify, please) ........................................

12. I prefer to continue my postgraduate study in this specialisation rather than in another field:
   ( ) because I like working in the field of teaching.
   ( ) to get a higher salary.
   ( ) because studying in this field is easier than in other areas.
   ( ) because of the lack of other suitable opportunities for me.
   ( ) as a response to the advice of others.
   ( ) because I like teaching Arabic to non-native speakers in particular.
   ( ) any other reason (specify, please) .....................................

13. The occupation that I would like to engage in after my graduation:
   ( ) Teaching.
   ( ) An educational job other than teaching.
   ( ) Taking a job in the government.
   ( ) Continuing my higher education.
   ( ) Working in the private sector.
   ( ) Other (specify, please) ........................................

*****
### Opinions and Impressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A = Agree</th>
<th>UN = Uncertain</th>
<th>D = Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### The Statement

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>There is a great need to conduct an evaluative study of this programme in the light of the present day requirements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The present curricula greatly contribute to preparing us adequately for the teaching profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The cumulative number of assigned hours on this programme is sufficient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The programme provides sufficient opportunities for us to acquire the language skills which the Arabic language teacher needs at the present time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>There is cohesion and integration between the specialisation subjects which are applied on this programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The programme provides us with opportunities for the acquisition of the widest scope of knowledge possible in this area of specialisation and in the follow up to relevant subjects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The specialisation standard of graduating students from this programme is good.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The general education (cultural) aspect on this programme is adequate for preparing us as teachers of Arabic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Statement</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The programme helps students to learn professional ethics and rules of conduct.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The educational theory and psychology syllabuses on this programme adequately contribute to preparing us for the teaching profession.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The programme provides an adequate introduction to a wide variety of language teaching methods.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The programme introduces the students to modern trends in language teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The programme trains us adequately in the use of teaching aids.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. This programme contains an adequate study of assessment methods and how to prepare them in our future carer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The programme trains us in lesson planning and curriculum design.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The period allocated for teaching practice on this programme is sufficient.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. This programme trains us in research methods and in the writing of articles in the field of Arabic language teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The programme encourages students to conduct research activities in their area of specialisation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The teaching staff make frequent use of a variety of teaching aids during their lectures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The assessment methods applied on the present programme are adequate for measuring the level of our academic achievement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21. The teaching methods used by teachers on this programme are satisfactory.

22. The extra-curricular activities which are organised on this programme are satisfactory.

23. This programme provides an opportunity for us to use our new knowledge and to put it into practice in various situations.

24. This programme helps us to achieve effective and adequate participation in present day society.

25. There is an organised curriculum within this programme which guides us towards overcoming our weaknesses.

26. The number of students in one hall makes it difficult to measure the extent of our achievements.

27. The authorities are very keen to find suitable solutions for the problems which may disrupt the programme.

28. The course organisation is satisfactory.

29. Generally, I am completely satisfied with the academic standard of the current programme.

30. Do you note any weaknesses on this programme?
   ( ) Yes  ( ) No  ( ) I don't know

31. If your answer is (Yes), please specify them briefly:
   1- ........................  2- ........................  3- ........................
   4- ........................  5- ........................  6- ........................

32. Does the programme have any strong points?
   ( ) Yes  ( ) No  ( ) I don't know
33. If the answer is (Yes), please specify these strengths briefly:

...........................................................................................................

...........................................................................................................

34. Are there any specific subjects or areas which you feel are important for preparing you as a teacher of TAFL, but which have not been taught on this programme?

( ) Yes ( ) No ( ) I don't know

35. If your answer is (Yes), please mention as many as you can:

1- ........................ 2- ........................ 3- .....................
4- ........................ 5- ........................ 6- ........................

*****
THE THIRD SECTION

Suggestions:

1. Some developmental areas must be added to the present programme in order to achieve the expected aims.
   a- ( ) Agree    b- ( ) Uncertain    c- ( ) Disagree

2. If the above answer is (a), in which areas do you think it is necessary to make developments and improvements on this programme:
   ( ) in the curricula.
   ( ) in the contents of the subjects and syllabuses.
   ( ) in the length of the programme.
   ( ) in the teaching methods.
   ( ) in the assessment methods.
   ( ) in organisational and administrative aspects.
   ( ) in the teaching aids used.
   ( ) in the standard of teachers and lecturers.
   ( ) other (please, specify) ......................................................

3. How do you think the above developments can be achieved?
   (please mention them briefly)
   .....................................................................................................
   .....................................................................................................

4. Would you advise or recommend any of your friends to take this programme as his course of study?
   ( ) Yes    ( ) No

5. Do you have any other suggestions which you think may contribute to the development of the present programme for the preparation of the Arabic language teacher?
   ( ) Yes    ( ) No

6. If your answer is (Yes), please mention them:
   .....................................................................................................
   .....................................................................................................

Thank you for your participation and co-operation.
APPENDIX (D)

TEACHING STAFF’s QUESTIONNAIRES

(Arabic Version)
سعادة الأستاذ الفاضل الدكتور/ ... المحترم،

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعـد:

يرجي الباحث دراسة علمية تستهدف التعرف على واقع البرامج الحالية لإعداد معلمي اللغة العربية في كل من جامعتي الملك سعود والإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية بالرياض، ودراسهم مع عقد المقارنة بينهما، ومحاولة الوقوف على جوانب القوة والضعف فيها. وقد استلزم البحث إعداد استبيان لمعرفة وجهة نظركم، وأخذ آرائكم ومقدراتكم. انطلاقاً من خبركم العلمي ومعلوماتكم الطيبة عن هذا البرنامج، نستقبل أحد أعضاء الهيئة المدرسية فيه؛ لذلك أمل منكم التكرم بالإجابة عن الاستبيان المرفق لئن تأخذ سوياً وضع دقائق من وقتكم، علمنا بأناجياتكم متجهي بالسحرية ولن نستخدم إلا الأغراض البحث، شاكراً ومقدراً لكم سلماً جهودكم.

ودمتتم،

الباحث

صالح بن حمد السحبياني

تعليمات الاستبيانة:

1- قراءة هذه الأسئلة بتمعن، ووضع علامة (√) أمام الإجابة التي ترون أنها تامًا، أو تعب عن رأيكم.
2- تتطلب بعض الأسئلة إجابات مفتوحة، وقد خصص لها الفترات الملائمة؛ لذلك يرجى منكم عدم الوضوء في كتابة ما توذون
3- تتكرر كثيرًا في هذه الاستبانة كلمة (برنامج) والمقصود بها هو: مجموعة المراكز والمحار، والمواقف، والذاتيات والخريجات، والمحور، وأساليب التدريس وكافئة الأنشطة التي تهيئها الجامعة في سبيل إعداد الدارس لمهنة التدريس في مجال تعلم اللغة العربية.
القسم الأول: بيانات شخصية:

الاسم: (اختياري)

العمر: (قم بالعلامة على مناسبة)
- 30 سنة
- 31 - 39 سنة
- 40 - 49 سنة
- أكثر من 50 سنة

الجنسية:
- مصري
- سعودي
- أردني
- فلسطيني
- آخر (لضمن الجنسية):

اسم الجامعة:
- جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية

اسم الكلية:
- كلية اللغة العربية

مسمي وظيفتك الحالية: (رجاء أكملوا الفراغ):
- أستاذ
- مساعد
- مساعد
- معيد

آخر مؤهل علمي حصلت عليه:
- درجة الدكتوراه
- درجة الماجستير

اسم الجامعة التي حصلت منها على آخر مؤهل علمي:
مكانتها:

مدة وآين تعلمت في هذا المجال؟
- 5 - 9 سنوات
- 10 - 14 سنوات
- أكثر من 15 سنة

هلسبق أن عملتم في مجال التدريس بمدارس التعليم العام (التعليم مacija)؟
- نعم
- لا

إذا كان الجواب بالنعم، فكم الساعة التي قضيتموها في ذلك العمل؟
- 1 - 4 سنوات
- 5 - 9 سنوات
- أكثر من 15 سنة

هل سابق أن التحقتم بدورات تدريبية في مجال عملكم الحالي؟
- نعم
- لا

هل سابكم حضرتم بعض الندوات والمؤتمرات في مجال تخصصكم؟
- نعم
- لا
هل سبق أن اشترك في بعض الندوات أو المؤتمرات في مجال تخصصك؟


(14)  
لا  □  نعم □

إن كان الجواب بـ (نعم) فكم عدد تلك الندوات والمؤتمرات التي اشترك فيها؟

(15)  
1-4 ندوات □  5-9 ندوات □  أكثر من 10 ندوات □

ما اللغة التي تستطيعون الحديث بها غير العربية؟

(16)  
(يرجى التذكير بوضع علامة "√" أسفل المهارات اللغوية التي تجيدونها فقط)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>المهارة</th>
<th>اللغة</th>
<th>مستوى</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>فهم ولاستماع</td>
<td>الإنجليزية</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>القراءة</td>
<td>فرنسي</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الكتابة</td>
<td>الألمانية</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>المحادثة</td>
<td>الإسبانية</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>دون المستوى</td>
<td>الأخرى</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>دون المستوى</td>
<td>فرصًا حدد</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>جدول: محاكاة الأراء والاتساعات</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>غير موافق</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الحاجة ماسة فعلاً لإجراء دراسة تقويمية لهذا البرنامج في ضوء متطلبات العصر الحاضر.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>المقررات المطابقة في البرنامج الحالي كافية لإعداد مدرس للغة العربية.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إجراء عدد الساعات المقررة في هذا البرنامج كافية.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يتميز البرنامج في واقعه الحالي الفرصة للدارس لاستكشاف المهارات اللغوية التي يحتاجها معلم اللغة العربية في الوقت الحاضر.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>هناك ترابط وتكامل بين مجموعات التخصص المطابقة في هذا البرنامج.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يتميز البرنامج الحالي للدارس الإسلام بأوساط تطوع معرفي ممكن في مجال التخصص وتماسك الموضوعات ذات الصلة به.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مستوى الحريض من هذا البرنامج جيد في مجال التخصص.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يسهم البرنامج بدرجة كبيرة في إعداد الدارس إعداد ثقافيًا عامًا.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يكسب البرنامج الحالي الدارسين مقومات الأخلاق الفاضلة وخصائص السلوك المهني لتعلم اللغة العربية.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إن المقررات النبوية والنفسية ووضعها الراهن في البرنامج تسهم بدرجة كافية في إعداد الدارس للغة العربية.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يساعد البرنامج الدارس على الإجادة في استخدام أساليب وطرق متنوعة للفنون.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يناسب البرنامج الدارسين على كيفية استخدام الوسائل العلمية.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يعطي البرنامج الحالي الدارسين نبذة عن المهارات الحديثة في تعلم اللغات.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يتضمن البرنامج دراسة لطرق التقييم وأساليب إعدادها.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يتضمن هذا البرنامج تدريب الدارس على طرق تدريس الدروس وإعدادها.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اللغة العربية المختصة في إدارة العملية (البداية) في هذا البرنامج كافية.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يدعم البرنامج الدارسين على كيفية إعداد البحوث والمقالات في مجال تدريس اللغة العربية.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يبحث البرنامج الدارسين على القيام بالبحوث العلمية في مجال تدريس اللغة العربية.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>تقدم الجامعة الخواص والمميزات الكافية لأعضاء هيئة التدريس من أجل الاهتمام بالبحوث.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أساليب التقييم المميزة حاليًا في هذا البرنامج كافية للقياس مستوى التحليل لدى الدارسين.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الـمــعـارة</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>غير موافق</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>طريق التدريس المستخدمة حالياً في البرنامج مرشدة بصفة عامة.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إن الأنشطة غير المهنية المنتشرة حالياً في البرنامج مرشدة إلى حد بعيد.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يتيح هذا البرنامج المجال للدارسين لاستخدام معارفهم الجديدة والعمل على ممارستها في موافقة متعددة.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يساعد هذا البرنامج على إعداد الدارسين للمشاركة بفعالية ونشاط في المجتمع.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>هناك مهج منص من البرنامج الحاذي لإرشاد الدارسين إلى كيفية التغلب على نواحي الضعف لديهم.</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أعداد الدارسين في الشعبة الواحدة كثيرة مما يجعل التأكد من مدى تحصيلهم العلمي صعباً بعض الشيء.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إن المسؤولين هم من جذاب إعداد الحلول المناسبة للمشكلات التي قد تضطرب.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>سبيل البرنامج.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يستخدم في محاضراتي غالبًا مختلف الوسائل التعليمية.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إن الطريقة المتبعة في تنظيم البرنامج الحاذي مرشدة بصفة عامة.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إنني مقتعم تماماً بخصوص البرنامج الحاذي بصفة عامة.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(31) ما أساليب التقويم التي تطبقها حالياً على الدارسين في هذا البرنامج؟ (يرجى ترقيمها حسب أغلبية الاستخدام)

- التحليل بالبحث القصير
- التقييم الفوري
- النظريات العملية
- الدراسات التحريرية

هل هناك مقررات عامة تشعرون بأهميتها في مجال تأهيل معلم اللغة العربية، ولكنها لا تُنادى في البرنامج الحاذي؟

لا
لا أعلم
نعم

(33) إن كان الجواب بـ (نعم) فهل لكم أن تذكرنا ببعض من تلك المقررات؟

(34) أرى أن هناك جوانب ضعف كبيرة في البرنامج الحاذي.

- موافق
- غير متأكد
- غير موافق

إن كانت الإجابة عقياساً للعبارة رقم (1) برجي التكرم بذكر جوانب الضعف باختصار.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4

(35) أرى أن هناك جوانب قوة كبيرة في البرنامج الحاذي.

- موافق
- غير متأكد
- غير موافق

إن كانت الإجابة باختصاراً للعبارة رقم (1) برجي التكرم بذكر أهم تلك الجوانب.

- 1
- 2
- 3
القسم الثالث: المقترحات:

(1) يجب إدخال بعض الجوانب التطويرية على البرنامج الحالي لكي يحقق الأهداف المشروعة منه.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>موافق</th>
<th>غير موافق</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

إذا كانت الإجابة بإيجابي، رقم (1) في أي جانب نترون ضرورة إيجاد التطور والتحسين للبرنامج؟
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>في أساليب التقييم</th>
<th>في كميات المقرر التعليمية</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>في الجوانب التنظيمية والإدارية</td>
<td>في محتوى المقرر التعليمية</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>في الوسائل التعليمية المستخدمة</td>
<td>في طرق التدريس المتبعة في البرنامج</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>آخر، (يرجى التحديد)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) كيف ترون أن يشم ذلك التطور في الجوانب التي وقع عليها اختياركم آنفاً؟
(أرجو التحكم بذلك بإيجاباً)

(3) يجب أن يكون هناك اختلاف بين برامج إعداد معلم اللغة العربية لأبنائها وبين برامج إعداد معلمى العربية لغير الناطقين بها.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>موافق</th>
<th>غير موافق</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(4) أي البرامج في رأيكم يجب أن يحظى بالتصويت الأكبر من الاهتمام والعناية؟
| برنامج إعداد معلمى العربية لأبنائها العرب | برنامج إعداد معلمى العربية لغير الناطقين بها |

هل لكم أن تفضلوا مشكورين بذكر بعض من جوانب الاختلاف بين البرامجين حسب معرفكم؟

(5) هل لكم أن تفضلوا مشكورين بذكر بعض من جوانب الاختلاف بين البرامجين حسب معرفكم؟

(6) هل لكم أن تفضلوا مشكورين بذكر بعض من جوانب الاختلاف بين البرامجين حسب معرفكم؟

(7) هل لكم أن تفضلوا مشكورين بذكر بعض من جوانب الاختلاف بين البرامجين حسب معرفكم؟

(8) هل لكم أن تفضلوا مشكورين بذكر بعض من جوانب الاختلاف بين البرامجين حسب معرفكم؟

(انتهى الاستبانة وشكرًا جزيلًا لكم على حسن تعاونكم وطلب تعليكم)
APPENDIX (E)

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES

(Arabic Version)
عذري الدارس ...........................
وفقك الله،

السلام عليكم ورحة الله وبركاته، وبعد: 

الاستبانة التي ينديك جزء من بحث علمي لدرجة الدكتوراه يهدف معرفة الواقع الحالي لبرامج إعداد معلمي اللغة العربية لأبنائها ونعتبر الناطقين بها في كل من جامعة الملك سعود والامام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية بالرياض، وعقد المقارنة بينهما، ومحاولة الوقوف على جوانب القوة والضعف فيها. وحيث إن كل من أمضا فروة تبدو كافية لاستطالة رأيك في بعض من جوانب البرنامج الذي تدرس فيه الآن؛ لذا فإن اللغة فيك كبيرة باذن بعلينا بالإجابة الصريحة والدقيقة على فقرات الاستبانة المرفقة التي نأخذ سوي بضع دقائق من وقتكم، علمًا أنا إجابة ستحظى بالسرية ولن تستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث، شاكراً سلفاً حسن تجاوبكم، وطيب تعاونكم، والله يوفقكم ويجعل النجاح حليفك.

ودمتم،

الباحث
صالح بن حمد السهيباني

تعليمات الاستبانة:
أخي الدارس:

أمل منك التكرم بتباع الآتي:

1- قراءة هذه الأسئلة بتمعن، ووضع علامة (×) أمام الإجابة التي ترى أنها تناسبك، أو تغبر عن رأيك.

2- تتطلب بعض الأسئلة إجابات مفتوحة، وقد خصص لها الفروقات الملائمة، لذلك يجب منك عدم الوجد في كتابة ما تود الإجابة، أو ترغب في إضافته.

3- تتكرر كثيراً في هذه الاستبانة كلمة (برنامج) ومقصود بها هنا: مجموعة المعارف والخبرات والمهارات والمقررات التعليمية والمناهج ووسائل التدريس وكافة الأنشطة التي تتيحها الكلية أو المعهد في سبيل إعدادك لهيئة التدريس في مجال تعليم اللغة العربية لغير الناطقين بها.
**القسم الأول: بيانات شخصية:**

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<td>□ غير سعودي (فضلًا حدّد)</td>
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| الجنس: | □ سعودي |
|        | □ متزوج |
|        | □ عروس |

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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>□ 1993/هـ</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ مدرس</td>
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<tr>
<td>□ طالب في المرحلة الجامعية</td>
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<tr>
<td>□ وظيفة حكومية غير التدريس</td>
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<td>□ لكي أحصل على زيادة في راتبي</td>
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<td>□ استجابة لصيحة الآخرين</td>
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<td>العصر الحاضر.</td>
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<td>المقررات المتعلقة في البرنامج الحالي كافية لإعدادنا كديمة للدريس.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>إجمالى عدد الساعات المقررة في هذا البرنامج كافية.</td>
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<td>يتيح البرنامج الفرصة لنا لاستخدام المهارات اللغوية التي يحتاجها معلم اللغة العربية لغير الناطقين بها في الوقت الحاضر.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>هناك ترابط وكامل بين موضوعات التخصص المعنية في هذا البرنامج.</td>
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<td>يتيح هذا البرنامج فرصة لنا للإمام لأي نظام معرفي ممكن في مجال التخصص ومتابعة الموضوعات ذات الصلة به.</td>
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<td>مستوى التخرج من هذا البرنامج جيد في مجال التخصص.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>يسهل هذا البرنامج بدرجة كبيرة في إعدادنا كديمة للدريس.</td>
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<td>يكتب البرنامج الحالي مقومات الأخلاق الفاعلة وخصائص السلوك المهني لعلم اللغة العربية لغير الناطقين بها.</td>
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<td>يسهل المقررات المتوقعة والنفسية في هذا البرنامج بدرجة كافية في إعدادنا كديمة للدريس.</td>
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<td>يساعدنا هذا البرنامج على التمكن من إعداد أساليب وطرق متاحة للدريس.</td>
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<td>يدربنا البرنامج ما فيه الكفاءة على كيفية استخدام الوسائل التعليمية.</td>
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<td>يمكننا البرنامج على القيام بإجراء البحث العلمي في ميدان دراستنا.</td>
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<td>يجري أعضاء هيئة التدريس على استخدام وسائل تعليمية متعددة عند إلقاء محاضرهم.</td>
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<td>إن أساليب التقييم المتوقعة حاليةً في البرنامج كافية للقياس مستوى التحصيل العلمي لدينا.</td>
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<td>إن طريق الدروس المستخدمة حالياً في البرنامج مرضية بصفة عامة.</td>
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<td>إن الأنشطة غير المهمجة الموجودة حالياً في البرنامج مرضية إلى حد بعيد.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>يتيح هذا البرنامج الفرصة لنا لاستخدام ممارستنا الجديدة والعمل على تأثيرها.</td>
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<td>يساعدنا البرنامج الحالي على المشاركة بفعالية ونشاط في المجتمع الحاضر.</td>
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</table>
هل ترى أن هناك جوانب ضعيفة في هذا البرنامج؟

لا أعلم ( )
نعم ( )
لا ( )

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

هل ترى إمكانية معالجة تلك الجوانب في ضوء معرفتك بواقع البرنامج؟

لا أعلم ( )
نعم ( )
لا ( )

هل كان الجواب ب (نعم) أرجو التكريم بإدراج تلك الجوانب القوية حسب رأيك؟

هل هناك مقترات عامة تشعر برغبة قوية غير تعليمها نظراً لأهميتها في مجال تأهيلك لتدريس اللغة العربية للناطقين بها، ولكنها لا تدرس في البرنامج الحالي؟

لا أعلم ( )
نعم ( )
لا ( )

هل كان الجواب ب (نعم) فهل تذكر ما تستطيع منها؟

لا أعلم ( )
نعم ( )
لا ( )

هل هناك مشكلة في هذا البرنامج لإرشادنا إلى كيفية التعقب على نواحي الضعف لديك؟

عدد الدارسين في القاعة الواحدة كبير جداً مما يجعل قياس مدى تخصصنا العلمي صعباً بعض الشيء.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

هناك منهج ممنهج في هذا البرنامج لإرشادنا إلى كيفية التعقب على نواحي ضعف البرنامج الحالي.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

هل هناك مشكلة في تنظيم البرنامج الحالي بصفة عامة.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.

هل هناك مشكلة في تنظيم البرنامج الحالي بصفة عامة.

إذا كانت الإجابة ب (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها وإدراج.
القسم الثالث: المقتراحات:

1. يجب إدخال بعض الجوانب التطويرية على البرنامج الحالي لكي يحقق الأهداف المنشودة منه.
   - موافق  [  ]  لا أعلم  [  ]  غير موافق  [  ]

2. إن كانت الإجابة بأخلاقكم للمعارة رقم 1 أو 2 في أي جانب ترى ضرورة عمل التطوير والتحسين للبرنامج؟
   - في المقرر التعليمية  [  ]
   - في الجوانب التعليمية والإدارية  [  ]
   - في المقرر التعليمية المستخدمة  [  ]
   - في مدة البرنامج  [  ]
   - في طرق التدريس  [  ]
   - أخري (يرجى التحديد)  [  ]

3. كيف ترى أن يتم ذلك التطوير في الجوانب التي وضع عليها اختياركم آنفة؟
   (أرجو التذكير بذكر ذلك بإجبار) .........

4. هل تصبح أحدًا من أصدقائك بالدراسة في هذا البرنامج؟
   - نعم  [  ]
   - لا  [  ]

5. هل لديك مفروضات أخرى ترى أنها مستفادة في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية لغير الناطقين بها؟
   - نعم  [  ]
   - لا  [  ]

6. إن كان الجواب بـ (نعم) فهل تفضل بذكرها هنا؟

(انتهت الاستبانة وشكرًا جزيلًا لك على حسن تعاونك وطيب تجاوبك)
APPENDIX (F)

NAMES OF THE JURORS’ COMMITTEES INVOLVED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE VALIDATION
1. Professor. Abduh Al-Rajehy  
**Applied Linguistics**  
The Department for T AFL Teacher Preparation, the Institute for Teaching Arabic, (IMSIU).

2. Dr. Abdullah Al-Ouyshq  
**Applied Linguistics**  
Vice (Deputy) of the Research & Studies Administration, (IMSIU).

3. Dr. Abdurhman Al-Fozan  
**Applied Linguistics**  
Head of the Teachers' Preparation Unit,  
The Arabic Language Institute, (KSU).

4. Dr. Mohammed Al-Nasban  
**Applied Linguistics**  
Head of the Teacher Training Unit,  
The Arabic Language Institute, (KSU).

5. Dr. Saleh Al-Jameal  
**Educational Planning & Administration**  
Head of the Education Department, (IMSIU).

6. Dr. Omar Saed  
**Applied Linguistics**  
Deputy of the Department for T AFL Teacher Preparation,  
The Institute for Teaching Arabic, (IMSIU).

7. Dr. Omar Atari  
**Applied Linguistics**  
The Faculty of Languages & Translation, (KSU).

8. Dr. Osman Al-Furayh  
Associate Professor in the Arabic Language Department, the Faculty of Arts, (KSU).

9. Dr. Ghassan Bady  
Associate Professor in Curriculum & T AFL Methods and as a native language,
The Faculty of Education, (KSU).

10. Dr. Mosa Oqylan
Associate Professor in Curriculum & Teaching Methods of Arabic as a native language, the Faculty of Education (KSU).

11. Dr. Manea Al-Manea
Associate Professor in Curriculum & Teaching Methods,
The Education Department, (IMSIU).

12. Dr. Abdullah Al-Huzaymi
Assistant Professor in Curriculum & Teaching Methods of Arabic,
The Faculty of Education, (KSU).

13. Dr. Saleh Al-Wahaibi
Associate Professor in the Arabic Language Department,
The Faculty of Arts,( KSU).

14. Dr. Sultan Arishi
Assistant Professor in Applied Linguistics.
The Ministry of Higher Education.

15. Ms. Linda Peachey
M.Ed, PGCE, Approved RSA Teacher Trainer + Cambridge Examiner. Leeds Metropolitan University,U.K.

16. Mohammed Abanomai
M.A in Education. A teacher in General Education, SA.
APPENDIX (G)

SAMPLES OF INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
Interview questions with a sample of student respondents

1. Do you believe that the programme has prepared you adequately as a teacher?
2. In your view, does the programme attach sufficient importance to teaching practice?
3. Are you satisfied with the support you were given by your teaching practice mentor during teaching practice?
4. To what extent are you satisfied with the length of your programme?
5. How often are modern teaching aids used by your teachers in class?
6. Do you take part in extra-curricular activities? Why (not)?

Interview questions with a sample of teaching staff

1. Do you conduct self-evaluation of your teaching? How and when?
2. Are you aware of the existence of any in-service training opportunities in your place of employment?
3. Are you encouraged to take part in such training rounds, if there are any?
4. Can you explain why you do not use modern teaching aids in your teaching?
5. Do you think that the programme authorities encourage and support research activities?

Interview questions with some of the Deans of Faculties / Institutes

1. Do you conduct programme evaluations on a regular basis?
2. Why does the programme not accord more importance to the professional aspect of teacher preparation?
3. How important, in your view, are extra-curricular activities for your students and staff?
4. Are any efforts made to coordinate and cooperate with similar teacher preparation programmes?
APPENDIX (H)

THE STYLE OF THE OBSERVATION CARD
APPENDIX (I)

DETAILED RESPONSES OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS RELATIVE TO THEIR DEGREE OF SATISFACTION WITH PROFESSIONAL & SPECIALISATION COMPONENTS ON TPPA AND TPPB
Table 6.8 Students and teaching staff’s degree of satisfaction with specialisation aspects of programmes A & B

| ITEMS | TEACHERS | | | STUDENTS | | |
|-------|----------|---|---|----------|---|---|---|
|       | Agree % | Disagree % | Uncertain % | Agree % | Disagree % | Uncertain % | Agree % | Disagree % | Uncertain % | Agree % | Disagree % | Uncertain % | Agree % | Disagree % | Uncertain % |
| 1     | 67       | 70 | 10 | 20 | 13 | 20 | 45.6 | 62 | 33 | 11.1 | 21.4 | 26.9 |
| 2     | 66       | 60 | 10 | 20 | 14.8 | 52.8 | 72.5 | 29 | 12.5 | 18.2 | 15 |
| 3     | 82       | 60 | 10 | 20 | 7.7 | 66 | 76.1 | 16.7 | 9.6 | 17.3 | 14.3 |
| 4     | 49       | 60 | 31.4 | 30 | 19.6 | 40 | 48 | 49 | 38 | 11 | 14 |
| MEAN% | 66       | 62.5 | 20.4 | 15 | 13.7 | 17.5 | 51.1 | 64.6 | 31.9 | 17.8 | 16.9 | 17.5 |

1. The programme provides learners with opportunities to acquire language skills.

2. This programme provides students with the opportunity to acquire the widest possible range of knowledge in their specialisation and to follow it up with relevant subjects.

3. The level of graduating students from this programme is high.

4. There are strong links between the specialisation subjects on this programme.
Table 6.9 Students and teaching staff's degree of satisfaction with professional education aspects of programmes A & B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>TEACHERS</th>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree %</td>
<td>Disagree %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEAN%</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The programme prepares students to use teaching aids.
2. The programme helps students to learn professional ethics and rules of conduct.
3. The programme introduces the students to a wide variety of language teaching methods.
4. The students are trained in lesson planning and design.
5. The programme introduces the students to modern trends in language teaching.
6. The students are made familiar with a variety of assessment methods and evaluation.
7. The programme incorporates an introduction to theories of education and psychology.
APPENDIX (J)

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

MADE BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS FOR DEVELOPING

THEIR PROGRAMMES
This section presents the most important suggestions provided by the students and the teaching staff on the two programmes compared in this study. These suggestions have been classified and combined around a number of main issues raised by the students and teachers in order of frequency and are set in descending rank order.

**First: Suggestions made by the teaching staff members on programme A:**

1. The necessity to carry out regular programme evaluation studies.
2. Holding a number of symposiums and conferences in this area and encouraging the staff to participate in them.
3. Compelling teachers and students to speak and write in classical Arabic.
4. Reducing the number of students in lecture rooms.
5. Reducing the number of hours allocated for the non-specialisation component.
6. Providing in-service training opportunities for the teaching staff to familiarise them with the use of modern teaching aids, including computers.
7. Amending the current acceptance and admission conditions in order to select applicants with exceptional abilities, moral credentials and insisting that the candidates be highly competent in the Arabic language.
8. The programme should concentrate more on the practical side of teaching than on theory.
9. Non-curricular activities should be better promoted to increase participation in them.
10. The programme should be concerned with quality rather than quantity.
11. Reducing the administrative load on the teaching staff members.
12. Providing encouraging incentives for students who achieve high grades.
13. Creating closer links between the content of Arabic language subject taught in the schools and the current teacher preparation programmes.
14. Raising awareness of the necessity to select high calibre teaching staff to ensure high teaching standards.
15. Adopting a more flexible approach when applying official rules and regulations so as to better serve the students.
16. Encouraging students to take on more responsibility for their own progress by introducing a variety of optional subjects to suit their individual needs and objectives.
17. Assigning a separate, independent university term for teaching practice, preferably the final term of the programme.

**Secondly: Suggestions from staff members on programme B:**

1. Providing in-service training for the teaching staff in order to update their skills and keep them informed about modern trends in TAFL teaching.
2. Establishing independent buildings for these institutes so that they will be able to carry out their roles adequately.
3. Encouraging scientific research in TAFL teaching and offering incentives for those who carry them out.
4. Training teachers in the use of teaching aids.
5. Providing the teaching staff with opportunities to become familiar with computer-assisted teaching related to TAFL.

6. Increasing the hours allocated for teaching practice.

7. Injecting an adequate level of cultural education onto the programme.

8. Widening the opportunities for teachers and students’ involvement and participation in TAFL symposia and conferences.

9. Promoting links between similar programmes within SA and with other Arab countries.

10. Increasing awareness and support of teacher preparation for TAFL by the university authorities.

11. Creating an association of teachers of Arabic to non-native speakers in SA.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS PROVIDED BY THE STUDENTS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAMMES (A & B)

First: Suggestions made by programme A students:

1. Increasing the practical aspect of specialisation subjects.

2. Teaching staff selection should be more rigorous and based on high efficiency and competence.

3. Reducing the excessive reliance on traditional methods of teaching, such as lecturing, and fostering a more learner-centred approach to encourage the active participation of students.

4. Increasing the professional component subjects, particularly teaching practice.
5. Using the teaching aids in lectures to stimulate greater interest.

6. Assessment methods should be varied and not reward rote learning only.

7. Reducing the number of students in lecture rooms.

8. Reviewing the cultural component content and making it more relevant to the requirements of the students’ future career as teachers of Arabic.


10. Setting up counselling services to enhance students’ welfare.

11. Giving due consideration to students’ views and suggestions on curriculum matters and programme organisation.

12. Requiring that students and teaching staff should endeavour to use classical Arabic in their interactions to maximise opportunities for practice and exposure to it.

13. The programme content must be forward looking and compatible with the modern trends of teacher preparation programmes.

14. Breaking down the barriers between teachers and students and encouraging free communication.

Secondly: Suggestions made by programme B students:

1. Increasing the teaching practice period.

2. Developing the learning resources and facilitating students access to them.

3. Incorporating the learning of a foreign language, preferably English, to develop sensitivity to the learners’ experience in acquiring language skills.
4. Making it possible for students to take part in effective evaluation and assessment processes of their own achievements and of the programmes of learning they are undertaking, particularly with regard to teaching practice.

5. Providing non-native students with opportunities to develop and strengthen their linguistic skills through workshops or guidance in self-study methods.

6. Improving extra-curricular activities, taking into account students’ interests, ages and circumstances.

7. Making theory more relevant and closer to the practical aspects of teaching.

8. The use of colloquial Arabic during classes should be disallowed.
APPENDIX (K)

SAMPLE OF

HAND WRITTEN SUGGESTIONS & COMMENTS AS

REVEALED BY THE PARTICIPANTS
(3) كيف تكون أن تضم ذلك النموذج في الجوانب التي وقع عليها اختياركم آنفاً؟ (رجوع النص البكر ذلك بإجابة)
(4) يجب أن يكون هناك اختلاف بين برنامج إعداد معلم اللغة العربية لأبنائها وبين
برограм إعداد معلم العربية لغير الناطقين بها.
☐ موافق بشدة    ☐ موافق    ☐ غير موافق  ☐ غير موافق بشدة
(5) أي البرنامجين في رأيكم يجب أن يحظى بالنصب الأكبر من الاهتمام والعناية؟
☐ برنامج إعداد معلم العربية لأبنائها العرب
☐ برنامج إعداد معلم العربية لغير الناطقين بها
(6) هل لكم أن تفضلوا مشكورين بذكر بعض من جوانب الاختلاف بين البرنامجين
حسب معرفكم؟
(7) هل لديكم أي مقتراحات إضافية ترون أنها ستهم فعلاً في إنجاح البرنامج
الحالي؟
☐ نعم    ☐ لا
(8) إن كانت الجواب ب (نعم) فهل تفضلون بذكرها بالتضامن؟
(الجهة الإستثمارية وشكراً جزيلياً لكم على حسن تعاونكم وطلب تعاونكم)
هل لديك مقترات أخرى ترى أنها مساعدة في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية؟

لا ☐

إن كان الجواب بـ (نعم) فهل تفضل بذكرها هنا؟

١- ابتكر جملةً على مبادئ اللغة العربية للترم الأول من السنة الإعدادية:
٢- كم عدد التمارين؟
٣- كم عدد السور؟
٤- كم عدد الفصول؟
٥- كم عدد الدرجات؟
٦- كم عدد الواجبات؟
٧- كم عدد الأسئلة؟
٨- كم عدد المراجعات؟

(الإجابة: السؤال الأولى يجب أن يكون مبسطًا، والباقي يجب أن يكون مكتوبًا.)

(رأتى الاستناقة وشكرًا جزيلًا لك على جهودك وطلب تجاوبك)
هل لديك مقترحات أخرى ترى أنها ستهم في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية؟

لا

إن كان الجواب يـ (نعم) فهل تفضل ذكرها هنا؟

كلمة آخرة ...

(8) 

(انتهت الاستبانة وشكرًا جزيلاً لك على حسن تعاونك وطلب تجاوبك)

كلمة أخرى ...

(الدكتور)
هل لديك مفروضات أخرى ترى أنها ملهمة في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية؟

(7) لا

(8) وإن كان الاجابة بـ (نعم) فهل تفضل بذكرها هنا؟

1. مساعدة، مساعدة، ومساعدة. ماذا نحتاج إلى؟ ضبط ابتكار هناك.

2. رجوعي ومساعدتي. كيف نكون (كأولياء الأمور)؟ ماذا نحتاج إلى؟ ضبط ابتكار.

3. صيغة، صيغة، صيغة (ألا بأس)؟ ماذا نحتاج إلى؟ ضبط ابتكار.

(انتهت الإسئة وشكرًا جزيلًا لك على حسن تعاونك وطريق معاونك)
هل لديك مفروضات أخرى ترى أنها مستفهرة في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية لهؤلاء الناطقين بها؟

لا

إذا كان الجواب نعم فهل تفضل بذكرين هما:

1. معلومات إضافية متعلقة باللغة العربية:
2. ملاحظات أخرى:

(انهت الاستبانة وشكرًا جزيلا لتك على حسن تعاقنك وطلب تجاوبك)
هل لديك مقتراحات أخرى ترى أنها سيسهم في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية؟

- [ ] نعم

إن كان الجواب بـ (نعم) فهل تفضل بذكرها هنا؟

(8)

(انتهى الاستبانة وشكرًا جزيلًا لك على حسن تعاويك وطيب تجاويك)
هل لديك مساحة أخرى ترى أنها مثالية في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية؟

لا

إن كان الجواب (نعم) فهل تفضل بذكرها هنا؟

(انتهى الإستبانة وشكرًا جزيلًا لك على حسن تعاونك وطيب تجاوبك)
هل لديك معلومات أخرى ترى أنها مفيدة في تطوير البرنامج الحالي لإعداد معلم اللغة العربية؟

لا

إن كان الجواب نعم فهل تفضل بذكرها هنا؟

1. بذل جهداً كبيراً للتحسن اللغوي، خصوصاً مع الطلاب الذين يجدون صعوبة في التعبير عن أنفسهم.
2. اجعلي الناس يشعرون بالراحة، حتى لو كانت النقطة الحاسمة.

(انتهت الإستبانة وشكرًا جزيلًا لك على حسن تعاونك وطوب تجاوزك)